

Six decades – and six different roles for the industrial designer.

In Finland the role of the industrial designer has changed with time. When the professional practice of industrial design first started to form, the designer was a creator whose work was likened to that of the artist. In the sixties designers started to work in closer cooperation with the industry, and the designer became a member of a team together with the engineer and the marketing representatives. In the seventies ergonomics were largely discussed and in the eighties the issue of Design Management became popular. In the nineties brand building and strategic design became the focus areas, and in the new millennium design was seen as a means of innovation.

These new areas of design have created different roles for the industrial designer. The previous roles have not disappeared, they still exist, but the general area of work for the industrial designer has broadened. I will in this article consider which some of these roles are, reflect over the reasons that have caused the change and also consider what has been typical for the design rhetoric or discourse of each period.

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INTRODUCTION

The practice of industrial design in Finland is a fairly young discipline, and there is not much documentation or research on the historical development thereof. To picture this development path I will hence partly use the voices of the industrial designers themselves. Much of the material for this paper is collected through in-depth interviews with the individual Finnish designers¹. Thus many of the opinions stated here are rather their personal views on the events than any commonly accepted pattern of this process. Due to this empiric material this article merely depicts Finnish events, but the general development path is largely similar in the other Nordic countries and other international counterparts. Some of these Nordic touch points are also considered in the article.

THE DESIGNER AS THE CREATOR

In the 1950's Finland was a poor nation recovering from the World War II, which did not receive any Marshall help and was forced to pay great war indemnities to the U.S.S.R. The war indemnities created the need of new industries and the industry structures in Finland developed strongly during this time.² The government and the local actors used design to emphasize the national identity and amend the poor economical situation.



Figure 1 The Chantarelle –vases, designed by Tapio Wirkkala in 1946, were shown and praised at the Milano Triennale in 1951.

At the time the expression “*Finnish Design*” was frequently used and further enhanced by individual designers such as Kaj Frank, Tapio Wirkkala, Timo Sarpaneva and Ilmari Tapiovaara. Design gained great success in international competitions, such as the Milano Triennales, and was extensively discussed in press³. Even though many of the

objects presented in the Triennales were industrially produced, they were done in very small series. Most of the products were tableware or artefacts in glass or wood, and several were produced by the Finnish glass-and porcelain companies; Iittala, Arabia, Nuutajärvi and Karhula. In these companies it was quite common to have a separate “art” department; where the designers created objects of art rather than utilitarian products.⁴

Typical for the discourse at the time of the Milano Triennales was the emphasis on nature as a source of inspiration and the creation of the mythical designer. The designer had almost full control of the design process; the designer got an inspiration, started sketching, designed the object and only then was the potential object presented for production. The designer was the creator and the artist behind the object; and part of the attraction of the product came from this charismatic designer. Therefore it was beneficial to depict the designer as an eccentric character with special qualities. During the Milano Triennales Tapio Wirkkala was, for example, promoted in Italy as *uomo naturale*, the man who ate flowers and wrestled with bears in the morning⁵.

Still today, the myth of the individualistic designer is an approach that is fairly easy to get through in press. People tend to be interested in other people, and by depicting an interesting designer-character behind a product it gets more attention than one without. This is particularly used for a broad public with very little previous knowledge in design, and equally for the sources of information related to them. Many companies use this approach deliberately; by using a famous designer they increase the interest of the general public to their product⁶. Hence, some of the professional industrial designers tend to see this type of publicity with some aversion, and refer to it as “showing your wardrobe” or the objects “hero designers” in the interviews:

“My former boss called them hero-designers – designers who do not necessary do good design but who frequently figure in press and have connections. They are good at promoting themselves, but sometimes the design they do is not good design at all. [...] They frequent all sorts of social events and parade everywhere. And then your average designer, such as me, wonders how they have time with all of that. Don’t they work at all?”⁷

In the late fifties some of these designers who had previously gained great success for their art based products moved into the area of industrial design. This was a time when industrial design was in its infancy in Finland, and only a few pioneers existed within the area. One of these pioneers in industrial design in Finland was Sakari Vapaavuori, who transferred from the art-department of Arabia to start designing sanitary equipment; toilet bowls and wash basins⁸. These products were equally part of the Arabia product range, but had previously gained very little attention from the design aspect and not been considered “Finnish Design” as such. An other early example of Finnish industrial design was the Solifer moped, designed by Richard Lindh⁹. Lindh was, in a similar matter as Vapaavuori, previously employed by the art-department of Arabia, and had designed several dinner services.

These first pioneers in Finnish industrial design were thus artist/designers who gradually transferred to the industrial realm. The role of the designer was then consequentially that of an artist, a creative and expressive person who had given form to an industrially produced product. This approach was at the time natural as the area in itself was new, and the public had hardly any knowledge of its existence. Hence the new service was marketed using the same tools that had proved so successful in the case of design for smaller series and international exhibitions; the personal charisma of the designer.

Tapio Wirkkala, who had gained great fame for his designed objects in wood and glass in the Milano Triennales, is another example of pioneering Finnish industrial design. He designed a ketchup bottle, electrical fuses, and toilet seats, all very mundane objects. He had worked several months in the design studio of Raymond Loewy in New York, in 1955-56, and wanted to implement their way of working to the Finnish industry¹⁰. In 1957 Wirkkala was appointed industrial and artistic designer for the Finnish corporate A. Ahlström that also the glassware producer Iittala, that he had previously worked for, was part of¹¹. He then founded the A-studio, an in-house design organisation for the entire corporate, where the emphasis was on team work between both the different designers and the other units of the company. This was an early forerunner of the practice that become more prevailing in the following decade; the designers working in teams together with mechanics and marketing.



Figure 2: Electrical switch and wall socket by Tapio Wirkkala for Strömfors Oy, 1959-1965

THE DESIGNER IN A TEAM WITH MECHANICS AND MARKETING

In the sixties the debate of design being more than just the mere product aesthetics or styling flourished. Design was to be done together with the industry, rather than an aesthetical function or a designer name that was just added on to a completed product. The designers emphasised that they needed to come in earlier in the product development process and work tightly together in a team with the engineers and the marketing unit in a company. Design was perceived as just one part of the product development process, rather than a function the designer could perform alone. The first industrial designers were during this time hired directly to companies, where the end result of their work was no longer marketed with the name of the designer but with the name of the company.

In the beginning they faced the challenge of often being perceived as artists in industry, even if their own approach was closer to technical design. One of the designers describes how they were perceived in a large Finnish company:

“We were industrial designers then, yes. Our title was industrial designer even if they called us artists in the [corporate] hallways. [laughs]”¹²

If the industry perceived the industrial designers as artists, in the traditional area of applied arts industrial designers were seen as very technical.

department was at this time called *Tekninen design* (Technical design), rather than industrial design. The cover of this publication depicts a man and a woman in the spirit of Dreyfuss' *Measure of Man and Woman*, and in a bubble they say "teknokraatit tulevat" (the technocrats are coming). Methods and science were the tools that were to be used in designing products and the aim was to design products that were based on user needs and proven measurements rather than on artistic intuition. The leaflet describes this approach: "the most eye-catching in the education of technical design is its emphasis of methodology. Because of the coordinating role of the industrial designer their way of working with a complex design problem can not be merely intuitive, as some still seem to believe."²³ The notion of the designer as a co-ordinator of a development project in the industry seems to be a quotation of Tomas Maldonado and the HfG Ulm-school²⁴, who is also directly cited and mentioned in the leaflet. The main emphasis was thus on the scientific approach rather than on artistic intuition or creative thinking.

"Ergonomics was then taught by this ergonomics group from the Finnish Institute of Occupational Health. There were physicians and engineers in this group. Quite a few of us then were immensely taken by it, we suddenly realised that it was exact knowledge and based on the human being. And humans are the ones we design for."²⁵

During this time several research projects were initiated, and many student projects in industrial design were about defining what a product should be rather than actually designing it:

"I think the rise of industrial design was much to do with the fact that we realized that there are others... that there are other starting points to a design development process than just the products form and appearance. [...]we tended to ponder about these things more and more and search for the eternal truth. I think it hindered the actual getting things done many times. [...] In the end it came to the situation where no-one dared to do anything before they were absolutely sure what they were going to do. At least at the department of industrial design there was a time when everybody feared to fail and to experiment that they just thought about these issues in theory and then the actual designs where never done but on paper."²⁶

The issue of ergonomics and usability has not disappeared from the area of industrial design; on the contrary, it gained an even more pronounced role with the arrival of computers and electronic displays on products. As the products became more complex, the usability issues grew increasingly important. Many designers were needed for designing these user-interfaces, and a new area of industrial design; user interface design, formed. In many cases the first pioneers in this area experienced a similar initiation period as their colleagues had done when they first entered the industry in the early sixties. One user-interface designer describes how she was met when she first started to work in the area of usability and user-interface design:

"our Head of Product Development said [in 1993]: "You are an industrial designer, why do you want to do this? Then I had to explain to him that an industrial designer does this and this and..."²⁷

Usability and end-user understanding then became the starting point for all successful industrial design²⁸.

THE DESIGNER AS A CO-ORDINATOR

The designers had in various degrees seen themselves as co-ordinators between professionals from various fields since the 1960's. This notion of the designer as a co-ordinator gained an even broader appeal in the 1980's, as the theories of Design Management gained larger attention in the Finnish design field. The designers wanted to participate, not only in defining what a single product should do or how it should be designed but even on a larger scale of product co-ordination. Several conferences were held on the issue, both internationally and nationally²⁹. Designers saw themselves as interpreters between both the end-user and the different units within a company, such as marketing and engineering; and their task was to co-ordinate. The goal was a uniform product portfolio, were all products that the company produced were to be perceived as coming from the same company. This evolved into the role of Design Managers.

According to Peter Gorb *Design Management is the effective deployment by line managers of the design resources available to an organization in the pursuance of its corporate objectives*³⁰. The most classical types of Design Managers are thus those who manage other designers (in a design agency or in a corporate design function) or manage strategic design issues, such as the product portfolio and design roadmaps in a large corporate.

Design management today differs somewhat depending on if is done in a design agency or within an in-house design organisation of a large corporation. In the design agencies the most typical case of design management is that of the managing director. Most Finnish design offices are very small³¹. The vast majority of the companies consist of only one or two people. In these cases the designer performs managerial tasks besides other design work. When the company has more than three employees there is usually a designated manager. In most cases this is a designer by background and who still performs other design tasks to some extent.

The design manager in a design agency thus has, besides the traditional tasks assigned to design managers mentioned above, also the task of running an, usually fairly small, company. This includes acquiring new customers, creating and developing the strategic business approach of the agency, and managing customer relations. Many of these design managers identify themselves rather in this general manager role than in the orthodox design manager role.

"If I am totally honest I am more of a general manager at the moment. That sounds dreadful, doesn't it, to be a general manager of a small company. [laughs] But based on what I actually do that is what I am."³²

When running a design agency one of the main focuses for the design manager is always to acquire new projects and to ensure that they are in line with the company strategy. The design manager in a design agency thus aims to create as much work for the agency as possible, whereas the design manager in an corporate in-house design function quite often tries to restrict and prioritize the amount of work expected to be performed by his or her staff. An in-house design manager describes the difference between running a design agency and managing an in-house design function:

"Of course design management is done in design agencies. But their design management is leading the organisation that produces the design service, and that differs from ours immensely. In principle they have to serve all sorts of customers. In a way they have the same functions as we do but the way they work is very different because we have this house here, and this is

the house we work for. We do not need to do account managing, and actually no marketing of the services we do at all. Basically we just are here and try to survive with all the work that is thrown at us all the time.³³

Hence the design manager role in an in-house organisation differs somewhat from that in the design agency. The in-house design managers themselves see the biggest difference in the fact that they do not need to sell their own work to their own organisation in the same way that a design manager for a design agency usually aims to find new clients. The variety of clients that the agency encounters is also assumed to be broader than in the case of in-house design where the client is always the same company.

Even within in-house design organisations the design manager role can manifest itself in different ways. If the internal design department has less than five members, which in Finland is almost always the case, the design manager role typically consists of the two main areas of focus; the design manager co-ordinates the design roadmaps and guidelines (external/corporate-wide functions), as well as manages the finance and personnel issues of the design function (internal functions). This corresponds very well to the traditional definition of the role of the design manager previously described by Peter Gorb and Robert Blaich.

”It is a very broad field of work. In product design my role is to direct or comment the work of the designers, be they external or internal. I haven’t done any own design projects from start to finish in a few years now. But I have a directing and supportive role. And then there is always resource management, having subordinates. Then there are the tasks that are related to leading a team and managing a cost center. All sorts of issues concerning budgets and salaries... [...] discussions about personnel development and things like that. Then there is the development of processes, design processes and communicating them to the organisation. There is a need for a lot of communication to many directions. Co-operation in many directions. [...] Product programs, mechanical people, people from production and sourcing, Marketing people.”³⁴

An exception to this Finnish average size of internal design functions is Nokia, where the mere scale of the organisation has caused different types of design management³⁵. Some design managers have a role focused only on personnel management; others have no personnel responsibilities but focus solely on the design development and roadmaps of a certain product area. There are design manager roles where the main focus area is one part of the design process as well as positions where the supporting role becomes more apparent. Model making or concept design can be seen as examples of the former and colour and material development or trend research of the latter. These roles vary through history but examples could for example be to manage a particular style category (like the premium style), a category of products (like mobile phone enhancements in general) or a line of products, such as car accessories (a sub-set of mobile phone enhancements). These roles typically do not contain that much actual “product design” work, but the designer represents their particular area in all meetings, co-ordinates the work and makes the definitions of the design tasks for this area. Generally the styling of the products is then done by either external or internal designers.

Some of these designers clearly see these as design managerial roles. Others say that they “take care of” a certain issue or “are responsible of” a certain area but they still question whether their work can be seen as design management or not. The word

co-ordinate figures in their speech quite often. In many cases the “management” for these individuals, and thus also the word “design management” is used for their superiors, or the formal design board, who have the final decision on design issues. The reluctance of using design management as a word describing their own work is hence related to the fact that managerial tasks appear on several levels of the design organisation and the term “design management” quite frequently is seen as the top level of design management in the company. Despite this there doesn’t seem to be any other word for this type of activity in use either, so most designers in this position just tend to describe what they do, use design management but with an additional supplement describing their own area, or they use the rather generic term specialist (or senior specialist etc). One of these designers aim to describe whether he considers his own work design management or not:

”it’s just project management. It could be any other type of project management. I’m just the guy who represents design in this group of people who manage the project. There are similar guys for Hardware and Software and Marketing and so on. Guys like me who take care of their own area.”³⁶

Here the identification of these individuals is often twofold – both to the design functions as well as to the other middle management functions of the unit they work for.

Recently even other forms of design managers, such as brand and design management consultants have started to appear internationally³⁷. This type of service, provided by a consultant in a design agency, is appearing in Finland as well. These individuals do not need to be design managers, but they provide design management services or brand design services to external companies³⁸.

Today the design manager role has thus become broader than its original definition in the late 1980’s, and includes several areas of work besides the management of design resources in a company. Design Management evolved from creating a coherent product portfolio to a broader view on corporate strategy and brand experience.

THE DESIGNER CREATING EXPERIENCES

With the arrival of the nineties the importance of brands grew for companies. At the same time design and design management broadened to encompass not only the product portfolio, but the entire end-user experience of the corporate and its brand³⁹. The industrial designer was to ensure this brand experience, or total experience design, for the customer. This meant that the designers wanted to be part of the strategic planning of everything from the very first concept to the last retail solution.⁴⁰

Robert Blaich emphasises that design management is not merely the assignment of the normal administrative chores to a manager but also the role in identifying and communicating the ways that design can contribute strategic value to a company⁴¹. The design manager, according to Blaich, operates at dual levels; promoting and identifying the strategic role of design in the corporation while coordinating day-to-day operational interface with relevant colleagues. During the late nineties the term *strategic design* was frequently used. This discourse of strategic design in Sweden was portrayed in Christina Zetterlund’s: “*Design i informationsåldern. Om strategisk design historia och praktik.*”⁴². In Finland several initiatives, such as the “*From Design Services to Strategic Consulting*”-report⁴³, were initiated in order for the designers to participate earlier in the corporate decision making; as early as in the

defining of the corporate strategy. This discussion coincided to a large extent with the rise of the IT-industry and the boom of the e-economy. Even though the industrial designers have aimed for the biggest possible profits for the company since the very early stages of the professional practice, it is only recently when this discourse of strategic design has become more pronounced. As the world was already perceived to be filled with products, the new way of differentiating one product or brand from another was not to only focus on the product itself, but on the entire *experience* that was created for the user of the product.

A design manager for a smaller in-house design function describes his tasks and responsibilities:

"I am responsible for the design functions; industrial design or product design. Then there is graphic design. Spatial design; fairs and shop interiors. These three might be it – if you look at the end result we do all of them. Or then you could of course grandly call it brand experience. [laughs]"⁴⁴

An example of this approach of "total experience design"; of the design effort comprehending the entire experience from first concept idea to last retail store detail was the Nokia 7200. It was marketed as:

"Incorporating a "total experience" design philosophy, the Nokia 7200 offers fashion-centric consumers coordinated Style Pack's to "dress up" their mobile. [...]To complete their coordinated mobile ensemble, users can download matching wallpapers and screensaver graphics from www.nokia.com/shop."⁴⁵



Figure 4 The Nokia 7200.



Figure 5 Marketing material for the Nokia 7200. The product itself is not shown, but for the product detail as a background and the enhancement of the product (the headset). Most visible is the potential experiencing customer.

The focus was on getting the customer tied to a brand on an emotional level, rather than to buy a product merely for a functional need. The futurist Rolf Jensen painted the picture of markets that targeted emotional needs in his book "*The Dream Society. How the coming shift from information to imagination will transform your business.*" The most important raw materials were not to be coal, oil and steel as in the age of the industrial worker, but this new era of the symbol analyst thrived on knowledge, pictures and stories⁴⁶. Nike, with tribes of followers tattooing themselves with the corporate "Swoosh"-logo, was seen as an ultimate example of customers' brand commitment⁴⁷.

THE DESIGNER PUSHING INNOVATION

With the turn of the new millennium the economic situation cooled and the competitive situation became fiercer and even more global. Phenomena, such as the transferring of industry labour to countries with lower employment costs, frequently referred to as the China-syndrome, figured in the press. The general fear was that these other countries would prevail in the race of competitiveness. The solution to this situation was to be *new innovation*⁴⁸. Richard Florida saw the power of innovation and diversity in a society in his "*The Rise of the Creative Class: And How it's Transforming Work, Leisure, Community, and Everyday Life*"⁴⁹. This creative class was seen as the true competitive advantage for a society; one with which the race of cheaper labour cost would be won.

On a national level in Finland this quest for new innovations lead to a change in the research- and technology policy from a technology driven focus to a new phase, frequently referred to as the *national innovation system*⁵⁰. The aim of this notion of innovation system was to enlarge the concern of the policy to encompass all parties that had a part in the process of producing or using new research results. It was thus possible to create a larger social discussion of what the industry development in the country was to be, and equally to interlink it with its international counterparts. During this time design issues gained a vastly wider importance than when the focus was on technological development. The design ideology coincided well with the idea of innovation; of looking at things with a creative mind and finding new solutions.

When creating the Finnish design policy, the notion of a *national system of design* was cunningly aligned with the notion of *national system of innovation*. In 1996 Sitra, the Finnish National Fund for Research and Development, invited a group representing various areas of design to discuss the question of whether design could again play a prominent role in industry and this national system of innovation⁵¹. As a result the report *Muotoiltu Etu I-II. Muotoilu, teollisuus ja kansainvälinen kilpailukyky*. (Designed Asset I-II. Design, Industry and International competitiveness.), written by Pekka Korvenmaa, was published⁵². Another initiative that was as a basis for the Finnish design policy was that of the National Council of Crafts and Design of the Arts Council in Finland (working under the Ministry of Education). The Council suggested that Finnish design needed development and its position was to be ameliorated. They took the initiative to formulate a Finnish Design policy in 1997, much based on the previous research report. Pekka Saarela was commissioned to write this report, which then was the foundation for the national policy programme of design *Muotoilu 2005! (Design 2005!)*⁵³ and published in 1999. It was to a large part a vision of what the Finnish design system should be in 2005. It clearly defined the impact that this policy should have both in the matter of quantity and quality of Finnish industrial design. The quality suggestions were based on the idea that design should

become one of the main factors in competitiveness and design was to be part of the national innovation system. The report then gave concrete proposals for action of how these goals could be achieved.

The National Technology Agency of Finland, Tekes, took part in the design policy program by initiating their own design programme. The Industrial Design Technology Programme, DESIGN 2005 (2002-2005), was launched early in 2002 with the intention of making industrial design part of the (often technology driven) companies competitiveness. This was exposed through the (sub)title of the program: *Industrial Design - technology's counterpart in competitiveness*. The pronounced aim was to raise the standard of design research and make use of design expertise in corporate product development and business strategy and to develop the services provided by design firms. In the programme promotion material the main promotional thesis was “*Design brings added value for companies*” and the aims were described as follows:

“Recognizing the end user's needs and expectations and generating innovations based on them are becoming increasingly important parameters for success. [...]By using design more effectively it will be possible to give Finnish industry a competitive edge that can respond better to the latest global challenges. Harnessing new areas of design expertise, such as user experience, for business operations and for generating new types of business is of crucial importance here. The most successful major international companies integrate

social and cultural expertise into global product development.”⁵⁴

In this trend of seeing design as a driver for innovation Finland was merely following international examples⁵⁵. Internationally a recent product that was most frequently referred to as “re-inventing the industry” was the Apple iPod –music player, first launched in 2001⁵⁶. As a design agency Ideo was often referred to and benchmarked in several national design enquiries, as well as Tom Kelley’s book “*The Art of Innovation. Lessons in Creativity from Ideo, Americas Leading Design Firm*”⁵⁷.

The designers wanted to be part in this discussion, and a part of the team that was to create the corporate vision with which this increased competitiveness was to be established. As one design-service provider describes how they now see their area of work in companies:

“It is more likely that we arrive to a situation where they [the corporate] want to change. They can’t quite articulate why they want to change or in what direction this change should be. When there is a clear vision of what the company aims to be within five years this type of action proposals are easier to formulate. [...] my role is more, I would say, to bring a design-insight into this, so that we could arrive to those solutions that would best support this change that is required.”⁵⁸

How this newest role for industrial designers will affect the products and the corporate profits on a larger scale is still to be seen. Many companies have participated in these programs aiming for innovation through design, such as that initiated by Tekes, and the results thereof should be visible shortly.

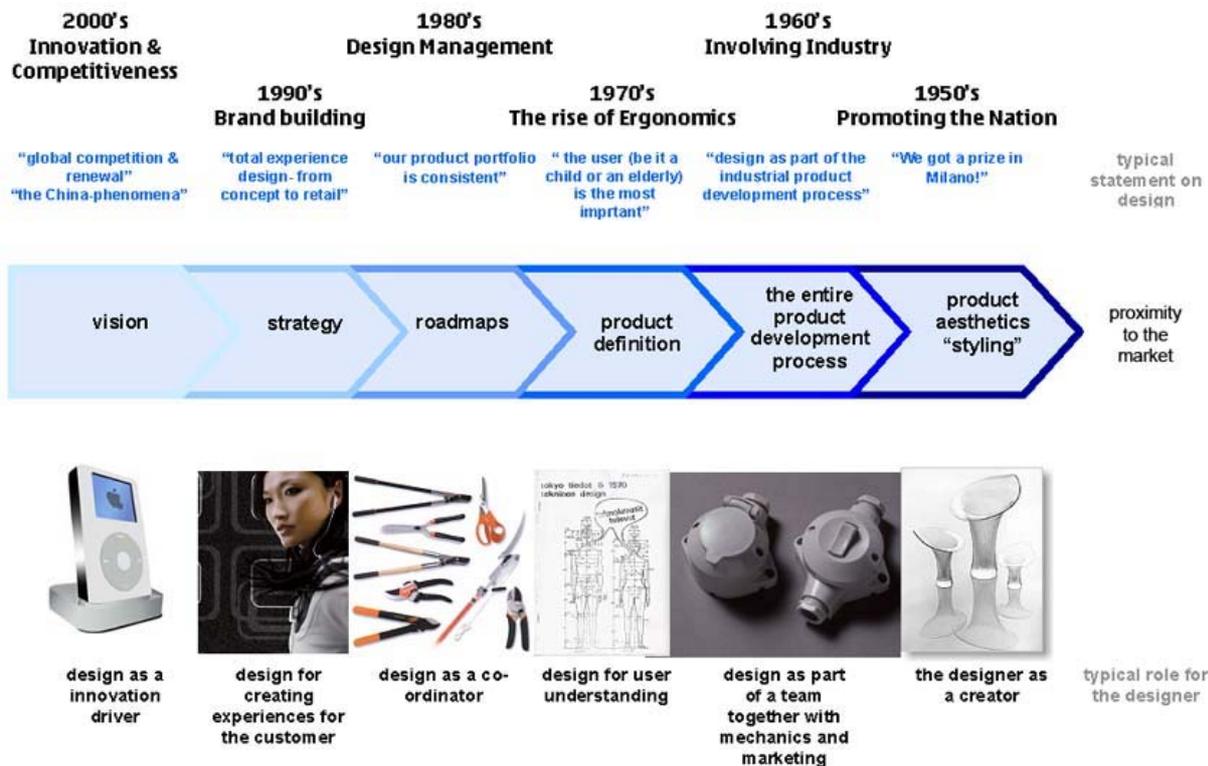


Figure 6: Different roles for the designer and typical statements on design.

NATIONAL EXAMPLES AND INTERNATIONAL TRENDS

Even though the examples in this article are Finnish, the general development path has been very similar in the other Nordic countries. In Denmark the design policy *Regeringens Designredegørelse* was published in 1997, in Norway *Design som drivkraft for Norsk næringsliv* was published in 2001 and in Sweden *Förslag till nationellt program för design som utvecklingskraft inom näringsliv och offentlig verksamhet* was published in 2002⁵⁹. All Nordic countries have their own iconic product examples, but the development path is stunningly similar. In a Swedish example, the picture cavalcade could consist of the Scandinavian Airlines identity program by Stockholm Design Lab for a “total experience design”⁶⁰, Volvo as an example of late eighties design management⁶¹, a user-friendly breadknife by Ergonomidesigngruppen⁶² and Sigvard Bernadottes Margarethe-bowls⁶³. It would not be difficult to imagine similar examples from the other Nordic countries or even of other design aware countries internationally.

REFERENCES

1. Half-structured in-depth interviews were conducted with industrial designers during the years 2002-2004. As a total 24 industrial designers were interviewed, about 10% of the industrial designers in Finland, some of them several times. The material was then processed through historical methods taking advantage of sociological-, economical-, technology- and profession history in order to achieve a fuller understanding of the contemporary field and to explore the central factors behind the changes described here.
2. Antti Karisto, Pentti Takala, Ilkka Haapola: *Matkalla nykyaikaan. Elintason, elämäntavan ja sosiaalipolitiikan muutos Suomessa*. Werner Söderström OY, Juva 1997, 57.
3. A good description on the Finnish participation to the Milano Triennales and the discourse around them can be found in Harri Kalha: *Muotopuolen merenneidon pauloissa. Suomen taideteollisuuden kultakausi : mielikuvat, markkinointi, diskurssit*. (In the coils of an asymmetrical mermaid. The “golden age” of Finnish design: image, marketing, discourse.) Suomen historiallinen seura, Gummerus Kirjapaino, Jyväskylä 1997 or Kruskopf, Erik: *Finlands Konstindustri. Den finländska konstflitens utvecklingshistoria*. WSOY, Porvoo 1989 or Armi Ratia [et al.] (ed.): *The Ornamo book of Finnish design*. Ornamo:Finnish Society of Crafts and Design, Helsinki 1962
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CONCLUSIONS

The role of the industrial designer has changed and broadened during time. The economical situation and the current political atmosphere have always affected this development. As the amount of designers has grown, also the potential working positions thereof have grown.

As one of the designers describes his role:

“I do not do any project work any more. I define the product categories together with marketing and mechanics. And then I do the [corporate X] design direction. *We* [the designers] are the ones who create it.”⁶⁴

In every decade the designers have actively strived to participate in the development process in an earlier stage, and also to increase their own impact on this process and business in general.

5. Marianne Aav (ed.): *Finnish Modern Design: Utopian Ideals and Everyday Realities, 1930-1997*. Yale University Press, New Haven and London, 1998, 32.
6. A recent example of this approach is the co-operation between the faucet company Oras and the designer Alberto Alessi in their new series of bathroom products, Il Bagno Alessi by Oras. As presented by Jari Paasikivi, CEO, Oras, at The Helsinki Design Summit 2004: *Competitiveness by Design. The Helsinki Summit for Senior Business Leadership*. 1 -2 September, 2004.
7. Designer interview 15.12.2003.
8. Harri Kalha: Sankarien Sukupolvi. In Sotamaa, Yrjö (ed.): *Ateneum maskerad. Taideteollisuuden muotoja ja murroksia. Taideteollinen korkeakoulu 130 vuotta*. Taideteollinen Korkeakoulu, Helsinki 1999, 170. One early example is the Arabia toilet 445, designed by Sakari Vapaavuori in 1959. Pictured at the archives of the Finnish Designmuseum in Helsinki.
9. Wilh. Benson Oy Moped Solifer Export 1958. Pictured in the Designmuseum archives, Helsinki.
10. Tuula Poutasuo: Futurismia ja arkitavaraa. In Marianne Aav (ed.): *Tapio Wirkkala. Ajattelevat kädet*. Werner Söderström Osakeyhtiö, Porvoo 2000, 203.
11. *ibid.*
12. Designer interview 12.1.2004. The designer describes the situation in 1973.
13. Designer interview 1.6.2004.
14. Designer interview 10.6.2004.
15. On current job descriptions of Finnish industrial designers, see for example <http://open.ornamo.fi/> with on-line designer portfolios.
16. Designer interview 15.12.2003
17. Designer interview 17.12.2003.
18. Victor Papanek: *Design for the real world* Thames and Hudson, London. 1972
19. Victor Papanek: *Turhaa vai tarpeellista?* (Unnecessary or necessary?) Kirjayhtymä, Helsinki 1973 Translated from the German *Das Papanek Konzept* by Jyrki Saarikivi.
20. Ornamo/TKO: *Teollinen Muotoilu*. (Industrial Design) . Craftsmen and Designers TKO, Espoo 1976, 3. The editorial

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- staff consisted of the industrial designers Jussi Ahola, Tapani Hyvönen, Heikki Kiiski, Hannu Kähönen and Jorma Pitkonen.
21. Henry Dreyfuss: *Designing for People*. Simo & Schuster, New York. 1955 Henry Dreyfuss: *The Measure of Man and Woman*. Revised Edition by Alvin R. Tilley and Henry Dreyfuss Associates, 1967.
 22. Designer interview 10.2.2003.
 23. Tokyo tiedot 6/1970, The Central School of Arts And Crafts, 1970, 8.
 24. for a description of the HfG Ulm school and its principles see for example Herbert Lindinger :*Ulm design : the morality of objects : Hochschule für Gestaltung Ulm 1953-1968* Ernst & Sohn, Berlin 1990. The importance of the HfG Ulm for Finnish industrial design was also depicted by Susann Vihma, in her lecture "Significance and relevance of the HfG Ulm – a Finnish perspective." at the "Ulm, tysk designtradition og Skandinavien" –seminar by Nordisk Forum for Formgivningshistorie in Copenhagen 23.10.2004. The contents of this speech is also forthcoming in the Scandinavian Journal of Design History.
 25. Designer interview 1.6.2004
 26. Designer interview 10.2.2003.
 27. Designer interview 28.1.2003
 28. see Petteri Huotari, Ira Laitakari-Svärd, Johanna Laakko and Ilpo Koskinen: *Käyttäjakeskeinen tuotesuunnittelu*. (User centered product development), Taideteollisen korkeakoulun julkaisu B74, University of Art and Design, 2003. or Christian Lindholm, Turku Keinonen and Harri Kiljander (eds.): *Mobile usability. How Nokia changed the face of the mobile phone*. McGraw-Hill, New York, 2003. for further descriptions on how the user should be the starting point in product development.
 29. The most important international example was the London Business School Design seminars, for these see Peter Gorb (ed.): *Design Talks! London Business School Design Management Seminars*. The Design Council, London 1988. Several Design Management conferences were arranged at the University of Art and Design Helsinki, publications from these include: Melgin, Elina (ed.): *Managing the Corporate Image. Design Management, a Key to Success*. University of Industrial Arts Helsinki, Helsinki 1990 Melgin, Elina (ed.): *Product Development and Design Practice. Design Management, a Key to Success*. University of Industrial Arts Helsinki, Helsinki 1991
 30. Peter Gorb (ed.): *Design Management. Papers from the London Business School*. Architecture Design and Technology Press, London 1990, 2.
 31. Piira, Sampsa & Järvinen Juha: *Teollisen muotoilun toimialakartoitus 2002*. Muotoilun innovaatiokeskus Designium. Taideteollinen Korkeakoulu 2002, 19. : "Ammattijohtajia ei alalla ole kenelläkään"(None of the companies have a professional manager) and 40% of the design agencies had a personnel of 1 and an other 40% of 2-4.
 32. Designer interview 14.6.2004.
 33. Designer interview 30.1.2003; A.
 34. Designer interview 17.12.2003.
 35. According to the interviews the Finnish parts of the Nokia Design functions include some eighty designers. This is only a fraction of all the designers that are part of the international design team, but this research was restricted to Finland. Other in-house design organisations tend to be less than ten people, so the difference in size between the Finnish parts of the Nokia Design group and the next biggest in-house design organisation in Finland is about tenfold.
 36. Designer interview 22.6.2004.
 37. Fennemiek Gommer: A New Profession: Brand and Design Management Consultant. *Design Management Journal*. Summer 1999, 53-57.
 38. see Reijo Markku: Tuote ja palvelu tarkasteltuna design management –näkökulmasta. in *Design Management. Yrityskuvan johtaminen*. Muotoilu ja Media, Kymidesign, muotoilu- ja tuotekehityskeskus. Kymenlaakson ammattikorkeakoulun julkaisuja. Sarja A. Opimateriaali. Nro 6. 2004, 74 for what is considered design management services by design agencies in Finland today or Perheentupa, Eljas: *Teollinen muotoilu liikkeenjohtamisessa*. Taideteollisen korkeakoulun julkaisusarja B 16, Helsinki 1989, 16 for the first arrival of external design management services.
 39. For a recent publication on the importance of design to a brand see for example Toni-Matti Karjalainen: *Semantic Transformation in Design. Communicating strategic brand identity through product design references*. Publication series of the University of Art and Design Helsinki A 48, Gummerus Kirjapaino, Jyväskylä 2004.
 40. On references to experience design see for example: Mike Press: *The design experience. The role of design and designers in the twenty-first century*. Ashgate, Aldershot, 2003. or Mitchell, C. Thomas: *Redefining designing. From form to experience*. Van Nostrand Reinhold, New York, 1993. or Mike Kuniavsky,: *Observing the user experience. A practitioner's guide to user research*. Morgan Kaufmann Publishers, San Francisco 2003. or Nathan Shedroff: *Experience design 1*. New Riders Publishing, Indianapolis, 2001. or Deana McDonagh [et al.] (eds.): *Design and emotion. The experience of everyday things*. Taylor & Francis, London, 2004.
 41. Robert Blaich with Janet Blaich: *Product Design and Corporate Strategy*. McGraw-Hill, U.S.A. 1993, 13.
 42. Christina Zetterlund: *Design i informationsåldern. Om strategisk design, historia och praktik*. Raster, Uppsala, 2002.
 43. Jaana Hytönen, Juha Järvinen and Anssi Tuulenmäki: *From Design Services to Strategic Consulting. Improving Core Competence of Finnish Design Consultancies*. Designium, University of Art and Design Helsinki, Helsinki 2004.
 44. Designer interview 30.1.2003; B.
 45. Nokia press release 29.10.2003.
 46. Rolf Jensen: *The Dream Society. How the coming shift from information to imagination will transform your business*. McGraw-Hill, New York 1999, 40.
 47. On the Nike philosophy, see for example Donald Katz: *Just do it. The Nike spirit in the corporate world*. Random House, U.S. 1994.
 48. The idea of innovation as a competitive advantage is in itself not new, as early as 1942 Joseph Schumpeter in his book "*Capitalism, Socialism and Democracy*" suggested that entrepreneurs have both inventions and innovations. These innovations were not only figuring out how to use inventions, but also to introduce new means of production, new products, and new forms of organisation. Innovation by the entrepreneur led to gales of "creative destruction" as innovations caused old inventories, ideas, technologies, skills, and equipment to become obsolete. However, in the early 2000's the issue of innovation gained more attention and was discussed more frequently than before.
 49. Richard Florida: *The Rise of the Creative Class: And How it's Transforming Work, Leisure, Community, and Everyday Life*. Basic Books, New York, 2002.
 50. Tarmo Lemola: *Tiedettä, teknologiaa ja innovaatiota kansakunnan parhaaksi. Katsaus Suomen tiede- ja teknologiapoliittikan lähihistoriaan*. Työpapereita nro 57/01, VTT, Teknologian tutkimuksen ryhmä, Espoo 2001, 45.

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51. Pekka Korvenmaa: Rhetoric and Action. Design Policies in Finland at the Beginning of the third Millennia. *Scandinavian Journal of Design History* 11/2001, 7- 15.
 52. Korvenmaa, Pekka: *Muotoiltu Etu I&II. Muotoilu, teollisuus ja kansainvälinen kilpailukyky*. Suomen Itsenäisyyden juhlarahasto, Miktor Ky, Helsinki 1998
 53. Pekka Saarela: *Muotoilu 2005!* Opetusministeriö, Kulttuuripolitiikan osaston julkaisusarja Nro 3/1999.
 54. www.tekes.fi/english/programmes/design
 55. see for example British Design Council (2004): *The Impact of Design on Stock Market Performance. An Analysis of UK Quoted Companies 1994-2003*, SVID (2004): *Swedish companies on design: Attitudes, profitability and design maturity in Swedish companies*. for a comparison from Sweden and the UK.
 56. On the importance of the iPod see for example Bull, Michael: "The Meaning of IPOD." Consumer electronics: How Apple's iPod music-player and its imitators are changing the way music is consumed." *The Economist*; June 12, 2004, Vol. 371 Issue 8379. The importance of the iPod is often referred to as being an as big a change as was the arrival of the Sony Walkman several decades earlier. On the impact and development of that concept, see du Gay, Paul & Stuart Hall & Linda Janes & Hugh Makay & Keith Negus: *Doing cultural studies. The story of the Sony walkman*. Sage Publications, London, 1999. On the designer role at Apple see for example: Kunkel, Paul: *AppleDesign. The work of the Apple Industrial Design Group*. Graphis Inc, New York 1997
 57. Tom Kelley: *The Art of Innovation. Lessons in Creativity from IDEO. Americas Leading Design Firm*. Random House, New York 2001. Several Finnish benchmarking projects included IDEO during this time, on a more general level see Juha Järvinen and Ilpo Koskinen: *Industrial Design as a Culturally Reflexive Activity in Manufacturing*. Publication Series of the University of Art and Design Helsinki A33, Saarijärvi 2001.
 58. Designer interview 14.6.2003
 59. For a comparison of the different design policies see Hytönen, Jaana: *Design Policy and Promotion Programmes in Selected Countries and Regions*. Designium, University of Art and Design Helsinki, Helsinki October 2003. The different design policies mentioned here can be found at www.ddc.dk, www.norskdesign.no and www.svid.se
 60. See for example Hagströmer, Denise: *Swedish Design*. The Swedish Institute, Sweden 2003, 116.
 61. See for example Brunnström, Lasse (ed.): *Svensk Industridesign. En 1900-talshistoria*. Nordstads, Stockholm 1997, 362.
 62. See for example Hedqvist, Hedvig: *Svensk form internationell design*. Bokförlaget DN, Sweden 2002, 157.
 63. See for example *Design Sigvard Bernadotte, Nationalmuseum 5 December 1997 - 15 Mars 1998*. Book published as a catalogue for an exhibition in Nationalmuseum, Stockholm 1997.
 64. Designer interview 6.10.2003.