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School of Business and Economics

PSYCHOLOGICAL OWNERSHIP AND
ENTREPRENEURIAL DRIVE
At the Jyväskylä City Catering Unit

Authors: Outi Hyytinen
             Katja Salminen

Supervisor: Juha Kansikas

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Tiivistelmä

Työntekijöiden asenteet julkisella sektorilla ovat tärkeä alue tutkia. Tehokkuuden seuranta on korostunut, koska tulosten odotetaan kohenevan koko ajan sektorista riippumatta. Työasenteisiin voidaan vaikuttaa ainoastaan tietämällä niiden tämänhetkinen tila. Tämän mittaamista varten on tarve luoda työkalu, jolla asenteita työhön voidaan mitata. Yhdistämällä psykologisen omistajuuden ja yrittäjämäisen draivin käsitteet, luodaan sisäisen yrittäjyyden mittaristo. Tämän tutkimuksen pääongelmana on selvittää onko Kylän Kattauksessa sisäisen yrittäjyyden draivia.

Tutkimusmetodina käytetään kyselytutkimusta, jossa selvitetään kokonaistutkimuksella sisäisen yrittäjyyden mittariston toimivuutta käytännössä. Jyväskylän kaupungin ruokapalveluyksikkö, Kylän Kattaus toimii perusjoukkona.

Tulokset osoittavat, että psykologisen omistajuuden ja yrittäjämäisen draivin teorioihin pohjautuva sisäisen yrittäjyyden mittaristo toimii käytännössä ja sitä on mahdollista käyttää myös muissa Jyväskylän kaupungin yksiköissä. Sisäisen yrittäjyyden draivi ilmenee Kylän Kattauksessa henkilöstön tavoitteellisuutena sekä haluna itsensä kehittämiseen. Tulokset näyttivät työhön sitoutumisen olevan yksikön heikoin osa-alue.

Jotta työkalua voidaan tehokkaasti hyödyntää, tarvitaan lisätutkimusta motivaation ja kannusteiden vaikutuksesta sisäisen yrittäjyyden draiviin.

Asiasanat
Omistajuus, psykologinen omistajuus, sisäinen yrittäjyys, sisäisen yrittäjyyden draivi, sitoutuneisuus, työnilo, vastuullisuus, yrittäjyys, yrittäjämäinen draivi

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UNIVERSITY OF JYVÄSKYLÄ SCHOOL OF BUSINESS AND ECONOMICS

Authors	
Hyytinen Outi & Salminen Katja	
Name	
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Abstract

It is crucial to undertake further research on the attitudes of employees toward work in the public sector, due to the importance of efficacy. The latter has been emphasized because of the rise in follow-ups. The only way to affect attitudes is through enhancing awareness of the current surrounding context. In this Master's thesis, we seek to create a tool for measuring attitudes toward work. The intrapreneurial drive tool is based on the notions of psychological ownership and entrepreneurial drive. The main objective is to clarify the following research question: does intrapreneurial drive exist among the employees of Kylän Kattaus?

In this study, a quantitative survey will constitute the research method. Also, the usability of the intrapreneurial drive -index will be analyzed. Our target population is Kylän Kattaus, the catering unit of the City of Jyväskylä.

The results show that the intrapreneurial drive -index is usable and can be formulated and modified to other units of the City of Jyväskylä as well. In Kylän Kattaus, an intrapreneurial drive exists among the employees, including goal orientation and self -development. The weakest intrapreneurial dimension is the commitment toward work.

However, in order to use the tool effectively, more research is required on the impact of employees' motivations and inclination toward intrapreneurial drive.

Key words	
Commitment, entrepreneurial drive, entrepreneurship, intrapreneurial drive, intrapreneurship, joy of work, ownership, psychological ownership, responsibility	
Place of storage	
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1   INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the thesis

Interest in this research topic stemmed from a project initiated by the University of Jyväskylä and the City of Jyväskylä. This project sought to find a tool to measure intrapreneurial attitude amongst the City of Jyväskylä personnel. The City of Jyväskylä names intrapreneurship as one of their organizational values; however, they had no tools for measuring and analysing such behaviour. It is important for organisations to have the capacity to analyse intrapreneurial drive among their employees. In addition, it is interesting to determine if this kind of attitude is possible in public organisations. Universities serve a variety of functions; however, one of their most important is to research, creating new information. These activities not only influence the area of study, but the whole economy as well, which, in turn, impacts society. Furthermore, these concepts are important and interesting to analyze in the public sector context.

The City of Jyväskylä wants to develop their organizational capabilities and train personnel; therefore, intrapreneurial knowledge and the tools to measure it are needed. The City of Jyväskylä employs over 5000 people, making it the biggest employer in Jyväskylä. The City, as an organization, is like a large company. It owns several sectors, including: land; real estate; forests; and all public services, such as schools, geriatrics, and food services. To transition into a "large company" it needs intrapreneurial drive amongst its employees to be profitable in today's changing economic environment.

Intrapreneurial characteristics can be found, in most people, as early as childhood. However, in some cases, these characteristics are suppressed, limiting their development. In turn, these people find it difficult to accept intrapreneurial attitude later in life. Nevertheless, if an atmosphere supports intrapreneurial behaviour, these repressed characteristics can be retrieved. For those able to use intrapreneurship throughout their life, intrapreneurial drive is easier to achieve in the working environment. Explaining intrapreneurial attitude towards actions is best done in an entrepreneurial context. Hence, this study will develop intrapreneurial drive, as a concept, through the context of psychological ownership and entrepreneurial drive. Intrapreneurial behaviour seems to be one of the personal qualities that one can practise and de-

velop during one's lifetime, however, some aspects of intrapreneurial drive cannot be attained or developed, one either has them or one does not.

1.2 Purposes and research problem of the study

This thesis conceptually analyses psychological ownership (PSO) and entrepreneurial drive (EDR) to formulate the concept of intrapreneurial drive (IDR). These concepts are very much presented in the way people work. They reflect the motivation, feelings and habits of work and they also impact thinking on work. Psychological ownership is linked to psychology, but it also affects entrepreneurial work via working habits. Hence, it is important to know how people feel as psychological owners. Our research attempts to determine how to link these two concepts together. The Intrapreneurial Drive index will be evaluated through empirical testing. The usability of the Intrapreneurial Drive index will also be analyzed. Thus, the main problem of this study is:

Does Intrapreneurial Drive exist among the employees of Kylän Kattaus?

It is important to determine if legal ownership is the only means of feeling that "this job is mine". If so, what are the greatest motivators of public organisations? How does one integrate intrapreneurial drive into work attitudes? Previously in the public sector, long-term employment contracts were common. It was not unusual for an individual to stay with the same employer for 20 plus years. In these situations, commitment and loyalty to the employer are an integral part of the working relationship. However, in today's changing society, short-term working contracts are commonplace; thus, commitment is not as easy to achieve, from either the employer or the employees. Generally, the employer failed to ensure life-long working places, resulting in employees losing loyalty to their employers (Joensuu, 2006). In these times people need to find new motivators to keep intrapreneurial drive high. Intrapreneurial Drive index is one tool to measure commitment and joy of work. In addition, it shows possible areas where barriers, challenges and/or encouragements exist.

1.3 Structure of the thesis

This research consists of seven chapters. In part one, we define the purpose of the research and describe the reasons behind conducting this research. Our research problem and the aim of the study are also presented in the first chapter. The second chapter introduces the method and the methodology of this study. This section includes the specific reasons behind the research as well as an explanation of the quantitative research method. Thirdly, we discuss the theoretical framework of this study, introducing one of the key concepts: psychological ownership. This chapter defines the basic theories around psychological ownership and introduces different concepts of ownership, such as responsible and legal ownership. Chapter four explains entrepreneurial drive as another main concept in which entrepreneur and entrepreneurship are defined. Next, entrepreneurial drive is explained through the typical characteristics of entrepreneurs. In the fifth section, we present a new concept of intrapreneurial drive, created through the previous concepts; thus, an introduction to the model of the intrapreneurial drive is also necessary. We also discuss how we determined that a new concept was necessary to explain intrapreneurship in the public sector. The sixth chapter contains the results of the survey, the demographic data, and the main statistics of the questionnaire. We introduce the methods with which we analyse and interpret the data. With the help of factor analysis, we create five compact groups from the all the variables. The final chapter concludes with a discussion of the theoretical framework and the survey, as well as our suggestions for further research.

2   METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

In order to generalize the results of intrapreneurial drive, our study utilizes a quantitative method survey. Quantitative research makes it possible to compare participant responses with theoretical framework. This survey allows for the possibility of generalisation, thus, interpreted numbers are possible to measure and compare. Employees of the Kylän Kattaus constituted our target population. At the time of our study, Kylän Kattaus employed 171 people, so the target population was quite large. However, this research is an overall study; therefore, this thesis is based on the total study. The results were analysed with the SPSS program. We used factor analysis as an analysing tool; hence, strengthening our theoretical framework.

2.1 Key concepts of the study

Our research concentrates on two main concepts: psychological ownership and entrepreneurial drive. Our theoretical framework focuses on defining the concepts, meaning that we must analyse the factors behind psychological ownership and entrepreneurial drive, as well as analyse them as research objects in and of themselves. The theoretical framework aims to determine the meaning of these concepts and their definitions, as well as use these meanings as the background of our survey and as the tool measuring intrapreneurial drive. We collected information from different scholarly sources: mostly, research articles, books and other publications.

The basic concept of the study is to clarify what is behind intrapreneurial drive, how it exists and how it will be seen. Joy and commitment toward work are the first visible signals of possible intrapreneurial drive. It is impossible to work intrapreneurially if one does not enjoy one's work. Joy of work is exhibited through good spirit and cooperation. Commitment towards an organization can only occur after this joy is established. The model of the "Reinforcing loop of triangle" Koiranen (2007b) explains the main thoughts of this study. (See figure1) We agree that 'commitment', 'responsibility' and 'goal orientation' are the result of the 'joy of the work'.
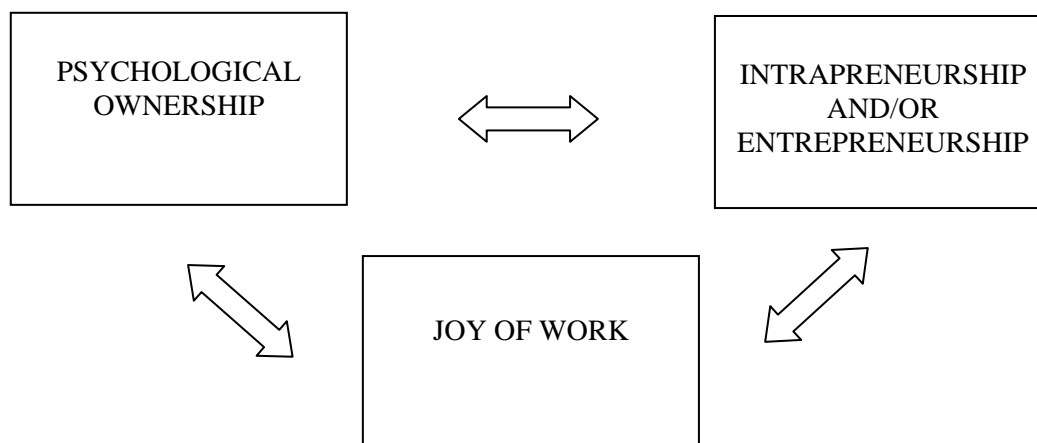
Figure 1 Reinforcing loop of triangle (Koiranen 2007b, 20)

When defining intrapreneurial drive as a concept, psychological ownership and entrepreneurial drive importantly relate to intrapreneurial drive. The motives of employees also have an impact on working attitudes and the intrapreneurial mindset, but this study does not concentrate on those motivational aspects—there is a whole host of research focusing on basic human motives and the field of motivation studies. Instead, the main research aim is to clarify two main concepts and to create a new concept: intrapreneurial drive. The second aim of the research is to assess the quality of our questionnaire and to determine if it gives relevant information on the existence of intrapreneurial drive.

2.2 Kylän Kattaus as the target population

This survey was developed for the catering service unit of the City of Jyväskylä. The data was collected using a survey method. Our questionnaire was delivered via the manager to all positions of Kylän Kattaus. Employees were given a response time of two weeks, beginning in February 2007. Kylän Kattaus, as a unit, was chosen based on the high number of possible respondents as well as on their own interest toward a survey of this kind.

The questionnaire was made easy to answer for respondents. We worked out the questionnaire, demographic information and the claims, which were based on theories. The questionnaire contained 65 claims based on the chosen theories of psychological ownership and entrepreneurial drive. The claims were grouped under three main categories: Employee, Working

community and Nearest supervisor/manager, which structured the form. The survey concentrates on employees' point of view, which is structured under eight categories. The titles were based on theories of 'responsibility', 'need for achievement', 'innovativeness' and 'creativity', 'commitment', 'risk-taking ability', 'life-long learning', 'self-identity' and 'joy of work'. The last two main categories; 'Working community' and 'Nearest supervisor/manager' were not important for our research, but the information is "good to know" knowledge for the City of Jyväskylä. The scale on the form was a Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 (totally disagree) to 5 (totally agree). We relied on previous research, conducted by the City of Jyväskylä, for determining demographic information. This information also allows for the possibility of comparing results between the two surveys. After that manager of Kylän Kattaus contributed detailed information on the unit, thus, the demographic data was formulated exactly for Kylän Kattaus.

The previous survey, completed by the City of Jyväskylä, was conducted for the first time in autumn 2006 for the entire personnel of the City of Jyväskylä. This survey received 3132 respondents and the rate of respondents was 64%. The purpose of this research was to get "the big picture" of the conditions and development of the working community. In addition, the City also strove to create a tool for the personnel, creating the possibility of getting comparable results between different units. The City plans to conduct this personnel survey every year. In comparison, our questionnaire concentrates more on the intrapreneurial aspect of the work, although the City of Jyväskylä questionnaire was based on developing whole working environments. This unit's interest in our survey came from the results of the previous research conducted by the City of Jyväskylä.

2.3 Structure of the questionnaire

The concepts of psychological ownership and entrepreneurial drive as motives resulted from previous theories. After determining concrete findings, we created claims based on the main theories behind these findings. From these claims, we shaped eight different patterns; thus, inside every pattern we defined possible theoretical claims.

Our first aim was to organize patterns based on theories; however, we later decided to set claims in a way easier for respondents to answer. We then combined all the claims based on

psychological ownership and entrepreneurial drive theories under eight new categories. Titles related to psychological ownership and entrepreneurial drive claims. Two outsiders tested the questionnaire, commenting on the claims. We were then able to make changes to improve the survey. The questionnaire was divided into demographic variables (gender, age group, quality of employment, working years, occupational position, unit, size of unit and the three main motivators), claims related to the employee, working community and nearest supervisor/manager. The employee section contained the headlines 'responsibility', 'goal-orientation', 'innovativeness and creativity', 'commitment', 'challenges and risk-taking propensity', 'life long learning', 'me as a worker' and 'joy of work' (See table 1).

The first connection between the two theories, psychological ownership and entrepreneurial drive, was the theme 'Responsibility,' which seemed to be remarkable when opening these concepts. From a psychological ownership point of view, responsibility seems to connect with self- identity. This means that individuals take responsibility for their actions, emotions and feelings of commitment, as well as towards various other targets. Responsibility, from an entrepreneurial aspect, involves taking responsibility from a legal and economical standpoint, as well as for other entrepreneurial actions, like propensity of taking risks. In the questionnaire, the claims under the 'Responsibility' pattern include: responsibility for decisions, independent working habits, renewing working tasks and working independency. Authors Koiranen 2004, Hall 2005, Melin, Brundin & Samuelson 2005 have each been used to create this pattern of responsibility.

The second pattern, called 'Goal- orientation', expresses efficacy from a psychological ownership side and its development and need for achievement from an entrepreneurial drive side. Under the 'Goal- orientation' pattern, claims are placed relating to: setting goals, working hard, and competition orientation. Goal orientation is closely related to intrapreneurial drive characteristics. This pattern is heavily based on works of McClelland 1965, Bird 1989 and Koiranen 2006.

The third pattern reveals 'Innovativeness and Creativity', which, in Psychological ownership, is interrelated to affectivity and, in entrepreneurial drive, innovativeness and creativity--which are typical characteristics for entrepreneurs. This pattern contains claims that measure skills in problem situations, initiative making and innovativeness and creativity in different situations. The authors behind innovativeness and creativity theories are Drucker 1985, Pinchot 1986,

Bird 1989, deBono 1992, Gibb 1995, Filipczak 1997, Brodrick 1997, Bygrave & Minniti 2000, Antonic & Hisrich 2001, Martins & Terblanche 2003 and Kansikas 2004. Organisations with intrapreneurial drive need persons highly creative and innovative.

The fourth pattern is 'Commitment'. Psychological ownership theories describe "having a place" as an important motive to fulfilling this pattern: when an individual feels he or she is part of the organization, commitment plays an important role in their work life. From the entrepreneurial point of view, commitment is clearly present when an entrepreneur owns the firm and is committed to the decisions. Intrapreneurial people, then, are committed to their personal goals through organizational values. The commitment pattern includes evaluation in the values, spirit, work tasks, development the environmental spirit and commitment to career. Authors valuable to this pattern are: Isaacs 1993, Pierce, Kostova & Dirks 2001, Rashid, Sambasivan & Johari 2002 and O'driscoll, Coghlan & Pierce 2006.

The fifth pattern is 'Challenges and Risk- taking'. Risk-taking is one of the main characteristics of entrepreneurship. In this study, the Risk-taking dimension does not play a major role. Because the questionnaire deals only with public sector, where risk taking is limited according to hierarchy and bureaucracy, it is unimportant to target group. This pattern evaluates personnel's abilities to take risks under limits of the public sector as well as the challenges of working tasks. Authors McClelland 1961, Brockhaus 1980, Horwitz 1985, Zahra 1991, Das & Teng 1997 and Littunen 2000 were influential to this pattern.

The sixth pattern of the questionnaire is called 'Development and Life-long Learning'. Psychological ownership identifies self-identity as a main motive to act. Self-identity includes the willingness to develop and learn, all the time. Entrepreneurs must develop new and innovate ideas constantly, so they can be in the "first wave". Intrapreneurs will follow this intuition and strive to develop. They are people who desire to cultivate themselves, set goals and attempt to achieve them. Authors cited in this pattern include: Bateman & Crant 1993, Seibert, Crant & Kraimer 1999, Shane & Venkatamaran 2000, Crant 2000 and Kuratko & Hodgetts 2001.

The seventh pattern is called 'Me as a Worker'. It includes: personal sacrifices, importance of the work, identification and role of work. This pattern is used to understand general aspects of individual feelings. The theory of psychological ownership emphasises self-identity and independence as a part of the intrapreneurial drive. From an entrepreneurial point of view, a con-

nection exists between personal sacrifices and the meaning of work for individuals. However, work is a major part of intrapreneur's life. Freedom and the ability to make one's own decisions are important and also affect the working habits of an individual. Authors cited for the definitions of this pattern are: Rotter 1966, Wilpert 1991, Dittmar 1992, Crant 2000 and Koiranen 2006.

The final pattern, 'Joy of Work', includes respect towards work and claims different points of view in regards to co-operation, appreciation and purpose of work. Theories of psychological ownership and entrepreneurial drive describe the emotions, spirit of work and the entire working environment. It can be said that work plays a major role for intrapreneurs, thus, this dimension evaluates the meaning of work for them. Authors quoted in this section are: Johannisson 1999, Pierce, Kostova & Dirks 2001 and Koiranen 2007. In conclusion, commitment, responsibility and goal orientation are the results of enjoying one's work.

Table 1 Quoted authors connected to eight main theories

Theory	Authors
Responsibility	Koiranen 2004, Melin, Brundin & Samuelsson 2005, Hall 2005
Need for achievement	McClelland 1965, Bird 1989, Koiranen 2006
Innovativeness and creativity	Drucker 1995, Pinchot 1986, Bird 1989, deBono 1992, Gibb 1995, Filipczak 1997, Brodrick 1997, Bygrave & Minniti 2000, Antonic & Hisrich 2001, Kansikas 2004
Commitment	Isaacs 1933, Drucker 1985, Pierce, Kostova & Dirks 2001, Rashid, Sambasivan & Johari 2002, O'driscoll, Pierce & Coghlan 2006
Challenges and risk-taking	McClelland 1961, Brockhaus 1980, Zahra 1991, Das & Teng 1997, Littunen 2000
Life long learning	Bateman & Crant 1993, Seibert, Crant & Kraimer 1999, Shane & Venkatamaran 2000, Crant 2000, Kuratko & Hodgetts 2001.
Me as a worker	Rotter 1966, Wilpert 1991, Dittmar 1992, Crant 2000, Koiranen 2006;
Joy of work	Johannisson 1999; Pierce, Kostova & Dirks 2001, Koiranen 2007

3 PSYCHOLOGICAL OWNERSHIP

When individuals experience psychological ownership, they may feel as though they are the "psychological principals", or stewards. Many different definitions exist to explain psychological ownership depending on the context. Psychological ownership can be seen as an organizational (Van Dyne & Pierce 2004; Pierce, Kostova & Dirks 2001) and psychological ownership of a family business (Koiranen 2006; Hall 2005). Job satisfaction and commitment reflects psychological ownership for an organization. The more employees feeling psychological ownership towards an organization, the more people satisfied and committed to an organization. Pierce, Rubenfeld and Morgan (2001) examined the relationship between psychological ownership for an organization and employee work attitudes (organizational commitment, job satisfaction and concept of self) with two employee working behaviours (performance and organization citizenship) (Van Dyne et al. 2004, 440). Psychological ownership in the family business context is linked to responsibility. Thus, Koiranen (2007a) has defined psychological ownership, in this context, as the psychologically experienced phenomenon in which owners, managers and employees develop the possessive feeling that the family firm is "mine" or "ours".

Pierce, Rubenfeld and Morgan (1991, 408) first introduced the concept of psychological ownership (of an organization). Feelings of ownership, then, are connected by two distinct, yet interrelated forms: feelings of ownership for the job and feelings of ownership for the organization. These are not synonymous, but play distinct roles in the development and maintenance of work attitudes and behaviour (O'driscoll, Pierce and Coghlan 2006, 408). Different kinds of contexts alter the definitions of this ownership--psychological ownership can be a feeling that "something belongs just to me". This feeling reflects the relationship between the target and the owner of the target. Its conceptual core is the sense of possession towards a particular target, the target may be: the products of one's labour, toys, home, land or significant others.

According to Belk (1988) and Dittmar (1992), psychological ownership reflects a relationship between an individual and an object (material or immaterial in nature), in which the object is experienced as having a close connection with the self, becoming part of the 'extended self'. The extended self can be defined as a central construct, explaining a variety of consumer and human behaviour (Belk 1988, 160). Emotionally, people tend to feel possessive and have the

need to control the object. Melin, Brundin and Samuelsson (2005, 13) explain: "... what is mine becomes (in my feelings) a part of ME". The state of psychological ownership is complex and is comprised of a cognitive and affective core. It is a condition one becomes aware of through intellectual perception. It also reflects an individual's awareness, thoughts, and beliefs regarding the target of ownership. According to Pierce, Kostova & Dirks (2003, 86) psychological ownership is the possessive feeling that some object is mine or ours. It is also the psychologically experienced value or attitude resulting in the development of possessive feelings for the target (Van Dyne et al. 2004, 439). If the ownership experience is financially rewarded, an employee's organizational commitment will increase. Success and appreciation at work constitute one of the basic human needs; appropriately, financial rewards ensure an employee feels appreciated and meaningful to the organization. In other words, an organization's commitment is shown to employee through financial rewards. Thus, Pierce et al. (1991, 130) propose that under certain conditions financial ownership leads to psychological ownership and to an integration of employee and organizational interests.

Psychological ownership is the result of ownership rights, including: the right to financial value (profits), the right to control and the right to get information (Pierce et al. 1991, 125). Pierce also suggests that motivation and positive behavioural responses are the result of psychological ownership, organizational commitment and the structure of the organization (Bartkus 1997, 335). An employee who has psychological ownership is more motivated and committed to organization. When commitment is mutual, from employees' side as well as from employers' side, shared information and right to control are in harmony. In addition, we argue that confidence is also easier to achieve if organization and employees' commitment rates are high. Confidence can be seen in positive behavioural responses and good motivation.

Psychological ownership can be distinguished from other constructs based on its conceptual core and motivational bases (Pierce et al. 2001, 299). Psychological ownership fulfils three basic human motives: efficacy, self-identity and having a place (home). Psychological ownership is rooted in and facilitated by these three motives. The Motives of *efficacy and effectance* reflect, in large part, the need to be in control. In addition, observers find that individuals want to satisfy their innate need to be effective (Pierce et al. 2001, 300). These feelings of efficaciousness often result from feeling capable in specific areas (Van Dyne et al. 2004, 443). For example, dressing in a comfortable suit makes one feel powerful in front of an audience, resulting in a presentation more controlled and secure. *Self-identity* fulfils the need to express

one's identity to others, an important aspect in proving one's own abilities and developing the self through ownership. In order for an employee to commit to an organization, a clear sense of self-esteem must be present. Possessions and a sense of ownership help one to know the self (Van Dyne et al. 2004, 443). *Having a place* is a third motive in feeling psychological ownership. Feeling, that one "belongs somewhere" satisfies the employee that he or she devoted enough energy and resources to find potential targets to become their home (Pierce et al. 2001, 300). For example, one may consider not only their house their home, but the entire neighbourhood. This broader conception of home consists of memories, places, people, experiences and whole property as well and those are thought to be part of home and life. When employees experience psychological ownership, they are able to satisfy these basic needs (Van Dyne et al. 2004, 442).

Pierce considers three more definitions when he talks about psychological ownership. First, *commitment*, or, an individual's sustaining of membership in a particular organization. Organizational commitment asks 'why should I maintain my membership in this organization?' The answer could be "because I want to, I need to or I ought to" (Meyer & Allen 1997). Commitment is a part of psychological ownership because it strengthens the feelings of psychological ownership. The more a person feels belonging toward a place, the more powerful the feeling of psychological ownership. Second, *Identification* is defined by using element of organisational identity to define oneself. Organizational identification asks 'who am I?' The organizational identification is stronger when added to the social identification of organization. A human needs to be capable in a specific field, so people identify to the organization and to their work. Third, *Internalization,* defines the adoption of the values and goals of the organisation (Pierce et al. 2001, 305). Internalization asks 'what do I believe?' (Van Dyne et al. 2004, 443). The values and goals of the organization should be acceptable for employees, so internalization can be possible. If the goals and values do not meet employee standards, internalization is difficult to achieve.

3.1 The individual feelings of psychological ownership

Psychological ownership satisfies certain very basic human needs and motives, but not in the same way for different individuals (Koiranen 2007a, 6). For example, some individuals can feel psychological ownership through the place (working room) and some can feel the PSO

through their own work or working tasks. Feelings of psychological ownership can differ or change—for example, when changing places of employment—however, it often takes for this exchange to take place. Motives change with changing situations and life cycles. In life unexpected changes can happen, which can radically affect human motives. For example, changing one's work place to another (place changes), having children (self- identity changes) or changes in organisation (efficacy and effectance change) are actions in everybody's life. Psychological ownership can evolve slowly over time, i.e. it does not disappear very quickly. People can carry the feeling of PSO even in their memories. For example, in project work, one can feel psychological ownership towards objects for certain, specified time (Koiranen 2007a, 7-8).

According Furby (1976), feelings of ownership are a natural part of the human condition. Psychological ownership reflects a relationship between the individual and the target of ownership in which the object is experienced as having a close connection with the self, being an part of the extended self. The core of psychological ownership is the very feeling of possession: "what do I experience as mine?" It is or it becomes my extended self; it is or it becomes part of me (Koiranen 2007a, 7). Psychological feeling of ownership can be shared by a large number of people (a married couple, a family, a team), in which case psychological ownership becomes somewhat more socio-psychological in nature. Psychological ownership can exist along with legal and economic ownership or without them (Koiranen 2007a, 6). Psychological ownership is not quickly transferable and it evolves gradually. Time is an important dimension in this matter; psychological ownership also remains in memories (Koiranen 2007b, 18).

Emotional feelings in psychological ownership can be positive or negative. Positive emotions include: a sense of belonging, self-confidence and pride of the organization. Negative emotions are feelings of frustration and imprisonment. It is possible that negative feelings can, at some point, turn into positive feelings. For example, frustration can create new ideas and new visions. In addition, there are many cases of employees so devoted, that they feel too much responsibility for their actions. If person is too dedicated, they may stress about things less important things. This undue stress can impact to worker's health or ability to work.

In family businesses, not just the entrepreneur has a stake in the business. Family business entrepreneurs often experience different kind of ownerships: psychological, legal, financial, responsible and socio-symbolic. The definitions between the dimensions of ownerships are

connected with each other. After all, entrepreneurs, as well as family members, can undergo psychological ownership. For example children, involved in the family business may feel psychological ownership towards the firm, even if they do not legally own any part of it. If a family's business is going well, it has tremendous impacts on the children, via the feelings of the entrepreneur. That feeling of ownership can also be a kind of psychological ownership.

3.2 Psychological ownership as a part of responsible ownership

Psychological ownership can function as an additional aspect of responsible ownership. Hall (2005, 3) defines psychological ownership as a state of mind--of feelings and attitudes--in addition to the legal objective dimension. Essentially, one's feeling of possessiveness and psychological connection to an object. Melin et al. (2005, 13) define psychological ownership as perceived responsibilities and rights. The responsibilities are expressed in emotions such as protectiveness, caring, nurturing, being prepared to make sacrifices and putting one's full energy and time into the family business (Lambrecht & Uhlaner 2005, 6).

Psychological ownership allows for the possibility of identity claims, and results in certain feelings, such as pride, happiness and satisfaction. As a natural consequence of psychological ownership and its secondary meaning, the creation of identity and self-identity, a loss of possession has a major impact on an individual, which may diminish psychological ownership (Pierce et al. 2001, 300).

Hall (2005, 4) analyzes the sources of psychological ownership, which are: the ability to use and to control the use of objects, an intimate knowledge of the target (leading to a fusion of the self with the object) and self-investment into the target. The more one invests personal values, time and energy in the firm, the more intimate the firm will become. The more the firm becomes a representation of the self, the stronger the impetus for control, and the stronger the psychological ownership of the firm (Lambrecht et al. 2005, 6). Responsible ownership has advantages like rights, wealth, power, source of motivation and pleasure. Social roles may, depending on the contexts, be interpreted as either advantages or disadvantages, and ownership may be interpreted as a territory that can be held or a duty that must be undertaken (Aminoff, Blom, Pärssinen, Helkama, Koiranen, Nyman and Paasikivi 2004, 16). Responsible ownership of a company is a position, role and task, which includes risks, duties

and worries. By accepting and bearing responsibility for these situations in a financially and ethically sustainable way, the owner has a legitimate right to use power, accumulate wealth and experience the joy resulting from ownership (Aminoff et al. 2004, 18).

3.3 General discussion about ownership

Ownership is a diverse concept, in which there are different forms of employee ownership-- for example, social ownership, worker/producer cooperatives, direct ownership and employee stock ownership plans--each consisting of different facets of employee ownership and employee control (Pierce et al. 1991, 124). However, how and what kind of ownership feelings people might have depends heavily on point of view and personality.

Pierce et al. (1991) suggest that the ownership construct is multidimensional in nature. Formal ownership is commonly defined in terms of three basic and fundamental rights, each of which may be more or less present in certain employee ownership contexts. The rights, frequently associated with ownership, are: firstly, the right to possess some share of the owned object's physical being and/or financial value; secondly, the right to exercise influence (control) over the owned object; and lastly, the right to information about the status of that which is owned (Pierce et al. 1991, 125).

Owners generally take care of, and have pride in, that which is owned. According to Kao et al. (2005), ownership is the strongest motivation of human action (Koiranen 2007b, 2). If one mismanages property, it cannot stay in good condition. Are employers and/or employees willing to take as equally good care of the working place? If the work place is the most important means of income, than it should also be one of the most important places to take care of.

According to Taguiri and Davis (1982), ownership, in family business context, is one of the three systems identified in the three-circle model of family business, along with the business and family. Ownership, as a part of family business, has legal, but also other, responsibilities. In family business, there may be family members who have no legal ownership of business, but still worry about the management of the business. Entrepreneurs feel psychological ownership just in the legal ownership. If one has this feeling, sans legal ownership, it is identified as psychological ownership. Legal ownership, then, is defined as ownership with financial

responsibility and legal risk. In entrepreneurial contexts, psychological ownership is linked to responsibility and legal ownership. The feeling of ownership comes straight from the legal owner's aspect. Working in the public sector, or being an employee, it is challenging to have such a feeling of ownership. That is why at the public sector there are less encouragements and motivators for ownership than in the private sector. While in the private sector shared options or bonuses encourage people, in public sector of the same kinds of behaviour models are unusual.

3.3.1 Psychological view to ownership

Because possession is linked to human behaviour, several fields of science take an interest in researching feelings of ownership. The psychological aspects of ownership have been explored by anthropologists, psychologists, social psychologists, geographers, philosophers, animal behaviourists, consumer behaviourists, historians, artists, and students of life-span development, among others (Pierce et al. 2003, 85). The feeling of ownership towards various objects has psychological and behavioural effects. The growth of possessions, for example, produces a positive and uplifting effect. Possessive reactions can occur, especially in threat of losing one's property. For example, when changing working place or home, an emphasis on feeling as if one is part of the place will occur. Parting with property, even it is planned may result in a loss of a sense of self.

Toddlers often display the inability to understand the separation between their own toys and others' toys, when they are similar. Amongst young children at play, one can often observe strong reactions--MY car, ME!--when a child picks up another's toy (Isaacs, 1933). According to Dittmar (1992), it is common for individuals to psychologically experience this same connection between self and various targets of possession, such as homes, automobiles, space, and other people (Pierce et al. 2003, 85). It can be said that home is an aspect of identity, and the place of employment may be seen as such, as well. Those close to an individual may also be "objects" of possession. One may experience jealousy towards some close friend, partner or even one's own children. While ownership is generally experienced as involving person-object relations, it can also be felt towards non-physical entities such as ideas, words, artistic creations and other people (Pierce et al. 2003, 86).

Belk suggests that individuals are defined by their possessions, which may be the most basic and powerful fact of consumer behaviour. This self-identification with things begins quite early in life; children learn to distinguish the self from environment and the self from others. "What I own feels like a part of me" (Mann 1991, 211). Emphasis on material possessions tends to decrease with age, but remains high throughout life, most clearly through self-expression via possessions (Belk 1988, 160). Sartre (1943/1969) in his treatise on "being and nothingness", notes that "to have" (along with "to do" and "to be") is one of the three categories of human existence and that "the totality of my possessions reflects the totality of my being … I am what I have … What is mine is myself" (Pierce et al. 2003, 85).

3.3.2 Cultural differences in psychological ownership

In the concept of psychological ownership, cultural differences should be taken into account. It is obvious that habits, behaviours, traditions, values and religion affect the experience of psychological ownership. Cultural effects are commonly described as a part of psychological ownership, which are affected by psychological ownership, and linked to concept of self (Pierce et al. 2003, 98).

According Erez and Early (1993) psychological ownership is linked to the concept of self; however, it is, in part, socially prescribed and affected by culture. Cross cultural psychology offers multiple conceptualizations of the self as a product of cultural values and beliefs; for example, the independent versus interdependent self (Triandis & Gelfand 1998, 118), dominating nature versus in harmony or humble to nature, 'doing' versus 'being' (Kroeber & Kluckhohn, 1952), and ascriptive- versus achievement- oriented (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998), among others (Pierce et al. 2003, 98). After all, psychological ownership is partly 'learnt' through socialization practices, which, again, are culturally determined. Psychological ownership is reflected in traditions, customs, norms and beliefs in a society; culture shapes the individual's self-concept and values with regard to control, self-identity, self-expression, ownership and property.

Cultural norms often shape people's expectations about the way things should be, and these expectations are not always congruent with an objective reality (Pierce et al. 1991, 127). When actual experiences are not congruent with these socialized ownership expectations, psychological ownership is likely to be weaker than under harmonizing conditions. For exam-

ple, employees' religion, attitudes, philosophy of life or cultural background define the interest of employees. Thus, cultural differences can commit employees to some thing or thought so tightly that it is almost impossible to act how employer requires.

Cultural differences must be taken into account when processing the concept of psychological ownership. There is compatibility between the type of the organizational culture and type of the organizational commitment required to motivate the employees of an organization. In order to motivate the employees, it may be necessary to determine the cultural type first, and then prescribe the appropriate commitment type to emphasise in an organization (Rashid, Sambasivan & Johari 2002, 724). Employers face the challenges of different cultures more often, largely due to globalization. Corporate culture and organizational commitments have an impact on performance. This means that certain types of corporate culture and organizational commitment could provide organisations with superior performance. For example, if the organisation has a bureaucratic culture, then there is a need to change the culture and select the appropriate commitment type for employees in the organisation (Rashid et al. 2002, 725).

3.4 Legal ownership

Legal ownership is based on social agreements like legislation; however, it is also a social construct. The right to own is a well-protected tradition, and can be regarded as the key axiom of market economy. Scope and limits can be derived from the laws and court decisions and legal ownership makes proprietary decision-making possible (Koiranen 2007b, 15).

Although possibly related, legal and psychological ownership differ in some significant ways. Primarily, legal ownership is recognized foremost by society, hence the rights that come with ownership are specified and protected by the legal system. In contrast, the individual, specifically, experiences and recognises psychological ownership. Consequently, it is the individual who manifests the assumed rights associated with psychological ownership. Legal ownership is easier to define than psychological ownership. Psychological ownership is more personal than legal ownership: the reactions and experiences of psychological ownership are personal and highly individualized. Pierce et al. (2003, 86) extend the idea of psychological ownership from an individual aspect. In addition, the concept of collective ownership has emerged, as a result of psychological ownership. This new dimension is often referred to as socio-

psychological ownership (Nordqvist 2007). It is also important to know that one may feel no psychological ownership, despite being the legal and financial owner. Moreover, other forms of ownership are possible, including social ownership and symbolic ownership (Koiranen 2007a, 6). Symbolic ownership most clearly occurs when a person is linked to a firm, without financial ownership, though he/she is the face of the company.

Absence of legal ownership and responsibilities towards the business might put limitations on the degree to which psychological ownership is felt (Hall 2005, 1). If one buys shares, or is part of the company, they become a legal owner, which fuels psychological ownership. This, then, may result in increased feelings of responsibility. Legal ownership, and the rights that accompany it, are specified and protected by the legal system (Hall 2005, 3). In an entrepreneurial context, the feeling of psychological ownership is more pronounced than in other working contexts. When one owns something concrete, one is more willing to make personal sacrifices for item; when one has financial responsibility, one is "forced" act legally just.

In a working environment, entrepreneurs own something; they have an entrepreneurial mindset and drive, even if is the work is sometimes hard; they have goals and aims to reach, necessary to keeping motivation. When entrepreneurs' incomes are based on their work activity, it is one the most important motivators. Even entrepreneurs' property is bound to enterprise. Entrepreneurs have legal ownership of their enterprises, meaning that they have duties, but also possibilities, which affect the management and future of the company. Being one's own boss is an important motivator—no one else controls what, when or how things should be done. In contrast, motivators at the public sector may be difficult to identify because of tight bureaucracy and limits of the work.

Entrepreneurs have long-term goals and they have entrepreneurial drive. This drive imbues many entrepreneurs with a strong need for success. Feelings, attitudes, motivations, interests and ambitions are the psychological emotions that incite action. In both legal and perceived states, ownership is associated with certain rights and responsibilities in relation to the target, including the right to obtain information regarding it as well as the right to meaningfully contribute to decisions made about it (Hall, 2005, 3).

3.5 Socio-symbolic ownership

Nordqvist (2007, 39) develops a theory of socio- symbolic ownership. He theorises that ownership can be channelled trough different actors and arenas in strategising and that this may change over time. A socio-symbolic ownership focuses more on social and symbolic aspects of ownership, as opposed to the more traditional legal, financial and structural rights and responsibilities of ownership. In this context we argue that psychological ownership is a part of the socio-symbolic ownership.

Responsibility for a target creates an ownership orientation. Individuals feel responsible, a result of feeling psychological ownership towards a target. Aminoff et al. (2004, 17) propose that responsible ownership is demonstrated by owner commitment to company continuity and development. The responsible owner is not a "simple" (i.e. passive) investor, but must also have personal commitment.

Robbins (1998) defines organization commitment as *"the degree to which an employee identifies with a particular organization and its goals, and wishes to maintain membership in the organization"*, while Wagner and Hollenbeck (1995) define organization commitment as *"identification with one's employer that includes the willingness to work hard on behalf of the organization and the intention to remain with the organization for an extended period of time"*. Owners' commitment may be seen as an attitudinal dimension of responsible ownership (Lambrecht et al. 2005, 6). However, commitment to an organization is mutual: employees should commit to the organization, as well as the organization committing to its employees. Under the before mentioned situation, both sides can behave confidentially, honestly and efficiently with each other. Similarly, common and shared values increase rates of commitment.

Psychological ownership is a new aspect of research at the public sector, especially in regards to the motivators, right attitudes and feeling that this working place is "only mine". Ideally, public sector employees will approach their work with the same kind of attitudes as entrepreneurs.

Rights and responsibilities are products of socially constructed conceptions regarding moral and legal action, specific to a certain place at a certain time. Essentially, rights and responsibilities are related to the social and cultural environment. Ownership, with its rights and responsibilities, can be shared between individuals and groups. Rights and responsibilities are based on ownership and can be transferred to people who are not legal owners (Koiranen 2007b, 26). Simply: employees' claims consist of the right to work and earn a salary; their responsibilities include the duty to perform at work as well as to complete required tasks. On the other hand, employers have the right to control and guide employees in their work, the responsibilities of paying salaries and managing resources.

Those with mental ownership display devotion to the work and take responsibility for tasks and others. They feel invaluable and work as though no one else could accomplish the tasks as well as them. Entrepreneurs, then, also have mental ownership, in addition to legal and responsible ownership. Psychological ownership is connected with entrepreneurial drive, which, together with the utilisation of dynamic capabilities, leads to innovative and entrepreneurial performance (Koiranen 2006, 112). Employees' attitudes tend to strongly affect their ability to work. These attitudes may be related to religion, culture or life-style, all of which lead to commitment.

Psychological ownership, as discussed above, is an integral part of an individual's experience of a possessive feeling. On the other hand, legal and economical dimensions of ownership are clearly explained and more formally defined. Socio-symbolic ownership concentrates on the social and symbolic aspects of ownership: logos, brands and colours, for example. Characteristics of psychological ownership are emotionally experienced and these characteristics are experienced in different ways. Psychological ownership can be felt in different ways between different people; it can be experienced jointly, by a larger number of people, like a married couple, family or team. In these cases, psychological ownership becomes somewhat more socio-psychological in nature (Koiranen 2007a, 6). However, the targets of ownership may be different: towards a place, towards work, towards colleagues or towards a team. The amount one invests towards the target of ownership depends, primarily, on the individual (See table 2).

Table 2 Types of ownership: a comparison (Modified from Koiranen 2007b, 22)

TYPE OF OWNERSHIP	CHARACTER	NATURE	ROUTES
LEGAL-ECONOMICAL	Socially constructed and institutionalized	Absolute, verifiable, easily, transferable	Social agreements, like law
PSYCHOLOGICAL	**Emotional**	**Relativistic Processual**	**Intimate knowing Controllability Self- investment**
SOCIAL i.e. socio psychological and socio symbolic	Socially constructed and/or internalized in the process of interaction	Relativistic Processual	Values, Symbols, Learned and shared meanings

4   ENTREPRENEURIAL DRIVE

Entrepreneurship forms the basis for entrepreneurial drive. Thus, entrepreneurial drive is the force that compels one to put effort into a business of one's own. This drive can stem from several different sources, with individually defined targets, such as money, success, values, dignity or independence. Entrepreneurial drive is associated not only with the need for power and control, but also the need to achieve. In the other hand, not all individuals find this drive in the same way; indeed, some may find the entrepreneurial drive by accident. After all, entrepreneurial drive leads to success, and through this, economic activity.

To understand entrepreneurial drive, one must understand the basics of entrepreneurship and the characteristics of entrepreneurs. This chapter will discuss these definitions and specifically deal with two schools of entrepreneurial thought: the trait model approach and the contingency approach. Additionally, this chapter will discuss the characteristics and motives of entrepreneurial drive.

4.1 Entrepreneurship as a part of society

Entrepreneurship is an important part of society. Entrepreneurship is a power and force that has several kinds of consequences. Effects of entrepreneurship are multidimensional, specifically affecting the entire economy via taxes, employment, development of society and wealth of states and families. The current globalization trend has increased competitiveness of companies and opened new markets. Observers find that the boundaries between the public and private sector have diminished. The privatisation of units within the public sector is the clearest example of this phenomenon. The need for high levels of has reached the public sector, helping to explain the trend of privatization.

The entrepreneur is the one who undertakes a venture, organizes it, raises capital to finance it, and assumes all, or a major portion of, the risk. Additionally, entrepreneurs act as the primary agents of change in a society (Burch 1986, 14.) Entrepreneurs create change, provide a variety of job opportunities, and serve as role models for new generations of entrepreneurs. The supply of entrepreneurial talent is to subject to a number of internal and external forces. Entrepreneurs are, to some extent, outcomes of genetics, family influences, peer pressure, cultural

conditions, educational systems, religion, and strength of the work ethic. Innovation is an important tool for the entrepreneur, allowing them to find something unique to fill a need or want. They spend a lot of time asking "what if?" and "why not?" Entrepreneurs are often the ones who go where others will not, having the courage to do that which others are afraid of. The tendency towards innovation is a propensity to introduce new things, effect change, and approach bold ideas. The person who is extremely reluctant to guess, make assumptions, brainstorm or accept anything until all the boundaries are known and completely measured will feel insecure in undertaking such a venture. (Burch 1986, 14-16)

It is possible to differentiate between two different schools of thought on entrepreneurship: the "trait" model and the "contingency" model. The trait model assumes that entrepreneurs share a type of personality that explains entrepreneurial behaviour. According to Brockhaus and Horwitz (1985), a number of psychological traits have been studied in an attempt to differentiate entrepreneurs from other people. Since an entrepreneur is a personality type, "a state of mind", it does not go away; in the other words "Once an entrepreneur, always an entrepreneur" (Gartner 1988, 12). Entrepreneurs have the drive to act, consistently creating new ideas. The following text will introduce two schools of thoughts; however, this research only utilizes the trait approach to entrepreneurship.

4.1.1 The trait approach

Several researchers conceptualise the many different personal traits of entrepreneurs. The central issue in trait approach research is to distinguish entrepreneurs from other individual populations (Gartner 1988, 23). Although entrepreneurial traits are described in several different ways, this research focuses on: 1) need for achievement, 2) locus of control, 3) tolerance of ambiguity and 4) risk propensity. The first entrepreneurial trait concept, *need for achievement*, was first described by McClelland (1965). This theory suggests that people with a 'need to achieve' set goals to reach through own efforts. Entrepreneurial people have the desire to achieve and make profit, forcing individuals to set targets with the intention of reaching those goals. The second trait model was created by Rotter in 1966, and is called the *locus of control*. The locus of control can be classified either internally or externally. Those with an internal locus of control believe that responsibility for actions, behaviour and characteristics ultimately lies with themselves. Those with an external locus believe that other people, luck, chance or fate control the reinforcements of life. The third concept is *tolerance of ambiguity*

(Sexton & Bowman, 1987). The fourth trait model theory is *risk propensity* (Brockhaus, 1980). Risk-taking ability--whether financial, social and physical--is usually associated with the characteristics of an entrepreneur. Indeed, research indicates that entrepreneurs are moderate risk takers--starting a new business is a risk in itself and the continuation of that venture calls for risk propensity, as well.

4.1.2 The contingency thinking

Contingency thinking is based on the belief that education, training and environment are involved in entrepreneurial growth. The primary difference between the trait model and the contingency model is this assumption that people can learn how to be an entrepreneur. According to contingency thinking, entrepreneurs' personality traits tend to vary as external conditions change (Gilad & Levine, 1986, 45). Therefore, personality characteristics are shaped by the interaction between the individual and the environment. One's life situation, experiences and changes in one's life affect this interplay (Littunen 2000, 296). For example, some may be 'forced' to start their own business due to lack of employment, while some may be driven to become an entrepreneur. After all, in both of situations entrepreneurs are shaped by their environment and, as a result, are satisfied with the life changes. Common in these situations is the ability to integrate and formulate with the changing environment. Drucker (1985) argues that: "What all the successful entrepreneurs have in common is not a certain kind of personality, but a commitment to the systematic practice of innovation" (Gilad et al. 1986, 45). On behalf of the cognitive-oriented approach, Kirzner's (1979) research found that entrepreneurs have a unique ability to discover and exploit opportunities that others fail to see, or, entrepreneurial alertness. Entrepreneurs perceive risky situations more optimistically than others (Das & Teng 1997, 71), and are able to recognize which ideas to pursue and at what time to do so.

4.2 Entrepreneurial drive as a concept

Entrepreneurial drive is the effective way of doing things, as an outcome of entrepreneurship theories. Johannisson (1999, 6) defines entrepreneurial drive as *a mindset, united effort, energy, and initiative characterised by entrepreneurialism.* People who have an entrepreneurial attitude have hardworking personalities; they encourage and respect entrepreneurialism. Those with entrepreneurial drive are also, generally, hard working. However, this is not nec-

essarily attributed solely to the individual, but can also be the result of a tradition or attitude passed down from one's own parents or family. Entrepreneurial persons are ready to make personal sacrifices if it is connected to their work. Usually, they have asset goals for themselves, either personal or organizational, with the primary aim of achieving them. Individuals are wiling to make sacrifices for achieving their goals. Sacrifices may be either mental or physical, with mental sacrifices occurring with conflicting personalities. However, barriers to achieving one's goal are seen merely as challenges to an entrepreneurial person. These individuals understand that barriers are normal and do not lose track of their final goal.

Koiranen (2007a, 8) argues that entrepreneurial drive is a process that leads to the creation of the new or the renewing of the old. The entrepreneurial drive process is part of an inner growth cycle, which lasts one's whole life. Those with an entrepreneurial mind generally have positive attitudes towards work and life, itself. These individuals are hard-working and somehow "sink" into work or projects--time seems to disappear. Entrepreneurs do not necessarily have a clear sense what kind of workday is coming, in relation to work assignments. Yet, these individuals are flexible and ready to take on any work that is connected to business and can make a profitable outcome. This attitude, in addition to true commitment, often results in making personal sacrifices.

Entrepreneurial individuals are so "deep" into every day tasks and goals that sacrifices may not seem like sacrifices. Their work and business plays a central role in their life, so entrepreneurs are proud to nurture their business, despite others' assessment of their personal sacrifice. Individuals with an entrepreneurial mindset are usually open-minded and interactive with their customers--they hope to build long-term relationships with customers and other partners, thus desiring a good impression of their business and themselves. Additionally, entrepreneurially driven persons have legal, economical and, in the end, psychological responsibility for their actions.

4.3 Motives behind entrepreneurial drive

Motivation and willingness to act are the characteristics included in entrepreneurial drive. Entrepreneurial people desire to achieve and turn a profit. McClelland's (1965) theory suggests that people with this 'need to achieve' often set goals and want to reach them through

their own efforts. These individuals want to solve problems; they are independent; they strive for a chosen target, with little regard for outside opinion. Individuals with this 'need to achieve' attitude are objectively orientated and ambitious in whatever they do. They may take on many different projects at the same time; yet, this "desire to achieve" drives them forward. One receives satisfaction when one accomplishes the goals they have set for themselves. Individuals with a 'need to achieve' often find their own way to entrepreneurship and succeeded more than others as entrepreneurs (Littunen 2000, 296). However, it is not certain that entrepreneurs will succeed in every venture and in every situation; nonetheless, entrepreneurs have a higher tolerance of failure. Thus, many people believe that successful entrepreneurs are individuals unafraid of failing (Kuratko et al. 2001, 98). Many successful entrepreneurs have failed more than once, yet they still manage to succeed in the future.

This 'need to achieve' attitude forces individuals to set and reach targets for themselves. High achievers tend to be moderate risk takers. They examine a situation, determine how to increase the odds of winning, then push ahead (Kuratko et al. 2001, 99). These individuals love to solve business-related problems, and profit with the solution. Independency is typical for them: they pursue a chosen target without concern, even if others do not believe in their idea. People who posses entrepreneurial drive are objective and ambitious in whatever they attempt. The desire for independence is the driving force behind contemporary entrepreneurs. Their frustration with a rigid bureaucratic system creates an independent personality, attempting to accomplish tasks in his or her own way. Entrepreneurs do not need to make all the decisions; however, they do want the authority to make the important ones (Kuratko et al. 2001, 104).

Commitment to an organization exists as a result of the desire for success that is the driving power behind those with strong psychological ownership. Additionally, entrepreneurial individuals do not give up; they are optimists who strive for integrity. Entrepreneurs' burn with the competitive desire to excel and they use failure as a tool for learning. They have the confidence to believe they can personally make a major difference in the final outcome of their ventures (Kuratko et al. 2001, 95). Encouragements for those experiencing psychological ownership are: setting goals, getting involved in areas in which they have an effect and actively pursuing their goals. These encouragements should allow one the freedom to make decisions in his or her own way. From an entrepreneurial aspect, freedom to work is a great motivator. Working for an organization in which the employees are not the owners, it is more

difficult to impress to working. When employees are the organisational targets of the owner-
ship, they may feel that they know the organisation better, allowing them to develop a psycho-
logical ownership towards it (Pierce et al. 2001, 301).

What is it like to "only" be a worker, without entrepreneurial motivators? A feeling of owner-
ship towards one's job or place is important for achieving the positive entrepreneurial attitude.
According to Shapero (1975), entrepreneurial motivation is divided into two approaches: the
"push" and the "pull" theories. The "push" theory claims that people are pushed into entre-
preneurship by negative situational factors, for example dissatisfaction with existing job, loss
of employment or a career setback (Gilad et al. 1986, 46). These negative events tend to acti-
vate latent entrepreneurial talent and push individuals into business activities. In order to
prove self-worth in an unfavourable situation, they react by establishing their own businesses
(Gilad et al. 1986, 46). "Push" theory is also applicable when an individual invents or dis-
cover a new technology in order to create a new innovation.

In the "pull" theory, opportunities persuade individuals to start their own business. According
to Kirzner (1973), the "pull" theory presumes the existence of attractive, potentially profitable
business opportunities, which will pull alert individuals into entrepreneurial activities (Gilad
et al. 1986, 46-47). In other words, an individual recognises a consumer need, which has a
sufficient market, and develops a solution to satisfy that need, thus becoming an entrepreneur.
Many entrepreneurs come from homes where one or more family members have had an en-
trepreneurial experience. Individuals are pulled into business by early training, which encour-
ages the search for profitable business opportunities (Gilad et al. 1986, 47). In family busi-
nesses, this development through training, mentoring or tutoring is typical. Entrepreneurs
want successes for their posterity.

4.4 Characteristics of entrepreneurial drive

Individuals with entrepreneurial drive have certain kinds of abilities, which others do not
have. Bygrave and Minniti (2000, 25) list the typical characteristics of entrepreneurialism as
follows: sensitivity in recognizing opportunity, proactively seizing opportunities, industrious-
ness, hard-working, risk and growth, innovativeness and pursuit of value creation. Entrepre-
neurially driven persons observe their life 'eyes and ears open' and are ready to react quickly.

Entrepreneurs generally have both informal and formal external networks, consisting of those involved in a variety of sectors. Informal entrepreneurial networks consist of personal relationships, families and business contacts. Formal networks consist of venture capitalists, banks, accountants, creditors and trade organisations (Das et al. 1997, 80).

Entrepreneurial persons are creative and have lots of ideas and visions. They are designers for how something could be done better, faster, cheaper or differently. They can also create a totally new product, component or system, which could be a new innovation. Entrepreneurial drive encourages them to have the sensitivity to recognize all interesting possibilities; they know what is happening around them. Hence, seeing opportunities, identifying and seizing them are characteristic for entrepreneurs in comparison to others; then, considering, selecting and counting profitability are abilities they can accomplish before establishing new ventures. Long-term thinking and risk-taking propensity are some of the skills entrepreneurs possess. They are brave enough, and the have ability, to make fast decisions if needed. Entrepreneurial persons have certain kind of skills, such as seeing the market in which business operates and in which way the market is developing. They understand what kind of investment should be done in the near future and if they want to be in "the first wave" of development. After all, entrepreneurial individuals have basic business skills as well as networks with other entrepreneurs, or those entrepreneurially minded. Networks give encouragement and backup to those involved and these may reinforce their intention to start a new business or to make new investments.

In addition, entrepreneurship is also important at the individual level, which is why there are several studies investigating entrepreneurial characteristics of personality. Entrepreneurship not only influences entrepreneurs themselves, but also the people and environment around them. Entrepreneur is defined as an organizer of a venture. Specifically, he or she is usually the one who organizes, owns, manages and assumes the risks of the business (Webster´s Third New International Dictionary, 1961). According to Casson (1982), a successful entrepreneur is typically able to take risks, innovative, knowledgeable of how the market functions, manufacture know-how, possess marketing skills, possess business management skills, and able to co-operate (Littunen 2000, 295). They have a good nose for business and can seem to find an opportunity for business from almost nowhere. Entrepreneurs are typically described as individuals who perceive a vision, commit themselves to that vision, and almost single-handedly

carry the vision to its successful implementation (Gibb 1995, 38- 39). Jon Kao has identified 11 common characteristics associated with entrepreneurs:

- Total commitment, determination and perseverance
- Drive to achieve and grow
- Opportunity and goal orientation
- Taking initiative and personal responsibility
- Persistent problem solving
- Realism and a sense of humour
- Seeking and using feedback
- Internal locus of control
- Calculated risk taking and risk seeking
- Low need for status and power
- Integrity and reliability

(Kuratko & Hodgetts 2001, 97)

According to Bird (1989), an entrepreneurial person must have innovativeness and the will to act (Littunen 2000, 295). Innovativeness is the characteristic that drives entrepreneurs to develop the company and business. New innovations influence society, as well. An entrepreneur is an innovator or developer who recognizes and seizes opportunities; converts those opportunities into workable/marketable ideas, adds value through time, effort, money, or skills; assumes the risks of the competitive marketplace to implement these ideas; and realizes the rewards from these efforts (Kuratko et al. 2001, 120). After all, an entrepreneur's willingness to work drives them forward. Entrepreneurs are often described by their attributes. A classic set of entrepreneurial types was formulated by Vesper (1980) as:

- Solo employed individuals
- Team builders
- Independent innovators
- Pattern multipliers
- Economy of scale exploiters
- Acquirers
- Conglomerators
- Speculators

(Luchsinger and Bagby, 1987, 10)

Entrepreneurial mindset consists of several characteristics that support each other and, in fact, need each other. Entrepreneurial features--like orientation for opportunities, tolerance of uncertainty, scarcity of resource and fluidity--are typical of entrepreneurs. People who have these traits admit challenges and are satisfied with the situation. There are clear differences between personalities: some do not have tolerance for uncertainty and, because of that, are incapable of acting like an entrepreneur. The attributes mentioned above, are commonly referred to as "traits", "personality" or "mindset". They consist of values, beliefs, attitudes and behaviours that are functional within the entrepreneurial context. Individually, non-entrepreneurs may posses many of these traits (Pendergast 2004, 4-5). However, the final ability to take risks is missing and there is a lack of resources, financial and mental. The combination of entrepreneurial traits complements each other.

4.4.1 Risk-taking ability

Risk-taking ability, whether financial, social or physical, is usually associated with the characteristics of an entrepreneur. McClelland (1961) proposes that entrepreneurs have a high need for achievement and may, therefore, prefer moderate levels of risk (Das et al. 1997, 70). It is not obvious that people can take risks and tolerate uncertain situations. However, entrepreneurs have a tolerance of uncertainty and the skills to operate under risky situations. There may be different types of risks defined over time. According to Lopes (1996), time plays a crucial role in risk behaviour; additionally, there are differences according to whether "the gamble" is played just once or multiple times (Das et al. 1997, 71). When establishing the business, one must invest, creating more risk. On the other hand, small risks must be taken every day, which must be tolerated. According to Drucker (1985), short-range risk refers to variances in outcomes in the near future, while long-range risk relates to variances in the distant future (Das et al. 1997, 72). Examples of long-range risk-taking include long-term investment, such as investing in machinery or land or factory, which may take some time to turn a profit, if it gives profit at all. Short-range risk behaviour is about taking or avoiding actions that may cause outcomes to vary significantly in the near future (Das et al. 1997, 72). Those who take short-range risks do not set overly high goals for themselves; they avoid high risks and are satisfied. In this light, it can be concluded that those who take short-range risks are more intrapreneurial than entrepreneurial. Hence, the main difference between intrapreneurial and entrepreneurial individuals is the size of risks taken, both financially and in decisions.

4.4.2 Locus of control

Locus of control means that people have internal thoughts on the reasons things are happening. According to Rotter (1966), the locus of control for an individual is his or her belief on the factors that determine whether or not they receive reinforcement in life. In other words, it can be defined as: generalized expectancies for control of reinforcement. The locus of control can be classified as either internal or external. Individuals with an internal locus of control believe that the responsibility for actions, behaviour and characteristics ultimately lies with themselves. Internals believe that success or failure is due to their own efforts, whether they get reinforced. In contrast, externals believe that other people, luck, chance or fate controls the reinforcements in life. Therefore, external locus of control encourages passivity and those people see their own efforts as only having a minor impact on the amount of reinforcement they receive (Littunen 2000, 296).

The propensity of a person to feel they have control over their own circumstances and abilities within the environment is the internal locus of control. The more an individual feels they control their own circumstances, the more they feel they can operate a business on their own. With this control, the individual feels that he or she can have direct input on the success and operations of a business, while acting as an entrepreneur. Thus, individual can make decisions and take direct responsibility for those actions (Shane & Venkatamaran 2000, 223). An internal locus of control is usually associated with entrepreneurial characteristics (Littunen 2000, 296). This locus of control should usually be based on a sense of reality; a characteristic which entrepreneurs ought to have. Entrepreneurs should also have the ability to continue, even if they experience some setbacks.

4.4.3 Proactivity and initiative-making

Proactive behaviour is one characteristic of entrepreneurship, and it is also an increasingly needed component of job performance, along with innovativeness, creativity and initiative. Proactive individuals actively seek information and opportunities for improving things, they do not passively wait for information and opportunities to come to them (Crant 2000, 437). A proactive personality has a significant effect on career satisfaction, salary attainment and the number of promotions over one's career (Seibert, Crant & Kraimer 1999, 425). It is interesting to know how to recognize these proactive people and how these matters correlate with job

satisfactions and motivators. Proactivity is a reflection of employees' behaviour. Proactive individuals will bring energy around them. This energy takes the form of new ideas and innovative actions. These proactive individuals are innovative, who seem to know what will happen next. As employees, they take an active role in their approach towards work they initiate situations and create favourable working conditions (Crant 2000, 436). Bateman and Crant (1993, 115) argue that proactive individuals actively create environmental change, while less proactive people take a more reactive approach toward their jobs. Entrepreneurs like to take initiative in problem solving, and are comfortable in situations where their personal impact on problems can be measured. This is an action-oriented nature of the entrepreneur expressing him or herself (Kuratko et al. 2001, 100).

Because proactive behaviour is theorised and measured in a several ways, a definition of proactive behaviour must be handled with caution. Crant (2000, 436) defines proactive behaviour as taking initiative in improving current circumstances or creating new ones. Employees with proactive behaviour seek situations where they can challenge themselves; indeed, passive circumstances do not satisfy proactive persons. In all enterprises there are people who want to create something new and develop themselves, as well as the whole organization. In addition, there are employees who only want fulfil the basic requirements.

People can have different motivations for engaging in proactive behaviours, such as a desire to help others or create conditions that will help one to become a star performer (Crant 2000, 455). Proactive persons create a common spirit in organization, or, on the other hand, they can work to raise themselves above the others. Organizational environment has an impact on proactive persons--climate can be encouraging or suppressing. Entrepreneurs are those who will act proactively despite the environment. These individuals believe so strongly in their business ideas that sceptic outsiders cannot suppress them. If an individual perceives that engaging in proactive behaviour risks harming his or her image in the eyes of others in their social environment, he or she will be less likely to act in proactively (Crant 2000, 456).

Taking initiative is one characteristic of an entrepreneur. This quality requires that individuals take an active and self-starting approach to work and go beyond what is formally required in a given job (Frese, Fay, Hilburger, Leng and Tag, 1997, 140). In enterprises there should be someone who takes responsibility for putting words into actions. The importance of an intrapreneur is in his or her challenging of the status quo in large organisations, and thereby serv-

ing as a stimulus for corporate renewal and adaptation the environmental change (Birkinshaw 1999, 9). Those persons with initiative have the courage to make suggestions and are often linked to intrapreneurial and entrepreneurial- drive. To be an initiative employee means that one has an interest in developing the working environment and habits. Entrepreneurially initiative person, on the other hand, has the courage to ennoble and commercialise ideas. There are individual, organizational and environmental components that impact the development of initiative and intrapreneurial drive (Zahra 1993, 325).

4.4.4 Innovativeness

Innovativeness is a way of searching for new ideas, a method to improving new products and services, or an attitude for create new processes. According to Drucker (1985), innovation is often associated with change (Martins & Terblanche 2003, 67). Innovation is regarded as something new, which leads to change. However, change cannot always be regarded as innovation since it does not always involve new ideas or does not always lead to improvement in an organization (CIMA study text, 1996). Innovativeness is a talent that brings and produces new and necessary changes to an organisation. Innovations are linked to technology, and from there, innovativeness has become part of business thinking, as well. Innovativeness is one dimension that has become important when seeking employees to firms or organisations. It is said that without innovativeness there will no be future for firms, as new ideas keep business going. In the public sector, innovativeness reflects an organization's ability to be modern, effective and present.

Innovations may result from an individual or group, but these are based, quite often, on the ideas of an individual. Some research looking at entrepreneurs and innovators proved that an innovator is not always the most qualified entrepreneur. Innovative people submerge themselves in work of creation, and are not as interested in other tasks related to entrepreneurship. Innovators in the public sector are seen as developers and go-ahead persons. However, certain environmental circumstances are needed for an organization to support innovations and creativity (Martins et al. 2003, 64). West and Farr (1990) define innovation as follows: "the intentional introduction and application within a role, group or organisation of ideas, processes, products or procedures, new to the relevant unit of adoption, designed to significantly benefit the individual, the group, organization or wider society" (Martins et al. 2003, 67).

Innovative and risk-taking individuals are usually connected to intrapreneurship and entrepreneurship. These individuals may also establish a venture of their own, if they are not able to be intrapreneurial enough as an employee. In every organization there are those who act and think intrapreneurially, therefore, enterprises should work to employee these individuals. Bureaucracy alone will not stop the intrapreneur from innovating. In Pinchot's description of the typical intrapreneur, he found that intrapreneurs delight in circumventing the bureaucracy and accomplishing change in spite of it (Kolchin & Hyclak 1987, 16). Creative individuals function more like "idea givers," while innovative individuals put these ideas into action. Innovations are needed to increase competitiveness or produce changes to the business or actions. After all, creativity is the theme that encourages people.

4.4.5 Creativity

Creativity is required when organization desires to ennoble and develop their operations. This characteristic is the force that drives people to renew and create enhancements. In addition, creativity is an essential component in competitive organisations. Organisational culture appears to have an influence on the degree to which creativity and innovation are stimulated in organisation (Martins et al. 2003, 64). When compared to different types of characteristics of entrepreneurial drive, creativity is one of the main characteristics, with it seeming to fuel entrepreneurial behaviour. Martins and Terblanche (2003) researched influences of organizational culture on creativity and innovativeness. They divide the influences of organizational culture in to five different determinants (See figure 2). Our survey researches and measures the determinants and behaviour that encourages innovation, as well as employees' needs and objectives within the behavioural encouragements for creativity and innovation. Our theoretical framework concentrates on risk- taking ability, life long learning, creativity and innovativeness. Martins et al. (2003) investigate organizational culture as an ensemble, and have taken four other determinants into account. Organizational culture, then, effects entrepreneurial drive through employees' creativity and innovation, in comparison, these characteristics are pandering entrepreneurial behaviour.

DIMENSIONS MEASURED TO DESCRIBE ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

Strategic vision and mission

Customer focus (external environment)

Means to achieve objectives

Management processes

Employee needs and objectives

Interpersonal relationships

Leadership

DETERMINANTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE
THAT INFLUENCE CREATIVITY AND INNOVATION

STRATEGY	STRUCTURE	SUPPORT MECHANISMS	BEHAVIOR THAT ENCOURAGES INNOVATION	COMMUNICATION

- Vision and mission
 	
- Purposefulness
	- Flexibility
	
	- Freedom:
	  -autonomy
	  -empowerment
	  -decision making
	
	- Co-operative teams and group interaction
		-Reward and recognition
		
		-Availability of resources:
		 - time
		 -information technology
		 -creative people
			- Mistake handling
			- Idea generating
			- Continuous learning culture
			- Risk taking
			- Competitiveness
			- Support for change
			- Conflict handling
				- Open communication

CREATIVITY

AND

INNOVATION

Figure 2 Influence of organizational culture on creativity and innovativeness. (Modified from Martins and Terblanche 2003, 70)

1) Strategy: it is important that employees understand vision and mission, which are expected in an intrapreneurial organization and are defined in the strategy plan.

2) Structure: a flat structure, autonomy and work teams will promote innovation, whereas specialization, formalization, standardization and centralization will inhibit innovation (Arad et al. 1997). Values like flexibility, freedom and cooperative teamwork will promote creativ-

ity and innovation. Personnel are free to achieve their goals in an automatic and creative way, yet within guidelines.

3) Support mechanism: Creative behaviour should be rewarded, thus making it the norm, the dominant way of behaving (Arad et al. 1997). Personnel should also be rewarded for risk-taking, experimenting and generating ideas. Recruitment, selection and appointment and maintenance of employees are important to promoting a culture of, specifically, creativity and innovation in an organization (Martins et al. 2003, 71).

4) Behaviour that encourages innovation: Mistakes can be ignored, covered up, used to punish someone or perceived as a learning opportunity (Brodtrick, 1997). Support for change is a value that will influence creativity and innovation positively (Arad et al. 1997).

5) Communication: an open-door communication policy, including open communication between individuals, teams and departments allows an organization to gain new perspectives is, therefore, necessary to creating a culture supportive of creativity and innovation (Filipczak, 1997; Frohman and Pascarella, 1990) (See figure 2).

Definitions of creativity according to Arad, Hanson and Schneider (1997) and Udwadia (1990) focus on the nature of thought processes and intellectual activity used to generate new insights or solutions to problems. Atmosphere, in intrapreneurial organisations, should be open and interactive. The values, norms and beliefs of organization have a big role in feeding creativity and innovation. They can either support or inhibit intrapreneurial drive.

Other definitions focus on the personal characteristics and intellectual abilities of individuals. And still other definition focus on the product, in regards to the different qualities and outcomes of creative attempts (Martins et al. 2003, 67). Creativity is related to innovations and innovativeness. This means that creativity has been assumed as integral to new innovations and commercialised ideas. Analysing personal characteristics and behaviour are included in intrapreneurship research, but also in research on creativity. Intrapreneurial creativity is based on independent initiative making. Creativity builds new visions and innovations, which produce ideas for new products and services. In order to construct these visions, idea-searching, vision-making and exploiting opportunities are required. Intrapreneurship is partly based on

creativity; thus, innovative persons are able to commercialize ideas (Kansikas 2004, 64) (See figure 3).

Independency			Producing ideas
CREATIVITY			Searching ideas
Initiative making			
Making visions			
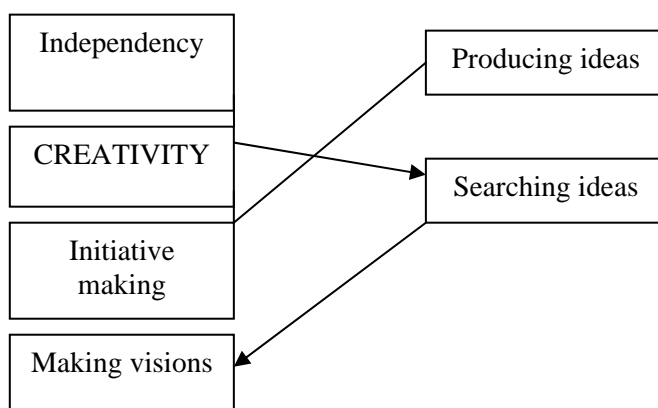
Figure 3 Factors related to intrapreneurial creativity (Modified from Kansikas 2004, 65)

Creativity can be defined as: the generation of new and valuable ideas for products, services, processes and procedures by individuals or groups in a specific organizational context (Martins et al. 2003, 67). The aim of creativity is to find a way of doing something better or creating a new product or service.

Everyone is creative in some way, but entrepreneurs can complete the process, with their first creations becoming business ideas. What separates entrepreneurs from non-entrepreneurs is their ability to take risks, enabling them to firmly establish the idea as a product. Creativity, then, is the generation of ideas that result in the improved efficiency or effectiveness of a system.

Creativity is a process that can be developed and improved (deBono, 1992). Some are naturally creative, perhaps this is a product of being taught to think and act entrepreneurially, or perhaps they have just learnt how act creatively in their circumstances. It is wrong to say that some are creative and some not--creativity is a characteristic that each person has from birth. Surrounding circumstances shape people, with some individuals becoming more creative as a result of a fruitful, creative environment. If the environment nurtures creativity, individuals will find it easier to use their creativity. Creativity is most likely to occur when the climate is right.

5   INTRAPRENEURIAL DRIVE

Intrapreneurial behaviour in organisations is shown to have positive affects. Intrapreneurial drive is rooted in entrepreneurship. Organisations have found it challenging to imbue their employees with the quality of hard work, one found in entrepreneurs. The characteristics of entrepreneurs bring an organization effectiveness and competitiveness; thus, the intrapreneurial attitude is desirable. The organisations of today, including the public sector, are required to be effective and profitable. Intrapreneurial drive is the power and attitude to work hard, flexibly and actively in an organization. This drive creates good spirit between colleagues and encourages cooperation. In teamwork, it is necessary that every member perform to the best of their ability. It is said that the team is only as strong as the weakest link, which requires employees to do their best. In contrast, pressures of intrapreneurial drive may also have negative consequences: stress, burnout and tiredness, are among them. However, the general thoughts on intrapreneurship are positive--most researchers agree that it creates a positive spirit for a successful organization.

To understand intrapreneurial drive, one must understand intrapreneurship as a concept, as well as know its effects and consequences in different contexts. In this chapter, we will formulate the concept of intrapreneurial drive in a public organization and describe intrapreneurial drive from the individual's aspect.

5.1 Intrapreneur -definition for an active employee

Organizational entrepreneurs are called intrapreneurs. Pinchot (1986, 12) coined the term intrapreneur as shorthand for intracorporate entrepreneur. These corporate risk takers are very much like entrepreneurs. Vesper (1985) defines corporate entrepreneurship as a concept that is limited to new venture creation within existing organisations. Intrapreneurship is a concept closely related to entrepreneurship, emphasizing the entrepreneurial processes (entrepreneurs carry out new combinations) and innovativeness (Guth & Ginsberg 1990, 6).

Entrepreneurs are innovators for themselves; however, organisations also need innovators. These entrepreneurially behaving people--with characteristics like innovativeness, creativity, risk-taking ability, independency and pro-activity--are organisations' entrepreneurs and are

called Intrapreneurs. Intrapreneurs are important for organisations because of developing market competitiveness, demands for increased productivity and for the overall advancement of the business. The broadest definition of intrapreneurship states that intrapreneurship is entrepreneurship within an existing organization. Here, organization refers to the process that goes on inside an existing firm, regardless of its size, and leads to new business ventures and other innovative activities and orientations, such as the development of new products, services, technologies, administrative techniques strategies and competitive postures (Antonic & Hisrich 2001, 497).

In enterprises, entrepreneurs are often the main innovators; thus, in broader organisations, entrepreneurs do not have time to act as the main innovator, due to other business issues. This is why innovators are critical to SME- companies, as well as bigger companies. According to Stevenson and Jarillo (1990, 23), intrapreneurship is viewed as: a process by which individuals inside organisations pursue opportunities (Vesper 1990) without regard to the resources they currently control; as doing new things and departing from the customary to pursue opportunities; and as a spirit of entrepreneurship within an existing organization (Antonic et al. 2001, 498). It can also be said that not all innovators are intrapreneurs, but all intrapreneurs are innovators. It is possible to hire those who produce innovations (like technicians etc.), but it is obvious that they are not necessarily intrapreneurs. Intrapreneurs are people with an interest in developing business.

Before encouraging intrapreneurial drive, the circumstances inside an organisation should be certain. The antecedents influencing intrapreneurship are: communication openness, control mechanisms, environmental scanning intensity, management support and organizational values (Antonic et al. 2001, 502). These are called encouraging characteristics of intrapreneurial organization. Open communication is a way of sharing information, while empowerment is proffered as a critical element for innovation. Openness in organisations results from a profusion of honest communication, where issues are not limited. This allows for the possibility of turning someone's nonsense idea into a great opportunity. Communication, in terms of quality and amount, is important for the success of intrapreneurial initiation and implementation in large corporations. Therefore, the amount and quality of communication is expected to positively relate to intrapreneurship (Antonic et al. 2001, 502).

Too much openness in an organization is not positive, either, because it may lead to "chaos" in an organization. An average level of control in an organization allows employees to do their work and act intrapreneurially. MacMillan (1986) and Zahra (1991) stress the inhibiting effect of the excessive use of formal controls. Contrarily, Kuratko et al. (2001) highlight the importance of control and evaluation for intrapreneurship. Kanter (1989) also considers formal controls essential for corporate entrepreneurship projects. Therefore, it is felt that formal controls used to monitor intrapreneurial activities will be positively associated with intrapreneurship (Antonic et al. 2001, 502). Efficacy and the use of formal controls are complimentary; for example without legislation and regulation of state, citizens feel insecure. Intrapreneurial behaviour is impossible under insecurity.

Intrapreneurs keep up with the times; it is obvious that the environment affects people's ability to recognize and exploit information. Criticising and questioning environmental situations allows intrapreneurs to create new, innovate solutions and to, after all, behave proactively. Khandwalla´s (1977) environmental scanning is important for the intrapreneurial activities of the firm, especially for innovativeness and new business venturing, as it highlights industry trends and changes, as well as environmental opportunities and threats (Zahra 1991). Therefore, it is felt that intensive environmental scanning will positively relate to intrapreneurship (Antonic et al. 2001, 502).

Although intrapreneurs are said to be independent, a supportive atmosphere is still essential for their success. Thus, organizational support can be beneficial for intrapreneurship. This may include training—and, furthermore, trusting--individuals within the firm to detect opportunities (Stevenson et al. 1990, 25). Purportedly, doing so positively influences a firm's entrepreneurial behaviour (Antonic et al. 2001, 502). However, trust must be two-sided: employees must trust the organization, and the organization must trust their employees. In this situation, both actors are able to behave confidentially, honestly and effectively with one another. Intrapreneurship flourishes under organizational support, such as: management support, work discretion, rewards, time availability and loose intra-organizational boundaries (Hornsby, Naffziger, Kuratko and Montagno 1993, 31). Thus, maintaining these support systems is seen as most important for organization (See figure 4.).
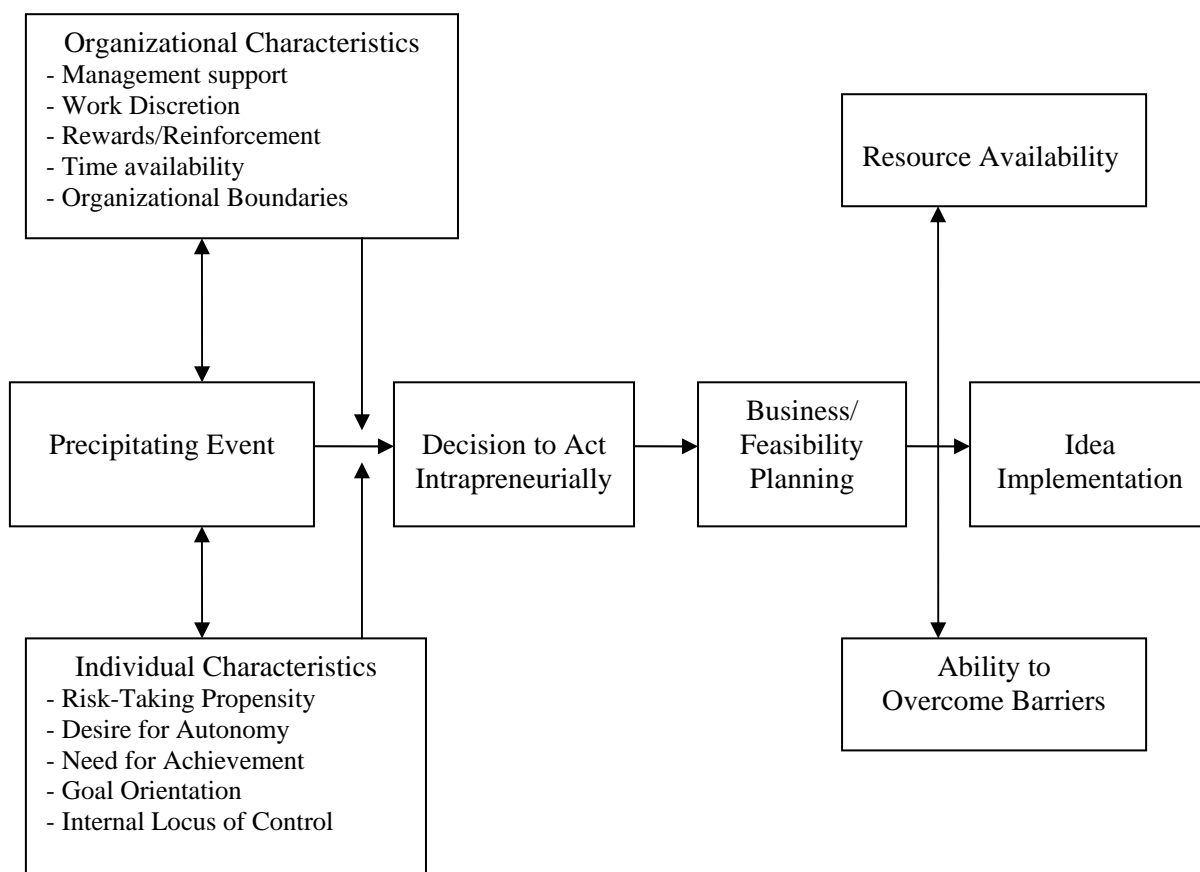
Figure 4 An Interactive model of Intrapreneurship (Hornsby, Naffziger, Kuratko and Montagno 1993, 31)

Organizational values are viewed as drivers of intrapreneurship. Guth et al. (1990, 8) argue that entrepreneurial behaviour in organisations is critically dependent on the characteristics, values/beliefs, and visions of their strategic leaders. Zahra (1991) found a positive relationship between corporate entrepreneurship and organizational values that are individual-centred and organizational values that are competition-centred. Mutual values between the intrapreneur and the organization support a higher rate of intrapreneurship. When an intrapreneur feels that the values of an organization are acceptable, he or she not only acts intrapreneurially, but increases his or her commitment to the organization. In addition, common and shared values increase the rate of intrapreneurship.

Certain environmental circumstances, strategic approaches, values and actions of top management, organizational structure and technological circles can be associated with organizational cultures that support creativity and innovation. (Martins et al. 2003, 68)

5.2 Intrapreneurship at organisations

The American Heritage Dictionary brought intrapreneurism into the mainstream by adding intrapreneur to its dictionary, defining it as "a person within a large corporation who takes direct responsibility for turning an idea into a profitable finished product through assertive risk-taking and innovation".

As competition gets increasingly more intense, companies and organisations are realizing the importance of staying ahead of the curve. The more employees that think in intrapreneurial ways, the better are the results (Heinonen and Vento-Vierikko 2002, 11). Of course, if there are intrapreneurial individuals, who take initiative, the result will be good. However, if the company employs those who only do the compulsory things, the results cannot be so successful. This means that organisations should encourage their employees to act more independently and encourage their employees to do things their "own way". When it is possible, companies should give more responsibility to employees and encourage initiative. In companies where intrapreneurial thinking is emphasized, activity is appreciated.

Intrapreneurship is like an action with similar aims, visions and strategies as an organization (Heinonen et al. 2002, 64). Quite often it seems that there is, perhaps, more intrapreneurial thinking in small organisations than in large ones. Perhaps it is easier to hide in the big organisations and employees are less interested in intrapreneurial thinking. Or maybe it is because the management of small companies are closer to their employees, making it easier to make a difference. In the firms that would like to have intrapreneurial thinking, employers must have ways to reward employees, and management should be supportive of entrepreneurial projects. Also, employees should be allowed to take risks, with management accepting the possibility of failure (Heinonen et al. 2002, 92). Heinonen describes four factors, which influence intrapreneurship (see figure 5). Intrapreneurship cannot exist without the optimal circumstances; environment, management behaviour, organization and success/performance must be ideal for intrapreneurship. An evaluation of the conditions of organisations would be helpful in determining if a flourishing of intrapreneurial drive is possible.
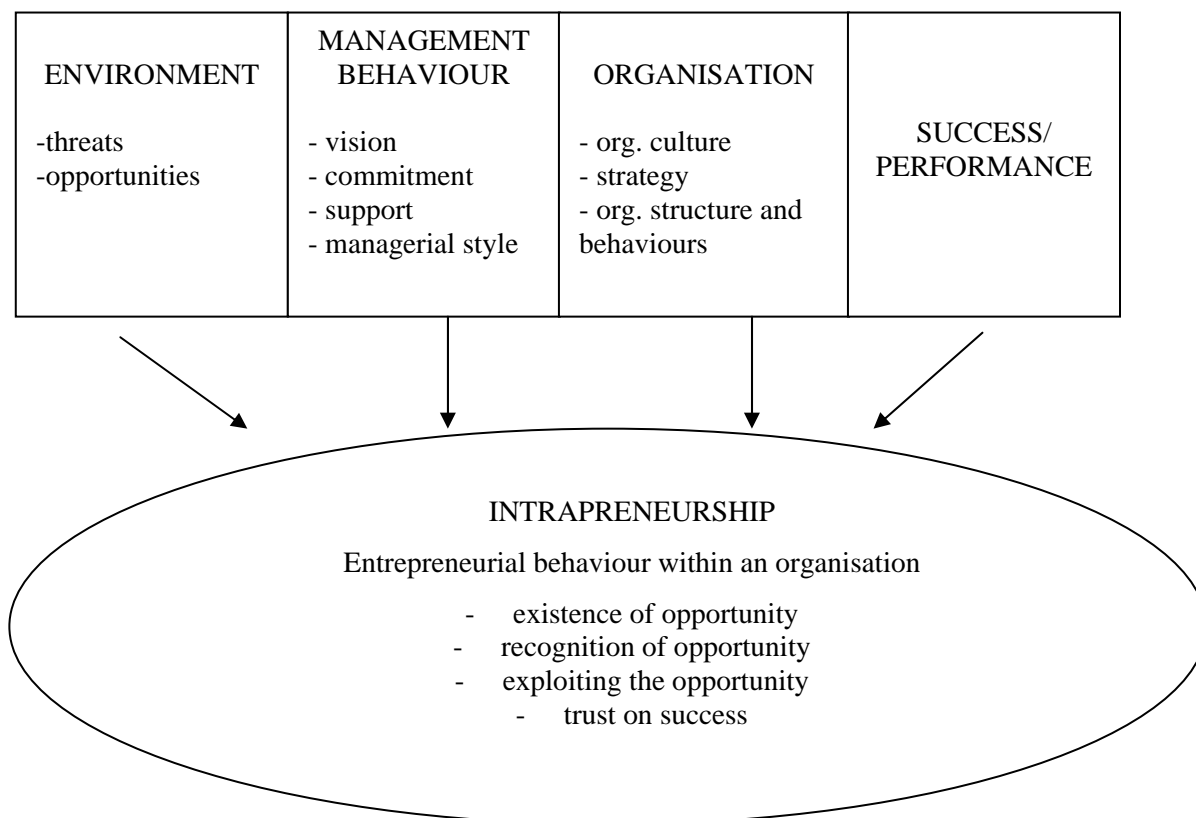
Figure 5 The factors influencing intrapreneurship (Heinonen 2000, 4)

Many different authors have researched intrapreneurship inside companies, as well as at the public sector. Theories of intrapreneurship have concentrated on describing intrapreneurs with adjectives such as: active, innovative and creative people with an "always doing their best" attitude. Ideally, it would be very effective to have these types of individuals employed at one's company, but is this possible in real life? Furthermore, intrapreneurial individuals tend to be described as "super humans," with all possible positive characteristics.

Intrapreneurial persons accept changes more easily than others. This intrapreneurial mindset is needed due to a changing working environment; however, in public organisations, this drive is challenging to achieve because of many limitations—such as organizational culture, rules, bureaucracy, traditions, control and organizational spirit.

Today's risky work environment impacts workers in that that they are no longer so loyal to employers, with trends indicating life-long employment contracts are on the decline. In other words, employers cannot serve safely, so employees are not as committed to employers, but projects or given assignments instead (Joensuu, 2006). Intrapreneurial individuals are gener-

ally satisfied employees wherever they are working, if given the possibility to affect actions, working environment, and the decision making process. Sometimes a working environment may have a strong hierarchy or leadership, which can be very autocratic. Intrapreneurial individuals are incapable of behaving how they would like to in such situations. Classic intrapreneurs reach their limits when they can no longer deal directly with those comprising their 'intraprise'. They are generally uncomfortable with hierarchy. As the organization becomes larger and more hierarchical, they ignore the chain of command and make changes in anything they see "wrong" at any level of the organization (Pinchot 1986, 269).

5.3 Intrapreneurship from individual aspect

In order for intrapreneurial drive to exist inside organisations there, should be certain kinds of conditions. When a working atmosphere is positive, new ideas and changes are taken into account, making intrapreneurial drive is possible. A supportive climate in an organization allows for different personalities and encourages employees to act as good as possible. In organisations there can be only one dominate person, though he or she may destroy the intrapreneurial climate. This one person may have such a negative effect that it is impossible to show an intrapreneurial mindset in the whole community. Individuals with negative attitudes destroy the intrapreneurial spirit even though there may be many other intrapreneurially driven persons. It is easier to have intrapreneurial drive if conditions within the organization are stable and safe; moreover, if there is the threat of firing, a lack of intrapreneurial drive will occur. Supportive, open minded and responsible behaviour are characteristics of effective organisations that encourage intrapreneurial drive. Under certain conditions, organizational members can develop feelings of ownership towards an organization and its various organizational factors.

Intrapreneurial people are not career oriented; however, they do want to achieve their goals. They are ready to develop themselves or their working habits in order to do so. In other words, they are change-orientated.

Psychological ownership and entrepreneurial drive though separate concepts, have similar aspects. Pierce et al.'s (2001) research finds that the roots of psychological ownership can be found in three motives: 1. Efficacy/effectance, 2. self-identity and 3. "Having a place". When

these motives are compared to those characteristics of entrepreneurial drive, one finds over-lapping aspects. However, it is important to take three more aspects into consideration when researching psychological ownership: organizational commitment, organizational identification and internalization (Pierce et al. 2001, 305).

5.3.1. Efficacy – Hard working

In first motive (efficacy, effectance), the main objective is to be in control (Isaacs, 1933). In entrepreneurial drive, internal locus of control means that an individual has a direct input on success and operations. Efficacy, effectance is one of the roots of psychological ownership. To be successful, entrepreneurs must be hard workers--because money is tied to the firm, entrepreneurs must be willing, and, moreover, are forced to work hard. The stronger the internal locus of control, the more confidence they have in their ability to operate a business on their own (Shane & Venkatamaran 2000, 223). From a managerial point of view, psychological ownership alters environments by controlling individuals, thus satisfying their innate need to be efficacious (Pierce et al. 2001, 300). From the aspect of an employee, individuals want to work efficaciously and it is easy to connect hard-working skills. One of the characteristics of an entrepreneurial person is the ability to set goals. Important to this concept is the need to achieve these goals. In an intrapreneurial drive context this, can be given the name *"achiever"*. An Achiever is an employee who works hard by his or her own effort and has the skills to be effective. Achievers are conscious of the whole picture: they know their own capabilities, their own goals, and those of the organization. They are success oriented and can adapt to different situations.

5.3.2. Self-identity – Risk-taking

Pierce et al. (2001, 300) believe that people express self-identity to others and ensure the continuity of the self across time. Motives of entrepreneurial have similar characteristics; people who need to achieve also tend to be independent. Need to achieve individuals set goals and want to reach them through their own efforts (McClelland's, 1965). Entrepreneurs set goals, are willing to make financial sacrifices and take risks to develop the company. This type of individual does not care if other people do not believe in their ideas. For both those with a strong self-identity and those "need to achieve" individuals, changing themselves would be an unattractive option, they are proud to be like they are. Risk takers are able to handle pressure

and can accept changes. In an intrapreneurial drive context, this pair can be called "*adventurism*". People with an attitude of adventurism are able to take minimum risks, but because they are employees, they must follow the rules of their organization. However, people with a spirit of adventurism have an inner need to satisfy their own competence. Intrapreneurs, then, have a willingness to take risks and set goals for them selves.

5.3.3. Having a place – Commitment

It is also possible to find similarities between people who have ownership as a target and those who are committed to it. People are ready to give significant energy to a place or to the target, which can potentially be a home (Pierce et al. 2001, 300). Commitment is a feeling, which consists of several things: commitment towards rules, goals, responsibilities and social relationships. Commitment causes good feelings towards one's self, resulting in organization efficacy and a committed employee. These positive feelings affect the whole environment. On a superficial level, one can have positive feelings towards work, hobbies or nature; however, commitment deepens the rate of good feeling. Commitment towards an organization is easy to achieve when a person is entrepreneur. In an intrapreneurial drive concept, this dimension can be called "*adhere*". Commitment to an organization is strong because the desire to succeed is the driving force behind those who experiences psychological ownership.

5.4 Three main experiences of intrapreneurial drive

The Intrapreneurial drive concept is formulated via psychological ownership (PSO) and entrepreneurial drive (EDR). Characteristics of these concepts are overlapping, and as such create the concept of Intrapreneurial Drive (IDR). In this chapter, we will introduce a model of intrapreneurial drive that is created through the key concepts of our theoretical framework. (See figure 6)

Intrapreneurial drive consists of psychological ownership and entrepreneurial drive. Intrapreneurial drive exists in organisations, among employees without financial ownership. Entrepreneurs feel psychological ownership through financial ownership. Additionally, they feel that the company is their own and, thus, their own responsibility. Without financial ownership, that feeling of possession—i.e., that something is min--is more challenging to achieve.

The concept of psychological ownership is related to the job itself and the organization (Pierce et al. 1991, 526). To achieve psychological ownership, circumstances should be optimal with three strong motives.

5.4.1 Three main motives of PSO in Intrapreneurial Drive

The first motive is the feeling of belonging to an organization. This means that individuals feel the need to belong somewhere. Psychological ownership symbolises ties with others, thus this motive represents the possibility of satisfying this need for ownership, resulting in a significant expenditure of both energy and resources towards targets that may become their home (Pierce et al. 2001, 300). The environment of an organization should be supportive, with employees that can easily adapt to new situations as well as take responsibility their own work. When employees have a work area of their own, they are more motivated to work. People feel that they are needed. This motive, the need to belong to a place, creates commitment toward an organization and its work.

The sources of psychological ownership are: the ability to use and to control the use of objects, the intimate knowledge of the target and self- investment in the target (Hall 2005, 5). The second motive, self-identity, is the expression of one's identity to others through the continuation of the self through ownership. People need something concrete to prove that their extended self is usable and needed. At the organizational level, employees are ready to make sacrifices for an organization, allowing their self-identity to become empowered. This second motive is closely connected to the need for self-identity through "objects that can be controlled become regarded as part of the self" (Pierce et al. 2001, 300). Control over an objective gives rise to, or reinforces, feelings of ownership toward that object (Hall 2005, 5).

The third of the motives, efficacy and effectance, is, in large part, the need to be in control. Individuals want to satisfy their innate need to be effective. Most individuals have inner motive, or need, to be efficacious, and ownership allows individuals to influence their environment in any desired way. In other words, the need to have an impact on one's environment, in line with one's own preferences, leads to "attempts to take possession and to the emergence of ownership feelings" (Pierce et al. 2001, 300). Individual's need to be effective drives employees to feel possessive feelings toward an organization.

5.4.2 Three main characteristics of EDR in Intrapreneurial Drive

Characteristics of entrepreneurial drive, which are consistent in all theories, are: commitment, hard-working skills and risk-taking ability. These three strong entrepreneurial characteristics affect the creation of the intrapreneurial drive process. Entrepreneurs are already committed to the firm through legal ownership, but it is also proven that entrepreneurs have inner drive to integrate into the firm. Commitment to work and the firm is easy to achieve through interest in the work. Entrepreneurs seem to have an interest in work for some specific thing or field. They are forced to be interested in new information or knowledge related to their trade.

The second strong entrepreneurial characteristic is ability to take risks. The primary difference between intrapreneurial and entrepreneurial individuals is the size of risks taken, both financially and in decision-making. Individuals are not automatically ready to take risks, but entrepreneurs have the courage to make risky decisions, at least financially. Entrepreneurs take risks all the time in, for example, investments of new machineries or concentrating on producing a new product. It is important for entrepreneurs to have the ability to keep on the track. Entrepreneurs should be careful when taking risks, making sure to control the inner need to do so. However, it is of utmost importance to keep one's goals and core business in mind. Entrepreneurs will get satisfaction when risks succeed. However, they have a high tolerance for handling setbacks. Sometimes risks fail, and in these situations, entrepreneurs do not easily give up. Therefore, entrepreneurs perceive risky situations more optimistically than others (Das et al. 1997, 71).

The third characteristic is the possession of hard working skills. It is argued that entrepreneurs do not calculate their working time; hence, they seem to be hard workers. Entrepreneurs are devoted to their own interest and are willing to make a profit. The more entrepreneurs work, the closer the achievement of their goal. Entrepreneurs are responsible for their actions and for their employees. Hard workers want the finish their tasks and find it difficult for them to interrupt the work they start. Especially in the public sector, motivators may be difficult to find because of tight bureaucracy and legal limits to work. Pinchot (1986, 16) argues that the bureaucratic system inhibits intrapreneurship.

5.4.3 Three main dimensions of Intrapreneurial Drive

Intrapreneurial Drive includes three strong dispositions, created through PSO and EDR concepts. First, *achievement* describes the desire to succeed. According to the MacMillan English Dictionary, achievement is a particular thing that one has accomplished. To act of achievement is described as doing or having what was planned or intended, usually after a lot of effort. Achievers are success-oriented and able to adapt to different.

Secondly, *adventure* is an exiting, unusual and sometimes dangerous experience. It could be the desire to have new and exciting experiences. With this, adventure- effort intrapreneurs are willing to take risks and set goals for themselves. Adventurists are needed in organisations to renew and reshape manners and habits. Adventurists set goals for themselves and their mode of action may be brave and experimental. Adventure is created via self-identity, from the aspect of psychological ownership, and risk- taking, from the aspect of entrepreneurial drive-theory.

Thirdly, an *adherent* is a supporter of a set of ideas, an organization or a person. Adherent effort includes a person's willingness to obey a rule, law or agreement (MacMillan dictionary 2006, 17). Adherents are encouraging and support rules and laws. This characteristic allows an intrapreneurially-driven person to work at public sector. Adherents are the ones who stress justice. These people are needed in organisations because of their stress on safety. The concept of the adherent results from the desire for a home, part of psychological ownership, the need for commitment, part of entrepreneurial drive.

```
        Self                              Risk-
       Identity      Efficacy            taking
                              Com-                    Hard
  Place                      mitment                 working


        PSYCHOLOGICAL              ENTREPRENEURIAL
                          IDR
          OWNERSHIP                   DRIVE



      Achievement                              Adherence
                     Adventurism
```
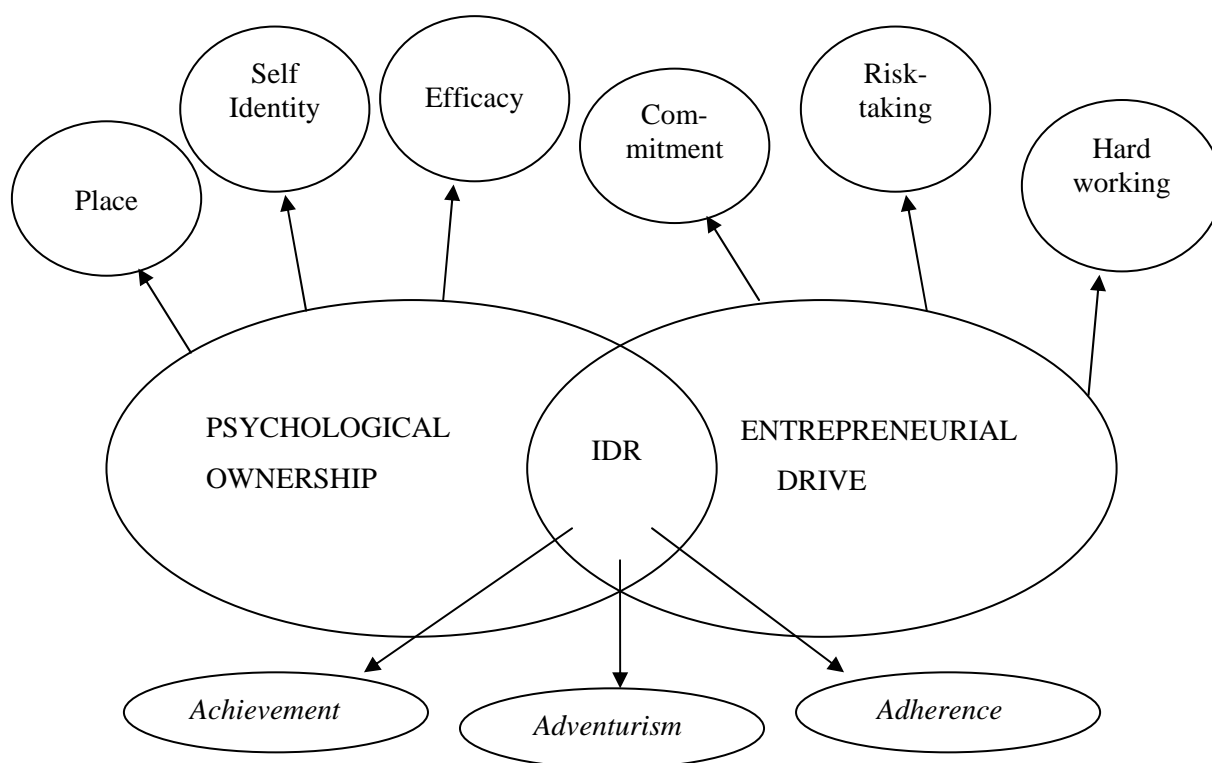
Figure 6 Psychological ownership and entrepreneurial drive = Intrapreneurial drive

5.5 Encouraging the intrapreneurial atmosphere

Organisations that prefer intrapreneurship should pay close attention to the climate. Climate in an organization effects employees' intrapreneurial behaviour. The culture in an organization must be open, and the climate should be encouraging. The lack of control might have negative impacts, but overly tight rules will destroy the intrapreneurial spirit. Individuals with intrapreneurial characteristics will feed to one another, furthermore new innovations and ideas will flourish. Intrapreneurs must have the freedom to innovate (Pinchot 1986, 83). The organizational climate must encourage individuals to take risks, and must reward such behaviour. This kind of climate requires effective encouraging and rewarding systems in order to increase the amount of innovations through motivation. The motivation of individuals is engaged with innovative behaviour (Hornsby et al. 1993, 32). Any effective reward system must consider goals, feedback, emphasis on individual responsibility and rewards based on results. As an illustration, the reward system should have equal access to all and information must be mutual, as well. Supporting managers that promote intrapreneurial projects is another affective

tool for intrapreneurial encouragement. In order for the intrapreneurial drive to exist, an avail-ability of resources must exist. (Hornsby et al. 1993, 30-31)

6   INTRAPRENEURIAL DRIVE AT KYLÄN KATTAUS

Data collection was conducted at the catering unit, Kylän Kattaus. The questionnaire was delivered through the manager to all their employees. Respondents remained anonymous throughout process via clear instructions indicating respondents impersonally seal the envelope after filling out the questionnaire. Questionnaires were emailed for practical reasons,; however, the return of the forms was conducted by internal post of the City of Jyväskylä. Respondents were given two weeks time to answer the questionnaire, was which was sufficient for this kind of survey. The survey was conducted in the first two weeks in February 2007, before winter holidays, which enabled us to reach the respondents and to succeed in this research.

6.1 Opening the demographic data

Kylän Kattaus is part of the City of Jyväskylä. This unit is concentrated on producing food and catering to the personnel of the City of Jyväskylä. The total personnel of Kylän Kattaus are 171 persons. However, the total amount of the personnel of Kylän Kattaus is difficult to define because of their organizational structure and temporary employees. Finally, we received 111 responses; with a total answering rate were 64, 9%. Out of the respondents, 100 persons (90, 1%) were female and 6 (5, 4 %) were male. Missing were 5 answers (4, 5 %) (See table 3). We came to the conclusion that some of the respondents feared recognition, explaining why they did not answer any demographic data at all. In our cover letter, we explained the reasons behind this research and assured anonymity (See appendix 1). Still, there are always people who scared to give any reliable information about them.

Table 3 Gender

	N	%
Female	100	90,1
Male	6	5,4
Missing	5	4,5
Total	111	100

The biggest age group in Kylän Kattaus was 56 years or more, accounting for 33 persons (29, 7%). According to this result, average age at Kylän Kattaus is quite high. Interestingly, the

age group between 36-40 years was the smallest age group, with only 5 persons (4, 5 %). We concluded that the female majority within the company may have caused the low numbers within this group, as this age is the typical time when women give birth or take care of children at home. These reasons, therefore, may affect the age group between 31-35 years, too, which, was also quite low with 6 persons (5, 4%). High average age may also be a result of oldest age group's commitment to their jobs and, thereafter, jobs are unavailable to the younger generation. The older generation's conception that the working place lasts during one's whole lifetime may also impact this result. 5 persons (4, 5 %), from all age groups, were missing data. (See table 4)

Table 4 Age groups

Years	N	%
< 30	8	7,2
31-35	6	5,4
36-40	5	4,5
41-45	18	16,2
46-50	19	17,1
51-55	17	15,3
56 <	33	29,7
Missing	5	4,5
Total	111	100

The amount of permanent employees was 84 persons (75, 7%) and the part-time employment rate was 21 (18, 9%). In the quality of employment question, 6 answers (5, 4%) were missing (See table 5). The rate of permanent employment was quite good in Kylän Kattaus, when taking account today's general discussion about quality of employment. In the public sector there seems to be more non-permanent employments than in other sectors. Nowadays, companies are careful with recruiting new employees to the firms. Therefore, part time employment has increased in both sectors.

Table 5 Quality of employment

	N	%
Permanent	84	75,7
Part time	21	18,9
Missing	6	5,4
Total	111	100

The biggest group, in terms of duration of current working contract, was between 2-5 working years (23, 4%). These individuals either just started their working career in Kylän Kattaus or just transferred to Kylän Kattaus from some other unit. The two smallest groups were the 26-30 years and 21-25 years, with the smallest group including only 7 respondents (6, 3%). In the 21-25 years group, there were 8 persons (7, 2%). However, results show that 11 respondents (9, 9%) stayed over 31 years in their current assignments. Staying such a long in the same job, performing the same working tasks is no longer common (See table 6).

Table 6 Duration of current working contract

Years	N	%
< 2	16	14,4
2-5	26	23,4
6-10	17	15,3
11-15	10	9
16-20	11	9,9
21-25	8	7,2
26-30	7	6,3
31<	11	9,9
Missing	5	4,5
Total	111	100

Under the question of total working years at the City of Jyväskylä, only 4 persons (3, 6%) have stayed for under 2 years. Another group, between 11 to 15 years, had 7 respondents (6, 3%). This group was hired during an enormous recessionary period, explaining the low amount of this group. The biggest group in this question was between 26-30 working years at the City of Jyväskylä, with 20 answers (18%). Additionally, there were two similarly sized groups, in which 18 respondents were in the group between 21-25 total working years (16,2%), and 19 respondents (17,1%) in the group between 16-20 total working years at the City Jyväskylä. Therefore, the employees have worked together for many years at the City of

Jyväskylä, but have changed their working tasks at some point. This explains why results differ in duration of current working contract and total working years at the City of Jyväskylä. There were missing 4 answers (See table 7).

Table 7 Total working years in the City of Jyväskylä

Years	N	%
< 2	4	3,6
2-5	11	9,9
6-10	12	10,8
11-15	7	6,3
16-20	19	17,1
21-25	18	16,2
26-30	20	18
31<	16	14,4
Missing	4	3,6
Total	111	100

There were 30 respondents (27%) in managerial positions, with most of the respondents in other positions 72 (64, 9%). 9 answers (8, 1%) were missing from this question (See table 8). Kylän Kattaus has many units around Jyväskylä, explaining the need for more managers on staff. Therefore, every unit has their own manager, who supervises that specific unit. Still, Kylän Kattaus has a relatively high amount of managers compared to other employers. On the other hand, it is possible that most of the respondents who participated in this survey are managers instead of other employees. So, the rate of managers was quite high between managers and other employees.

Table 8 Occupational position

	N	%
Manager	30	27
Other	72	64,9
Missing	9	8,1
Total	111	100

Units of Kylän Kattaus in our questionnaire were defined in three sectors. However, after reviewing the results, we decided that a fourth possible unit could have been "Nursery school-School". This came out when some respondents chose two options--'Nursery school' and

'School'--for that question. Thus, we decided to create this new sector. In this group, rate of answer was 14 persons (12, 6%). Creation of the new group was justified because the amount of the respondents was relatively high. Most of the respondents were working in the "Geriatric- hospital" sector, 35 respondents (31,5%); the "School" sector following, with 26 respondents (23,4%); and an almost equal amount working in the "Nursery school" sector, with 25 respondents (22,5%). There were 11 (9, 9%) missing answers (See table 9).

Table 9 Units of Kylän Kattaus

	N	%
Nursery School	25	22,5
School	26	23,4
Geriatric-Hospital	35	31,5
Nursery School-School	14	12,6
Missing	11	9,9
Total	111	100

Most of the respondents were working in units under 10 persons, 62 answers (55, 9%). Therefore, the typical size of a unit in Kylän Kattaus is under 10 persons. Units with 10-20 persons were second biggest group, with 20 (18%) respondents. But, the difference in the size of these two groups is remarkable. 18 (16, 2%) respondents work in units between 21-30 persons. There were 11 (9, 9%) missing answers. This quite high rate of missing answers is because of possible misunderstanding of the question. Size of units can be understood in many different ways. Individuals working in the central hospital can imagine themselves as a part of personnel of the hospital (hundreds of employees) instead of belonging in unit of Kylän Kattaus. This question could have been explained in more detail (See table 10)

Table 10 Size of the unit

	N	%
<10 persons	62	55,9
10-20	20	18
21-30	18	16,2
Missing	11	9,9
Total	111	100

Motives were the last part in demographic data in the questionnaire. Motivators will give us information about respondent's simple motives to work. Respondents had to choose three main motives from a list of twelve possible motivators. Specifically, it was interesting to notice that the motivators "ascending in the career" together with "authority" were chosen as the least popular motivator of respondents. But the results of the whole survey reveal that there was a "need for achievement" amongst the personnel of Kylän Kattaus. Personnel seemed shy in explicitly stating ambition in the simple question, but in the theory-based claim revealed ambition. After analyzing the motive results, three main motives became evident. The most important motive was "money" (62, 7%); very near to it was the second motive, "content of the work" (61, 8%); and the third main motivator was "regularity of the work" (51%).

Table 11 Motivators of respondents

Motivator	Count	Column %
1. Money	64	62,7
2. Content of the work	63	61,8
3. Regularity of the work	52	51
4. Continuity of employment	45	44,1
5. Good feeling towards work	33	32,4
6. Challenges	14	13,7
7. Safety	10	9,8
8. Helping people	9	8,8
9. Self- direction	6	5,9
10. Focus of work	6	5,9
11. Authority	2	2,0
12. Ascending in the career	2	2,0

6.2 Analyzing the results of the survey

This survey utilises means, standard deviations, correlations and factor analysis, using the SPSS program as a tool to analyse the results of this survey. The demographic variables were optionally classified, according to every specific background question. From the claims, we took direct distributions from the variables. These variables were measured by a Likert scale and describe the basic information from data. With the help of factor analysis, we were able to create new groups from variables (See Table 12).

Table 12 Statistical methods and purposes

METHOD	PURPOSE
Means, standard deviations, frequencies	Describing data
Kolmogorov-Smirnov test	Distribution of data
Factor analysis	Create groups from variables
Cronbach-alpha	Define the reliability
Correlations	Testing correlations between factors

Results express that the respondents agree with each other more often than disagree, for all the claims. The biggest standard deviation (1,219) was in claim K18 "Making independent decision is easy for me" ("Itsenäisen ratkaisun tekeminen on minulle helppoa"). This means that respondents answered this claim disparately. The other standard deviation rates were under it. The lowest standard deviation rate (0, 63) was in claim K16 "I am accurate in my work" ("Olen huolellinen työssäni"). This means that in this claim, the most respondents agreed with each other.

The mean of claim K11, "I know the goals of my work" ("Tiedän mitkä ovat työni tavoitteet") was the highest (4, 59). This result shows that goals of work are well clarified for the personnel of Kylän Kattaus. According to the low rate of standard deviation (0,679), employees answered this question similarly. The lowest mean was in claim K22 (2, 41) "I am irreplaceable in my work" ("Olen korvaamaton työssäni"). This claim had high between answers, according standard deviation (1,199). As a conclusion, these outputs reflect strong intrapreneurial drive within Kylän Kattaus. Intrapreneurial personnel know their exact goals and what they want to achieve. However, to be irreplaceable is not a typical dimension for intrapreneurially driven individuals. Our theoretical framework is affirmed by the empirical data.

Table 13 Statistics of claims

Claims	N	Mean	Standard deviation
K1 I have possibility to affect my way to do work	111	3,99	,837
K2 I have enough power to do solutions related to my work	110	3,55	,905
K3 I am responsible for my own working tasks	111	4,39	,663
K4 I can take responsibility for my decisions	111	4,51	,686
K5 I want more responsibility in my work	111	2,99	1,031
K6 I like work independently	111	4,13	,764
K7 I appreciate that I can work independently	111	4,17	,712
K8 I feel that I am responsible for renewing of my work	111	3,93	,860
K9 I am ready to help my colleagues in their working tasks	111	4,58	,654
K10 My working tasks are clear to me	111	4,50	,712
K11 I know the goals of my work	111	**4,59**	,679
K12 I work hard to achieve my goals	111	4,22	,744
K13 I set goals to myself	111	4,12	,828
K14 I want to achieve my goals at work	111	4,14	,737
K15 I want to be best to do my current working tasks	110	3,88	,885
K16 I am accurate in my work	111	4,47	**,630**
K17 In problematic situation, I try to make independent solution	111	4,10	,738
K18 Making independent decision is easy for me	111	2,72	**1,219**
K19 I am innovative	111	3,70	,782
K20 I am proactive in my work	111	3,77	,797
K21 I plan the ideas of the relaxation events of our community	111	2,45	1,042
K22 I am irreplaceable in my work	110	**2,41**	1,199
K23 If I would not have this job, I will apply it	110	3,34	1,160
K24 Good feeling is shown through my work	109	3,77	,801
K25 I want to work exactly in this position	109	3,77	1,051
K26 I am dedicated to my work	110	3,60	1,006
K27 I feel that this working place is made for me	110	4,03	,893
K28 I participate with pleasure to relaxation events	110	3,36	1,147
K29 I know the values of the organization	110	4,42	,722
K30 I react positively to chances in my work	110	3,67	,949
K31 I want challenging working tasks	110	2,90	1,031
K32 Problems at work are challenges to me	110	3,45	,905
K33 Merit pay (=tulospalkkaus) would motivate me even more	110	3,52	1,187
K34 I want to develop myself through my work	109	3,79	,893
K35 I am willing to know more about my current job	109	3,71	,785
K36 I participate to the possible educations with pleasure	109	3,73	,929
K37 I am willing to learn new	109	3,99	,887
K38 I enjoy my work	110	4,10	,928
K39 This job is important part of my life	110	3,95	1,048
K40 This job means a lot to me	109	3,93	1,007
K41 I am ready to make personal sacrifices for my work	110	3,55	1,097
K42 I am just the right person to make these working tasks	110	3,48	1,011
K43 This job is part of my identity	110	2,92	,920
K44 I want more independency for planning my job	110	3,09	,852

K45 I appreciate my job	111	4,36	,829
K46 I like my job	111	4,26	,881
K47 My colleagues are appreciating me	111	4,06	,877
K48 We have good spirit in our working place	111	4,29	,898
K49 I am able to co-operate	111	4,49	,659
K50 Results of my work are perceived	110	3,92	,930

6.3 Correlations and interpretation of the data

The empirical data from this questionnaire creates a better knowledge about dimensions of intrapreneurship among the employees of Kylän Kattaus. In this chapter, we will correlate claims with the demographic data, finding significant distinctions between different variables and demographic information.

6.3.1 'Responsibility'

In the claim K5, "I want more responsibility in my work" ("Haluan lisää vastuuta työssäni"), different age groups displayed the biggest differences in answers. The group under 40 years old was willing to take more responsibility in their work than employees over 40 years. Diverging group of the rest age groups were employees over 56 years, which also were more willingness to take risks than employees over 40 to 55 years old. At this age, one's children have grown and one is more willing to take on challenges and responsibility for one's work. Those under 40 still have over 20 years left in their career and are ready to put effort and energy into their work instead of taking responsibility for their households. Although the attitude toward work has risen, young people have a willingness to put effort into their work (See table 14).

Table 14 Correlation between age group and the claim 'I want more responsibility in my work'

Age	Mean
<30	3,38
31-35	3,33
36-40	3,60
41-45	2,94
46-50	2,58
51-55	2,94
>56	3,03

Thus, when comparing the responsibility toward work and occupational position, the result revealed that the managers desire to take responsibility. This was clearly shown in the results of claim K8 "I experience that I am responsible for renewing of my work" ("Tunnen että olen vastuussa työstäni"), with a difference between the means of 0, 75. However, in all claims in the responsibility pattern, managers show that they clearly take their position seriously.

The quality of employment and responsibility correlation exposed interesting insights into the way part time and permanent employees experience responsibility. It was interesting to find that in three claims of nine in the responsibility pattern, temporary employees showed more hunger for responsibility than permanent employees. Maybe it is that part time employees have a desire for permanent employment, so they want to act as effectively as possible. The differences between means were quite marginal, but still differences were separated (See table 15).

Table 15 'Responsibility' claims correlated to quality of employment

Question	Permanent	Temporary
K3 I am responsible for my own working tasks	4,39	4,52
K5 I want more responsibility in my work	2,95	3,19
K9 I am ready to help my colleagues in their working tasks	4,56	4,62

6.3.2. 'Goal orientation'

We correlated occupational position and goal orientation with each other and the results revealed that employees in manager position were more goal-orientated than those in lower positions. This result was expected, as goal orientation is part of managerial assignments. The means between the two groups of occupational position were still quite close to each other; on the other hand, goal orientation is strong within the whole unit. The rates in managerial position were 4, 20-4, 83 and the rate of means in other occupational position was between 3, 79-4, 51.

Goal orientation was also compared with the age and current working contract data. The results did not show any significant differences. The claims in the whole pattern of goal orientation had high rate of means. This revealed that in Kylän Kattaus, employees know their targets of the work. The rates of result show that they work hard to achieve the set goals.

Still, there were some interesting claims in the pattern that jumped out, for example K10 "My working tasks are clear to me" ("Työtehtäväni ovat minulle selvät"). In this claim, the mean was one of the highest when comparing current working contract and goal orientation: 4,90. This mean was shown by those 11-15 years in the current working contract. K15, "I want to be the best in my current working tasks" was correlated with current working contract. It was shown that the groups that were working in their current jobs for over 16 years were not as goal orientated as employees with a less than 16-year career. The correlation between age groups and pattern of goal orientation demonstrates that age did not have any impact on the results. On the other hand, the means of the claims were similar despite the age of employees.

6.3.3 'Innovation and creativity'

Comparing the age groups with the results of the innovation and creativity pattern, we found differences between the age groups 36-40 years and >56 years. It was seen that 36-40 year old employees think independent solution making is comparatively easy for them (See table 16). Those in this age group are living during a hurried period of their life; thus, family, children, job and the free time must be organized well, quickly. This may reflect decision making in the working place, as well. Surprisingly, independent solution making was most difficult for employees in the group >56 years. We concluded that organizational changes might effect the way in which they work and act in their work facility. Changes can be seen, in the structure of the management or hierarchy of the organisations, for example. When this age group started their working career, it may have been impossible for them to judge things as freely as younger employees now do. Organisations have accepted the more open environment and are encouraging people to make their own decision; in short, organisations ask employees to be more independent. Other age groups did not distinguish from each other, with quite steady rate of means (2, 38 - 2,79).

Table 16 The claim 'Making independent solution is hard for me' compared to age group

Age group	Mean
< 30	2,38
31-35	2,33
36-40	1,80
41-45	2,67
46-50	2,79
51-55	2,53
56 >	3,15

The claim 20 "I am proactive in my work" ("Teen aloitteita työssäni") measures if the respondents are proactive or reactive. In this result, we examine the impact of age on willingness to act proactively. The results were quite similar to the results of the above claim: young employees (31-35 years), were able to be more proactive than the over 56 year old employees. The mean in the 31-35 age group was 4,17 and the over 56 age group had a mean of 3,42.

When comparing occupational positions and creativity, the results show that the managers were more innovative and creative than other employees were in the other positions. This may be because of the hierarchy and the structure of the public organization. The differences between the positions groups were marginal, but was still scattered; the result of the claim K21 "I plan the ideas of the relaxation events of our community" showed the biggest difference of 0,47.

Creativity and innovation compared to the quality of the employment reveal unexpected results. Part time employees were more innovative and creative in their work than employees with permanent contracts. The differences between the groups were not big, but noticeable (See table 17).

Table 17 Correlation between the claim: 'Creativity and innovation' to quality of employment

Claim	Permanent	Temporary
K17 In problematic situation, I try to make independent solution	4,13	4,19
K18 Making independent solution is hard for me	2,75	2,81
K19 I am innovative	3,65	3,86
K20 I am proactive in my work	3,71	3,81
K21 I plan the ideas of the relaxation events of our community	2,48	2,29

Comparing the size of the unit with creativity illustrated that in bigger units, of less than 20 employees, proactivity and innovativeness were higher than in smaller units. In the bigger units, it is easier to suggest and create new ideas because people do not stand out. In the smaller units, there must be encouragement to develop and propose new ideas. In the bigger units, it is easier to convince others of one's idea.

6.3.4 'Commitment'

Commitment correlating with age shows those employees <30 years old felt they are irreplaceable, more so than any other age group. Among the claims measuring commitment toward the organization, the difference was not large, yet there was some diversity between the results (See table 18). The age group 36-40 years believed them replaceable. This result proves that young people, those only just graduated from the school, feel that they are capable of everything and are highly self-confident. On the other hand, the two oldest age groups indicate that they have a more stable trust towards their working place, as compared to the 30-40 years old employees. This group responded with the lowest means to the claim K22 "I'm irreplaceable in my work".

Table 18 Comparison between the claim: 'I'm irreplaceable in my work' and age group

Age group	Mean
< 30	3,0
31-35	2,33
36-40	2,00
41-45	2,22
46-50	2,68
51-55	2,57
56 >	2,44

The claim K29 "I know the values of the organization" ("Tiedän työpaikkani arvot") in the commitment dimension correlated with the age groups. The results did not show any significant differences between answers; thus, everyone was familiar with the values of the organization, with correlation values between 4, 29 and 4, 71.

When comparing the age groups to the claim K28 "I participate with pleasure in relaxation events" ("Osallistun mielelläni virkistystapahtumiin"), it was seen that employees under 30 years old more enthusiastically took part in the happenings unrelated to work. The interpretation for these results is that group of 36-40 year olds were the lowest due to family situations (for example children and hobbies), where it is not so "easy" to take part in these kind of activities (See table 19). According to the results, those over 56 years do not participate in the informal actions with pleasure. The interpretation for this result is that people in that age group may prefer to spend time with their families and/or possible grandchildren. Also, they have many years working experience, so their thoughts are already turned to the time after their working career. The difference between the means in this claim was 3, 00 to 4, 29.

Table 19 Correlation between the claim: 'I participate with pleasure to relaxation events' and age group

Age groups	Mean
< 30	4,29
31-35	3,17
36-40	3,00
41-45	3,56
46-50	3,53
51-55	3,59
56 >	3,03

According claim K23 "If I would not have this job, I would like to apply it" ("Jos minulla ei olisi tätä työtä, hakisin sitä"), those under 40 years old had an interest in applying for the current job, if they did not already have it. On the other hand, employees over 40 years of age might consider other options as well. The claim K27 "This job is made for me" ("Tämä työpaikka tuntuu omalta") describes the feeling of having one's own place and the feeling of belonging somewhere. One result of this claim is that the age group between 51-55 years felt that the job was really meant for them. Employees in this age group place themselves in their current working place; thus, they are reacting carefully to the changes. It is safe to cling to a familiar and secure working place.

Table 20 Correlation between the 'Commitment' claims and quality of employment

Claim	Permanent	Temporary
K22 I am irreplaceable	2,44	2,57
K23 If I would not have this job, I will apply it	3,44	3,62
K24 Good feeling is shown through my work'	3,72	4,05
K25 I want to work exactly in this position	3,87	3,57
K26 I am dedicated to my work	3,70	3,43
K27 I feel that this working place is made for me'	4,10	3,75
K28 I participate with pleasure to relaxation events	3,39	3,43
K29 I know the values of organization	4,48	4,43

Employees with different types of employment quality did not show meaningful differences in their answers. Only of significant attention was that the claims K22 ("I am irreplaceable"), K23 ("if I would not have this job, I will apply it") and K24 ("good feeling is shown through my work") resulted in employees with temporary contract posting larger rates of means than employees with permanent employment (See table 20). Claim K27 ("I feel that this working place is made for me") revealed the most differences between permanent and temporary employees. Employees with temporary employment did not feel psychological ownership toward the working place because of a lack of temporary contract.

6.3.6 'Development of the work' and 'life-long learning'

The correlation between age group and development expressed that employees between the ages of36-45 were more willing to develop themselves when compared to the younger age groups. This result was surprising because usually it is assumed that young people have the

desire to develop themselves. Employees over 56 years old also showed a lack of willingness for life long learning. This can be explained by thoughts of retirement and self-development outside of the working place. In the same way, it is seen that this age group, over 56, did not want to take part in possible education. The claim K36 "I participate to the possible educations with pleasure" ("Osallistun mielelläni mahdollisiin koulutuksiin") had a rate of mean of 3,45. In comparison, the age group between 46-50 years responded that they were actively participating in possible educations, at a rate of mean at 4,84.

The size of the unit seemed to have an impact on self-development (See table 21), which seemed to be more desirable in bigger units than in smaller units. In the smaller units, under 10 employees, development is focused on the self instead of the work. On the other hand, in the bigger units, development is easier to apply to one's work. However, in bigger units, there may be comparison between competencies of employees, leading to a competitive mentality. The claim K35, "I am willing to know more about my current job" ("Olen tiedonjanoinen työssäni"), supports our interpretation. The group of employees working in units between 21-30 colleges experienced the most willingness to learn more and develop themselves, with a mean of 4,00.

Table 21 Size of the unit compared to 'Development'

Claim	<10	10-20	21-30
K34 I want to develop myself through my work	3,85	3,75	3,69
K35 I am willing to know more about my current job	3,76	3,45	4,00
K36 I participate to the possible educations with pleasure	3,76	3,80	4,00
K37 I am willing to learn new	3,95	4,10	4,25

6.3.7 'Me as a worker'

The 'Me as a worker' dimension included issues relating to personal sacrifices, importance of work, identification and the role of work. When claims of this dimension were compared to the demographic information, there are some aspects, which should be clarified. Correlation between the occupational position and 'me as a worker' indicated that employees in managerial position enjoy work more than employees in other positions. Claim K44 "I want more

independency for planning my job" ("Haluan lisää itsenäisyyttä työni suunnitteluun") was the only claim to give differing information in comparison with other claims in this dimension (See table 22). All the employees, regardless of occupational position, were willing to have an equivalent amount of independence when planning their job (K44).

Table 22 'Me as a worker' claims compared to occupational position

Claim	Managerial	Other
K38 I enjoy my work	4,46	4,03
K39 This job is important part of my life	4,21	3,97
K40 This job means a lot to me	4,18	3,92
K41 I am ready to make personal sacrifices for my work	3,86	3,56
K42 I am just the right person to make these working tasks	3,75	3,44
K43 This job is part of my identity	3,11	2,90
K44 I want more independency for planning my job	3,14	3,14

When comparing the size of the unit with the dimension of 'Me as a worker,' it was found that in units under 10 employees, it were easier to enjoy the work. In five claims of seven, the mean was higher than those of larger units. For example K38 "I enjoy my work" and K40 "This job means a lot to me" the rate of means was higher than the larger units. Independence wasdesired more in the bigger units of 21-30 employees. Results of claim K44 "I want more independency for planning my job" ("Haluan lisää itsenäisyyttä työni suunnitteluun") show a mean of 3, 18 in units of 21-30 employees.

6.3.8 'Joy of the work'

The claims in the 'Joy of work' dimension were expected to reveal how employees enjoy the work, experience the spirit in the organization and how co-operative the experience in their working place. Comparing the claims of this dimension to the occupational position, it appeared that employees in the managerial positions enjoyed and appreciated their work more than employees in other positions. Even though the claim K 47 "My colleagues appreciate me" ("Työtoverini arvostavat minua") illustrated that employees in other position felt more appreciation than managerial employees. Managers are often in a position in which they must

make decisions that are not always pleasant for employees, resulting in lowered appreciation levels at work.

Comparing the 'joy of work' between age groups revealed that the most satisfied group are the 51-55 years old employees. The means showed that they enjoy the work, experience co-operation in their work and received respect from their colleagues (See table 23). This result can be explained by their experience; thus, younger employees do not have as much joy for the work because they are not as committed to the organization. It can be assumed that older employees have worked longer and have developed the joy of work towards their work. It is possible to develop the joy of work through commitment integration with the organization. The table underlines the age groups in which there were the biggest differences between means. The means for young employees in claims K45 "I appreciate my job" K46 "I like my job" were the lowest.

Table 23 'Joy of work' compared to age groups "under 30 years" and "51-55 years"

Claim	Under 30	51-55
K45 I appreciate my job	3,88	4,76
K46 I like my job	3,75	4,65
K47 My colleagues are appreciating me	4,00	4,77
K49 I am able to co-operate	4,13	4,76

6.4 Factor Analysis

The purpose of factor analysis is to make compact groups from the large amount of variables. To compact the data into five factors, or sum variables, helps one understand the results. The research problem sought to find if intrapreneurial drive exists amongst the employees of Kylän Kattaus. Moreover, we are analysing how psychological ownership and entrepreneurial drive theories reflect intrapreneurial drive. By using factor analysis, we can uncover what kind of atmosphere exists in Kylän Kattaus, as well as compare possible interrelated factors. Our extraction method of factoring was principal axis factoring. We used a direct Oblimin rotation due to the dependence on, and correlation with, other factors.

We made sum variables from the data. Cronbach's alpha factors of sum variables were

F1 Goal-orientation and devotion towards work (0,935),

F2 Self- developing and change- adapting (0,892),

F3 Independency and responsibility of work and decisions (0,856),

F4 Identification towards work (0,820) and

F5 Innovation and initiative-making (0,719)

The Cronbach's alpha test shows that the five factors, made with the SPSS-program, were reliable. A sufficient grade of an alpha factor is considered to be at least 0,5. The validity of this survey is proven by the total study. Respondents may have believed that the results of the survey went directly to employers to use. This belief may have caused respondents to answer to please their manager, diminishing the validity of the study.

For each construct, factor analysis was conducted using the number of claims expected by theories, thus supporting our theoretical framework. The risk-taking variable was not included in factor analysis; however, this outcome was an acceptable outcome. Because the survey was conducted in public sector, there are far less possibilities for taking risks due to the tight control of working tasks. In a different environment, one with a flat organizational structure and without pressure of public hierarchy, the risk-taking dimension would probably play a much larger role in the study.

6.5 Named factors

With factor analysis we acquired twelve factors, with nine of them loaded over 1. From these factors we chose five usable factors. Five strong factors were limited with a present of variance over 4% and the cumulative present was over 50%. All of our variables showed that values of communalities were higher than 1. The factors' communality rates will be shown on Table 24.

Table 24 FACTOR 1: Goal orientation and devotion towards work

Variable	Loaded	Communality
K13 I set goals to myself	,487	,848
K15 I want to be best to do my current work tasks	,416	,657
K23 If I would not have this job, I will apply it	,536	,564
K24 It can be seen good feeling towards my job	,475	,598
K25 I want to work exactly in this position	,635	,519
K26 I am dedicated with my work	,650	,668
K27 This work is "mentally mine"	,699	,707
K38 I enjoy my work	,681	,798
K39 This job is important part of my life	,842	,893
K40 This job means a lot to me	,831	,929
K41 I am ready to make personal sacrifices for my work	,617	,609
K42 I am just the right person to make this working tasks	,509	,555
K43 This job is part of my identity	,624	,552
K45 I appreciate my job	,531	,733
K46 I like my job	,663	,821

The mean of F1, 'Goal-orientation and devotion towards work', was 3,80. This factor explained 48% of all claims, which were loaded in factors F1-F5. This factor explained 31,5% of the total variance. The theoretical framework covered factor 'Goal-orientation and devotion towards work'. Intrapreneurial drive was broadly represented in this factor. If fact, this factor showed a marked importance of goal setting and meaning of the work for self, and includes personal views toward work, habits, skills and feelings. This factor did not reflect any effects of organization, such as the impact of the working community and working colleagues, thus, there were no disagreements between claims under this factor (See table 15).

Table 25 FACTOR 2: Self-developing and change adapting

Variable	Loaded	Communality
K30 I react positively to chances in my work	,469	,691
K34 I want to develop my self through my job	,561	,790
K35 I am willing to know more about my current job	,578	,756
K36 I participated with pleasure to possible arranged educations	,797	,888
K37 I am willing to learn new	,731	,782

The Self-development and change-adaptation factor explained 5,9 % of total variance. The mean of the factor was 3,77. This factor presented developing in different forms. It deter-

mined that the presence of those who want to develop themselves and their work; still, this factor primarily measures change adaptation and life long learning. From an intrapreneurial drive aspect, it was important that these characteristics were present in the second factor (See table 16).

Table 26 FACTOR 3: Independency and responsibility of work and decisions

Variable	Loaded	Communality
K4 I can take responsibility for my decisions	,426	,636
K6 I like work independently	,843	880
K7 I appreciate that I can work independently	,824	,803
K8 I feel that I am responsible for renewing my work	,575	,634
K14 I want to achieve my goals at work	,463	,683

The 'Independency and responsibility of work and decisions' factor explained 5,0 % of total variance. The mean of this factor was 4,18. This factor emphasized responsibility and independence. This factor revealed the desire to be independent and a willingness to take responsibility of one's own decisions. Intrapreneurial drive underlines personal independence (See table 27).

Table 27 FACTOR 4: Identification towards work

Variable	Loaded	Communality
K10 My working tasks are clear to me	,776	,771
K11 I know what are the goals of my work	,716	,679
K29 I know values of the organization	,468	,602

Factor 4, 'Identification towards work', explained 3,7 % of total variance. The mean of the factor was 4,50. Typical intrapreneurial characteristics were present in this factor, such as: people know their tasks, goals and values of working place. However, this factor reveals more features related to an operative stage of work, as opposed to relationships with colleagues and the environment (See table 28).

Table 28 FACTOR 5: Innovation and initiative making

Variable	Loaded	Communality
K19 I am innovative	,551	,488
K20 I am initiative	,634	,535
K21 I create ideas to relaxation events of the work community	,671	,581
K28 I participate with pleasure to relaxation events	,528	,497
K44 I want more independency for planning my job	,497	,483

The "Innovation and initiative-making" factor explained 3, 2% of the total variance. The mean of this factor was 3, 28. This factor contains plenty of the typical intrapreneurial characteristics like innovativeness, proactiveness and independence (See table29).

Table 29 Key numbers of the factors

FACTORS	N	Min	Max	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cronbach's Alpha
Goal-orientation and devotion towards work	111	1,47	4,93	3,805	,69777	,935
Self- developing and change-adapting	110	1,00	5,00	3,772	,74513	,892
Independency and responsibility for work and decisions	111	1,00	5,00	4,176	,60105	,856
Identification towards work	111	2,00	5,00	4,507	,60444	,820
Innovation and initiative-making	111	1,60	5,00	3,276	,64026	,719

When comparing means of factors it seems that all the means were over average, therefore results of intrapreneurial spirit are relatively good. The strongest mean was in the factor 'Identification towards work' (F4). This factor includes the employees' identification towards values, goals and working tasks. With this strong rate of mean (4,5) employees showed commitment to their working place. Support of an organization seems to be effective when employees are able to identify themselves with their work. Even though the rate of mean for the factor 'Innovation and initiative-making' (F5) was the lowest, it is still rather high (3,3). When analysing this factor, this quite low mean can be explained as a result of the hierarchy present in the public sector. In Kylän Kattaus it seemed to be quite easy to exhibit innovativeness,

which can be seen from the relatively high rate of mean. It was assumed that in public sector it might be more difficult to act innovatively, but the rate showed that it is not contingent only on sector (private, public). There should be optimal circumstances that support or diminish innovative behaviour. Optimal circumstances are defined by openness, freedom to do work and low hierarchy. Intrapreneurial drive is linked to a certain culture of organization as well, and this can explain the good results of the rate of all factors. In Kylän Kattaus the culture of the unit seems to encourage employees to act innovatively and take initiative. Organisations need employees who are innovative and take initiative in order to develope and reinforce competitiveness. Today's trends indicate that the public sector will privatize their units and actions. In units with high rates of innovation and initiative, the threat of privatization is not so scary because employees are able to adapt to changes. Changes for innovative people may even stimulate the creative process, leading to new ideas. All means of the other three factors are over average (2,5), which indicates as moderate rate of intrapreneurial drive in Kylän Kattaus.

Results of correlations show that there were no meaningful correlations between demographic data and sum factors. The demographic data of our survey were: gender, age, quality of employment, working years in current job, total working years in the City of Jyväskylä, position, unit, size of unit and motivators. When testing the correlations with One-Way ANOVA, the results showed that there was no effect between demographic information and factors (See table 30).

Table 30 Correlations between factors

	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5
F1 Goal-orientation and devotion towards work		,000	,000	,000	,001
F2 Self- developing and change- adapting	,000		,000	,000	,000
F3 Independency and responsibility for work and decisions	,000	,000		,000	,000
F4 Identification towards work	,000	,000	,000		,002
F5 Innovation and initiative-making	,001	,000	,000	,002	

Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Research on the correlations between factors seemed to indicate that all factors except F4 and F5 correlated with one another. Correlations were significant (p=0.000) in Goal oriented people (F1) who are developing themselves and adapt to changes easily (F2).

As a conclusion we can create a tool measuring intrapreneurial drive from the main characteristics of intrapreneurially driven people. Through previous theories and the survey we define a theoretical framework for the tool, which includes claims based on said theories. Factor analysis of the Kylän Kattaus survey lead to a more complete understanding of the unit itself as well as the characteristics of intrapreneurial drive. If the survey would have been conducted in a different unit in the City of Jyväskylä, it is clear that the loadings of factors would have been totally different.

7 CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION

The research problem of this study was does intrapreneurial drive exist among the employees of Kylän Kattaus. In this chapter we are going to report what characteristics are included in intrapreneurial drive, in addition, we are going to analyze Intrapreneurial Drive -index. In theoretical conclusion we will analyze and recap the concepts of psychological ownership and entrepreneurial drive. However, the roots of intrapreneurial drive are based on these two concepts. Both of the concepts include several researches and theories by different authors. In this research we were chosen the three entrepreneurial characteristics because we decided that the characteristics were interesting to combine together with psychological ownership motives, besides we noticed them to be closely related with each other. In empirical conclusion we will answer to our research problem and will report the results at the Kylän Kattaus. In addition, we discuss why the results were how they were and what the reasons behind them are. In the end, we will offer proposes for further research.

7.1 Conclusions of theoretical framework

The theories behind questionnaire were psychological ownership and entrepreneurial drive which together formulate the Intrapreneurial Drive index. Through the theories we refined the model which describes intrapreneurial drive. These theories were combined together because of several similarities. Characteristics of entrepreneurial drive and aspects of psychological ownership were noticed to have many overlapping features. Theory of psychological ownership is refined from concept of organizational commitment, thus, there are seen links to organizational behaviour like Pierce, Rubenfeld & Morgan (1991) have researched. Currently Koiranen (2006) and Hall (2005) have concentrated also to connect psychological ownership to family business; psychological ownership has seen to be a part of responsible ownership (Melin, Brundin & Samuelsson 2005). Other dimensions of ownership are described and compared to psychological ownership point of view in our theoretical frame work. Socio-symbolic- ownership by Nordqvist (2007) is also seen to be part of the psychological ownership. After all, in our research legal ownership is defined by law and linked to the family business (Hall 2004, Koiranen 2007). Entrepreneurial drive is connected to entrepreneurship context; hence, entrepreneurs must be creative and renewing people (Kansikas 2004). Likewise other strengths of entrepreneurs are also emphasizing like innovativeness (Antonic &

Hisrich 2001, proactivity (Bateman & Crant 1993) and risk-taking (Zahra 1991, Das & Tang 1997). In public sector there can be seen changes in organizational environment, thus, the theme of efficacy has empowered. That is why intrapreneurial behaviour is important to research and take to the practise.

In this study we concentrated to Pierce, Rubenfeld and Morgan (1991) theory about psychological ownership. In that theory was seen three main motives of psychological ownership which were described clearly of the basics of the psychological ownership. Three main reasons which Pierce et al. (1991) were defining to fulfil individuals' needs were *efficacy and effectance*, *self- identity* and *having a place.* These authors were taken three more emotions along which were commitment, identification and internalization when they were defining the concept of psychological ownership. We have formulated the theory of psychological ownership throughout these constructions and transferred those thoughts to the public sector. Even though, entrepreneurial drive was handled through theories by Koiranen (2006). We were concentrating to the three characteristics of entrepreneurial drive which were hard working (Koiranen 2006), risk taking (Brockhaus 1980) and commitment (O'driscoll, Pierce and Coghlan 2006). These three features were most interesting and important to take along when combining the theories of psychological ownership and entrepreneurial drive. In addition, the chosen characteristics of entrepreneurial drive and motives of psychological ownership have similarities on basis and overlapping features were easy to recognize. There were characteristics, which were linked to entrepreneurs and entrepreneurial drive by many other researches as well.

The main characteristics of intrapreneurial drive are achievement, adventurism and adherent which are the common issues between the psychological ownership and entrepreneurial drive. *Achievement* means that person, who has intrapreneurial drive is willing to work hard. However, the tasks are planned and intended and still person with achievement- characteristic will do work within the schedule. These people may have the unique way to work and therefore, desire to success. Two main influences to achievement were efficacy, which is the one motive behind psychological ownership, and hard working- skill, which is the one main entrepreneurial characteristic. *Adventure* describes intrapreneurial driven people willingness to risk taking and innovating new ideas. Adventurists are needed in organizations because of renewing and reshaping manners and habits. Adventurists are the ones who are setting goals to themselves and their mode of actions may be brave and experimental. Adventure is created

via self-identity from aspect of psychological ownership and risk- taking from aspect of entrepreneurial drive- theory. *Adherent* –characteristic means encouraging persons, who supports rules and laws. This characteristic, after two before mentioned characteristics, makes intrapreneurial driven person possible to work in public sector. Adherents are the ones who are stressing the justice. These people are needed in organizations because of safety spirit. Concept of adherent has described via having a place from aspect of psychological ownership and entrepreneurial drive-characteristic; commitment.

7.2 Empirical conclusions

Our empirical data was conducted in Kylän Kattaus, the catering unit of the City of Jyväskylä. The aim was to find out if there exists intrapreneurial drive among the employees. The research method was a survey, with which we tested the function of Intrapreneurial Drive - index (ID-index). This tool was the questionnaire with 65 claims of which 50 claims were processed with factor analyse. Fifteen claims were limited out of the survey but were in original questionnaire because of interesting knowledge for Kylän Kattaus. Our aspect for this study was individual and that is the reason why 'Working Community' and 'Nearest Supervisor/manager' -parts was limited out from analyse. Afterwards the 'Working Community' -part would have been possible to take into account in our factor analyze; because the organizational culture have also impact for intrapreneurial drive. In this study we have focused more personal aspect for intrapreneurial drive.

With the Intrapreneurial Drive -index it is possible to reveal the rate of intrapreneurial drive among the organization. However, from the results there is possible to see the lack of some dimension as well. There are possible to separate the factors from the claims, which are possible barriers to the intrapreneurial drive. Barriers can be interpreted from the results, but this needs better awareness of the organization.

The survey was completed successfully; answering rate of respondents was 64, 9% and there were 111 returned questionnaires. Timing of the survey was good and we got answers at the planned time. According to results, there were average amount of intrapreneurial drive among the employees of Kylän Kattaus. Intrapreneurial drive athmosphere includes independency, proactivity and more responsibility. When we are linking the intrapreneurial drive- theory to

the empirical research we can notice that our empirical results will support the theory. Result was shown that In Kylän Kattaus there were strong 'achievement' characteristic among personnel. According this result, 'achievers' tasks are well planned, and this kind of people will work within the schedule. However, they want to work their own way but still they have desire to success. Because of public sector, 'adventure' characteristic was not revealed so strongly. Among the employees, there were not seen the innovativeness and willingness to take risks. The quite old personnel of Kylän Kattaus may have impacts to reveal of this result, because older people are not so change adapting but they want to work in stable circumstances. In the other hand, employees of Kylän Kattaus were setting goals which express that they have need for achievement and they are goal orientated. In order that 'adventure' characteristic will be more common at Kylän Kattaus there should be taken account the organizational climate to the focus of the research. However encouraging employees to innovate and create new is important. 'Adherents' are supporting rules and laws, and this type of characteristic fits well to the public sector. Our empirical results were shown that in Kylän Kattaus was this type, who wants to work under safety conditions. However, commitment was not significant strong among employees. We can wonder, if the spirit in public sector is "too" safe, what effects to commitment toward work within employees.

Our empirical results were strengthen the theory with the help of factor analyze. Factor analyse presented that 33 claims were strongly loaded to five factors. These five factors were:

1. Goal-orientation and devotion towards work
2. Self-developing and change adapting
3. Independency and responsibility of work and decisions
4. Identification towards work
5. Innovation and initiative making.

Intrapreneurial Drive -index is usable in other units in the City of Jyväskylä as well, because index does not make any limitations to using it. The claims in the index are made easy to answer and are generally applicable. The structure of the units in the City of Jyväskylä is similar, so the index can modify easily for other units, with few changes within the demographic data. Factor analyze was strengthen our questionnaire because the loadings were seemed to be almost alike with the pattern of the survey. After this reveal, we handled our pattern from questionnaire with the demographic data. Results will express that the respondents were agreeing with each others more often than disagree in all the claims. Means between the

claims were 2,41 and 4,59. That states about the harmony among the employees. However, the biggest standard deviation was in claim K18 'Making independent decision is easy for me' ('Itsenäisen ratkaisun tekeminen on minulle helppoa'). This means that respondents were answered to this claim disparately. The entire rest standard deviation rate was under it. Lowest standard deviation rate was in the claim K16 'I am accurate in my work' ('Olen huolellinen työssäni'). This means that to this claim respondents were agreeing most with each other and it revealed that employees have good relationship for the work.

Demographic data did not have any meaningful influence in the results. Remarkable knowledge was that the claims with risk taking -characteristics were not loaded strongly. According this result there were not ability to take risks. This result is assumed to be expectable, because of organizational culture in public sector; bureaucracy and clear definitions of working tasks may decrease the risk taking ability. Other explanation for this result might be the fulltime hurry, which impacts to people work even in basic tasks, what need to be done.

The similarities in the results of our questionnaire and factor analysis will be shown in table 31. There we have the means of the questionnaire patterns and the rates of Cronbach's Alpha of factors in order through results. This will confirm of our empirical results.

Table 31 Order of the results in question patterns and factor analysis

QUESTIONNAIRE	FACTOR ANALYZE
1. Goal orientation 4,27	1. Goal –orientation and devotion towards work 0,935
2. Joy of work 4,23	2. Self- developing and change adapting 0,892
3. Responsibility 4,02	3. Independency and responsibility of work 0,856
4. Development 3,80	4. Identification toward work 0,820
5. Commitment 3,58	5. Innovation and initiative making 0,719
6. Me as a worker 3,57	
7. Challenges and risk taking 3,38	
8. Innovativeness and creativity 3,34	

After all results were shown that rate of 'innovativeness and creativity' were lowest and 'goal-orientation' were highest of the all the intrapreneurial characteristics which were measured. Mean of the 'Joy of work' pattern was secondly strong, which was shown among the employees. This result will show that spirit in Kylän Kattaus is encouraging and it seems to be good place to work in. Order within the next patterns was 'responsibility', 'development',

and 'commitment', 'me as a worker' and 'challenges & risk-taking.' Results of the whole survey were revealing the positive signal of intrapreneurial spirit among the organization, thus the means between patterns were 3, 34 to 4, 27. The empirical result confirmed our theoretical framework because the intrapreneurial drive describes fluently the characteristics and motives which intrapreneurial drive is based on. (See table 31)

7.3 Suggestions for further research

This research has limited the role of nearest supervisor and the aspect of the organisation on intrapreneurial drive. It would be essential for further research to clarify to impacts of this nearest supervisor toward intrapreneurial drive. Also, it will be important to seek the possible organizational aspects to the developing of intrapreneurial drive. Organizational encouragements, barriers and challenges of intrapreneurial drive, should be considered when the concept of intrapreneurial drive is further developed. Nowadays it seems that there is nothing important in organization but effectivity. Therefore intrapreneurial drive is a one key concept for employees, which is worthy of attention.

With the Intrapreneurial Drive -index it is possible to reveal the rate of intrapreneurial drive among an organization. However, the results indicate it is possible to see a lack of some dimension as well. Therefore, when developing the Intrapreneurial Drive -index to the next level, there must be more research on the encouragements of intrapreneurial drive necessary for the further use of intrapreneurial drive. That will be necessary because of the further use of intrapreneurial drive. For example if the Intrapreneurial Drive index indicates a low rate of innovativeness, there should be the clear rules, how to encourage innovativeness among an organisation's employees. However, there have been made plenty of researches, with usable results, but further actions have not been taken into practice.

Psychological ownership as a concept is interesting and broad. In terms of family business context, we suggest specific topics to research as well. For example, what are the ownership feelings of family member or the outer supervisors? What kind of feelings about ownership do they have? Also, when talking about psychological ownership, it quite often is discussed in a positive context. However there can be negative feelings of psychological ownership as well. For example if some employee can act too effective and feel that "he/she owns the part

of business" there can be some feelings within other employees that they are not able to get room. It would be interesting to know, if negative feelings of psychological ownership have impacts on intrapreneurial drive. Can an employee be too efficacious or too committed toward the place? In other words what are the effects if outer supervisor trod on business owner's foot?

Motivations were not shaped by the intrapreneurial drive in this research. It is clear that motivation toward work depends on the energy to do work. Motivations and intrapreneurial drive as well as motivations and psychological ownership are also interesting topics for further research. Results in this survey revealed that money was the important motivator among the employees in Kylän Kattaus. Therefore financial rewards affect positively to employees' way to work and increase 'joy of work' and 'goal orientation'. Other good encouragement is to offer challenges and possibility to develop, so employees feel that they have opportunity to go ahead to their career.

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APPENDIX 1

ARVOISA VASTAANOTTAJA,

Jyväskylän kaupunki ja Jyväskylän yliopisto tutkivat yhteistyössä Jyväskylän kaupungin henkilöstöä. Olemme valinneet pilotti- tutkimuksen kohderyhmäksi Kylän Kattauksen.

Kysely on osa Pro Gradu -tutkielmaa jossa tutkitaan julkista organisaatiota. Tulkinta, analysointi ja raportointi tapahtuvat Jyväskylän yliopiston taloustieteiden tiedekunnan opiskelijoiden, Outi Hyytisen ja Katja Salmisen, toimesta.

Teillä on mahdollista pohtia itseänne ja omaa suhdetta työhön ja työyhteisöön. Kysymykset ovat monivalintakysymyksiä ja niihin vastaaminen kestään noin 10–15 minuuttia. Jokaisen osallistuminen kyselyyn on tärkeää. Kaikki tiedot käsitellään nimettöminä ja ehdottoman luottamuksellisesti.

Kyselyn viimeinen vastauspäivä on **torstai 15. helmikuuta.** Kun olet täyttänyt lomakkeen, taita ja nido niitillä arkkinippu yhteen. Vastaukset kulkevat sisäisessä postissa Kylän Kattaukseen, josta ne toimitetaan tilastointiin.

KIITOS!

Jyväskylässä 1. helmikuuta 2007

Sirkka-Liisa Ahonen, Liikelaitosjohtaja, Kylän Kattaus

Pertti Malkki, Henkilöstöpäällikkö, Jyväskylän kaupunki

Outi Hyytinen, Jyväskylän yliopisto

Katja Salminen, Jyväskylän yliopisto

APPENDIX 2

<u>OMAN TYÖN KEHITTÄMINEN</u>   **Kyselylomake**

TAUSTATIEDOT

Ympyröi oikeaksi katsomasi vaihtoehto:

Sukupuoli	1. nainen 2. mies

Kuulun ikäryhmään   1. alle 30 v.   2. 31–35 v.   3. 36–40 v.   4. 41–45 v.
5. 46–50 v.   6. 51–55 v.   7. 56 v. tai enemmän

Palvelusuhteeni on   1. vakituinen 2. määräaikainen

Olen toiminut nykyisessä tehtävässäni

1. alle 2 v.   2. 3–5 v.   3. 6–10 v.   4. 11–15 v.
5. 16–20 v.   6. 21–25 v.   7. 26–30 v.   8. 31 v. tai yli

Olen työskennellyt kaupungilla   1. alle 2 v.   2. 3–5 v.   3. 6–10 v.   4. 11–15 v.
5. 16–20 v.   6. 21–25 v.   7. 26–30 v.   8. 31 v. tai yli

Ammattiasema   1. esimies   2. muu

Tulosalue   1. päiväkoti 2. koulu   3. vanhus ja sairaala

Yksikön koko   1. alle 10hlö 2. 10–20hlö 3. 21–30hlö

Työssäni minua motivoi: Numeroi kolme tärkeintä kannustinta 1–3,
1. tärkein, 2. toiseksi tärkein, 3. kolmanneksi tärkein.

__ vaikutusvalta	__ etenemismahdollisuudet
__ työn sisältö	__ työn säännöllisyys
__ haasteet	__ raha
__ hyvä fiilis	__ ihmisten auttaminen
__ turvallisuus	__ työsuhteen jatkuvuus
__ itseohjautuvuus	__ työn tavoitteellisuus

Ympyröi yksi numero (5-1) / väittämä	Täysin samaa mieltä				Täysin eri mieltä

TYÖNTEKIJÄ

Vastuullisuus

K1 Minulla on mahdollisuus vaikuttaa työtapoihini	5	4	3	2	1
K2 Minulla on tarpeeksi valtaa tehdä omaan työhöni liittyviä ratkaisuja	5	4	3	2	1
K3 Olen itse vastuussa omista tehtävistäni	5	4	3	2	1
K4 Osaan ottaa vastuun tekemistäni päätöksistä	5	4	3	2	1
K5 Haluan lisää vastuuta työssäni	5	4	3	2	1
K6 Pidän itsenäisistä työskentelytavoista	5	4	3	2	1
K7 Arvostan sitä, että saan toimia itsenäisesti	5	4	3	2	1
K8 Tunnen, että olen vastuussa työni uusiutumisesta (työni kehittämisestä)	5	4	3	2	1
K9 Olen valmis auttamaan työkavereitani työtehtävien hoidossa	5	4	3	2	1

Tavoitteellisuus

K10 Työtehtäväni ovat minulle selvät	5	4	3	2	1
K11 Tiedän, mitkä ovat työni tavoitteet	5	4	3	2	1
K12 Työskentelen kovasti, että saavutan annetut tavoitteet	5	4	3	2	1
K13 Asetan itselleni tavoitteita	5	4	3	2	1
K14 Toimin tavoitteeni saavuttaen	5	4	3	2	1
K15 Haluan olla paras tekemään juuri nämä työt	5	4	3	2	1
K16 Olen huolellinen työssäni	5	4	3	2	1

Innovatiivisuus ja luovuus

K17 Ongelmatilanteissa pyrin tekemään itsenäisen ratkaisun	5	4	3	2	1
K18 Itsenäisen ratkaisun tekeminen on minulle vaikeaa	5	4	3	2	1
K19 Olen kekseliäs (innovatiivinen) työssäni	5	4	3	2	1
K20 Teen aloitteita työssäni	5	4	3	2	1
K21 Ideoin työyhteisömme virkistystapahtumia	5	4	3	2	1

		Täysin samaa mieltä				Täysin eri mieltä

Sitoutuneisuus

K22	Olen korvaamaton työssäni	5	4	3	2	1
K23	Jos minulla ei olisi tätä työtä, hakisin sitä	5	4	3	2	1
K24	Työn kautta näkyy hyvä fiilikseni työtä kohtaan	5	4	3	2	1
K25	Haluan toimia nimenomaan tässä työtehtävässä	5	4	3	2	1
K26	Olen omistautunut työlleni	5	4	3	2	1
K27	Tämä työpaikka tuntuu "omalta"	5	4	3	2	1
K28	Osallistun mielelläni virkistystapahtumiin	5	4	3	2	1
K29	Tiedän työpaikkani arvot	5	4	3	2	1

Haasteet ja Riskinotto

K30	Suhtaudun myönteisesti muutoksiin työssäni	5	4	3	2	1
K31	Haluan haastavampia työtehtäviä	5	4	3	2	1
K32	Työssä kohtaamani ongelmat ovat minulle haasteita	5	4	3	2	1
K33	Tulospalkkaus motivoisi minua entisestään	5	4	3	2	1

Kehittyminen

K34	Haluan kehittää itseäni työn kautta	5	4	3	2	1
K35	Olen tiedonjanoinen työssäni	5	4	3	2	1
K36	Osallistun mielelläni mahdollisiin koulutuksiin	5	4	3	2	1
K37	Olen halukas oppimaan uutta	5	4	3	2	1

Työ minä

K38	Nautin työstäni	5	4	3	2	1
K39	Työ on tärkeä osa elämääni	5	4	3	2	1
K40	Koen, että työlläni on minulle merkitystä	5	4	3	2	1
K41	Olen valmis tekemään henkilökohtaisia uhrauksia työni hyväksi (esim. ylityöt)	5	4	3	2	1
K42	Olen juuri oikea ihminen tekemään nämä työtehtävät	5	4	3	2	1
K43	Samaistun työhön eli työ on minulle identiteetin lähde	5	4	3	2	1
K44	Haluan lisää itsenäisyyttä työni suunnitteluun	5	4	3	2	1

	Täysin samaa mieltä				Täysin eri mieltä

Työnilo

K45 Arvostan työtäni	5	4	3	2	1
K46 Viihdyn työssäni	5	4	3	2	1
K47 Työtoverit arvostavat minua	5	4	3	2	1
K48 Työpaikallani on hyvä henki	5	4	3	2	1
K49 Olen yhteistyökykyinen	5	4	3	2	1
K50 Työni tulokset huomataan	5	4	3	2	1

TYÖYHTEISÖ

K51 Arvostan työtovereitani	5	4	3	2	1
K52 Useimmat työtoverini viihtyvät työssään	5	4	3	2	1
K53 Työyhteisössämme on yritteliäs yhteishenki	5	4	3	2	1
K54 Työpaikkani arvot ovat kaikkien tiedossa	5	4	3	2	1
K55 Työtoverini kantavat vastuuta työstään	5	4	3	2	1
K56 Työtoverini ovat yhteistyökykyisiä	5	4	3	2	1
K57 Työtoverini kannustavat aloitteiden esittämiseen	5	4	3	2	1
K58 Jyväskylän kaupungilla on hyvä maine työnantajana	5	4	3	2	1
K59 Yksikkömme mielipiteet huomioidaan Päätöksenteossa	5	4	3	2	1

LÄHIN ESIMIES

K60 Luotan lähimpään esimieheeni	5	4	3	2	1
K61 Lähin esimieheni kannustaa työyhteisöämme vastuun kantamiseen	5	4	3	2	1
K62 Lähin esimieheni kannustaa työyhteisöämme aloitteiden tekemiseen	5	4	3	2	1
K63 Arvostan lähintä esimiestäni	5	4	3	2	1
K64 Esimieheni on oikeudenmukainen	5	4	3	2	1
K65 Esimieheni antamat ohjeet ovat selkeitä	5	4	3	2	1