Vaasan yliopisto
UNIVERSITY OF VAASA

Elsa Luoto

Joint Learning and its Three Dimensions in the Case Company

[Subject]

School of Management
Master's thesis in Strategic Business Development Programme

Vaasa 2023

VAASAN YLIOPISTO	
Kauppatieteet	
Tekijä:	Elsa Luoto
Tutkielman nimi:	Joint Learning and its Three Dimensions in the Case Company
Tutkinto:	Kauppatieteiden maisteri
Oppiaine:	Strategic Business Development
Työn ohjaaja:	Tuomas Huikkola
Vuosi:	2023 **Sivumäärä:** 97

TIIVISTELMÄ:

Tämän tutkimuksen tarkoitus on kuvata ja analysoida dynaamisten kyvykkyyksien yhteisen oppimisen dimensioiden kautta tapahtuvaa kehitystä poikkifunktionaalisissa tiimeissä toimiessa valitussa case-yrityksessä. Tarkastelussa on myös samojen dimensioiden kautta vaikutukset asiakaslähtöisyyden kehittymisessä case-yrityksessä.

Tutkimuksen teoreettinen viitekehys muodostuu dynaamisten kyvykkyyksien kautta yhteisen oppimisen dimensioista ja niiden kautta tarkastellaan poikkifuntionaalisissa tiimeissä tapahtuvaa muutosta case-yrityksessä. Yhteisen oppimisen dimensiot ovat tiedon jakaminen, sen ymmärrettäväksi tekeminen sekä tiedon integroiminen yrityksessä. Poikkifuntionaalisissa tiimeissä työskentely on uudenlainen toimintatapa case-yrityksessä, joten tarkastelussa on case-yrityksen käytännön toteutus, kehittyminen ja onnistuminen tiedon jakamisessa, sen ymmärrettäväksi tekemisessä sekä tiedon integroitumisessa työskennellessä poikkifuntionaalisissa tiimeissä. Poikkifuntionaaliset tiimit muodostettiin case-yrityksessä, jotta heidän asiakaslähtöisyytensä kehittyisi, joten tarkastelussa on myös dimensioiden käytännön toteutus, kehittyminen ja onnistuminen asiakaslähtöisyyden näkökulmasta.

Tutkimus toteutettiin yksilöhaastatteluina case-yrityksessä. Haastateltavana oli seitsemän henkilöä, jotka kaikki osallistuivat poikkifuntionaalisissa tiimeissä työskentelyyn. Haastateltavat toimivat asiantuntijoina case-yrityksessä, mutta työskentelevät eri työtehtävien parissa sekä ovat keskenään eri-ikäisiä sekä omaavat erilaisen kokemustaustan asiantuntijatöistä.

Yhteisen oppimisen dimensioissa kehittyminen ja onnistuminen vaativat toimia jokaisen dimension kohdalla, mutta kaikista tärkein kehittyminen ja onnistumisen kannalta on tiedon jakaminen. Jos tietoa ei jaeta, ei kaksi muuta dimensiota pääse toteutumaan. Case-yrityksessä uudenlainen toimintatapa otettiin käyttöön myös sen vuoksi, jotta tiedon jakaminen ja sen käyttäminen olisi tehokkaampaa sekä edistäisi yrityksen tavoitteita.

AVAINSANAT: dynamic capability, joint learning, knowledge sharing, sensemaking, knowledge integration, customer-centricity, customer orientation

Contents

1 Introduction 5
1.1 The Importance of Customer-centricity 5
1.2 The Aim of the Thesis 6
2 Dynamic Capabilities 8
2.1 Resources and Capabilities 10
2.2 The Origin of Dynamic Capabilities 11
3 Joint Learning 15
3.1 The Three Dimensions of Joint Learning 15
3.2 Knowledge Sharing 16
3.2.1 Factors that Influence Knowledge Sharing 18
3.2.2 Barriers for Knowledge Sharing 20
3.3 Sensemaking 21
3.3.1 Joint Sensemaking 23
3.4 Knowledge Integration 24
4 Customer Oriented Approach 27
4.1 The Origin of the Customer Oriented Approach 27
4.2 The Challenges in the Customer Oriented Approach 30
4.3 Several Approaches to Customer Orientation 32
4.3.1 Process Approach to Customer Orientation 32
4.3.2 Holistic Approach to Customer Orientation 33
4.3.3 Strategic Approach to Customer Orientation 34
4.3.4 Customer Approach as a Capability 35
5 Cross-functional Teams 37
6 The Execution of the Research 39
6.1 The Introduction of the Case Company 39
6.2 Research Methodology 39
6.3 The Reliability and the Validity of the Research 41
7 Joint Learning in the Case Company 44

7.1 Knowledge Sharing in the Case Company 44
7.1.1 Explicit and Tacit Knowledge 46
7.1.2 Motivational Factors of Knowledge Sharing 48
7.1.3 Barrier for Knowledge Sharing 51
7.2 Sensemaking 54
7.3 Knowledge Integration 58
7.4 Customer Oriented Point of View 61
7.4.1 Knowledge Sharing about Customers 62
7.4.2 Joint Sensemaking about Customers 63
7.4.3 Knowledge Integration Regarding Customers 64
8 The Summary, Conclusions and Further Research 66
8.1 The Summary and Conclusions 66
8.2 The Contribution of the Research 69
8.3 The Limitations of the Research 70
8.4 Further Development Suggestions and Research 71
References 73
Appendices 97
Appendix 1. Interview Questions 97

1 Introduction

This thesis' subject was chosen since the researcher herself is interested in developing case company's customer-centricity and the case company wanted data and feedback from the new way of working in the cross functional teams. The case company wanted to get opinions from the participants about the new way of working in the case company so that they could decide whether they should continue working like that or change their way of working. When the interest of the researcher and the need of the case company combined the subject for this thesis was clear and chosen. I observed that the case company had an ambitious aim to become more customer-centric and they wanted to radically change their way of working to achieve that aim. That was inspirational and I wanted to be a part of this process by researching the progress of the aim. The dynamic capabilities, joint learning and its three dimensions were chosen to be a way to observe the succession of the new way of working and the aim to become more customer-centric in the case company. The three dimensions, knowledge sharing, sensemaking and knowledge integration offered a concrete way to examine the progress of working in the cross functional teams in the case company.

1.1 The Importance of Customer-centricity

Product oriented business is rarely sufficient to produce competitive advantage for organizations since there exists an uncertain market environment and customers' have diverse preferences. Digitalization has speeded up transparency of information and created multiple contact points and channels between organizations and customers (Day 2011, 184). Both B-2-B -customers' and B-2-C -customers' roles have changed: they are no longer passive receivers of product or service rather active participants and regulators of rules in the relationship between organizations and them. Organizations and even whole industries have faced a need to question their operating models and deflect their potencies to being more proactive and creating more proactive operating models (Teece

2010). That requires new capabilities, such as joint learning and its three dimensions, in the whole organization's physical and mental resources (Felin & Powell 2016).

Many organizations consider themselves as customer-oriented organizations, but a closer look indicates that in practice they are not. Meehan, Dawson, and Avagyan (2016) made a survey in which they got answers from over 450 business executives. Two of one third of those business executives thought understanding customers and meeting their needs are vital if organizations want to be successful. Quarter of business executives said that they are managing in a customer-oriented way at the practice level in their organization. There exists a difference between those business executives' sayings and actions and that difference is significant. Fader (2012) claims that customer-centric organizations are still the exception, not the rule. Many well-run organizations still are not interested in developing a customer-centric culture even though it could be their competitive advantage.

To achieve a competitive advantage, companies increasingly aim to be perceived by their customers as customer oriented (Ju-Yeon, Sridhar, Henderson & Palmatier 2015). Companies are announcing that they are customer-centric and, for example, Amazon states that it aims to be Earth's most customer-centric company and Hewlett Packard emphasizes that they put their customers first in everything they do (Amazon 2019; Hewlett Packard 2019). Furthermore, the number of Google searches for the term "customer centricity" more than doubled from 2008 to 2018 (Google Trends 2019).

1.2 The Aim of the Thesis

The case company of this thesis is aiming to be more customer-centric and value customer-centricity high, but they do not consider themselves customer-centric yet. The case company started to work differently by working in the cross functional teams and wanted to eventually become more customer-centric by working in the cross functional teams. This thesis examines this aim through joint learning and its three dimensions:

knowledge sharing, sensemaking and knowledge integration. By succeeding in these three dimensions the aim can be achieved eventually.

The thesis seeks answers for three research questions:

1. What are the three dimensions of joint learning?
2. How have the three dimensions of joint learning actualized while working in the cross functional teams in the case company?
3. How has that new way of working affected the company’s aim becoming more customer-centric through the three dimensions of joint learning in the case company?

2 Dynamic Capabilities

Teece, Pisano and Shuen's article about dynamic capabilities in 1990 was one of the first articles about that subject (Ambrosini & Bowman 2009). Resource-based view (RBV) has been the base for the research about dynamic capabilities and within RBV researchers assume that organizations have various difficult-to-copy capabilities and resources (Conner 1991; Wernerfelt 1984). Resource-based view's main idea is creating scarce, inimitable, and valuable resources and to research how those resources are utilized and improved (Barney 2001). Although, a resource-based view is seen to lead to overemphasizing improvement of internal efficiency and cutting costs short-termly (Day 2011). Resource-based view is commonly seen to represent a static view and RBV does not editorialize how value productive resources are being created in the future and how existing resources and capabilities are being reformed in the changing market conditions (Day & Schoemaker 2016; Eisenhardt & Martin 2000; Teece, Pisano & Shuen 1997). Dynamic capabilities can be an answer for that dilemma. Dynamic capabilities are seen as resource-based view's offshoot and not a countermoved theory since both aim to understand receiving and keeping competitive advantages. The dynamic capability point of view extends the resource-based point of view argument by discoursing how valuable, uncommon, hard to imitate and imperfectly substitutable resources can be built and how the present stock of valuable resources can be refreshed in changing environments (Ambrosini & Bowman 2009).

Table 1. The research of dynamic capabilities

Researcher(s)	**Dynamic capabilities are seen as:**
Consensus among researchers	organizational processes which strive to change organizations' resources
Teece, Pisano and Shuen (1997)	organizations' ability to integrate, build and reconfigure internal and external competences to address quickly changing environments
Eisenhardt and Martin (2000)	strategic and organizational routines by which organizations execute new resources and configurations
Teece (2007)	organizations' capability to create new products, services or processes and develop competitive business models
Helfat, Finkelstein, Peteraf, Singh, Teece and Winter (2007)	organization's capacity to intentionally create, expand, and modify its resources
Day (2011), Ambrosini and Bowman (2009), Helfat and Peteraf (2009)	intentional and recognized
Teece (2014)	built on the characteristics of organizational managers and the history-based culture and routines of organizations
Teece (2018)	dynamic capabilities, business models and strategy are interdependent

2.1 Resources and Capabilities

Resources and capabilities are often talked about in the same context and those terms are relatively close abstracts. Resource as a general term is seen to include three main concepts: resources, competencies, and capabilities (Carmeli & Tishler 2004). Amit and Schoemaker (1993) defined that resources are factors that organizations own and control, but capabilities refer to organizations' ability to deploy resources using organizational processes to accomplish a desired end. Resources are considered as tangible and intangible resources and human capital and capabilities which organizations own, and which organizations try to control (Amit & Schoemaker 1993). Tangible resources, such as organization's products or premises, are static and on the contrary intangible resources, such as knowledge, culture and capabilities are dynamic (Kuusela & Neilimo 2010). Each organization owns a different profile of intangible and tangible capabilities and resources (Amit & Schoemaker 1993).

Capabilities are often complex, difficult to recognize and deep into organization's processes, so it is not possible to determine the value of organization's capabilities (Amit & Schoemaker 1993; Teece 2007; Winter 2003). Capabilities enable us to utilize resources more effectively and that is why capabilities increase the value of the resources in organizations (Makadok 2001). Therefore, capabilities can be seen as tools that can be used for improving an organization's resources' profitability (Amit & Schoemaker 1993). The difference between resources and capabilities is also that resources are input based and capabilities are process based or functional (Carmeli & Tishler 2004).

There are different kinds of capabilities. Organizational capabilities are known as a complex combination of skills and knowledge that have been gathered during a long time in organization. Organizational capabilities enable coordinating and an effective use of resources between organization's functions (Day 1994). Knowledge is seen as the most important resource. The integration of an individual's specific knowledge is the core of organizational capabilities. Good and helpful resources in organizations do not bring automatically competitive advantage for them but organizations need to have capabilities to use resources effectively. For improving customer-oriented approaches in organizations, capabilities and resources need to increase value indirectly or directly for customers (Conner & Prahalad 1996).

Operational capabilities are considered capabilities that are needed daily in organizations and with operational capabilities organizations can produce for instance static products or services (Collis 1994; Winter 2003). Operational capabilities can be seen as the hidden resources in organizations which are explaining the development and maintenance of competitive advantage of organizations (Wu, Melnyk & Flynn 2010). Some operational capabilities can be outsourced since organizations' do not have to own operational capabilities, but they just need to have access to them. Human resources, tangible and intangible resources, processes, and administrative actors, such as coordinating internal and external resources are often seen as operational capabilities (Teece, Peteraf & Leih 2016).

According to Teece (2007) dynamic capabilities reflect how organizations can answer changes in their market conditions. Competitors can copy operational capabilities rather easily, but dynamic capabilities are not easy to copy. Because of that easy-to-copy aspect, operational capabilities do not bring competitive advantage for organizations. What is considered as operational or dynamic capability depends on organization, industry, and context (Kay 2010). Therefore, recognized dynamic capability in some organizations can be recognized as operational capability in other organizations (Kuuluvainen 2011). According to Morgan, Vorhies and Mason (2009) capabilities are dynamic when they enable organizations to implement new strategies to reflect on changing market conditions by merging and changing available resources in different ways.

2.2 The Origin of Dynamic Capabilities

The topic "why some organizations succeed and some fail" is commonly researched in the strategic management field of research. Organizations might have all the resources and capabilities to succeed – competent employees, strong management policies, inspiring organizational culture, latest technological systems and products or services that offer value for customers. Even the most agile organizations can have difficulties because of constantly changing market conditions (Moorman & Day 2016).

Dynamic capabilities are a theory of strategic management that seeks solutions for being able to answer constantly changing market conditions (Ambrosini & Bowman 2009). Helfat, Finkelstein, Peteraf, Singh, Teece and Winter (2007) refer to dynamic capabilities as an organization's capacity to intentionally create, expand, and modify their resources. Dynamic capabilities are required for shaping an organization to answer changing competitive conditions, such as constantly changing customers' needs, competitors' positioning, and technological improvement. Helfat et al. 's definition about dynamic capabilities is commonly accepted even though dynamic capabilities are a complex totality. Dynamic capabilities also include organizations' capability to create new products, services or processes and develop competitive business models (Teece 2007). Dynamic capabilities let organizations continually have a competitive advantage and can help organizations to avoid developing core inelasticity which might limit development, generate inactiveness, and suffocate innovations (Leonard-Barton 1992). Dynamic capabilities theory states that the competitive advantage is not only driven from organizations' capability to reconfigure resources, but also from the capability to re-arrange them intentionally grounded on existing knowledge (Popli, Ladkani & Gaul 2017).

The term ”dynamic capabilities” is considered as a term that is hard to define and the research field of dynamic capabilities is divided (Jantunen, Ellonen & Johansson 2011). Almost every definition includes the idea of change and regenerating. For example, Teece, Pisano and Shuen (1997) defined dynamic capabilities as the organizations' ability to integrate, build and reconfigure internal and external competences to address quickly changing environments. A significant consensus in the research field of dynamic capabilities is that they are organizational processes which strive to change organizations' resources. Dynamic capabilities are challenging to research since they change fast, are heterogeneous and they can be hard to recognize (Ambrosini & Bowman 2009). It is equivalent to research dynamic capabilities since they are considered unique for every organization. On the other hand, dynamic capabilities are unique, but they also have some similarities, and many organizations are recognized to have the same dynamic capabilities. Dynamic capabilities are strategic and organizational routines by which organizations execute new resources and configurations when markets emerge, encounter, divide, evolve and die (Eisenhardt & Martin 2000). Even though there exist similarities in organizations' dynamic capabilities, according to Teece (2014) organizations' dynamic capabilities are difficult for competitors to replicate since they are built on the characteristics of organizational managers and the history-based culture and routines of organizations.

Dynamic capabilities are not spontaneous reactions since they always are intentional and recognized so they are relevant to research (Ambrosini & Bowman 2009; Day 2011; Helfat & Peteraf 2009). According to Sunder, Ganesh, and Marathe (2019) dynamic as a part of capabilities refers to capacity that renews existing competences when the business environment is changing. Helfat and Peteraf (2015) stated that dynamic capabilities involve the capacity to achieve mental activities instead of just physical activities in organizations. Even though dynamic capabilities and their values might not be possible to determine, dynamic capabilities can be operationalized and measured. Laaksonen and Peltoniemi (2018) summarized four ways to operationalize and measure dynamic capabilities: financial data, managers' evaluations, organization's experience, performance and actions, and employees' or managers' experience, performance, and actions.

Dynamic capabilities can be imagined as working at two levels: at the base level are operational capabilities, such as administration and routine activities, and the second layer of dynamic capabilities can be separated into microfoundations and higher-order capabilities (Teece 2007; Winter 2003). Microfoundations include the modification and recombination of organizations' existing capabilities as well as the development of new ones. High-order dynamic capabilities by which management senses opportunities for the future and decides the best structure for the organization based on its existing structure and the new plans for the future (Teece 2018).

Ambrosini and Bowman (2009) have recognized three levels of dynamic capabilities: incremental, renewing, and regenerative levels. Incremental dynamic capabilities are related to continuous improvement of the organizations’ resource base. Renewing dynamic capabilities adapt, refresh, and compound the resource base of the organizations. Incremental and renewing dynamic capabilities are usually comprehended as one and implied what the literature alludes to as dynamic capabilities. Regenerative level of dynamic capabilities impacts on organizations’ current set of dynamic capabilities and not on the organizations’ resource base.

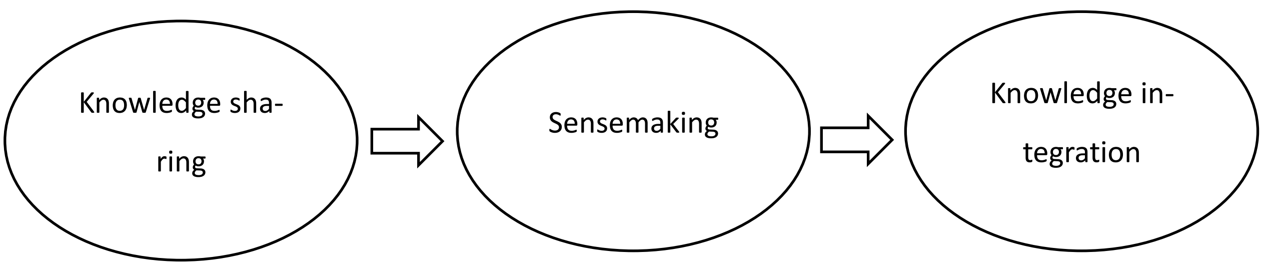
The strength of the organizations’ dynamic capabilities determines the promptness and degree of aligning the organizations’ resources with customers’ needs and visions. Organizations are not necessarily strong across all types of dynamic capabilities since they are multi-sided. For example, organizations can handle sensing new opportunities well but can be poor at identifying new business models to utilize them. Organizations with sustainable dynamic capabilities can be able to profitably build, develop and renew assets, resources, and ordinary capabilities, reconfiguring them as needed to renew and answer to changes in the market. (Teece 2018.)

3 Joint Learning

3.1 The Three Dimensions of Joint Learning

Kale & Singh (2009) stated that organizational learning is viewed as a dynamic capability. Selnes and Sallis' (2003) study stated that relationship learning is ''*a joint activity between a supplier and a customer in which the two parties share information, which is then jointly interpreted and integrated into a shared relationship-domain specific memory that changes the range or likelihood of potential relationship-domain specific behavior*". Relationship learning is considered as a process that might improve future behavior in a relationship or a joint, collaborative activity in which two parties can achieve more value together than they would maintain individually. That process includes sharing knowledge, joint sensemaking and knowledge integration. This study focuses on joint learning and its three dimensions under a wide range of dynamic capabilities. Joint learning is also considered as a relational dynamic capability (Huikkola, Ylimäki & Kohtamäki 2013). Even though the terms relationship learning, and joint learning are different in the field of the research, those terms can also be used as synonyms. In this study the term joint learning is being used and this study is based on Selnes and Sallis' research which defines that joint learning process consists of sharing knowledge, jointly making sense of that shared knowledge and integrating shared knowledge into relational memory (Selnes & Sallis 2003).

Picture 1. The three dimensions of joint learning



3.2 Knowledge Sharing

Knowledge has been seen as the most important strategic resource organizations have for a long time and it exists and is shared at different levels in organizations (Ipe 2003; Nahapiet & Ghoshal 1998). Davenport and Prusak (1998) defined knowledge as "*a fluid mix of framed experience, values, contextual information, and expert insights that provides a framework for evaluating and incorporating new experiences and information. It originates in and is applied in the minds of knowers"* (p. 5). Nonaka and Takeuchi's (1995) stated that knowledge is *"a dynamic human process of justifying personal belief toward the truth"* (p. 58). Knowledge is a summary of flow of messages, and it consists of beliefs and commitments of its holders. Davenport and Prusak (1998) and Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) also summarized that knowledge is a function of a particular experience, is about action and is context specific and about meanings.

Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) and Stewart (1997) stated that knowledge has been considered the main resource for competitive advantage and seen critical to long-term sustainability and success for organizations from the 1980s. Recognizing knowledge as a key resource and capability for organizations creates a need for processes which make the creation, sharing and leveraging of individual and collective knowledge easier in organizations (Becerra-Fernandez & Sabherwal 2001). The notable thing is that individuals have knowledge in organizations and that knowledge must be utilized in the organization so that it can be used to advance the goals of the organization (Nonaka 1994; Spender & Grant 1996). It has been more and more widely recognized that knowledge sharing is crucial to knowledge creation, joint learning, and performance achievement (Bartol & Srivastava 2002).

Knowledge sharing is seen as an important process of social interplay in organizations. It occurs at individual, group, or organizational levels (Lin 2007; Van den Hooff, Schouten & Simonovski 2012). Knowledge sharing is often considered to be a normal function of organizations and it might have been taken for granted since it is recognized that individuals have always created and shared knowledge in organizations (Chakravarthy, Zaheer, & Zaheer 1999). Later it was recognized that knowledge sharing is a complex process in organizations, even under the best circumstances (Hendriks 1999; Lessard & Zaheer 1996). Knowledge sharing is designed to change an individual's knowledge into organizational knowledge (Foss, Husted & Michailova 2010). Knowledge management systems and practices are needed in organizations since there is an increasing willingness to use more effectively the knowledge they have (Grover & Davenport 2001; Tsoukas & Vladimirou 2001). Knowledge sharing has probably been the establishment of the knowledge management programs (Hislop, Boshua & Helms 2018). Social media platforms can be used and are utilized in knowledge sharing in general and in organizations (Razmerita, Kirchner & Nabeth 2014).

The first dimension of joint learning, sharing knowledge, is a starting point and a relevant element in joint learning and is also seen as an element for achieving operational efficiency (Anderson & Narus 1990; Cannon & Perreault 1999; Selnes & Sallis 2003). Practically knowledge sharing means the transfer that happens when knowledge is being shared through informal and formal interactions between, for instance, different departments of the workplace or different parties, such as a supplier and a customer (Chang & Gotcher 2007; Selnes & Sallis 2003; Sluyts, Matthyssens, Martens & Streukens 2011). Interaction is considered as ”*an important means of gaining and transferring new knowledge, gathering relevant information about new businesses and finding external support and services*” (Corsaro, Cantù & Tunisini 2012). Knowledge sharing points out making available relevant knowledge to co-workers in the organizations (Rode 2016).

Sharing knowledge is the act of making knowledge available to others. Sharing knowledge means that the sender of the knowledge does not have ownership of the knowledge rather joint ownership of the knowledge between the recipient and the sender (Ipe 2003). Sharing knowledge is important since it contributes a link between the individual and the organization by transferring knowledge that individuals have for the organizational level, where it is transformed into competitive and economic value for the organization (Hendriks 1999). Interactions that happen between individuals, who have diverse knowledge, optimize the organization's capability to innovate far better than what any individual can achieve alone (Cohen & Levinthal 1990). Collaborating synergistically toward common outcomes by individuals with diverse knowledge results from competitive advantage (Boland & Tenkasi 1995). Knowledge sharing might lead to innovative ideas since it improves creativity and succeeding innovations in organizations (Armbrecht, Chapas, Chappelow & Farris 2001).

3.2.1 Factors that Influence Knowledge Sharing

Based on theory and research related to sharing knowledge there exists four major factors that have an influence on knowledge sharing. The four factors are: the nature of knowledge, motivation to share, opportunities to share and the culture of the work environment (Ipe 2003). The commercial value of the knowledge is increasingly noticed and both individuals and the organization they work in are recognized to have the ownership of knowledge (Staples & Järvenpää 2001).

The nature of knowledge can be either tacit or explicit. According to Nonaka (2007) knowledge sharing is the process by which organizations' employees mutually trade their explicit and tacit knowledge for creating new knowledge. Tacit knowledge can not be easily made explicit or be articulated (Polanyi 1966). Tacit knowledge includes individuals' skills that they have got based on personal experience (Newell, Robertson, Scarbrough & Swan 2009). On the other hand, explicit knowledge can be easily stored at a single place, transferred across time and space and codified (Lam 2000). Explicit knowledge is written down in guides or manuals to be shared and communicated in organizations (Newell, Robertson, Scarbrough & Swan 2009). Tacit knowledge sharing requires more effort than explicit knowledge (Hau, Lee, Kim & Kim 2013).

Motivational factors that influence knowledge sharing can be internal or external factors. Internal factors include the understood power attached to the knowledge and the reciprocity that is caused by sharing it. External factors include relationship with the recipient and rewards for sharing. Opportunities to share knowledge in organization can be both informal and formal. Training programmes, structured teams and technology-based systems that facilitate knowledge sharing are examples of formal opportunities for knowledge sharing (Ipe 2003). Personal relationships and social networks are informal opportunities for knowledge sharing (Brown & Duguid 1991; Nahapiet & Ghoshal 1998). The fourth factor, the culture of the work environment, affects all other three motivational factors (Ipe 2003).

Staples and Järvenpää (2001) state that organizational culture determines the norms concerning knowledge between an organization and individuals in it. Organizational culture influences knowledge sharing since culture shapes presumptions about which knowledge is important, it conducts the relationships between the different levels of knowledge in organization and culture creates the context for social communication (De Long & Fahey 2000). Factors that presumably are included knowledge sharing in organizations are managers' repeated directions, identification with a group engaged in general tasks and the individual's tendency for sharing (Marks, Polak, McCoy & Galletta 2008). Organizational members and the climate of the sharing have a significant impact on the knowledge sharing process (Al-Kurdi, El-Haddadeh & Eldabi 2020).

Three different factors have especially been recognized which have an influence on knowledge sharing behavior in organizations. Individual factors that have an impact on knowledge sharing are individual's personal enjoyment towards helping others, knowledge self-efficacy and possible organizational rewards and benefits (Chennamaneni, Teng & Raja 2012; Ma & Chan 2014; Van Acker, Vermeulen, Kreijns, Lutgering & van Buuren 2014). Trust is one of the individual level factors but also one of the organizational level factors (Hau et al. 2013). Organizational factors include for example organizational culture, support from management and organization's general support for being open and sharing knowledge in organization (Jackson 2011; Matschke, Moskaliuk, Bokhorst, Schümmer & Cress 2014). Organizations should encourage and help their employees to create and share knowledge (Holsapple & Joshi 2000). Technology is considered as an important enabler for knowledge sharing in organizations and managing knowledge sharing. Technological factors include technological systems and functionality, usability, and structure of the platform (Kirchner, Razmerita & Sudzina 2008; Matschke et al. 2014).

3.2.2 Barriers for Knowledge Sharing

Knowledge sharing is not always easy and there might appear difficulties or even barriers in knowledge sharing in organizations. Organizational culture is increasingly being seen as a possible barrier to effect on knowledge creation, sharing and use in organizations (De Long & Fahey 2000). At an organizational level knowledge sharing might face barriers if knowledge management strategy is not done or it is done but the implementation is not done properly (Riege 2005). In some situations, and organizational changes, for example in mergers and acquisitions, might appear reluctance to share knowledge in organizations (Empson 2001).

Barriers for knowledge sharing appear also at different levels in organizations. At an individual level there exists many possible knowledge sharing barriers. Knowledge does not easily flow across the organization since it is bound with people’s occupations and egos (Davenport, De Long & Beers 1998). People do not share knowledge unless they have strong personal motivation towards sharing it (Stenmark 2001). At individual level possible barriers can also be age, cultural or gender differences, lack of time to share knowledge or lack of trust in co-workers (Riege 2005). Fear is noticed to be one of the most important barriers that can prevent knowledge sharing behavior at individual level. There exist different kinds of fears towards knowledge sharing, for example: fear that knowledge sharing could jeopardize an individual's position in organization, fear of criticism or fear of giving up authority and power (Matschke et al. 2014; Riege 2005; Šajeva 2007).

Examples about barriers for knowledge sharing at organizational level are too hierarchical organization structure, lack of leadership or managerial directions in terms of clearly communicating the benefits and values of knowledge sharing practices and insufficiency of company resources that would provide knowledge sharing opportunities (Riege 2005). Other organizational level possible knowledge sharing barriers can be a lack of strategy and unclear business objectives or lack of noticed benefits for the users (Mukamala & Razmerita 2014). Possible barriers at technological level can be the poor usability of the systems, lack of training for using technological systems and information overload. Lack of understanding of social media and its benefits and possibilities can also turn out to be barriers for knowledge sharing (Vuori & Okkonen 2012).

3.3 Sensemaking

Sensemaking means a set of activities aiming for handling uncertainty (Boin & Renaud 2013). Sensemaking process consists of ongoing retrospective development of believable images that rationalize what individuals are doing. The sensemaking process proceeds as a series in which individuals consider identity in social context and existing circumstances. At the same time individuals do retrospective examinations and those help individuals to build plausible import for the ongoing actions (Weick, Sutcliffe & Obstfeld 2005). The sensemaking process aims for consensus, affection about relevance and coordinated actions. The sensemaking process includes communicating, changing, facing different situations and being aware of the environment. Interactions in actions and interpretations are playing a huge role in the sensemaking process. The sensemaking process includes also seeking answers for the question “what is the story” through ongoing, unknown, and unpredictable experiences and is helping individuals to understand issues and situations (Maitlis & Christianson 2014; Weick 1995).

Sensemaking is defined also that sensemaking is built when individuals try to create understanding for their experiences with the help of information that has been given to them. The sensemaking process is a conversational and narrative process which includes different ways of communication which are either written or spoken and either formal or informal (Brown 2000; Gephart 1997; Watson & Bargiela-Chippiani 1998). The sense-making process also includes social and interactive actions which happen through verbal and nonverbal actions (Gephart 1993; Gioia & Mehra 1996). During the sensemaking process individuals in organizations discuss to build joint and shared goals and meanings (Choo 2001). Although all information is not essential for every individual in organizations since some information can be hurtful for the individual's sensemaking process (Hoffman, Klein & Moon 2006).

Organizational sensemaking process also seeks answers to questions such as what change means and why changes must be done. When personnel of the organizations find the answers and want to do actions for change, sensemaking becomes concrete actions in the organizations. That is how activity has reached meaning and personnel understands what and why they do certain actions. Organizational sensemaking starts metaphorically from chaos since meaning has not built yet and all things regarding becoming meaningful are new. Abstract objects change concrete also in the organizational sensemaking process and the process is social. Interactions are also important in the organizational sensemaking process. (Weick et al. 2005.)

With the help of the sensemaking process individuals can have a rational explanation for ongoing or upcoming changes in the organizations and they are more positive minded for changes (Maitlis 2005). It is very important that there exists an open environment in the organizations where the sensemaking process may occur (Hoffman et al. 2006; Weick 1995; Weick et al. 2005). Organizations' routines, rules, symbols, and language have an impact on an individual's sensemaking process. The sense-making process in organizations is seen as a social process and it is only contingent on interactions between people (Mills, Thurlow & Mills 2010).

3.3.1 Joint Sensemaking

Joint sensemaking is highlighting the importance of seeking shared understanding, making consensus between different parties, and seeking an appropriate fit between the customer's expectations and other different parties (Chang & Gotcher 2007; Crossan, Lane & White 1999; Kuwada 1998). Sensemaking is considered as a social process of searching for a common understanding, but it might be difficult in a relational context, where cultural, physical, and psychological distances between actors can be greater than in intra-organizational contexts (Fang, Fang, Chou, Yang & Tsai 2011; Narayanan, Zane & Kemmerer 2011; Weick 1995). Investments in knowledge and time for finding shared language in the organizations play an important role in joint sensemaking (Huikkola et al. 2013). When two or more parties have trust in the capabilities of each other that looks to alleviate joint sensemaking by allowing open dialog, critical consideration, and the mutual acceptance of ideas (Ballantyne 2004).

Making sense of information is not straightforward and it is not done in the same way in different organizations or in the different divisions or teams in the same organization. For example, there might be inconsistencies in the mechanism involved in making sense of the available information, presumably due to a lack of ability or knowledge. The same information can be understood in various ways in the same organizations between individuals (Fiol and Lyles 1985). Sensemaking is not an uncomplicated process since it necessitates looking at the existing problem from different angles and it also requires open dialog and trust in organizations (Huikkola et al. 2013). On the other hand, if decision makers do not have a shared and exact picture, they can not make decisions and communicate effectively. That is why joint sensemaking is important, for example, in crisis management situations. Open-mindness, specification and verification can compensate for sensemaking deficiencies. Leadership is required for accomplishing joint sensemaking and that leadership needs to be conformable (Boin & Renaud 2013).

3.4 Knowledge Integration

The fact that the critical source of competitive advantage is knowledge integration rather than knowledge itself speaks for the importance of knowledge integration in organizations. Integrating the knowledge is the basis for competitive advantage in dynamic market conditions. Clear directions and organizational routines are keys for successful knowledge integration in organizations (Grant 1996). Integrating knowledge into relationship-specific memory includes the establishment of knowledge in relational structures, building procedures, routines, products, or services (Johnson, Sohi & Grewal 2004; Lukas, Hult & Ferrell 1996; Moorman & Miner 1997). Knowledge integration happens when created, shared and combined knowledge is moved from individuals to become an organizations or relationship-specific property (Moorman & Miner 1997). An example of knowledge integration and how it can be useful is that supplier involvement in product development improves new product performance (Song & Di Benedetto 2008). Knowledge integration as a phase can be also called knowledge implementation or institutionalization (Kuwada 1998; Sirén 2012).

Selnes and Sallis (2003) state that the third dimension in joint learning, knowledge integration, encloses the idea that relationships develop characteristic routines in the form of enciphered informal and formal procedures and scripts for how different parties have digested to perform in specific knowledge. This is how different memories into which attained knowledge through joint learning are integrated. The memories might include, for example, organizational beliefs, behavioral practices, or physical artifacts, such as documents and electronic databases that can be shared throughout the organization (Lukas et al. 1996; Moorman & Miner 1997). Another point of view of integrating knowledge is social networks across organizational boundaries standing for an archive for specialized memories and an effective way of problem solving for organizations (Håkansson & Johanson 1988; Selnes & Sallis 2003).

Knowledge integration and its technologies are a key for handling complex networks and integration of knowledge must be done efficiently in organizations. At least larger organizations need to have a strategy for knowledge integration that must include a systematic approach that can handle complexity in larger organizations. Knowledge integration and information becomes more and more important, enabled by technologies to gather, and process data dynamically and encounter huge challenges in handling escalating complexity in organizations. (Li & Chandra 2007.)

Integration of knowledge is the primary role of the organization and the essence of organizational capability. Knowledge integration can only happen if individuals are motivated towards sharing knowledge and keep their co-workers and team members current on key issues (Huckman & Staats 2011). Knowledge sharing processes in organizations might more likely suffer if an individual's knowledge does not overlap with other’s knowledge. Individuals who have a wide functional background tend to have more motivation to share knowledge since they understand the value of shared knowledge (Cronin & Weitgart 2007). Grant (1996) states that knowledge integration is important at organizational level since it is not achievable that every individual in the organization tries to learn the knowledge possessed by other specialists. Most of the organizational dynamic capabilities require specialists’ knowledge integrating. The integration of knowledge into organizational capabilities can be viewed as a hierarchy but not as a traditional hierarchy with authority and control but a hierarchy of integration. At first in the hierarchy there is the specialized knowledge owned by individuals in organizations. Capabilities which consider specialized tasks are at the first level of integration. Next the span of specialized knowledge being integrated broadens when task-specific capabilities are integrated into wider functional capabilities such as marketing, R&D and manufacturing. Knowledge integration at higher levels includes capabilities which need wide-ranging cross-functional integration, for example wide-ranging integration is needed in product development and customer support capability (Clark & Fujimoto 1991).

Three characteristics of knowledge integration are defined relevant to the competitive advantage: efficiency, scope, and flexibility of integration. The efficiency of knowledge integration is related to how productive organizations are in utilizing the knowledge stored within individual organizational members, which is dependent upon the ability of the organization to enter and harness the specialized knowledge of its members. The scope of integration means increasing the span of knowledge, which is integrated within an organizational capability and increases the potential for both setting up and sustaining competitive advantages. The flexibility of knowledge integration refers to the fact that maintaining superior performance eventually requires the constant renewal of competitive advantages through innovation and the development of new capabilities. (Grant 1996.)

4 Customer Oriented Approach

Customer orientation as a field of research arose as a complementary field of research for product-oriented approach which included economies of scale and effectivity of production led organizations to consider internal factors rather than its products' final consumers and their behavior (Levitt 1960). Historically companies tend to be product-centric, and economies of scale and scope were the aspects companies focused on. Profits reflected market share (Buzzell & Gale 1987). The concept of customer centricity is not new, but customer orientation became an interest in researchers as late as the 1990s. Nonetheless, the importance of customer centricity became a topic already in the 1950s when researchers named Drucker (1954), Kotler (1967) and Levitt (1960) started to call for customer centricity in the marketing field of research (Shah, Rust, Parasuraman, Staelin & Day 2006).

The most traditional theories that represent customer-oriented approach research are market orientation (Kohli & Jaworski 1990; Jaworski & Kohli 1993; Narver & Slater 1990; Slater & Narver 1995), market-driven organization (Day 1999) and market-based organizational learning (Vorhies & Morgan 2005). All those orientations have a common basis which is that a goal is to create better understanding about customers and their needs which are being seen to lead to better financial success even though those orientations have some differences from each other (Shah et al. 2006).

4.1 The Origin of the Customer Oriented Approach

The increasing intensity of business competition and the strong trend towards globalization have changed the attitude towards customers and made them very important to organizations. Customers' roles have changed, and they are not anymore, a mere consumer but they are considered as co-operator, co-producer, co-creator of value and co-developer of knowledge and competencies (Wang, Lo, Chi & Yang 2004). The complex competitive environment in which organizations operate has forced organizations to increase customer demand for superior value (Sánchez, Iniesta & Holbrook 2009). Customer orientation is defined as putting customers' interests and needs at the center of an organization's actions (Burmann, Meurer & Kanitz 2011). Customer orientation can be achieved by implementing customer-centric organizational structures, information technologies and strategies (Lamberti 2013; Lenskold 2004; Waisberg & Kaushik 2009). Implementing such changes to implant customer orientation can improve organizations' performance (Crecelius, Lawrence, Lee, Lam & Scheer 2019; Fader 2012; Lee & Cadogan 2015; Sheth, Sisodia & Sharma 2000).

Many trends and changes have had an influence on the fact that organizations must be customer centric. Sheth, Sisodia and Sharma (2000) introduced five trends that were reinforcing the need for organizations to make transformation to become more customer centric: increasing market diversity, intensifying competition, demanding and well-informed customers and consumers, intensifying pressures to improve marketing productivity and quickening advances in technology. In such a dynamic and changing environment, organizations are realizing that customer centricity provides the best expediencies to develop profitable and close relationships with their customers. That kind of relationships are strong competitive advantages for organizations since rivals cannot copy or displace in cases (Day 2000). During the technology revolution gathering, warehousing, analyzing, and sharing data had an influence on the fact that organizations started to see possibilities for more customer-centric business with the help of utilizing customer relationships and technology better (Shah et al. 2006).

By offering solutions to customers' needs organizations can create extraordinary customer value (Kohli & Jaworski 1990; Narver & Slater 1990) which in due time leads to success in business (Kotler & Keller 2008; Rust, Moorman & Bhalla 2010). A mere responsive orientation towards customers confronts only outspoked needs can lead to innovator's dilemma (Henderson 2006) even though being responsive to customers' requests play a critical role in creating customer value (Homburg, Grozdanovic & Klarmann

2007; Jayachandran, Hewett & Kaufman 2004). Organizations which face innovator's dilemmas fail to meet customers' new needs or new markets. Narver, Slater and MacLachlan (2004) emphasized that many organizations come into having an incomplete understanding of what it means to be customer oriented since they are focused on its responsive dimension and ignore its proactive dimension (Kohli & Jaworski 1990; Slater & Narver 1998, 1999). Zeithaml, Bolton, Deighton, Keiningham, Lemon and Petersen (2006) stated that: "It is important to recognize that customers may not know what they want or may not be able to imagine what they may want in the future." Organizations with a proactive customer orientation address hidden and emerging customer needs which can lead to new opportunities for customer value (Jaworski, Kohli & Sahay 2000). It is important to take customers into account and listen to them since satisfied customers are more inclined to provide positive recommendations to other customers (Tseng 2019). So, customers need to be listened to but organizations should avoid innovator's dilemmas on the other hand.

Also, a term market orientation is used when talking about customer centricity and customer orientation. Narver and Slater (1990) and Slater and Narver (1995) defined and splitted the term market orientation into elements of customer and competitor orientation and they also covered examples of inter-functional coordination in putting market information to use. Customer orientation can be seen as a streamlined part of broader market orientation concept, concentrating on the achievement of competitive advantages through recognizing what customer value and understanding customers. Understanding customers can help with understanding competitors better since understanding an organization's customers organization can identify and understand what customers value in general and what they look for also from competitors' products or services. Customer orientation has multiple research fields and in this thesis the focus is on four research fields in customer orientation: process, strategic, holistic and capability.

4.2 The Challenges in the Customer Oriented Approach

Customer centricity has been stated to be easy to affirm but difficult to build and sustain in large organizations (Hart 1999). Gartner Group report (2003) witnessed that many the organizations then were still struggling to become customer centric. According to the Gartner Group Report fewer than twelve percent of marketing companies (among Global 1000 enterprises) by year 2007 will have developed enough to successfully use capabilities and value-added processes in customer-centric ways. The report stated also that organizations should invest their time in advanced, customer-centric capabilities and processes for achieving better results financially in the future. Towards becoming more customer-centric organizations should evolve toward closer alignment with the market (Day 2006.)

Organizational culture has a huge effect on how customer centricity develops in organizations. Organizational cultures have many levels and facets which makes them quite resistant to change. At the deepest levels and the toughest to change are values that express enduring preferences, but a more accessible level of an organizational culture is the norms, which are shared beliefs about appropriate or expected behavior in organizations. Organizations which are customer-centric are band together by a common value that every decision begins with the customer and precluded opportunities for advantage and a common norm is that employees are customer spokespersons. Another differentiating norm adjusts the individual employee's willingness to share information with his or her co-workers, so the whole organization is in a better position to meet customer needs. (Shah et al. 2006.)

Organizational structure has an impact on how organizations can easily be customer-centric and work how customer-oriented organizations should be running. Organizations are having trouble with being customer-centric if they have, for example, functional silos, a complex hierarchy or defined by product categories since then it is possible that each product manager may end up pushing different offerings to the same customer without first specifying what the customer's true needs are. Organization with all functional activities integrated and lined to deliver excellent customer value is an ideal customer-oriented organization (Shah et al. 2006).

Different but functional processes in organizations are essential in organizations if they aim to be customer centric. Payne and Frow (2005) recognized five generic processes that are vital to organizations if they want to be customer-centric: the strategy-development process that includes both a business strategy and a customer strategy, the dual value creation process that is at the central part of the exchange process, the multichannel integration process that includes all the customer touch points, the information-management process that encompasses the data collection and data analysis functions and the performance-assessment process that links the organization's actions to company performance. Each one of those processes requires cross-functional coordination in organizations and that has usually been a challenge for many companies. According to Shah et al. (2006) a key challenge concerning customer-centric processes is developing and having the ability to meet the customers' requirements with the right offering of products or services. That can be achieved with well done analysis which is targeted at the individual customer level so that the issue of the customer can be properly recognized.

Day (1999) identified three possible ways to avoid and possibly solve these challenges in organizations in their journey for becoming more customer centric. Organizations must have an enthusiastic highlighting on top quality of product and service relations and have occasionally direct interventions to help and solve customers' problems. Employees of organizations need to spend time visiting customers and pay attention to customers all the time even if they do not meet customers directly. It is vital to follow customer and market issues, trends, needs, opportunities, and requirements and invest in resources for understanding customers better need to be done in organizations.

4.3 Several Approaches to Customer Orientation

4.3.1 Process Approach to Customer Orientation

One traditional orientation for discoursing customer orientation is to see it as processes which include gathering, sharing, and storing market data and reactions to that data in organizations (Deshpande´ & Farley 1998; Grinstein 2008; Kohli & Jaworski 1990; Said, Macdonald, Wilson & Marcos 2015; Zhou, Brown & Dev 2009). Hult, Ketchen and Slater (2005) and Narver and Slater (1990; 1995) have handled customer orientation on this point of view in which organizations can identify their customers' requirements and needs and check how their offering answers to the customers' needs through their processes. In this orientation of the research field customer orientation is seen as a starting point to processes which are aiming to answer customers' needs by turning current information into rich content for customers. With this content organizations can coordinate their offering for serving their customers better (Kirca, Jayachandran & Bearden 2005; Liu, Ke, Kee Wei & Hua 2013; Wei & Lau 2008).

Organizations are often producing and using customer insight for decision making processes (Said et al. 2015). Development of information technology has improved customer orientation in organizations since it has helped organizations become better and more efficient with gathering data, maintaining dialog with customers and access for the information and sharing it is easier. Although investing in information technology in organizations is not seen to have an influence on customer orientation, it has improved organizations' ability to produce customer-oriented processes better (Shah et al. 2006).

Research about organizational learning have approached customer orientation also from the process point of view. In this point of view data, which has gathered from the market, will spread out to the organization which deepens the understanding about customers in the whole organization (Huber 1991). That understanding about customers should be a crucial aspect that guides the decision-making process in organizations (Bharadwaj &

Dong 2014). According to Shah et al. (2006) learning and the cycle of continuous development cause innovations in customer-oriented organizations. Day (2002) emphasizes that there is an ongoing learning process in organizations but current information and the depth of the market information in organizations differ them from their competitors. Organizations' ability to learn and develop their capacity to change their capabilities so learning is critically related to research about capabilities (Slater & Narver 1995).

4.3.2 Holistic Approach to Customer Orientation

Customer orientation is often seen as a holistic aspect which encompasses the whole organization, and it appears in organization's structures, processes, culture, and financial indicators (Moorman & Day 2016; Olson, Slater & Hult 2005). Customer orientation is a cultural value, and it is built by a set of beliefs in which customers' expectations and needs are being set as a priority. Organizational culture is closely linked to beliefs and values which are influencing organizational decision making and behavior (Deshpandé, Farley & Webster 1993).

Customer-oriented organizations' values should be created such that every decision is based on customers' needs and expectations and organization predict benefits which customers receive from organization's products or services. A guideline for organizations is that their employees are their customers' advocates (Shah et al. 2006; Stoelhorst & van Raaij 2004). Customer-based culture in organizations is more responsive to being innovative than product- or service-based culture in organizations (Maydeu-Olivares & Lado 2003). Lee et al. (2015) concluded that being customer-structured organizations achieve better financial performance. Customer orientation as a cultural structure in organizations has a linkage to organizational capabilities since organizational culture has an impact on the development of the most crucial capabilities in organizations (Foley & Fahy 2009). Change management is also crucial for customer-oriented organizations since change and an attitude towards change in organizations is often linked to customer orientation because customers have diverse needs and expectations and those are changing constantly (Moorman & Day 2016; Shah et al. 2006).

According to Day and Moorman (2013) organizations should start to examine market conditions instead of examining organizational aspects first when they are making decisions in organizations. Focusing on organizational structures, processes, culture, and resources is seen as withdrawn behavior when focusing on customer relationships and networks, observation of competitors and market conditions is seen as extroverted behavior of organizations. Being extroverted, organizations create their most valuable resources with other operators in the market (Greenley, Hooley & Rudd 2005). Organizations can predict changes better when they are being extroverted on the market (Day & Moorman 2010).

4.3.3 Strategic Approach to Customer Orientation

From a strategic point of view customer orientation is emphasized as an organizations' competitive advantage. Customer orientation is concerning the whole organization and it is an integrated aspect which strives organizations' strategic decisions (Griffin & Hauser 1993). Customer orientation is one way to compete in the market alongside operational effectiveness and product orientation (Treacy & Wiersema 1993). An attempt to understand a customer's experience about an organization's products or services narrates a strategic role of customer orientation in the organization (Tynan, McKechnie & Hartley 2014). Constantly increased competition in the market is forcing organizations to see the value that customers experience as a key factor when they are trying to achieve competitive advantage (Sánchez, Iniesta & Holbrook 2009). Customers are defining the value of organizations' products and services and organizations are not doing the valuation themselves. Organizations are accumulating understanding about customers when they are clarifying what value customers get from their products or services (Treacy & Wiersema 1993).

A general attitude towards customers has changed during years since customers are producing, creating, and developing knowledge and capabilities for organizations together with organizations. That refers to that customer orientation is seen as strategic. Organizations must customize their products and services for customers since customers' needs and expectations are constantly changing, and organizations need to respond to them. In that way organizations could get their customers to be loyal to them and customer loyalty might increase. (Wang, Po, Chi & Yang 2004.)

One concern that has arised when organizations have started to think more customer-oriented is that organizations might not pay enough attention to what competitors do anymore. Organizations have gone over from being competitor-oriented to customer point of view. That might lead to organizations not being able to differentiate their products and services enough from competitors' products and services or competitive positions are changing, and organizations do not notice that. (Moorman & Day 2016.)

4.3.4 Customer Approach as a Capability

This thesis concentrates on a perspective that customer orientation is seen as a capability for organizations. The viewpoint of capability in this context is appearing in much research, such as organizational culture (Day 1994; Foley & Fahy 2009; Greenley et al. 2005) and organizational learning (Slater & Narver 1995), but customer orientation has an indirect role in these viewpoints. On the other hand, customer orientation is seen as one of the capabilities of the organizations which forms organizations' dynamic capabilities in interaction with other capabilities (Landroguez, Castro & Cepeda-Carrión 2011). Customer orientation is also seen as a relieving influence on capabilities which makes organizations more dynamic (Morgan, Vorhies & Mason 2009).

In the strategic management field of research capabilities are comprehended as a wide structure in organizations instead of comprehending them as a functional role in organizations (Helfat 2007). Landroguez, Castro and Cepeda-Carrión (2011) saw customer orientation as a capability and emphasized three dynamic capabilities of organizations: market orientation, knowledge management and customer relationship management, which they found the most relevant. Joint learning and its three dimensions in which this thesis is focused are also focusing on the same capabilities since knowledge sharing and integrating and making sense of that knowledge are part of knowledge management and market orientation is a reward for taking care of knowledge and using it for the right decisions in the organizations.

Capabilities cover both the organization's knowledge and its efficient use of resources, so this point of view represents customer orientation many-sided (Day 1994). This point of view includes customer orientation as process, strategy, and holistic structure. Combining dynamic capabilities and customer orientation articulates customer orientation's ability for being vulnerable for change and its ability to bond the whole organization.

5 Cross-functional Teams

This thesis' empirical part contains interviewees who have taken part in cross functional teams and cooperation. Cross functional cooperation refers to the degree of collaboration and the extent of representation by different units in organizations (Kahn 1996; Li & Calantone 1998; Song, Montoya-Weiss & Schmidt 1997). Cross functional cooperation is optional, intangible, and unstructured that it reflects just the recognition by functional units of their strategic interdependence and their need to collaborate for the benefit of the organizations (Kahn 1996; Olson, Orville & Ruekert 2001). Cross functional collaboration and market knowledge are considered as two fundamental resources for successful product and service innovations in the marketing and strategic management literature. It has been noticed that market knowledge specificity and cross functional cooperation affect many innovations performance, such as product innovation, in organizations through knowledge integration mechanisms (Luca & Atuahene-Gima 2007). Product innovation is often characterized as a process by which organizations transform knowledge embedded in cross functional teams into new products. The main aspect is that cross functional cooperation ensures that different units of the organization are combined for developing new innovations which may satisfy their customers in the future ((Madhavan & Grover 1998). Efficiency of knowledge use is often recognized as a main benefit in cross functional cooperation (Luca & Atuahene-Gima 2007).

Cross functional teams can be examined in terms of their psychological characteristics, which includes how team members relate to the team and to one another, and physical composition. Diversity of the team can make the decision-making process more difficult even though a large diversity of functional perspectives is often seen as a favorable team characteristic (Milliken & Martins 1996). That kind of difficulty can lead to more complex decision-making processes and that can be disadvantageous to creativity. Sethi, Smith and Park focused on one variable, superordinate identity, regarding psychosocial characteristics. That refers to the extent to which team members identify with the whole team and distinguish a stake in the success of the team (Sethi 2000). Superordinate identity can influence integration of diverse perspectives, so it is expected to play a crucial role in cross functional teams. The innovativeness and customer orientation of the cross functional team are built on customers' influence, encouragement to take risk, superordinate and functional diversity and social cohesion (Sethi, Smith & Park 2001).

Cross-functional teaming across and within organizations is a more and more popular strategy for innovating in organizations. In cross-functional teaming individuals must work across knowledge boundaries in organizations (Edmondson & Harvey 2018). There have been many notable successful projects executed by cross-functional teams but in qualitative case studies often discover that cross-functional teaming is difficult in practice (Seidel & O'Mahoney 2014). Cross-functional teams are vital for production of innovations and teams that are formed in a cross-functional way are more likely to develop innovative solutions (Uzzi, Mukherjee, Stringer & Jones 2013; Wuchty, Jones & Uzzi 2007). Although it is important to understand complexities when crossing knowledge boundaries (Van de Ven & Zahra 2016).

In this thesis the focus is on joint learning dimensions on dynamic capabilities viewpoint and how customer orientation is developed through those dimensions in cross functional teams. The actual cross functional role of the teams that were researched was not a main aspect, but it can affect the result since cross functional teams were a new way to work in the case organization.

6 The Execution of the Research

6.1 The Introduction of the Case Company

The research strategy which was chosen for this thesis was executing theme interviews in the case company. All the interviewees were chosen from the same case company. All the interviewees took part in the new way of working in the case company. The new way of working was working in cross functional groups which was not particularly familiar for interviewees before. The aim in the case company was to be more customer oriented and working in cross functional groups was the way to try to become more customer oriented. It will be examined in this thesis if the case company succeeded on that way to become more customer oriented.

The case organization is called Food Ltd in this thesis and the real name of the case organization is not mentioned in this thesis. Food Ltd was established in 1955 in Finland and it operates in the food industry. Food Ltd is mainly known for its convenience food and it offers products for retail trade and food service industry. Food Ltd employs over 1000 employees and it has three food factories in Finland and one food factory in Estonia. Most of the Food Ltd's employees are working at the factories but all of interviewees in this thesis were working at administrative part of the case company.

6.2 Research Methodology

The research method that has been chosen for this thesis is qualitative research. Researching the phenomenon and understanding it are in the centre of the qualitative research (Eriksson & Kovalainen 2008: 5). Typically, the examined phenomenon can be researched diversely with qualitative research methods since it is possible to approach the phenomenon widely with them. It is typical for qualitative research methods that the utilization of the numeric data in grounding the subject and in interpretation of findings are being done less comparing to quantitative research methods (Hirsjärvi, Remes & Sajavaara 2009: 161–164; Lewis, Saunders & Thornhill 2009: 482–489). It is also typical that only a small number of cases are being researched in qualitative research, but they are being researched in-depthly (Eskola & Suoranta 2001: 18–19).

The aspiration of quantitative research can be said to be finding and exposing facts neither verifying already existing claims. The starting point is not testing theories or hypotheses rather multi-sided and detailed analyzing and understanding of material (Eriksson & Kovalainen 2008: 5; Hirsjärvi et al. 2009: 161–164). The assumption in qualitative research is that meaningfulness is at the centre in human beings' actions and humans' actions are meaningful socially and culturally (Ronkainen, Pehkonen, Lindblom-Ylänne & Paavilainen 2011: 80–81).

The interviews of the professionals are often being used in qualitative research methods for aiming at getting more understanding about the subject. It is important to find interviewees who bring genuinely added value to research and that they could explain the phenomenon more clearly. (Hirsjärvi, Remes & Sajavaara 2009: 161–164; Lewis, Saunders & Thornhill 2009: 482–489.)

This research was executed as theme interviews which are also known as semi-structured interviews. Theme interviews are the most common research methodology for gathering material for qualitative research in Finland (Eskola, Lätti & Vastamäki 2018: 27.) Theme interviews are executed as conversations between a researcher and an interviewee, and the researcher aims to find out things that the research wants to solve. The interview is guided by themes and topics which are chosen beforehand. Although topics are chosen beforehand there is still left room for open conversations. Themes and topics are used as support for the interviews, but they are not meant to limit the interviews (Grönfors 2011; Eskola et al. 2018: 28–29.)

The principal thing in theme interviews is that the interviewee can speak openly about the researched subject and the interviewer is responsible for making sure that conversations are staying about the chosen subject and all the needed information is being gathered during the interview. The order of the themes in the interview can vary between different interviewees since interviewee's own experiences about the subject are leading the interview. The aim is that the researcher has minimal effect on the given answers during the theme interview. Characteristic for the theme interview is that there is interaction between the researcher and the interviewee, and that interaction is aiming to be a conversation. The main goal is to get deep answers and interpretations and in the theme interviews meanings are arised by speaking (Eskola ym. 2017: 30–36.) It is possible to reach interviewee's attitudes, opinions, and motives deeply during interviews. During interviews conversations may lead to unpredictable thoughts and subjects (Hirsjärvi & Hurme 2015: 34–35.)

This research was executed with interviews in the case company and the interviews were done with seven professionals from different units and with different expertises from the case company Food Ltd. All the interviewees are working for Food Ltd and have participated in cross-functional teams which were established in the case company. The interviews were executed as face-to-face interviews in the case company's premises. It was emphasized for every interviewee that these interviews are confidential, and their names and titles are not mentioned in this thesis. The most important aspect was that they have participated in cross-functional teams in the case company and are working with different work tasks and units so that there will be diverse perspectives for the research.

6.3 The Reliability and the Validity of the Research

Reliability is a factor that is being evaluated in all research. There exist several ways to measure and research that but the most common ways to evaluate the trustworthiness of the research through its reliability and validity. Reliability means the repeatability and coherence of the research and the validity of the research estimates that there has been researched what was meant to be researched (Hirsjärvi et al. 2009: 231; Silverman 2006: 289). Reliability and validity are founded on the assumption that there exists one reality that the research targets. Although there is not only one social reality but different constructions in qualitative research (Tuomi & Sarajärvi 2018: 160). The alternative option for qualitative research is to evaluate the trustworthiness of the research through four different constructs: credibility, portability, dependence, and ratification (Eriksson & Kovalainen 2008: 294).

The credibility means that the researcher has internalized the phenomenon of the research and there exists enough material to strengthen the findings of the research. The credibility can be also certified if some other researcher ends up to the same conclusion (Eriksson & Kovalainen 2008: 294). The ethical conclusions of the research also influence the credibility of the research. The credibility rests that researchers follow advisable scientific practices. Transparency, thoroughness, and precision in researching and the respect towards other researchers belong to advisable scientific practices (Tuomi & Sarajärvi 2018: 150-151.)

The portability of the research means that similar findings can also be found from other research contexts (Eriksson & Kovalainen 2008: 294). The basis for qualitative research is that researchers are the crucial research instruments of their research. The main criterion of the reliability is the researchers themselves and therefore the evaluation of the reliability covers the whole research process (Eskola & Suoranta 2001: 210-212).

The dependence of the research means that the research has been logical, documented, and traceable (Eriksson & Kovalainen 2008: 294). The assessment of the dependency of the research is related to the fact that the research has been executed in accordance with the general principles of the scientific research (Tuomi & Sarajärvi 2018: 162). The ratification of the research means that researchers must indicate that the data of the research and interpretations are not imagination rather between interpretations and findings are connections and conclusions (Eriksson &Kovalainen 2008: 294).

This research has been executed in compliance with general principles of scientific research. Earlier in this research's framework is presented earlier research of dynamic capabilities, customer-centricity, and joint learning and its three dimensions and later conclusion in this research is presented findings that are similar than on the theoretical framework. This research can be repeated similarly, especially in other companies with the same targets than the case company had. Although the number of the interviewees is not high in this research, it is enough for presenting findings from the case company since almost a half of the members of the cross functional teams were interviewed.

7 Joint Learning in the Case Company

Joint learning point of view is chosen as one of researched topics in this thesis since the case company had cross functional teams and all the interviewees took part of those teams. Cross functional teams were a new way of working in the case company. Cross functional teams were formed by managers in the case company. There were many reasons why managers wanted to try working in cross functional teams in the case company: doing things differently which may lead to developing and doing things better in general, sharing, and deepening knowledge commonly, learning from other colleagues from different divisions of the company and deepening knowledge about customers as examples of mentioned reasons. Managers also wanted the case company to understand their customers better, be more customer-centric and achieve better results by being more customer-centric.

7.1 Knowledge Sharing in the Case Company

All the interviewees were taking part in cross functional teams in the case company and that was the context where all the dimensions were related to during interviews. All those three dimensions of joint learning are researched in the context of these cross functional teams in the case company and not in the whole company in the first place. There were approximately thirty participants in cross functional teams in total and seven of them were interviewed for this thesis. There are approximately 100 employees working at administrative level in the case company so around a third were participating in cross functional teams.

At first three dimensions of joint learning in cross functional teams were discussed in the interviews. The aim was to define how they shared knowledge in cross functional teams and to figure out a functional way to share it according to interviewees. The interviewees were taking part in three different cross functional teams, so they were answering questions according to how they proceeded in their teams. That assures that a wide range of answers are being gathered and there can be formed a wide picture of how those three dimensions were executed in practice in the cross functional teams in the case company.

All the interviewees answered that they shared knowledge by speaking and discussing with group members during meetings which were scheduled in advance. Some of the meetings were with the whole team and some of them were held only with the part of the team. Scheduling and subjects of the meeting depended on who participated in the scheduled meetings. Some of the meetings were booked well in advance but some of them were arranged on short notice and then all the team members could not take part in that meeting. Knowledge was also shared by sending emails and talking on phone with team members besides the meetings. Also, some of the meetings could be considered as informal meetings since they also discussed topics regarding cross-functional teams and held ad-hoc meetings in corridors or even during lunch.

Most of the meetings consisted of open discussion and all the team members could say their opinions about subjects. All the interviewees felt that they could say their opinions in the meetings and were not afraid to express their opinions and ideas to their team members. There was room for free discussions in the meetings but sometimes meetings' subjects were defined in advance and mainly those subjects were discussed in that meeting. Defined subjects were for example analyzing sales numbers or making their Powerpoint-presentation together which was supposed to present to other teams and managers later. There were also meetings which were not defined by subject in advance and then team members were brainstorming and having open discussions in the meetings. The interviewees mentioned the fact that they did not usually prepare for the meetings in advance and that could have been useful sometimes. Discussions on the meetings were mentioned to be sometimes quite rambling so that might have been avoidable if all the team members would have been prepared for the meetings.

Professional F:

"*A better preparation for the meetings would have been good. We could have been more efficient by doing that. Sometimes we did not progress at all during meetings.*"

The interviewees shared their personal knowledge about their field of expertise, but they also analyzed data and read surveys, research, articles, and news about different subjects and for getting current and updated knowledge about a given subject. New information was usable in brainstorming also.

There were both formal and informal possibilities to share knowledge in cross functional teams.

7.1.1 Explicit and Tacit Knowledge

Knowledge which is being shared can be either tacit or explicit and both were shared in cross functional teams in the case company.

Explicit knowledge was being shared in cross functional teams and interviewees mentioned that it happened through discussions in meetings and outside the meetings, emails, Powerpoint-presentations, notes, and files. All the three cross functional teams got general guidelines from managers of the case company for their work and what they are expected to create in cross functional teams. Although there were given guidelines for working in cross functional teams, it came up into discussion during interviews that guidelines wished to be more specific. Some of the interviewees felt it confusing and difficult that there were not strict guidelines for working in cross functional teams and given guidelines were too abstract according to professional B.

Professional B:
"*I felt it confusing that there were not proper guidelines and instructions. I also think that there was a need for management when working in cross functional teams.*"

All the interviewees own tacit knowledge about something compared to other team members since they are working in different departments and with different tasks. One of the reasons why cross functional teams were formed in the case company was to bring professionals from different departments and with different expertises to the same table so that knowledge would be shared, and joint and organizational knowledge would increase. Building cross functional teams was also meant to create opportunities for sharing tacit knowledge which each professional owns and to being able to utilize professionals' tacit knowledge in their whole team and eventually for the whole organization.

Professional A told in the interview that they used to discuss work tasks regarding cross functional teams in meetings but also at each other's room's doors and at the corridors of the company. That information which was being discussed and shared at the corridors or doors or even during lunch are not usually being written down according to professional A. That information can remain tacit knowledge for a single professional or a small group of professionals since it is not necessarily written down and shared to other team members of the cross functional team.

Professional A:
"We tend to discuss at each other's doors spontaneously and we were not talking about things only in meetings."

Professional D:
"From my part, I did not have discussions outside the scheduled meetings about things regarding the cross functional teams. Although, it was difficult to recognize what information was regarding the cross functional teams' things only since things and information are the same, I use in all work tasks."

Professional D did not discuss work tasks related to cross functional teams elsewhere than in scheduled meetings. Professional D felt that she or he did not get any new information while working in the cross functional teams. On the other hand, professional A mentioned that they shared information outside the scheduled meetings so there might be a barrier for knowledge sharing if there is tacit knowledge which is not documented.

Professional D mentioned that she or he did not get any new information while working in the cross functional teams but she or he said that she or he still learned a lot by working in cross functional teams and used information which was familiar in a new context. Although the information which was being shared was not always new to team members, they shared it with new co-workers while working in cross functional teams. Half of the interviewees told that they got new information to themselves and almost all the interviewees mentioned that they learned something new while working in cross functional teams.

7.1.2 Motivational Factors of Knowledge Sharing

Both internal and external motivational factors that have an influence on knowledge sharing were recognized from the interviews. Some interviewees mentioned that they enjoyed the reciprocity of the discussions and gatherings regarding the cross functional teams. Interactions between team members and other parties regarding cross functional teams were mentioned to be inspiring and rewarding.

Some of the interviewees brought up during the interview that they understood the amount and value of the knowledge they have in their organization when they were working in cross functional teams. Although interviewees said that they searched for new information for meetings and during meetings, they recognized that they already have a huge amount of knowledge and information themselves and in this case company. Professional G told during the interview that it was surprising how much they already had knowledge and material for their assignments, and they used the knowledge and material more widely in cross functional teams. Professional G also mentioned that working in cross functional teams brought more knowledge to the same table since there were professionals from different divisions in the same team and they have necessarily not worked together before.

Professional G:

"We have very much knowledge and material and we kind of figured out that we already have the material and knowledge, and we just began to use it more than ever."

Professional C:

"I feel that we shared knowledge much more than before while working in the cross functional teams and the amount of knowledge surprised me. We have such a huge organization and I have previously not had an opportunity to sit down with all these colleagues."

The interviewees also recognized the power of sharing knowledge to their cross functional team members and noticed that they will get better results by sharing it with their team members. That turned out to be an internal factor that influence knowledge sharing positively in cross functional teams in the case company. None of the interviewees told that they would not want to share knowledge with their team members so there did not appear any reluctance towards knowledge sharing in cross functional teams. All the interviewees regarded knowledge sharing as useful, normal and positive in cross functional teams.

Formal opportunities to share information were built by the case company's managers when they decided to form cross functional teams which was a new way to work in the case company. Teamwork was not a new way to work in the case company so there has been a formal opportunity to share knowledge in the case company before forming cross functional teams. Cross functional teams brought professionals who have not worked together before at all or at least that closely so they formed new opportunities with new people to share knowledge.

They also have had basic technical systems and therefore formal opportunities for knowledge sharing via e-mails, phone, internal website platform for ideas and suggestions, Powerpoints, Word-documents and Excel-files and Skype Business have been possible. The case company does not have any other technical platforms (etc. Slack) for internal communication, interactions, or knowledge sharing. None of the interviewees mentioned that they would want new technical platforms for knowledge sharing and they seemed happy with current technical opportunities to share knowledge. Although the interviewees told that they have all the technical systems they need to share and document information they did not tell that they have stored information they gathered during meetings in the same place. This matter is covered later with the knowledge sharing part.

Social networks and personal relationships are considered as informal opportunities to share knowledge. All participants in the cross functional teams have known each other before forming and starting to work in the cross functional teams. Personal relationships are mentioned to be open between team members and barriers for knowledge sharing between the team members did not appear in the interviews because of personal relationships or social networks. Personal relationships and social networks were used particularly when knowledge about customer orientation was being developed.

The culture for knowledge sharing in the case company mentioned to have been developed during working in the cross functional teams according to professional B. Couple of other professionals mentioned the same thing but the rest of the professionals did not mention anything about the culture of knowledge sharing in the case company.

Professional B:
"We definitely developed in knowledge sharing when we were working in teams like this. We got different professionals at the same table so we could combine and synthesize our knowledge better than ever. Also, we shared knowledge more openly."

Professional A also mentioned that they worked together better than ever in cross functional teams and their “grouping” was easy and happened quickly even though they have not worked together with the same cast. Also, three other professionals mentioned that “teaming” went well and knowledge sharing mentioned to be easy and open in the cross functional teams. It seems that the interviewees did not recognize that the culture for knowledge sharing in the case company would cause a barrier for knowledge sharing in cross functional teams and the culture of the knowledge sharing mentioned to develop positively at least a little while working in the cross functional teams.

7.1.3 Barrier for Knowledge Sharing

There appeared several barriers for knowledge sharing in the teams while working in the cross functional teams during interviews.

7.1.3.1 Lack of Time

Lack of time for knowledge sharing was mentioned by several professionals in the interviews. The goal for the cross functional teams was to prepare and perform a presentation about given topics for managerial level within several weeks. That was called “a first round” for working in cross functional teams. In the interviews almost all the professionals mentioned that they had too little time for preparing and doing assignments while working in the cross functional teams. They also did mention several times in the interviews that they will be better prepared and have more time in the “second round”. So, there was an understanding that they would not get everything done during this “first round” of working in the cross functional teams. Lack of time for knowledge sharing mentioned to influence that they did not get enough work done or knowledge shared during meetings. That might have caused a possibility that there is something that was important to share to others in the team, but professionals did not do that since they did not have enough time for sharing it.

Professional A:
"The schedule was challenging, and I do not talk about our team's schedule, rather the schedule in general. The schedule was too tight. I wish that we would have had more time."

Professional C:
"Working in cross functional teams was eventful."

Professional E:
"It was challenging to find time for meetings."

7.1.3.2 Guidelines and Need for Management

Several interviewed professionals insisted on more guidelines on how to work in the cross functional teams from the managerial level in the case company. It appeared during the interviews that they have been used to being guided a lot more and they need and want management for their work. It can affect their motivation towards working in the cross functional teams if they feel that they do not have enough management and support for their work.

Professional B:
"I would want more guidance for working like this and I want managers to step up and manage this more, for example for working and sharing knowledge."

Professional D:
"I noticed that some colleagues had a hard time with that change and with the fact that we did not get strict guidelines for this. The whole autumn has been tough, and this did not make it easier, on the contrary."

7.1.3.3 Tacit Knowledge

The existence of the tacit knowledge and sharing it was being recognized among professionals in the cross functional teams. It appeared during interviews that tacit knowledge was being shared but it happened sometimes outside the meetings at the corridors with a few people and was not written down or forwarded to the rest of the co-workers in the team. Also, there can be left tacit knowledge which was not being shared at this point and was not recognized at all. Every individual can and probably do have tacit knowledge but there can be tacit knowledge within the group of professionals, in the team or in the different divisions in the company. Altogether it is important that the existence of tacit knowledge is recognized and there was a need and an intention that tacit knowledge would be shared in the cross functional teams so that it can be utilized better in the case company.

Professional E:
"I suspect that there is information which was not being shared to all my teammates and therefore remain tacit for many people. In the end it is about repeating things constantly to each other so that everyone is on the same page about things."

Professional C:
"Through working in the cross functional teams, I had more opportunities to share knowledge with new colleagues with whom I had not worked together before. That gives me a possibility to get new information and learn."

7.1.3.4 Information Overload

There was a new opportunity to share information and knowledge in the cross-functional teams in the case company. All of the interviewees mentioned that a lot of information and knowledge were shared during meetings, and they all received new information and knowledge. On the other hand, there existed a concern about the amount of knowledge and information in this short period of time.

Professional B:
"There is a lot of information and I'm not sure if we could utilize all of it in this period of time."

Professional E:
"We shared a lot of information while working in the cross-functional team. It was difficult to recognize the most important and relevant information among all of the shared information."

7.2 Sensemaking

The interviewees faced a huge amount of communicating with different people and potentially they worked with colleagues they have not worked with before while working in the cross-functional teams. They all interpreted shared information and knowledge while working in the cross-functional teams on their own point of views. They all need to make sense about a new working environment with different mind-set and a new way of working and communicating in and facing different situations and colleagues. They all were unknown about how to work in cross-functional teams, what was exactly expected from them, and they could not predict if they were on the right track with their working in the cross-functional teams before they got feedback from the managerial level of the company.

The sensemaking process while working in the cross-functional teams included both written and spoken communication and both informal and formal communication between participants of the cross-functional teams. Written communications were executed for example via emails and skype conversations and spoken communication while meetings, at the corridors or even during lunch regarding the cross-functional teams. The sensemaking process while working in the cross-functional teams included social actions for example in meetings, at the corridors of the company, on the phone or while answering emails and it also included verbal and nonverbal actions. None of the interviewees mentioned that they would have faced nonverbal actions that have made sharing knowledge, sensemaking or knowledge integration process more difficult. Therefore, it can be said that nonverbal actions did not have a major influence on the sensemaking process while working in the cross-functional teams either in a good or wrong way. Verbal actions were mentioned to be very important and continuous since they shared knowledge a lot with verbal actions while working in the cross-functional teams.

Some of the shared knowledge might be harmful for individuals' sensemaking process but it can be useful for the organizational sensemaking process. Some of the interviewees mentioned that working in the cross-functional teams were rewarding but tough because of the lack of the time or the huge amount of shared and new information and knowledge.

Professional D:
"The amount of shared knowledge was a lot for me. The whole autumn was tough for the whole company. Even though working in the cross-functional team was rewarding, it was overloading."

Professional G:
"A lot of time went to think about what we should even do or what we should focus on. It was challenging to understand guidelines and I personally felt a lot of confusion during this process."

An open environment in the organizations enables the sensemaking process in the organizations and for the individuals working in the organizations. Organizations' routines and rules influence the sensemaking process. The sensemaking process is often seen as a social process and it must include interactions between people. The case company wanted to try a new way of working which includes more interactions between colleagues who have not worked with each other that much before. The case company created an opportunity for social interactions and at the same time an opportunity to achieve a more open environment in the organization and create social and helpful routines and rules for their employees. The succeeding in the sensemaking process was possible by working in the cross functional teams since that supported the success of the sensemaking process by enabling more social interactions and new organizational routines.

Professional G:
"We had an open environment right from the start while working in the cross functional team."

The sensemaking process aims for consensus. During the sensemaking process individuals in organizations discuss to build joint and shared goals and meanings. The case company enabled a possibility to build joint and shared goals and meanings since they allowed their employees to spend a lot of time for meetings and other gatherings while working in the cross-functional teams. The team members of the cross functional teams were forced to participate in the meetings and teaming of the cross functional teams so that participants needed to share their knowledge and information to each other. The participants had to create a concrete and rather short presentation, so they had to discuss what is important and relevant and create joint decisions for the presentation about their subjects. The participants needed to achieve consensus of many subjects while working in the cross functional teams.

Some of the interviewees mentioned that they achieved a consensus in their cross functional teams:

Professional G:

“We achieved a consensus and there was not any problem about achieving that.”

Professional F:

“I think that we achieved a consensus very easily since we were on the same page right from the start with our team members.”

One of the interviewees mentioned that they maintained a consensus about a certain subject which was a customer point of view. On the other hand, one of the interviewees mentioned that they did not maintain consensus about the customer point of the view.

Professional E:

“I think we succeeded in creating consensus especially about customer orientation.”

Professional C:

“In my opinion we did not maintain consensus about all subjects, especially about customer point of view. I think that we have a certain basic level of consensus about different subjects but consensus about the customer point of view was quite poor.”

One of the interviewees was not sure if they maintained consensus between subjects.

Professional D:

“We did not have to vote for any subjects or decisions, so I think we achieved consensus.”

One of the interviewees was happy for the result of her/his own team’s achieved consensus but was not that happy for the other cross functional teams succeeding in maintaining consensus.

Professional B:

“We succeeded in finding consensus in my own team perfectly, but I am not happy with the result about consensus of the other two teams.”

There were different opinions about maintaining consensus while working in the cross functional teams. None of the interviewees mentioned that they would have ensured that they have consensus about different subjects in their cross functional team. Joint sensemaking is highlighting the importance of seeking shared understanding, making consensus between different parties, and seeking an appropriate fit between the customer’s expectations and other different parties. Joint sensemaking in the cross functional team in the case company had an opportunity to be achieved but it was not ensured or measured that joint sensemaking was achieved. Therefore, it is not reliable to claim that all the cross functional teams achieved consensus and successful joint sensemaking process while working in the cross functional teams.

7.3 Knowledge Integration

The interviewees shared a lot of information and knowledge while working in the cross functional teams. Knowledge itself and sharing knowledge are important but the integration of the knowledge is even more important. Knowledge integration is the critical source of competitive advantage and integrating the knowledge is the basis for competitive advantage in dynamic market conditions. That speaks to the importance of integrating knowledge also while working in the cross functional teams in the case company.

Knowledge integration may occur when created, shared, and combined knowledge is transferred from individuals to the whole organization so that knowledge can be said to be organizational knowledge. Organizational routines and specific directions are keys for successful knowledge integration. The cross functional teams formed in the case company created an opportunity to share knowledge, for joint sensemaking to occur and for the knowledge integration. Working in the cross functional teams became an organizational routine which assisted successful knowledge integration in the case company. The case company offered an opportunity to transfer individuals’ knowledge for organizational knowledge when they allowed knowledge sharing and joint sensemaking by working in the cross functional teams. Some of the interviewees demanded more specific directions for cross functional teams so the lack of specific directions or guidelines could complicate the knowledge integration in the cross functional teams.

Knowledge integration can only happen if individuals are motivated towards sharing knowledge and keep their colleagues and team members current on key issues. The interviewees did not mention that they would have been resistant to share knowledge while working in the cross functional teams but many of them mentioned the lack of time which may cause a rush for knowledge sharing, joint sensemaking process and therefore for knowledge integration also. The possible rush can negatively affect the integration of the knowledge.

Knowledge integration might include, for example, organizational beliefs, behavioral practices, or physical artifacts, such as documents and electronic databases that can be shared throughout the organization. All the interviewees mentioned that they store information somewhere while working in the cross functional teams but not all the information. Some of the shared knowledge was not documented so it was left by individuals' memory to remember and know. All the interviewees mentioned that they used documents or electronic databases, such as cloud computing, for documenting the shared knowledge while working in the cross functional teams.

Professional A:
"We documented the information to emails, shared folders, Powerpoint-presentations, and summaries via emails. We documented information systematically during the process."

Professional E:

"One of us always made notes and did a summary about the things that needed to be discussed or did not solve during the meeting. Not all the information was documented but all of the topics that needed to be forwarded or taken care of soon."

Professional F:

"We used Excel a lot for documentation, and we listed topics and comments straight to the Powerpoint-presentation which was presented for other teams and for the managerial level. We documented a lot."

Even though the knowledge was shared, joint sensemaking processes could occur and the knowledge was integrated, there was a possibility that they only shared and integrated knowledge with colleagues in the same cross functional team and not with other teams at all.

Professional B:

"The information was only shared and documented with my colleagues at the same time, so we did not share it with other cross functional teams."

Two of the interviewees mentioned that they shared knowledge a lot orally and only chose some of the information which was documented or just focused on the final presentation which was presented to other cross functional teams and to the managerial level of the case company in the arranged meeting. All the interviewees mentioned that they shared knowledge while working in the cross functional teams but not all of them documented that shared knowledge and therefore ensured the integration of the knowledge

Professional C:

"We discussed a lot, but we only made the presentation and not documented precisely anything else during meetings. We focused on the final presentation a lot."

Professional D:

“Information came mainly from the discussions, and we did not document during the discussions at all. We did the final presentation though. I did notes for myself only, but we did not do documentation together.”

There were different ways to document shared knowledge and some knowledge was not documented at all in the cross functional teams. It depended on the team or even the employee whether they documented the shared knowledge at all or where they documented the shared knowledge. If they documented the shared knowledge there were several different systems and places where they documented it. The documentation of the shared knowledge and therefore knowledge integration in the case company spalled certainly much while working in the cross functional teams. There were no guidelines or pointed places or systems for knowledge integration so it was left to the cross functional team to decide whether they would document information or where they would document it. Even though the information was documented in a written form the information could be spalled to different documents and formats to several different places or systems. There was not a requirement from the managerial level of the case company to document information since the only documentation which was required was the presentation. The presentation could be in every form since it was not defined beforehand in guidelines by the managerial level of the case company.

7.4 Customer Oriented Point of View

The cross functional teams were originally established because the case company wanted to increase customer-centric approach and customer-centric thinking in the case company. By increasing and developing customer-centric approach and thinking the case company wanted to accomplish better results in general, for example financially. The case company also wanted to become more customer-centric since they recognized that they have been too product-centric in the developing and changing market conditions. The theory by Kumar et al. 's supports the case company’s thinking since they stated that being more customer-centric indicates sales and profits positively. Positive financial outcomes follow over time and to organizations that truly are customer-centric instead of just believing to be more customer-centric (Kumar et al. 2011).

There was a need to be more dynamic in changing market conditions and an urge to take the whole case company to the next level in being more customer centric. The case company's managerial level knew their employees were intelligent and capable for a change, but it needed to be guided from the managerial level to speed up the change in the case company. The managerial level wanted to try different ways of working and trusted that organizational learning will happen and enable the whole company to become more customer-centric trying to transform being customer-centric organizational dynamic capability.

Becoming more customer-centric was emphasized highly by the managerial level of the case company while some of their employees started to work in the cross functional teams so the interviewees also noted that aspect during interviews and it was also considered in a research questionnaire. The case company valued high becoming more customer-centric while their employees worked in the cross functional teams, so it is also considered in this thesis through joint learning's three dimensions: knowledge sharing, joint sensemaking and knowledge integrating.

7.4.1 Knowledge Sharing about Customers

All the interviewees called for active knowledge sharing about customers for improving knowledge about them. They also saw the creation of the new way of working in the cross functional teams as an investment in a possibility for becoming more customer-centric by the case company. Knowledge sharing with colleagues was seen as a functional way for trying to become more customer centric. Knowledge about customers was shared via emails, during meetings and discussions in the meetings, at the corridors and on the phone and via financial numbers from the market. The financial numbers and information about the market played a more important role in knowledge sharing about customers than knowledge sharing in general while working in the cross-functional teams in the case company.

Professional C:

"Knowledge sharing about customers is vital since it is a groundwork that we all learn to know who our customers are and what needs they have in general and especially from us as an organization. Customers' needs must always be remembered while working."

Professional D:

"We do talk about customers all the time and I think we invest in understanding customers a lot of time, energy and resources in this company."

Working in the cross functional teams allowed all the interviewees to have arranged meetings with colleagues they have not worked with before at all or that much. There was a huge amount of social networking which furthers knowledge sharing in general and about the customers. Two of the interviewees worked directly with their B-2-B -customers so they had a lot of responsibility for sharing knowledge about business customers. Four of interviewees mentioned that they worked with work tasks that were related to B-2-C -customers of the case company. One of the interviewees mentioned that she/he does not work with topics that relate to the company's customers, so she/he had a lot of new information and knowledge about customers while working in the cross functional teams.

7.4.2 Joint Sensemaking about Customers

All the interviewees stated that they achieved consensus about customers but some of them were not sure if they gained any new knowledge or deeper knowledge about customers while working in the cross functional teams. Majority of the interviewees stated that deeper knowledge about customers was lacking and was needed in the future working in the cross functional teams. It was not ensured that consensus was born while working in the cross functional team.

Professional E:

"We could have gained more knowledge about customers, but I think we managed to achieve consensus about customers, but we did not develop or gain new knowledge about customers."

Professional F:

"We did not have enough knowledge and therefore consensus about all customer types of our company has. Therefore, we did not consider all possibilities we could have had about possible actions for customers. I do not know if it is possible to achieve consensus about customers since we did not have all the information about them in our company."

7.4.3 Knowledge Integration Regarding Customers

All the interviewees mentioned that they documented shared knowledge about customers. All of them documented knowledge in Powerpoint-presentation which was created by order of the management level of the case company. They also documented shared knowledge about customers via emails, summaries about topics that were discussed in meetings, other presentations, and separate documents. Some of them were stored in the shared folders but not all of them. All information and shared knowledge about customers were not documented. Documentation was spalled also regarding information and knowledge about customers.

Barriers for knowledge sharing, joint sensemaking or/and knowledge integrating about customers in the case company

Customer orientations are examined differently in different parts of the case company, so the interviewees for this thesis needed to work in different parts of the case company for creating a wide point of view about how they considered their customers and being customer centric. It became clear that customers mean different things in different parts of the case company since some of the interviewees considered customers as B-2-B -customers and some of them B-2-C -customers. Some of the interviewees thought that their direct customer was their colleagues in a different part of the company since they were not working with B-2-B -customers or B-2-C -customers rather they served their colleagues and considered them as their customers. Becoming more customer-centric was examined at least from two different points of views, even three or more also. It was necessary to emphasize which customer is always talked about and they did not do that while working in the cross functional teams.

The managerial level of the case company addressed that they need to become more customer centric, but they did not detail which point of view of the customers is the most important or did they address becoming more customer-centric with all of the customer types. Becoming more customer-centric and developing to understand customers were evaluated in one way which was not defined by the managerial level of the case company. Therefore, being more customer-centric was assessed in general and not specified.

Only a few of the employees working in the cross functional teams were able to share in-depth information and knowledge about customers so they had all the responsibility of sharing knowledge about customers and gaining new knowledge was challenging. The shared knowledge which was documented was spalled so it could make it tougher to remember, find or digest the shared knowledge about customers.

8 The Summary, Conclusions and Further Research

8.1 The Summary and Conclusions

The purpose of this research was to examine how the three dimensions of the joint learning actualized in the case company when they were working in the cross functional teams. Working in the cross functional teams was a new way of working in the case company. The purpose of this research was also to examine how the three dimensions of the joint learning actualized regarding becoming more customer-centric in the case company while working in the cross functional teams.

1. What are the three dimensions of joint learning?
2. How have the three dimensions of joint learning actualized while working in the cross functional teams in the case company?
3. How has that new way of working affected the company's aim becoming more customer-centric through the three dimensions of joint learning in the case company?

The three dimensions of joint learning are knowledge sharing, sensemaking and knowledge integration. These three dimensions are covered earlier in this research and are also covered in practice through the actions in the case company. The managerial level of the case company put into practice the new way of working in the case company and they started to work in cross functional teams.

There was a need to be renewed in the case company so that they would achieve better financial results, results in general and specifically better results being more customer centric. The case company is aiming to create a customer-oriented approach as their competitive value, and they want to be dynamic by doing that. They have involved their professionals in this project and the aim is that the case company will be more customer-centric and customer oriented throughout the whole company. Working in cross functional teams was a new way of working in the case company which was meant to deliver new, even radically different, ideas and products in the market and eventually better financial results.

All the interviewees stated that they did not achieve visible innovative ideas or products for the market by working in the cross functional teams for the first time, but they stated that they gained a lot of new knowledge and visions by working in the cross functional teams. All the interviewees stated also that they would need more time for working in the cross functional teams and the schedule was too tight to create radical innovations. They saw this as “a first round” working this way and were waiting to continue work in the cross functional teams in the future so that they would achieve more visible results. All the interviewees stated that the new way of working was an effective way to work.

The case company’s managerial level enabled more time and resources for knowledge sharing, sensemaking and knowledge integration by creating cross functional teams in their company. All these three dimensions of joint learning were allowed to happen and had an opportunity to happen and be succeeded while working in the cross functional teams. All the interviewees saw that and stated that a new way of working was an opportunity for something new, better, and renewing. Therefore, the case company enabled joint learning to happen in the case company by creating the cross functional teams and otherwise their professionals who were working in the cross functional teams made it possible by being open for a new way of working, indulging and actively participating.

Knowledge sharing was proved to be done more while working in the cross functional teams. All the interviewees mentioned that they have shared knowledge more than before and with different colleagues than before. They had arranged resources, for example time with different colleagues, by the case company to share knowledge. The foundation of joint learning, knowledge sharing, was successful. All the interviewees stated they had individual understanding about topics they covered while working in the cross functional teams but there were spalled opinions about if joint sensemaking was fulfilled. Knowledge integration was also spalled since knowledge was documented and stored but in different systems or places and some of the interviewees said that they documented some of the information and some said that they documented all information. All of the interviewees mentioned that they gathered some information to the presentation which was meant to be presented to the managerial level of the case company but some of them told that they stored information in different places and systems, such as emails or summaries at Word-documents, and some of them told that they did not document anything else than the most important information to the presentation. All the three dimensions of joint learning were recognized to be partially fulfilled but not completely successfully in general while working in the cross functional teams in the case company.

Regarding becoming more customer-centric knowledge was shared much more than before working in the cross functional teams but knowledge sharing about customers was a responsibility only for a few participants in the cross functional teams whereas all participants shared knowledge in general. The case company has various kinds of customers, such as B-2-B- and B-2-C-customers, and some of the interviewees spoke about different customers than others. The idea of who their customers are, was spalled in the cross functional teams and is spalled in the case company. It needs to be defined when discussing customers while working in the cross functional teams. Knowledge sharing about customers occurred but all the interviewees stated that they did not successfully share knowledge about customers as they did about knowledge sharing in general. Knowledge sharing had some difficulties about customers, so it also affected individual and joint sensemaking processes in a negative way. Some of the interviewees mentioned that they did not have anything new information about customers, and it was not clear which customers they were talking to from time to time. Knowledge integration was done about customers by documenting shared knowledge and storing it in different systems and places, but it was also spalled according to the interviewees. All the interviewees mentioned that they documented information about customers to the final presentation.

Customer-centricity was brought up on behalf of the case company's managerial level and they enabled their employees to work differently than before in the cross functional teams. Therefore, the foundation of becoming more customer-centric was established by the case company but it needs more work, time, and dedication to be fulfilled by working in the cross functional teams. Better results in becoming customer-centric can not be seen yet but all the interviewees were hopeful, and they trusted the process and wanted to continue working in the cross functional teams.

Cross functional teams were seen as a possibility to better results and becoming more customer-centric in the future but there are barriers of joint learning which need to be taken into consideration and minimized and on the other hand maximize the possibilities of the joint learning. All of the interviewees saw working in the cross functional teams as a possibility for successful working and achieving the targets, but it needs more practice and repeating in the case company according to all of the interviewees. While working in the cross functional teams there was seen positive development about knowledge sharing, sensemaking and knowledge integration in general and regarding customers in the case company according to majority of the interviewees. A positive link can be seen in joint learning and its three dimensions and working in the cross functional teams since all the interviewees stated that they achieved at least in knowledge sharing but also most of the interviewees stated that they achieved in all three dimensions while working in the cross functional teams.

8.2 The Contribution of the Research

The contribution of the research means that the researcher is comparing the research and its results to existing literature and data. The contribution occurs when the research increases, enriches or succeeds in adding something to or deepening knowledge about the topic which is researched (Ladik & Stewart 2008: 157). The contribution of the research can be formed in three ways: in theory, in methodology or in context. The significant research should turn out contribution in two or three ways. (Ladik & Stewart 2008: 161–162.) In this research the contribution has occurred through methodology and context since three dimensions of joint learning are examined and are shown in practice. The theme interviews enable deeper knowledge about how the interviewees experienced and considered the actualization of the three dimensions of joint learning in practice. Therefore, there exists several opinions from the interviewees which can be summarized together, and it is possible to formulate conclusions and further development ideas for the case company.

8.3 The Limitations of the Research

The researcher and his/her interpretations have a vital part in executing qualitative research. The theoretical framework guided the researcher when the interview questions were formed but going through the answers and the theoretical framework together it is possible to conclude conclusions and further development ideas for the case company. The conclusions of this research combine part from previous research and conclusions and its interpretations of this research. The researcher of this research was also taking part in working in the cross functional teams in the case company, so the researcher is not independent from the case company or the new way of working in the case company. The researcher has not facilitated other cross functional teams than the one the researcher was taking part herself in the case company. This research aims to increase knowledge about joint learning and its three dimensions in practice and bring up results from the new way of working in the case company in general through the three dimensions of joint learning and regarding becoming more customer centric.

8.4 Further Development Suggestions and Research

According to Teece (2007) organizational decision-making process includes each employees' individual knowledge but they do not have enough knowledge to make collective decisions alone. Therefore, organizational structures that facilitate joint learning are important to be created. The case company enabled joint learning to be formed by creating a new way of working. The case companies have to ensure that their employees are motivated to share knowledge which is a foundation for a joint learning process to be successful. The case company needs to be aware of barriers for knowledge sharing, joint sensemaking and knowledge integration while their employees are working in the cross functional teams.

The case company needs to ensure that their employees stay motivated to share knowledge to each other in the cross functional teams and in general so that knowledge integration may occur in the future also. The case company can help their employees in knowledge integration by allowing them to share knowledge and create opportunities to share knowledge to each other but also by offering functional systems and guidelines to document and store knowledge in the place where everyone may reach it afterwards. The case company must recognize that there are two different levels of sensemaking: individual and joint sensemaking level. The case company must enable both processes to happen while working in the cross functional teams. It was not ensured that joint sensemaking was happening so the case company could help cross functional teams about that by creating indicators for ensuring that they have consensus in the team.

The lack of time might have an enormous effect on knowledge sharing, joint sensemaking and knowledge integration. The case company might want to consider this threat and try to enable more resources, such as time, for the participants of the cross functional teams. If the time is limited and can not be given more the case company's managerial level could create more structure for working in the cross functional teams, such as structured process or explicit guidelines, so that the participants of the cross functional teams could focus on doing instead of creating guidelines or trying to understand what they were meant to be done. Several interviewees stated that they were unsure about what the case company wanted from them while working in the cross functional teams. Indicators for working in the cross functional teams could help their employees to be more successful in working in the cross functional teams.

Bringing customers along to the decision process is critical for helping the progress of becoming more customer centric. Customers' current needs, behavior and signals of their changing needs should guide organizations' decision-making and investments and not just what is technically or financially suitable for the organizations (Day 2011; Windhal 2017). In the case of the case company there were barriers for knowledge sharing about customers since only a few participants were collaborating straight with customers and they had too much responsibility for knowledge sharing about the customers while working in the cross functional teams. Therefore, in the future other employees, who work at customer interface, could take part in cross functional teams so that the responsibility of sharing knowledge about customers would broaden. On the other hand, B-2-B-customers or B-2-C-customers can join along the discussions while working in the cross functional teams and get knowledge straight from the customers.

The case company could gather data and opinions about working in the cross functional teams in the future so that they could follow the development of the new way of working.

References

Al-Kurdi, O., El-Haddadeh, RM & Eldabi, T. (2020). The role of organizational climate in managing knowledge sharing among academics in higher education. International Journal of Information Management, 50, 217–227.

Alam, I. (2006). Removing the fuzziness from the fuzzy front-end of service innovations through customer interactions. Industrial Marketing Management, 35(4), 468–480.

Amazon 2019. Our DNA. Accessed March 12, 2019.

Ambrosini, V., & Bowman, C. (2009). What are dynamic capabilities and are they a useful construct in strategic management? International Journal of Management Reviews, 11(1), 29–49.

Ambrosini, V., Bowman, C., & Collier, N. (2009). Dynamic capabilities: An exploration of how firms renew their resource base. British Journal of Management, 20(1), 9–24.

Amit, R., & Schoemaker, P. J. (1993). Strategic assets and organizational rent. Strategic Management Journal, 14(1), 33–46.

Anderson, J.C., Narus, J.A., 1990. A model of distributor firm and manufacturer firm working partnership. Journal of Marketing 54 (January), 42–58.

Armbrecht, F. M. R., Jr., Chapas, R. B., Chappelow, C. C., & Farris, G. F. (2001). Knowledge management in research and development. Research Technology Management, 44(2), 28-48.

Ballantyne, D. (2004). Dialogue and its role in the development of relationship specific knowledge. The Journal of Business and Industrial Marketing, 19(2), 114–123.

Barney, J. B. (2001). Resource-based theories of competitive advantage: A ten-year retrospective on the resource-based view. Journal of Management, 27(6), 643–650.

Bartol, K. M., & Srivastava, A. (2002). Encouraging knowledge sharing: The role of organizational reward systems. Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies, 9(1), 64–77.

Bharadwaj, N., & Dong, Y. (2014). Toward further understanding the market-sensing capability – value creation relationship. Journal of Product Innovation Management, 31(4), 799–813.

Becerra-Fernandez, I., & Sabherwal, R. (2001). Organizational knowledge management: A contingency perspective. Journal of Management Information Systems, 18(1), 23–55.

Boin, a. & Renaud, C. (2013). Orchestrating Joint Sensemaking Across Government Levels: Challenges and Requirements for Crisis Leadership. Journal of Leadership Studies, 7(3), 41–46.

Boland, R. J. J., & Tenkasi, R. V. (1995). Perspective making and perspective taking in communities of knowing. Organization Science, 6(4), 350–372.

Brown, A. D. (2000). Making Sense of Inquiry Sensemaking. Journal of Management Studies 37, 45.

Brown, J. S., & Duguid, P. (1991). Organizational learning and communities-of-practice: Toward a unified view of working, learning, and innovation. Organization Science, 2(1), 40–57.

Burmann, C., Meurer J., & Kanitz, C. (2011). Customer Centricity as a Key to Success for Pharma. Journal of Medical Marketing 11 (1): 49–59.

Buzzell, R. D. & Bradley G. (1987), The PIMS Principles: Linking Strategy to Performance. New York: Free Press.

Cannon, J.P. & Perreault Jr., W.D., 1999. Buyer-seller relationships in business markets. Journal of Marketing Research 36 (November), 439–460.

Carmeli, A. & Tishler, A. (2004). Resources, Capabilities and the Performance of Industrial Firms: A Multivariate Analysis. Managerial and Decision Economics, 25, 299–315.

Chakravarthy, B., Zaheer, A., & Zaheer, S. (1999). Knowledge sharing in organizations: A field study. St. Paul: University of Minnesota, Strategic Management Resource Center.

Chang, K. H., & Gotcher, D. (2007). Safeguarding investments and creation of transaction value in asymmetric international subcontracting relationships: The role of relationship learning and relational capital. Journal of World Business, 42(4), 477–488.

Chennamaneni, A., Teng, J.T. & Raja, M. (2012). A unified model of knowledge sharing behaviours: theoretical development and empirical test. Behaviour & Information Technology, Vol. 31 No. 11, 1097–115

Choo, C. W. (2001). Sensemaking, Knowledge Creation and Decision Making: Organizational Knowing as Emergent Strategy. Strategic Management of Intellectual Capital and Organizational Knowledge.

Clark, K. B. & Fujimoto, T. (1991), Product Development Performance, Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.

Claudio, M. & Collins, K. (2003). Top-10 Marketing Processes for the 21st Century. Gartner Group Report SP-20-0671. Available on World Wide Web: http://www.gartner.com

Cohen, W. M., & Levinthal, D. A. (1990). Absorptive capacity: A new perspective on learning and innovation. Administrative Science Quarterly, 35, 128-152.

Collis, D. J. (1994). Research note: how valuable are organizational capabilities? Strategic Management Journal, 15(1), 143–152.

Conner, K. R. (1991). A Historical Comparison of Resource-Based Theory and Five Schools of Thought within Industrial Organization Economics: Do We Have a New Theory of the Firm? Journal of Management, 17(1), 121–154.

Conner, K. & Prahalad, C.K. (1996). A resource-based theory of the firm: knowledge versus opportunism. Organization Science 7(5): 477–501.

Corsaro, D., Cantù, C., & Tunisini, A. (2012). Actors' heterogeneity in innovation networks. Industrial Marketing Management, 41(5), 780–789.

Crossan, M. M., Lane, H. W., & White, R. E. (1999). An organizational learning framework: From intuition to institution. Academy of Management Review, 24(3), 522–537.

Crecelius, A. T., Lawrence, J. M., Lee, J-Y., Lam, S. K., & Scheer, L. K. (2019). Effects of Channel Members.

Cronin, M. A. & Weingart, L. R. (2007). Representational gaps, information processing, and conflict in functionally diverse teams. Academy of Management Review, Vol 32, 761–773.

Davenport, T. H., De Long, D. W., & Beers, M. C. (1998). Successful knowledge management projects. Sloan Management Review, 39(2), 43–57.

Davenport, T. H., & Prusak, L. (1998). Working knowledge: How organizations manage what they know. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

Day, G. S. (1994). The capabilities of market-driven organizations. Journal of Marketing, 58(4), 37–52.

Day, G. S. (1999). Aligning organizational structure to the market. Business Strategy Review, 10(3), 33–46.

Day, G. S. (2000). Managing Market Relationships. Academy of Marketing Science Journal, 28 (1), 24–30.

Day, G. S. (2002). Managing the market learning process. Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing, 17(4), 240–252.

Day, G. S. (2006). Aligning the Organization with the Market. Working paper, Marketing Science Institute, Cambridge, MA.

Day, G. S. (2011). Closing the marketing capabilities gap. Journal of Marketing, 75(4), 183–195.

Day, G., & Moorman, C. (2010). Strategy from the outside in: Profiting from customer value. New York: McGraw Hill Professional.

Day, G., & Moorman, C. (2013). Regaining customer relevance: The outside-in turnaround. Strategy & Leadership, 41(4), 17–23.

Day, G. S., & Schoemaker, P. J. (2016). Adapting to Fast-Changing Markets and Technologies. California Management Review, 58(4), 59–77.

De Long, D. W., & Fahey, L. (2000). Diagnosing cultural barriers to knowledge management. The Academy of Management Executive, 14(4), 113–127.

Deshpande´, R., & Farley, J.U. (1998). Measuring market orientation: generalization and synthesis. Journal of Market-Focused Management, Vol. 2 No. 3, 213–32.

Drucker, P. (1954). The Practice of Management. New York: HarperCollins.

Edmondson, A. C. & Harvey, J-F. (2018). Cross-boundary Teaming for Innovation: Integrating Research on Teams and Knowledge in Organizations. Human Resource Management Review, 28, 347–360.

Eisenhardt, K. M., & Martin, J. A. 2000. Dynamic capabilities: what are they? Strategic Management Journal, 21(10/11), 1105–1121.

Empson, L. (2001). Fear of exploitation and fear of contamination: Impediments to knowledge transfer in mergers between professional service firms. Human Relations, 54(7), 839–862.

Eriksson, P. & Kovalainen, A. (2008). Qualitative Methods in Business Research. 1. painos. Lontoo: Sage Publications.

Eskola, J., Lätti, J. & Vastamäki, J. (2018). Teemahaastattelu: Lyhyt selviytymisopas. Teoksessa: Ikkunoita tutkimusmetodeihin 1: Metodin valinta ja aineistonkeru: virikkeitä aloittelevalle tutkijalle. Valli, Raine. Jyväskylä: PS-kustannus. 27–51.

Eskola, J. & Suoranta, J. (2001). Johdatus laadulliseen tutkimukseen. 5. painos. Jyväskylä: Vastapaino.

Fader, P. (2012). Customer Centricity: Focus on the Right Customers for Strategic Advantage. Philadelphia: Wharton Digital Press.

Fang, S. R., Fang, S. C., Chou, C. H., Yang, S. M., & Tsai, F. S. (2011). Relationship learning and innovation: The role of relationship-specific memory. Industrial Marketing Management, 40(5), 743–753.

Felin, T., & Powell, T. C. (2016). Designing organizations for dynamic capabilities. California Management Review, 58(4), 78–96.

Fiol, C.M. & Lyles, M.A. (1985). Organizational learning. Academy of Management Review 10 (October), 803–813.

Foley, A., & Fahy, J. (2009). Seeing market orientation through a capabilities lens. European Journal of Marketing, 43(1/2), 13–20.

Foss, N.J., Husted, K. & Michailova, S. (2010). Governing Knowledge Sharing in Organizations: Levels of Analysis, Governance Mechanisms, and Research Directions. Journal of Management Studies, Vol. 47 No. 3, 455–82.

Gephart, R. P. (1993). The Textual Approach: Risk and Blame in Disaster Sensemaking. Academy of Management Journal 36, 1469.

Gephart, R. P. (1997). Hazardous Measures: An Interpretive Textual Analysis of Quantitative Sensemaking During Crises. Journal of Organizational Behavior 18, 583.

Gioia, D. & Mehra, A. (1996). Sensemaking in Organizations. Academy of Management.

Google Trends. 2019. “Customer Centricity”. Accessed March 5, 2019.

Grant, R. M. (1996). Prospering in Dynamically-Competitive Environments: Organizational Capability as Knowledge Integration. Organization Science, 7(4), 375–387.

Greenley, G. E., Hooley, G. J., & Rudd, J. M. (2005). Market orientation in a multiple stakeholder orientation context: Implications for marketing capabilities and assets. Journal of Business Research, 58(11), 1483–1494.

Griffin, A., & Hauser, J. R. (1993). The voice of the customer. Marketing Science, 12(1), 1–27.

Grinstein, A. (2008). The Relationship between Market Orientation and Alternative Strategic Orientations. European Journal of Marketing, 42, 115–134.

Grover, V., & Davenport, T. H. (2001). General perspectives on knowledge management: Fostering a research agenda. Journal of Management Information Systems, 18(1), 5–21.

Grönfors, M. (2011). Laadullisen tutkimuksen kenttätyömenetelmät [online]. Edition. Hämeenlinna: SoFia-Sosiologi-Filosofiapu Vilkka [12.11.2018]. *Available on World Wide Webistä: <http://vilkka.fi/books/Laadullisen_tutkimuksen.pdf>. *ISBN 978-952-93-0048-8 PDF

Hart, C. W. (1999). Customers Are Your Business. Marketing Management, 8 (4), 6–7.

Hau, Y.S., Kim, B., Lee, H. & Kim, Y. ‑ G. (2013). The effects of individual motivations and social capital on employees’ tacit and explicit knowledge sharing intentions. International Journal of Information Management, Vol. 33 No. 2, 356 ‑ 66.

Helfat, C. E., Finkelstein, S., Mitchell, W., Peteraf, M., Singh, H., Teece, D., & Winter, S. G. (2007). Dynamic capabilities: Understanding strategic change in organizations. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.

Helfat, C. E., & Peteraf, M. A. (2015). Managerial Cognitive Capabilities and the Microfoundations of Dynamic Capabilities. Strategic Management Journal, 1–44.

Helfat, C. E., Finkelstein, S., Mitchell, W., Peteraf, M., Singh, H., Teece, D., & Winter, S. G. (2007). Dynamic capabilities: Understanding strategic change in organizations. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.

Helfat, C. E., & Peteraf, M. A. (2009). Understanding dynamic capabilities: progress along a developmental path. Strategic Organization, 7(1), 91–102.

Hendriks, P. (1999). Why share knowledge? The influence of ICT on the motivation for knowledge sharing. Knowledge and Process Management, 6(2), 91–100.

Henderson, R. (2006): The Innovator's Dilemma as a Problem of Organizational Competence. Journal of Product Innovation Management, 23 (1), 5–11.

Hewlett Packard 2019. HP Corporate Objectives and Shared Values. Accessed March 5, 2019.

Hirsjärvi, S., Remes, P. & Sajavaara, P. (2009). Tutki ja kirjoita. 15. uudistettu painos. Helsinki: Tammi.

Hirsjärvi, S. & Hurme, H. (2015). Tutkimushaastattelu: teemahaastattelun teoria ja käytäntö. Gaudeamus: Helsinki University Press.

Hislop, D., Bosua, R. & Helms, R. (2018). Knowledge management in organizations: A critical introduction.

Hoffman, R. R., Klein, G. & Moon, B. (2006). Making Sense of Sensemaking 1: Alternative Perspectives. IEEE Computer Society.

Holsapple, C.W. & Joshi, K.D. (2000). An investigation of factors that influence the management of knowledge in organizations. The Journal of Strategic Information Systems, Vol. 9 No. 2–3, 235–261.

Homburg, C., Grozdanovic, M., & Klarmann, M. (2007). Responsiveness to Customers and Competitors: The Role of Affective and Cognitive Organizational Systems. Journal of Marketing, 71 (3), 18–38.

Huber, G. P. (1991). Organizational learning: The contributing processes and the literatures. Organization Science, 2(1), 88–115.

Huckman, R. S. & Staats, B. R. (2011). Fluid tasks and fluid teams: The impact on diversity in experience and team familiarity on team performance. Manufacturing and Service Operations Management, 13, 310–328.

Huikkola, T., Ylimäki, J. & Kohtamäki, M. (2013). Joint learning in R&D collaborations and the facilitating relational practices. Industrial Marketing Management 42, 1167–1180.

Hult, G. T. M., & Ketchen, D. J. (2001). Does market orientation matter?: A test of the relationship between positional advantage and performance. Strategic Management Journal, 22(9), 899–906.

Håkansson, H. & Johanson, J. (1988). Formal and informal cooperation strategies in international industrial networks. In: F.J. Contractor, Peter Lorange, (Eds.), Coop.

Ipe, M. (2003). Knowledge Sharing in Organizations: A Conceptual Framework. Human Resource Development Review 2.

Jackson, S. (2011). Organizational culture and information systems adoption: A three - perspective approach. Information and Organization, Vol. 21 No. 2, 57 - 83.

Jantunen, A., Ellonen, H. K., & Johansson, A. (2012). Beyond appearances–do dynamic capabilities of innovative firms actually differ?. European Management Journal, 30(2), 141–155.

Jaworski, B., & Kohli, A. K. (1993). Market Orientation: Antecedents and Consequences. Journal of Marketing, 57, 53–70.

Jaworski, B., Kohli, A.K., & Sahay, A. (2000). Market-Driven Versus Driving Markets. Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 28 (1), 45-54.

Jaworski, B., & Kohli, A. K. (2006). Co-creating the voice of the customer. The Service Dominant Logic of Marketing: Dialog, Debate and Directions, 109–117.

Jayachandran, S., Hewett, K., & Kaufman, P. (2004). Customer Response Capability in a Sense-and-Respond Era: The Role of Customer Knowledge Process. Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 32 (3), 219–233.

Johnson, J. L., Sohi, R. S., & Grewal, R. (2004). The role of relational knowledge stores in interfirm partnering. Journal of Marketing, 68(3), 21–36.

Kahn, K. B. (1996). "Interdepartmental Integration: A Definition with Implications for Product Development Performance," Journal of Product Innovation Management, 13 (2), 137–51.

Kale, P., & Singh, H. (2009). Managing strategic alliances: What do we know now, and where do we go from here? Academy of Management Perspectives, 23(3), 45–62.

Kay, N. M. (2010). Dynamic capabilities as context: The role of decision, system and structure. Industrial and Corporate Change, 19(4), 1205–1223.

Kirca, A. H., Jayachandran, S., & Bearden, W. O. (2005). Market orientation: A meta- analytic review and assessment of its antecedents and impact on performance. Journal of Marketing, 69(2), 24–41.

Kirchner, K., Razmerita, L. & Sudzina, F. (2008). New Forms of Interaction and Knowledge Sharing on Web 2.0. Miltiadis Lytras, E.D., Patricia Ordonez De Pablo (Ed.) Web2.0: The Business Model, Springer Science and Business Media, New York, NY, USA, 21–37.

Kohli, A. K., & Jaworski, B. J. (1990). Market orientation: the construct, research propositions, and managerial implications. The Journal of Marketing, 54(2), 1–18.

Kohtamäki, M., Vesalainen, J., Henneberg, S., Naude, P., & Ventresca, M. (2012). Enabling relationship structures and relationship performance improvement: The moderating role of relational capital. Industrial Marketing Management, 41(8), 1298–1309.

Kotler, P. (1967). Marketing Management Analysis, Planning and Control. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Kotler, P. and Keller, K.L. (2008): Marketing Management (13th Edition), Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Kuuluvainen, A. (2011). Dynamic capabilities in the international growth of small and medium-sized firms. Turun kauppakorkeakoulu. Turku: Uniprint.

Kuusela, H., & Neilimo, K. (2010). Kaupan strategiaosaaminen. Helsinki: Edita.

Kuwada, K. (1998). Strategic learning: The continuous side of discontinuous strategic change. Organization Science, 9(6), 719–736.

Ladik, D. & Stewart, D. (2008). The contribution continuum. Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 36 (2), 157–165.

Laaksonen, O. & Peltoniemi, M. (2018). The essence of dynamic capabilities and their measurement. International Journal of Management Reviews, Vol. 20, 184–205.

Lam, A. (2000). Tacit knowledge, organizational learning and societal institutions: An integrated framework. Organization Studies, 21(3), 487–513.

Lamberti, L. (2013). Customer Centricity: The Construct and the Operational Antecedents. Journal of Strategic Marketing, 21 (7): 588–612.

Landroguez, M. S., Castro, B. C., & Cepeda-Carrión, G. (2011). Creating dynamic capabilities to increase customer value. Management Decision, 49(7), 1141–1159.

Lee. J-Y., Sridhar, S., Henderson, C. M. & Palmatier, R.W. (2015). Effect of Customer-Centric Structure on Long-
Term Financial Performance. Marketing Science 34 (2): 250–268.

Lenskold, J. D. (2004). Customer-Centric Marketing ROI. Marketing Management 13 (1): 26–31.

Leonard-Barton, D. (1992). Core capabilities and core rigidities: a paradox in managing new product development. Strategic Management Journal, 13, 111–125.

Lessard, D. R., & Zaheer, S. (1996). Breaking the silos: Distributed knowledge and strategic responses to volatile exchange rates. Strategic Management Journal, 17(7), 513–543.

Levitt, T. (1960). Marketing myopia. Harvard Business Review, 38(4), 24–7.

Lewis, Philip, Saunders, Mark & Thornhill, Adrian. 2009. Research methods for business students. Fifth edition. Prentice Hall Financial Times. Available: https://eclass.teicrete.gr/modules/document/file.php/DLH105/Research%20Methods%20for%20Business%20Students%2C%205th%20Edition.pdf

Li, X. & Chandra, C. (2007). A Knowledge Integration Framework for Complex Network Management. Department of Industrial and Manufacturing Systems Engineering, University of Michigan.

Li, T. & Calantone R. J. (1998). "The Impact of Market Knowledge Competence on New Product Advantage: Conceptualization and Empirical Examination," Journal of Marketing, 62 (October), 13–29.

Lin, H. - F. (2007). Effects of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation on employee knowledge sharing intentions. Journal of Information Science OnlineFirst, 1 - 15.

Liu, H., Ke, W., Kee Wei, K., & Hua, Z. (2013). Effects of supply chain integration and market orientation on firm performance: Evidence from China. International Journal of Operations & Production Management, 33(3), 322–346.

Luca L. M. & Atuahene-Gima K. (2007). Market Knowledge Dimensions and Cross-functional Collaboration: Examining the Different Routes to Product Innovation Performance. American Marketing Association, 1547–7185.

Lukas, B. A., Hult, G. T., & Ferrell, O. C. (1996). A theoretical perspective of the antecedents and consequences of organizational learning in marketing channels. Journal of Business Research, 36(3), 233–244.

Ma, W.W. & Chan, A. (2014). Knowledge sharing and social media: Altruism, perceived online attachment motivation, and perceived online relationship commitment. Computers in Human Behavior, Vol. 39, 51–58.

Madhavan, R. & Grover, R. (1998). “From Embedded Knowledge to Embodied Knowledge: New Product Development as Knowledge Management,” Journal of Marketing, 62 (October), 1–12.

Makadok, R. (2001). Toward a synthesis of the resource-based and dynamic-capability views of rent creation. Strategic Management Journal, 22(5), 387–401.

Maitlis, S. (2005). The Social Processes of Organizational Sensemaking. Academy of Management Journal 48, 21–49.

Maitlis, S. & Christianson, M. (2014). Sensemaking in Organizations: Taking Stock and Moving Forward. The Academy of Management Annals, Vol 8(1), 57–125.

Marks, P., Polak, P., McCoy, S. & Galletta, D. (2008). Alternative Reality Gaming. Communications of the ACM, vol 51(2), 60–66.

Matschke, C., Moskaliuk, J., Bokhorst, F., Schümmer, T. & Cress, U. (2014). Motivational factors of information exchange in social information spaces. Computers in Human Behavior, Vol. 36 No. 0, 549–58.

Maydeu-Olivares, A., & Lado, N. (2003). Market orientation and business economic performance a mediated model. International Journal of Service Industry Management, Vol. 14 No. 3, 284–309.

Meehan, S., Dawson, C., & Avagyan, K. (2016). The hidden threat of customer-led growth. Research World, 2016(57), 11–13.

Milliken, F. J. & Martins, L. J. (1996). Searching for Common Threads, Understanding the Multiple Effects of Diversity in Organizational Groups. Academy of Management Review, 21 (2), 402–403.

Mills, J. H., Thurlow, A. & Mills, A. J. (2010). Making sense of sensemaking: the critical sensemaking approach. Qualitative Research in Organizations and Management an International Journal, Vol. 5(2), 182–195.

Moorman, C., & Day, G. S. (2016). Organizing for marketing excellence. Journal of Marketing, 80(6), 6–35.

Moorman, C., & Miner, A. S. (1997). The impact of organizational memory on new product performance and creativity. Journal of Marketing Research (JMR), 34(1), 91–106.

Morgan, N. A., Vorhies, D. W., & Mason, C. H. (2009). Market orientation, marketing capabilities, and firm performance. Strategic Management Journal, 30(8), 909–920.

Mukamala, A. & Razmerita, L. (2014). Which factors influence the Adoption of Social Software? An Exploratory Study of Indian Information Technology Consultancy Firms. Journal of Global Information Technology Management special issue: "IT in India and the Indian Region", Vol. 17 No. 3, 188–212.

Nahapiet, J., & Ghoshal, S. (1998). Social capital, intellectual capital and the organizational advantage. Academy of Management Review, 23(2), 242–266.

Narayanan, V., Zane, L., & Kemmerer, B. (2011). The cognitive perspective in strategy: An integrative review. Journal of Management, 37(1), 305–351.

Narver, J. C. & Slater, S. F. (1990). The Effect of a Market Orientation on Business Profitability. Journal of Marketing. 20–35.

Narver, J.C., Slater, S.F., & MacLachlan, D.L. (2004). Responsive and Proactive Market Orientation and New-Product Success. Journal of Product Innovation Management, 21 (5), 334–347.

Newell, S., Robertson, M., Scarbrough, H. and Swan, J. (2009), Managing Knowledge Work and Innovation. Palgrave Macmillan, Hampshire, England.

Nonaka, I. (1994). The dynamic theory of organizational knowledge creation. Organization Science, 5(1), 14–37.

Nonaka, I. (2007). The Knowledge - Creating Company. Harvard Business Review, Vol. 85 No. 7/8, 162 - 71.

Nonaka, I., & Takeuchi, H. (1995).The knowledge creating company: How Japanese companies create the dynamics of innovation. New York: Oxford University Press.

Olson, E. M., Orville C. W. & Ruekert R. W. (1995). Organizing for Effective New Product Development: The Moderating Role of Product Innovativeness. Journal of Marketing, 59 (January), 48–62.

Payne, A. & Frow, P. (2005). A Strategic Framework for Customer Relationship Management. Journal of Marketing, 69 (4), 167–76.

Polanyi, M. (1966). The tacit dimension. London: Routledge Kegan Paul.

Popli, M., Ladkani, R.M., & Gaur, A. S. (2017). Business group affiliation and postacquisition performance: An extended resource-based view. Journal of Business Research, Vol. 81, 21–30.

Razmerita, L., Kirchner, K. & Nabeth, T. (2014). Social Media In Organizations: Leveraging Personal And Collective Knowledge Processes. Journal of Organizational Computing and Electronic Commerce, Vol. 24 No. 1, 74–93.

Riege, A. (2005). Three-dozen knowledge-sharing barriers managers must consider. Journal of knowledge management, 9(3), 18–35.

Rode, H. (2016). To Share or not to Share: The Effects of Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivations on Knowledge-sharing in Enterprise Social Media Platforms. Journal of Information Technology, Vol. 31 No. 2, 152–165.

Ronkainen S., Pehkonen, L. Lindblom-Ylänne, S. & Paavilainen, E. (2011). Tutkimuksen voimasanat. Helsinki: WSOYpro.

Rust, R.T., Moorman, C., and Bhalla, G. (2010). Rethinking Marketing. Harvard Business Review, 88 (1/2), 94-101.

Said, E., Macdonald, E. K., Wilson, H. N., & Marcos, J. (2015). How organisations generate and use customer insight. Journal of Marketing Management, 31(9/10), 1158–1179.

Šajeva, S. (2007). An Investigation of Critical Barriers to Effective Knowledge Management. Social Sciences/Socialiniai Mokslai, Vol. 58 No. 4, 20–27.

Sánchez, R., Iniesta, M. A. and Holbrook, M. B. (2009). The Conceptualisation and Measurement of Consumer Value in Services. International Journal of Market Research, Vol. 51 No. 1, 93–113.

Seidel, V. P., & O'Mahony, S. (2014). Managing the repertoire: Stories, metaphors, prototypes, and concept coherence in product innovation. Organization Science, 25, 691–712.

Selnes, F., & Sallis, J. (2003). Promoting relationship learning. Journal of Marketing, 67(3), 80–95.

Sethi, R. (2000). Superordinate Identity in Cross-functional Product Development Teams: Its Antecedents and Effect on New Product Performance. Journal of Academy of Marketing Science, 28 (3), 330-–340.

Sethi, R., Smith, D. C. & Park W. (2001). Cross-functional Product Development Teams, Creativity, and the Innovativeness of New Consumer Products. Journal of Marketing Research, 73–85.

Shah, D., Rust, R. T., Parasuraman, A., Staelin, R., & Day, G. S. (2006). The path to customer centricity. Journal of Service Research, 9(2), 113–124.

Sheth, J. N., Sisodia, R. S. & Sharma, A. (2000). The Antecedents and Consequences of Customer-Centric Marketing. Academy of Marketing Science Journal, 28 (1), 55–66.

Sirén, C. (2012). Unmasking the capability of strategic learning: A validation study. The Learning Organization, 19(6), 497–517.

Slater, S.F. & Narver, J.C. (1995). Market orientation and the learning organization. Journal of Marketing 59:3, 63–74.

Slater, S.F. & Narver, J.C. (1998). Customer-Led and Market-Oriented: Let's Not Confuse the Two. Strategic Management Journal, 19 (10), 1001-1006.

Slater, S.F. and Narver, J.C. (1999). Market-Oriented Is More Than Being Customer-Led. Strategic Management Journal, 20 (12), 1165–1168.

Sluyts, K., Matthyssens, P., Martens, R., & Streukens, S. (2011). Building capabilities to manage strategic alliances. Industrial Marketing Management, 40(6), 875–886.

Song, M., Montoya-Weiss M. M., & Schmidt J. B. (1997). Antecedents and Consequences of Cross-Functional Cooperation: A Comparison of R&D, Manufacturing, and Marketing Perspectives. Journal of Product Innovation Management, 14 (1), 35–47.

Spender, J. C., & Grant, R. M. (1996). Knowledge and the firm: Overview. Strategic Management Journal, 17, 5–9.

Staples, S. D., & Järvenpää, S. L. (2001). Exploring perceptions of organizational ownership of information and expertise. Journal of Management Information Systems, 18(1), 151–183.

Stenmark, D. (2001). Leveraging tacit organizational knowledge. Journal of Management Information Systems, 17(3), 9–24.

Stewart, T. A. (1997). Intellectual capital: The new wealth of organizations. New York: Doubleday Currency.

Stoelhorst, J.W. & van Raaij, E.M. (2004). On explaining performance differentials: marketing and the managerial theory of the firm. Journal of Business Research, Vol. 57 No. 5, 462–77.

Sunder M, V., Ganesh, L.S. & Marathe, R. R. (2019). Dynamic capabilities. European Business Review, 31(1), 25–63.

Teece, D. J. (2007). Explicating dynamic capabilities: the nature and microfoundations of (sustainable) enterprise performance. Strategic Management Journal, 28(13), 1319–1350.

Teece, D. J. (2010). Business models, business strategy and innovation. Long Range Planning, 43(2), 172–194.

Teece, D.J. (2014). The Foundations of Enterprise Performance: Dynamic and Ordinary Capabilities in an (economic) Theory of Firms. Academy of Management Perspectives, 28(4), 328–352.

Teece, D. J. (2018). Business Models and Dynamic Capabilities. Long Range Planning 51, 40–49.

Teece, D. J., Peteraf, M., & Leih, S. (2016). Dynamic Capabilities and Organizational Agility. California Management Review, 58(4), 13–35.

Teece, D. J., Pisano, G., & Shuen, A. (1997). Dynamic capabilities and strategic management. Strategic Management Journal, 18(7), 509–533.

Treacy, M., & Wiersema, F. (1993). Customer intimacy and other value disciplines. Harvard Business Review, 71(1), 84–93.

Tseng, L-U. (2019). How customer orientation leads to customer satisfaction. International Journal of Bank Marketing. 265–2323.

Tsoukas, H., & Vladimirou, E. (2001). What is organizational knowledge? Journal of Management Studies, 38(7), 973–993.

Tuomi, J. & Sarajärvi, A. (2018). Laadullinen tutkimus ja sisällönanalyysi. Helsinki: Kustannusosakeyhtiö Tammi.

Tynan, C., McKechnie, S., & Hartley, S. (2014). Interpreting value in the customer service experience using customer-dominant logic. Journal of Marketing Management, 30 (9/10), 1058–1081.

Uzzi, B., Mukherjee, S., Stringer, M., & Jones, B. (2013). Atypical Combinations and Scientific Impact. Science, 342, 468–472.

Van Acker, F., Vermeulen, M., Kreijns, K., Lutgerink, J. and van Buuren, H. (2014). The role of knowledge sharing self ‐ efficacy in sharing Open Educational Resources. Computers in Human Behavior, Vol. 39, 136 ‐ 44.

Van den Hooff, B., Schouten, A.P. and Simonovski, S. (2012). What one feels and what one knows: the influence of emotions on attitudes and intentions towards knowledge sharing. Journal of knowledge management, Vol. 16 No. 1, 148–58.

Van de Ven, A., & Zahra, S. A. (2016).Boundary Spanning, Boundary Objects, and Innovation. Managing Knowledge Integration Across Boundaries, 241–254.

Vorhies, D. W., & Morgan, N. A. (2005). Benchmarking marketing capabilities for sustainable competitive advantage. Journal of Marketing, 69(1), 80–94.

Vuori, V. & Okkonen, J. (2012). Knowledge sharing motivational factors of using an intra ‐ organizational social media platform. Journal of Knowledge Management, Vol. 16 No. 4, 592 ‐ 603.

Waisberg, D. & Kaushik, A. (2009). Web Analytics 2.0: Empowering Customer Centricity. The Original Search Engine Marketing Journal 2 (1): 5–11.

Wang, Y., Po Lo, H., Chi, R., & Yang, Y. (2004). An integrated framework for customer value and customer-relationship-management performance: a customer-based perspective from China. Managing Service Quality: An International Journal, 14(2/3), 169–182.

Watson, T. J. & Bargiela-Chippiani, F. (1998). Managerial Sensemaking and Occupational Identities in Britain and Italy: The Role of Management Magazines in the Process of Discursive Construction. Journal of Management Studies, 285.

Wei, L. Q., & Lau, C. M. (2008). The impact of market orientation and strategic HRM on firm performance: the case of Chinese enterprises. Journal of International Business Studies,Vol. 39, 980–995.

Weick, K. (1995). Sensemaking in organizations. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Weick, K. E., Obstfeld, D. & Sutcliffe, K. M. (2005). Organizing and the Process of Sensemaking. Organization Science.

Wernerfelt, B. (1984). A resource-based view of the firm. Strategic Management Journal, 5(2), 171–180.

Windhal, C. (2017). Market sense-making in design practice: exploring curiosity, creativity and courage. Journal of Marketing Management, 22(3-4), 280–291.

Winter, S. G. (2003). Understanding dynamic capabilities. Strategic Management Journal, 24(10), 991–995.

Woodruff, R. B., & Gardial, S. (1996). Know your customer: New approaches to understanding customer value and satisfaction. Hoboken: Wiley.

Wu, S. J., Melnyk, S. A. & Flynn, B. B. (2010). Operational Capabilities: The Secret Ingredient. Decision Sciences, 41(4), 721–754.

Wuchty, S., Jones, B. F. & Uzzi, B. (2007). The Increasing Dominance of Teams in Production of Knowledge. Science, 316, 1036–1039.

Zeithaml, V.A., Bolton, R.N., Deighton, J., Keiningham, T.L., Lemon, K.N., and Petersen, J.A. (2006): Forward-Looking Focus: Can Firms Have Adaptive Foresight?, Journal of Service Research, 9 (2), 168–183.

Zhou, K. Z., Brown, J. R., & Dev, C. S. (2009). Market orientation, competitive advantage, and performance: A demand-based perspective. Journal of Business Research,Vol. 62, 1063–1070.

Appendices

Appendix 1. Interview Questions

1. Did you find working in the cross-functional teams useful? If so, how? If not, why not?
2. In what ways did you share knowledge and information in the cross-functional teams? Did you find the methods that were used were good?
3. Did you document the shared knowledge or information? If so, how?
4. Do you think that you reached a collective understanding about things among the cross-functional teammates? If yes, in what way? Do you think that it was ensured that there exists a collective understanding among the teammates?
5. Do you think that your skills have developed while working in the cross-functional teams? If so, how? What kind of skills have developed? If not, can you tell why?
6. What do you think was the best thing about working in the cross-functional team? How about the worst thing?
7. Did you receive support for developing your skills while working in the cross-functional team?
8. Do you think that customer orientation appears at day-to-day operational level in the case company? If so, how? If not, why do you think that?
9. What kind of activities or knowledge regarding understanding customers is needed in the company?
10. In what ways did you share knowledge or information about understanding customers in the cross-functional team?
11. Did you document the shared information or knowledge about understanding customers? If so, how?
12. Do you think that you reached a collective understanding about things regarding understanding customers in the cross-functional team? If yes, in what way? If not, why?

13. Do you think that working in cross-functional teams has affected customer orientation in the company? If so, how? If not, why do you think that?
14. In your opinion, how can you develop customer orientation skills in the cross-functional teams?
15. Do you think that developing customer orientation should be supported by the company? If yes, in what way?