EXPLORING THE IMPACT OF

HUMAN VALUE SYSTEMS ON

PERFORMANCE MEASUREMENT

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DECLARATION

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ABSTRACT

This thesis explores how performance measurement in organisations is effected by the human value systems of those concerned with measurement. Its origins lie in the observation that despite many efforts to devise useful measures of performance, problems continued to exist. It was subsequently hypothesised that problems are generic rather than job specific. This led to research in four very different organisations and the consequent exploration of human values theory in a systemic context.

For the purpose of this thesis performance measurement is taken to be any form of assessment of organisation or individual accomplishment. Such measures may stand alone, be combined with others or checked against a pre-set standard. When combined they are often referred to as performance indicators or league tables.

Values are beliefs about what seems right and important; they are not necessarily virtues. People, families, societal and work organisations all possess value systems. Values are inculcated early in the life of both humans and organisations and are reinforced over time and experience. Both individuals and groups typically hold more than one value, usually they have combinations that form value systems.

Human values theory is linked to systems science by investigating the behaviour of groups of values. It is argued that value systems have the emergent properties of attitudes and behaviours. These are essentially a response to other values and value systems. This emergence is likely to be unpredictable when faced with unfamiliar, cogent or inflexible norms. Consequently it is not only important to be clear about the value systems embodied in performance measurement but also those rated highly by those being measured.

This thesis concludes that performance measurement needs to be more closely matched to the values of the people being measured if it is to be successful. It is argued that singling out individual values is not the most useful way of applying values theory as changes occur swiftly and subconsciously in human activity systems. Instead it is proposed that statements representing world-views give a better picture of the environment into which performance measurement might be introduced. A selection of such value statements are suggested here but it is stressed that these need to be adapted to the organisation concerned in order to be most useful. These can be used to assess priorities but should at all times be considered in combination with other values so that emergence is not ignored.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CATWOE   Customers, Actors, Transformation, Weltanschauung, Owner, Environmental Constraints

CST   Critical Systems Theory

DCI   Detective Chief Inspector

KPIs   key performance indicators

MIS   management information systems

MBTI   Myers-Briggs Type Indicator

NHS   National Health Service

PAPI   PA Preference Inventory

PIs   performance indicators

PM   performance measurement

PRP   performance related pay

RD   root definition

SPI   self-perception inventory

SSM   soft systems methodology

TA   transactional analysis

TQM   total quality management

VSM   viable system model

W   Weltanschauung

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION TO PERFORMANCE MEASUREMENT AND HUMAN VALUES IN ORGANISATIONS

SUMMARY

This chapter describes the origins of this thesis. It introduces the topic of performance measurement in organisations and clarifies what is meant by the term. It goes on to outline the format of the consequent chapters which are based on the conjecture that the issues and problems surrounding performance measurement have broader implications for change management. The key link is the significance of values systems in the acceptance of organisational change - an area which appears to have been neglected in systems literature.

1.1 INTRODUCTION

1.1.1 The research described in this thesis began as a exploration of the issues surrounding performance measurement. It developed over time into a more detailed study of the impact of value systems on the success or failure performance measurement. The outcome of this journey is the suggestion that a range of value systems underlie performance measurement design and application and that they exhibit systemic qualities which may have wider consequences than performance measurement. This is developed into a description of how values are formed and behave in individuals and groups that may offer an insight into reoccurring issues encountered by organisations.

1.1.2 This chapter revisits the origins of this enquiry by describing responses to performance measures. It goes on to describe the research questions that provided the objectives which include an

exploration of value systems as well as performance measurement. This is followed by a brief description of consequent chapters leading to the conclusion.

1.2   ORIGINS OF ENQUIRY

1.2.1   The original hypothesis speculated that the problems with performance measurement were generic rather than job specific. Consequently the focus of the research was on the performance of different types of organisations. The variety of organisations allowed the opportunity to identify patterns of responses and it was from these patterns that the common theme of human values emerged (Hebel 1995a).

1.2.2   As a consequence the research focus shifted to developing an improved understanding of the mechanisms and influence of values. This was felt to be necessary because although 'value systems' is a frequently used term there appeared to be no exploration of values in systemic terms. The hypothesis became 'Human value systems dictate the response to and success of performance measurement in organisations'.

1.2.3   The term *performance measurement* is used to cover a broad spectrum of statistics, performance indicators (PIs), key performance indicators (KPIs), performance management assessment criteria, league tables and a key component of management information systems (MIS). Given the different terminology used for performance measurement this thesis defines performance measurement as an assessment of attainment within an organisation. This attainment could be by an individual or group and be quantitative or qualitative. Examples of performance measures used by organisations include

customers satisfied, profit made, numbers of arrests, exam pass scores, and membership.

1.2.4 Performance measurement is essentially a way of gaining information to monitor performance with the intention of maintaining or improving. It seems however the information rather than performance appears to have become the centre of attention. This is exemplified in headlines such as *'Lies, damned lies and league tables'* (Guardian 20/11/92). At the time of writing this is especially so for public sector or service organisations, such as schools, the police and the National Health Service (NHS). Many now produce performance tables that are published in the national media. These in turn often prompt complaints by disgruntled managers, employees or unions.

1.2.5 Both tables and complaints often form substantial news items with headlines such as *'The fairest cop of all'* a comparison of community policing measures (Independent 19/10/94); *'Grammar schools miss target'* claimed selective schools fail to deliver the high results expected (Independent 20/11/96) and *'Famous hospitals rated among worst performers'* prompted a plea for quality rather than quantity to be considered (Telegraph 6/7/95). The interest seems to indicate that.there is more to improving performance than gathering information and measurement.

1.2.6 The dissatisfaction with performance measurement is also often linked to league tables comparing apparently similar groups, for example police force crime statistics prompted the headline *'Four police forces 'fail' over crimes of violence'* (Telegraph 26/10/95). The article containing a comparison of the 'best' and 'worst' force records for solving violent crimes. The force classified as worst consequently defending their figures by highlighting demographic differences and criticism of the means of measurement. Exam league

tables experience a similar fate with low 'scoring' schools jumping to defend their record.

1.2.7 Alternatively issues concerning performance related pay (PRP) become highlighted, such as the inequity of nurses' pay across health authorities. This can lead to difficulties such as those experienced in the advertising world where measuring creative quality and linking it to PRP raised some complicated issues about measuring qualitative work (Telegraph City News 18/6/96).

1.2.8 It can also lead to strikes such as those voted for by the staff at Kew Royal Botanic Gardens in March 1996 when plans to introduce PRP were proposed. The Times and Telegraph (2/3/97) made much of the dispute - it being the first at Kew Gardens for more than 200 years - asking if performance should be measured by the number of weeds pulled.

1.2.9 The author's experience in the public sector[1] also suggested that a closer look at the measures themselves might provide an answer. It was observed that performance was often broken down into easily calculated output measures. These were usually based on financial or quantitative data e.g. money spent, budgets overspent, arrests made, crimes cleared up or numbers of VAT assessments completed (Hebel 1991, 1994a & 1994b).

1.2.10 It appeared that many measures of performance were based on a reductionist principle. This unitary perspective appeared to take no account of human nature or the context of the organisation. Thus the numerical focus seemed incongruent with the service oriented environment of the public sector organisations involved.

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[1] Primarily with the Metropolitan Police, multi-agency crime-related projects and Customs and Excise

1.2.11 These observations and the findings of preliminary research (Hebel, 1995a) led to a number of questions and these in turn became chapter themes and objectives summarised in Figure 1.1. The themes focus on firstly ascertaining what both theorists and practitioners have to say on performance measurement. The findings are then explored in more depth by investigating the origins and impact of values on the situations studied.

1.2.12 The themes were developed into a research programme which also includes speculation into the wider effect of values and the implications for systems thinking. This programme continues but its origins are summarised in the subsequent section and detailed in the thesis.

No.	Chapter Theme/Objective	Action summary
1	What is the problem with performance measurement (PM) in organisations?	Brief description of experience, complaints and media interest, outline plan of research
2	How might this be explored and related to the real world?	Case study methodology - soft systems measurement (SSM) and action research, literature review, content analysis, case study outline
3	What does the literature have to say on performance measurement?	Origins and multi-disciplinary review of PM as management tool
4	How can these ideas be applied to real world situations?	Initial application of ideas to case studies - own survey, interviews observations and outcomes
5	What are values systems?	Review of literature on human values including philosophical, psychology, sociology, systems and organisational theories
6	Can we measure values?	Review of values related surveys - comment on characteristics
7	Exploring values and impact on PM further	As a result of earlier work a conceptual look as the systemic nature of values and value systems emergence
8	Reflection on practicality of identifying values emergence	Words meant different things to different individuals and groups Concluding - can't measure values only level of diversity Style of change needs to match existing dominant Weltanschauung (W) - can't pretend to hold a W we don't
9	What are the lessons for systems thinking?	Provisional means of gauging workplace W using colloquial phrases Greater systemic understanding of values and how they interact
10	Conclusion	PM will not work without appropriate values Describe more realistic setting for PM
	Appendices and References	Citation material

Figure 1.1 - Summary of thesis structure

1.3   FURTHER CHAPTERS

1.3.1   Chapter 2 describes the methodological approach which combined action research with soft systems methodology in order to acknowledge human activity and the impact of the analyst. It describes the hypothesis that problems with performance measurement are generic and not job specific. As a consequence the initial research focused on four very different case studies and how they assessed their organisation's achievements.

1.3.2   These studies were; a Metropolitan Police Criminal Investigation Department (CID); a 400 year old independent school; a building contractor; and a Quaker (Religious Society of Friends) business meeting. In summary they all use at least one performance measure; come from both public and private sector; are profit and non-profit making; organisationally they are both large and small, complex and relatively simple.

1.3.3   This study does not attempt to cover the entire work of the organisations involved. Furthermore it is not intended as a criticism of any individual or group. It is primarily interested in the performance measures identified as important and reaction to them once implemented. The findings from the case studies are presented and then used as illustration in further chapters.

1.3.4   Chapter 3 is based on Figure 1.2 which summarises the drawbacks, rather than advantages, of performance measurement based on the author's experience (Hebel 1992a, 1992b, 1993 & 1994b). It comprises many of the concerns expressed about performance measurement. The research attempts to establish whether the three statements - shown in bold in Figure 1.2 - about performance measurement and their hypothesised causes are valid.

1.3.5   The chapter covers a review of performance information systems to see if they experienced similar problems or offered potential solutions. It was concluded that much of the disruption to such information systems is due to subtle layers of value judgements and expectations. These act as noise in a communication model making apparent agreements open to much wider interpretation.

1.3.6   There appeared to be a strong link between values and world-views or Weltanschauung as used in soft systems theories. Many writers acknowledge the importance of appreciating others world-views. It seemed however that actually describing how a world-view is formed had been neglected. It also became apparent that the impact of our values and Weltanschauung reached wider than performance measurement and that this was an area insufficiently covered by systems literature.

Staff attitudes

Majority consider themselves
to be working at max. capacity

Labour intensive
scheme

Wrongly interpreted

Poor presentation

PMs collected
for management benefit
not staff

Poorly explained

Sloppy
collation

Results appear
inaccurate

No tangible benefit
for those being measured

Changes in social
context

Causes an increase
in workload

PM schemes
demotivate staff

Complaints
about accuracy

Union interest

Media sales

Scheme inappropriate
for environment

Media interest

Poor match of scheme
to organisation

PM schemes do
not provide
information required

PM SCHEMES DO NOT HELP
TO IMPROVE PERFORMANCE

Scheme too
complex

Preference for
subjective data

Scheme too
simplistic

Devisor focus on
own worldview

Expectations
change over
devising/application
process

Unclear
specification

Preference for
numerical data

Devise better schemes

Look for
alternatives

Managers not
sure what they want

conceptual model

*Do we really
need PM?*

Figure 1.2. - Multiple-cause diagram of concerns about performance measurement
(→ indicates cause to effect)

1.3.7   Chapter 4 summarises the outcome of the soft systems case study analysis. It is based on the method used to gather information from the case studies and includes observations and possible interpretation (Hebel 1995a). A primary observation of the case studies has been that despite many attempts to monitor, understand and control what goes on within an organisation, there will always be that which is unreachable within the cognitive processes of those who comprise the organisation.

1.3.8   An example is that which is valued by one manager may seem irrelevant to another employee and what seems important to one religious group is insignificant to another apparently similar one. This prioritisation of beliefs and values supported the notions on the nature of value systems and their impact on performance measurement described in the following Chapters.

1.3.9   Chapter 5 accordingly investigates further the impact of values on the receipt and use of performance measurement information. A multi-disciplinary literature review looked first at philosophical theories on human values and virtues. This was followed by gaining a sociological and psychological perspective, concluding with a further review of systems literature on world-views and values.

1.3.10 World-views are built into some methodologies such as Soft Systems Methodology (SSM) or techniques such as cognitive mapping. Ways of either modelling world-view or surfacing values are however limited or riddled with the problems of deciphering layers of values and value systems. An additional difficulty was the inherent risk of value categorisation implying a permanence of classification that could be difficult to escape from.

1.3.11 It was deduced that attitudes and expectations arise out of human value systems and appear to have a significant impact on the way we measure what we do. These systems affect the composition of measures and also the way they are implemented. Differences between the values of those who design measure and those who are measured appear considerable in some cases. This creates resistance to successful implementation and undermines the overall goal.

1.3.12 One outcome of the literature search was the identification of a number of surveys that either measured values explicitly or were used as the basis for describing team roles. Some surveys were in common use and others were less popular. Chapter 6 summarises the critique of the three most widely used values oriented surveys, the Hall-Tonna Inventory, the Belbin team roles and Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI). This is followed by a brief description of other questionnaires considered.

1.3.13 The surveys may all act as a guide to organisational behaviour and in particular team building. The values survey looked at a very detailed level of description that made the overall analysis of people and organisation, suggested by the devisor, lengthy and potentially very costly. The team roles surveys varied in depth, the earlier version of Belbin being relatively easy to use and interpret, but relied heavily on honesty from the respondents and the team retaining key personnel.

1.3.14 All surveys shared the risk nevertheless of stereotyping and seemed unable to cope with changes in circumstances or mood. In order to maximise their usefulness they would need to be conducted on a regular basis to cope with change but the impracticality of doing this prohibited regular application. Alternatively the team would have to remain static for the original analysis to stay true.

1.3.15 Chapter 7 explores further the main themes arising from a review of value systems. It scrutinises in more depth the influence of value systems and world-views on performance measurement and on change initiatives in general. In particular the way groups of values behave holistically, shifting and changing according to values priorities and their interaction with other value systems and the environment.

1.3.16 Whilst investigating groups of values, it also appeared that they behave in a very organised, if not conscious, way and exhibit the systemic qualities of purpose emergence. In an individual values organise themselves to fulfil a life-script or an overall purpose developed in the early years of life. Within organisations our values are prioritised to enable our 'best fit' and therefore most appropriate strategy for success according to our own lights.

1.3.17 This means that the same set of values may be rearranged to correspond to the environment and a different emergence or set of behaviours will then occur. This is particularly evident in the creation of norms, which represent the emergence of a majority view.

1.3.18 Chapter 8 reflects on the findings of the case study research and investigation into the behaviour of value systems. It describes the rationale behind a second survey conducted and the results. The purpose of the survey was in part to validate initial research (Hebel 1995a) but also to demonstrate the diversity of opinion held within similar organisations.

1.3.19 The second survey confirmed some of the original broad statements about organisations however it was clear that the variety of opinion and values held could not really be generalised. It also goes some way to proving that values statements, even when couched in non-threatening terms, are open to very wide interpretation. Even within

close-knit teams viewpoints varied and discomfort was expressed about holding one world-view for all situations (Hebel 1997a).

1.3.20 From the survey it was concluded that at best a few key world-views out of a large range could be guaranteed as strong enough to build upon. In a real world situation where performance measurement was required these key world-views would need to be gauged at all levels of an organisation if successful implementation was to be achieved.

1.3.21 Chapter 9 draws together the lessons for systems thinking, suggesting value systems models and concepts that might be explored further. In particular it is noted that the emergent properties of value systems rather than the values themselves take priority in an organisational context. The way values might be modelled and impact on wider information systems are also considered worthwhile areas of further research. Given the reinforcing nature of values it is also suggested that starting from a viewpoint that change is possible is not a useful position but that developing what already exists is better.

1.3.22 The thesis concludes in Chapter 10 that a performance measurement scheme can only succeed if it matches the values of the majority of those concerned and not only those in management positions. Obtaining a realistic assessment of the environment into which change is introduced is of paramount importance as it is the intervention and not the method that is important. The success of intervention is dependent on the organisation's attitude and the interventionist's adaptation to that environment.

1.4 CONCLUSION

This chapter introduces the themes of performance measurement and human value systems explored in this thesis. It describes the research framework on which work progressed investigating the problems experienced when measuring performance and their possible explanations. Both theoretical and practical areas are broached and the process by which value systems come to have a significant effect is proposed.

CHAPTER 2

TAKING A SOFT SYSTEMS APPROACH
TO INVESTIGATION

SUMMARY

This chapter describes the means of analysing the issues surrounding performance measurement using a framework of soft systems methodology (SSM) and action research. It also provides a brief description of why the four case studies were chosen to investigate further performance measurement and organisational change.

2.1   INTRODUCTION

2.1.1   As a result of the initial analysis (Hebel 1995a) and in view of the need to research further within a real world context SSM was applied within an action research or action science paradigm. This acknowledged that the analyst will inevitably have some impact on the situation and helped identify case studies that might best test the areas of interest.

2.1.2   There was evidence, briefly described in Chapter 1, to indicate that measures traditionally used in profit oriented businesses were now applied to more and more services and charitable organisations. In order to verify this perception the police service and secondary education were identified as potential service oriented case study areas. To balance the findings the construction industry was chosen to represent profit making and the Quakers to look at a non-product oriented organisation.

2.1.3   The size of these groups also varied in order to test its impact on the organisational requirement for performance measurement. The very different groups were deliberately chosen in order to provide as much variation in background as possible. The following sections describe succinctly the advantages and disadvantages of the approach taken, the methods of gathering data and a preliminary analysis.

2.2   THE ACTION RESEARCH OR ACTION SCIENCE PARADIGM

2.2.1   Action research owes much to the work of Lewin (Robson 1993) who saw this type of research as based on spirals of circles of planning, acting, observing and reflecting. Definitions of action research vary considerably however but the later developments drawn together by Bell (1993) emphasise the practitioner-researcher who continues to review, evaluate and improve practice. This infers a permanent position of the researcher in the organisations involved. As this was not the case and in view of a desire to produce sound academic research within a real world context, an action science paradigm appeared to be a better approach.

2.2.2   The term action science is used rather than action research as preferred by Argyris et al. (1985) and Gummesson (1991), who observe the pitfalls of action research being a lack of academic content and a closer resemblance to journalism. The use of the word science rather than research nevertheless implies an empirical, positivistic bias that did not appear compatible with the human activity emphasis. Nevertheless Gummesson's summary of action science seemed to fit the thesis requirements best. The following

definition is based on work by Hult and Lennung (1978) and later Argyris.

1) *Action science always involves two goals: solve a problem for the client and contribute to science. That means that you must be both a management consultant and an academic researcher at the same time.*

2) *During an action science project those involved - the researcher/consultant and client personnel - should learn from each other and develop their competence.*

3) *The understanding developed during an action science project is holistic.*

4) *Action science requires co-operation between the researcher and the client personnel, feedback to the parties involved, and continuous adjustment to new information and new events.*

5) *Action science is primarily applicable to the understanding and planning of change in social systems.*

6) *There must be a mutually acceptable ethical framework within which action science is used*

(Gummesson (1991), p.p. 103-104)

2.2.3 The advantages seem to outweigh the disadvantages in adopting this method. One advantage is the stress on practical as well as academic researcher involvement. Another advantage is the focus on social systems and the need to take an holistic approach, which ties in with the soft systems methodology used to analyse data.

2.2.4 Difficulties can occur in the contrasting needs of a consultant and a researcher. As a consultant the focus is the client. As a researcher, one is principally required to be theoretically sound and contribute to a wider academic audience. An action scientist or researcher must satisfy both and it is failure to achieve this that has led to major criticisms of action research. Travers, quoted by Robson (1993) for example, in reviewing a number of projects noted "... that they have

contributed almost nothing to our knowledge of the factors that influence the learning process in the classroom".

2.2.5   In this case however, the combination of SSM and other analytical methods, backed up by cross validation should provide data of sufficient robustness. The results were presented to the case study participants in two forms. Firstly, regular verbal feedback and secondly a report or reports to the participants, written in a style suitable for those unfamiliar with systems theory and research.

2.3   APPLICATION OF METHODOLOGY AND PARADIGM

2.3.1   As already stated, the origin of this study of performance measurement grew out of an observation that whilst the measures themselves developed or grew more complex, performance remained static or improved imperceptibly. This appeared to occur in both the public services, businesses and other organised groups.

2.3.2   In addition, measurement schemes frequently seemed to engender discontent among those being measured or were ignored by managers when the results did not conform with their perception of success. Uncomplicated measures incurred complaints of over simplification and complex groups of measures were considered too time-consuming to collate.

2.3.3   From this observation the four case studies were identified in order to compare and contrast measures used by each group. The comparison is based on the hypothesis that the problems are generic and not job specific and consequently that solutions may also be generic. Hence a sample of very different organisations was required to test this.

2.3.4   It was for this reason that such a diverse sample were chosen. They were a Metropolitan Police CID, a Quaker business meeting, a small-scale building contractor and a 400 year old, Jesuit, boarding school. A list of the reasons applied to each case study for choosing these particular groups is given in Figure 2.1. For ease of reference shorthand terms are used for each of the studies in the following sections. A more detailed précis the background for each group is included in Chapter 4.

	CID	Builders	Quakers	School
Use a selection of performance measures	✓	✓	✓	✓
Profit-oriented		✓		✓
Service oriented	✓		✓	
Manufacturing oriented		✓		
Annual performance reviews for individuals	✓			
Annual performance reviews for group	✓	✓	✓	✓
Corporate purpose statement published	✓		✓	✓
Clear group ethos	✓		✓	✓
Well-defined roles or job descriptions	✓	✓	✓	✓
Office / building based	✓		✓	✓
Site based		✓		
Part of larger hierarchical organisation	✓		✓	
Organisational history i.e. 50 yrs plus	✓		✓	✓
Evidence of holistic approach			✓	✓
Group S/E England based	✓	✓	✓	
Working practices unfamiliar to researcher		✓	✓	✓

✓ indicates the characteristic as present

Figure 2.1 - Case study criteria satisfied

2.3.5   Although not a conventional work group Quakers are included as a case study because in addition to worship, business meetings are also held on a regular basis at a local, district and national level (Hubbard 1985). It is these meetings - in particular those held at Wandsworth Preparative Meeting, Kingston Monthly Meeting and Yearly Meeting - that are the focus of this study. The underlying principles of both worship and business are inextricable and so both are referred to later.

2.3.6   Both research and analysis were rooted in pragmatic and humanist ideas. Soft systems methodology (SSM) provided the basis of gathering the information and presenting the results as it was considered the most appropriate method for the case studies. Use of SSM was not exclusive though and psycho-sociological and systems concepts were drawn on throughout. Critical Systems Theory (CST), the Viable System Model (VSM) and other relatively rigid methodologies were taken into account but not adopted in entirety as they appeared to restrict the consideration of softer issues.

2.3.7   An action research paradigm suited the practical focus required by the author who wished to test that certain theoretical concepts were applicable to the workplace by a continual process of observation. The paradigm also acknowledged the effect of the analyst's presence on the situation. In particular the effect of a female researcher in the mostly male environment of school, police and building site and the differences in communication style adopted by adults and children and manual workers. As many of the research participants were unfamiliar with systems theory frequent requests for clarification and the resulting response helped to build a rapport between those involved.

2.4 MEANS OF DATA GATHERING

2.4.1 The data gathered for this thesis has been collected by observation, interviews, a questionnaire and literature searches. In order to cross-validate the findings multiple data collection approaches were chosen and undertaken in parallel.

2.4.2 The research was undertaken on the basis of an information interchange. The analysis of a problem situation chosen by the case study owner - using systems concepts - was offered in exchange for free access to personnel and records. This mutual agreement relieved some of the pressure normally associated with the consultant role and resulted in many enquiries into systems theory.

2.4.3 Information was gathered on the each organisation's history and any problem situations they were currently experiencing. Content analysis provided much of the background for the cases, drawing on published league tables, newsletters, annual reports, papers, books, web pages, other publications and media reports. The police, school and Quakers background and current practice were well documented. Information on the construction industry, especially on management, proved much harder to obtain.

2.4.4 A multi-disciplinary literature review was conducted in parallel. The initial searches were focused on performance measurement literature. The emphasis was on published literature widely available to managers and consultants rather than specialist journal articles. This was because it was felt that this might be the source of some of the problems. It mostly comprised management theory books and newspaper articles.

2.4.5   The literature search soon broadened to include material on systems theory, human values and organisational behaviour. As well as widely available books, specialist publications and journals were included. In particular, surveys aimed at gaining an insight into personal and team attitudes or behaviour, were reviewed to assess their practicality and usefulness.

2.4.6   The following sections describe the means by which information was gathered directly from case study participants. These include structured interviews and questionnaires. This is followed by a brief description of each of the four groups studied.

2.5   INTERVIEW

2.5.1   The structured interviews included questions on background, team work, current difficulties and performance measurement (Appendix A). All interviewees were asked the same questions in order to best compare the responses. Every attempt was made to ask a balance of questions in order to put performance measurement in the context of the organisation.

2.5.2   Those interviewed were asked what official performance measures were currently used within their organisation and how they viewed their accuracy and usefulness. They were also asked how they would most like their personal and group performance to be measured.

2.5.3   The interviewees came from a broad range of group participants available at the time. At the school for instance, cleaning staff, pupils and teaching staff were all interviewed and in the building company case study, representatives of all the building trades, as well as architects and customers were consulted. This was to enable

comparison between organisational levels as well as providing as holistic a view as possible.

2.6   QUESTIONNAIRE

2.6.1   Each interview was followed up by a detailed questionnaire, (Appendix B) which covered in more detail the perceptions of how they viewed and perceived their work.

2.6.2   The purpose of the questionnaire was to enable a comparison between the case studies. It identified demographic information, listed 49 group attributes and 14 personal values applied to the workplace that each interviewee was asked to prioritise. They were moreover asked to state any tenet they felt strongly influenced the way they worked.

2.6.3   It was initially analysed using coded responses on the spreadsheet package, Excel and later by the statistical package, SPSS for Windows. The total number of questionnaires completed was not sufficiently large to provide statistically significant data, however the findings endorsed observation and interview findings as well as highlighting further areas that might be of interest.

2.7   OBSERVATION

2.7.1   A range of activities from everyday site and office tasks, daily and annual meetings and sometimes a response to a crisis were all observed. Much of the information was collated as rich pictures that were occasionally shared with case study participants.

2.7.2 All comments on the observations were fed back to those involved in order to verify the information and to rectify if required. Performance measurement was the focus for the observations, however much of the time was spent gathering information on the organisational context within which they operated.

2.8 INTRODUCTION TO PERFORMANCE MEASUREMENT SCENARIO

2.8.1 One of the original research aims (Chapter 1) was to identify performance measures and explore the issues surrounding them. This meant taking account of qualitative as well as quantitative aspects of performance thus providing a holistic picture of any working environment. It was conjectured that a systemic measurement system might be what was required to address the complaints of over simplification however it soon became evident that it was not that straightforward.

2.8.2 A review of literature suggested that performance measures were more likely to replicate the values of those compiling them, than those of the people being measured within an organisation or its customers. This mismatch appeared to seriously threaten the effectiveness of performance measurement schemes and so it was felt that it warranted further investigation.

2.8.3 In addition, after conducting a number of interviews it became evident that many considered the measures by which they were assessed to be unsatisfactory or perceived them as unnecessary (Hebel 1995 b, c & d). Little worth was given to the figures produced which were considered easily falsified. It appeared that even if

improvements were made to the scheme, resistance would often continue to exist.

2.8.4   Consequently this thesis is not concerned with constructing a specific performance measurement system. The aim is not direct intervention but primarily greater understanding of what happens when performance measurement are introduced. It looks at possible ways of gathering information on and interpreting organisational processes and relationships with regards to performance measurement.

2.8.5   The entire thesis is based on the assumption that if the obstacles are better understood then solutions will be easier to identify. It may also be possible to extend the findings beyond performance measurement to other change initiatives introduced to organisations.

2.8.6   In view of the apparent influence of values and human activity on performance measurement, SSM was considered the most relevant methodology to supplement action research and explore such issues. The initial analysis however is not based on the traditional problem scenario or problem owner but on the generic situation which asks the question 'why do so many performance measurement schemes experience problems?'.

2.8.7   The risks of adopting a single methodology included a restriction on the sort of analysis possible, a closing down of avenues of opportunity, a limitation on perspectives and the risk of reinforcing previous solutions. Consequently other systems theories and models are drawn upon as appropriate within a framework of action research. This framework includes application of systems ideas to four case studies mentioned earlier in this chapter.

2.9   APPLYING SSM - ANALYSIS 1

2.9.1   SSM was initially used to gather the perspectives and views
expressed of performance measurement schemes in organisations.
Appendix C shows the version of SSM on which the analysis is based
(Checkland & Scholes 1990, Patching 1990). The methodology was
applied initially to the general problems experienced with
performance measurement described in Chapter 1.

2.9.2   A summary of the initial analysis follows but it is important to stress
that SSM was not followed linearly, it is merely presented that way
for ease of demonstration. This version of SSM - rather than the
earlier seven-stage model (Appendix D) - takes more account of the
culture and context of a situation. It enables greater freedom in
accounting for world-views in greater depth and encourages the
analyst to take into account the history of any situation.

2.9.3   This stage required a more abstract stance than is usually applied to
SSM as generic problems with performance measurement were the
focus of enquiry. Consequently, though the client and problem solver
are quite precise the owners seem many and varied. This summary is
based on prior experience (Hebel 1992a & b, 1993, 1994a & b) and
early research (Hebel 1995a-d).

2.9.4   The Client is taken to be a generic manager or administrator, anyone
in fact who might collect or utilise organisational performance
measurement. The Problem Solver or analyst in this case is the
author, but it might also be a consultant or senior manager. The
Owner could be a range of system participants; Administrators -
managing using performance measurements; Actors - those being
measured or others affected by or using performance measurement

such as customers, senior personnel in large corporations, the media or governments.

2.10   ANALYSIS 2

2.10.1 Analysis 2 examines the social characteristics of the situation via the interaction between roles, norms and values. These are described below in terms of management and performance measurement.

2.10.2 Roles are the social positions held within an organisation where performance is being measured. There are the traditional ones of manager, employee and customer. There are also those such as information provider (those manufacturing or providing a service) or information controller which may not be held by those in traditional roles.

2.10.3 Norms are the expected behaviour of those in roles. This is a more difficult area to identify as we are often not altogether clear what we expect from those in traditional roles. With regards to performance measurement the explicit expectations appear to revolve primarily around managers in their various roles. The employee also has a key part to play as their expectations of management and measurement can impact on the way a measurement scheme is executed.

	Type of performance measure	Real world example
1	Overall profit and loss	end of financial year accounts
2	Competitive advantage	market share
3	Items/paperwork processed	crime reports made, patients examined
4	Products made	cars produced, books published
5	Quality assurance rates	number of goods classed as seconds
6	Customer satisfaction	number of complaints, repeat business, media representation
7	Scores achieved	goals scored, exams passed, arrests made
8	Personnel issues	pay scales, appraisal marks, staff retention rates, training
9	Membership (e.g. of voluntary organisations)	number or type of members, changes over time,
10	Objectives met	number of specific goals achieved

Figure 2.2 - Examples of performance measures

2.10.4 Values are the local standards by which the role-holders are judged. The measures or standards given as examples in Figure 2.2 appear very positivist and a somewhat clinical set of standards. It is this perhaps that gives the first clue as to the cause of repeated problems with performance measurement schemes. Up to this point the focus has been very much on human-activity systems, conceptual but people oriented nonetheless. Here the emphasis becomes more functional and somehow out of tune with the other components.

2.10.5 Figure 2.3 pulls together the three aspects of the social system model in terms of generic performance measurement in the workplace. It is by no means exhaustive but gives examples of each aspect. For instance a range of different norms are given from both management and employee perspectives. These could be taken as summarised worldviews of the workplace. Likewise the values will vary according to local conditions. The roles are more traditional and list the different types of person or role affected by measurement. These can be someone in a general management position or somebody who has responsibility for allocating resources for instance.

Manager/Administrator
Employee
Customer
Performance appraiser
Customer interface
Strategic planner
Information controller
Trend predictor
Product maker or
service provider =
information provider
Resource provider
Resource drain

e.g.

Manager as information
gatherer
Manager as controller
Manager as carer
Manager as accountable
Employee as under
performer
Employee as overloaded
with work
Employee as core of
organisation

e.g.

ROLES
(social position)

NORMS
(expected behaviour)

VALUES
(local standards)

e.g.
Clear information
Improved performance
Commitment to organisation
Customer satisfaction
Management satisfaction
Accurate measurement
Ease of collection
Representativeness

**Figure 2.3 - Examples of roles, values and norms in
performance measurement**

2.11   ANALYSIS 3

2.11.1 This is an examination of power-related or political aspects of the problem situation. The 'commodities' of power concerned revolve around information and control but not it seems around performance. The following sections summarise the disposition, nature and process of demonstrating power. There are six main manifestations.

2.11.2 Information is power - This traditional model holds as much sway now as it ever has. The idea that information is important and necessary is endorsed by the use of the term Information Technology to refer to the many developments in computing. Simply the appearance of possessing large amounts of information can be considered an indication of status. The person or group on the receiving end of the performance measurements have the power to reward or punish on the information as they see fit.

2.11.3 Management is control - or possession of information demonstrates control. The collection and publication of information on performance implies an organisation is being managed otherwise how could it be done. This control relationship may also cause problems as the overemphasis on control rather than co-operation may prove inappropriate and more like organisational blackmail.

2.11.4 Information supports confidence - It could be argued that most managers know what needs to be done and measurement information only helps to endorse their decisions. It gives them the power to say "I'm right because...". With appropriate back-up managers should feel more confident. The information does not even have to be accurate but in sufficient depth so that it appears thorough.

2.11.5 Information restates position and role - it reminds groups of power structure and in particular the extent of power held by those being measured. They may either develop resentments at what is perceived to be a lack of power on their part resulting in a drop in morale or performance or they may also realise that they have considerable power to disrupt the performance measurement process by working-to-rule or falsifying the figures for instance.

2.11.6 Performance measurement stresses the rational/positivist world-view. In turn management of an organisation is about the maintenance of a corporate world-view. Ensuring that the reason for the groups inception is maintained unless of course there is no longer a market. Performance measurement appears to occur in organisations that are hierarchical and structured. It seems to help to endorse a belief that rational and objective behaviour is possible. The power of a convinced or strong world-view has maintained many an entrepreneur and dictator.

2.11.7 Following the trend - This normative power represents an organisational herd instinct where management trends and theories gain a momentum through being new and promising a better future. Performance measurement doesn't strictly come under this category but the trend for publishing public sector performance indicators in the national press appears to have prompted an interest in measures beyond all proportion to their usefulness.

2.12 ROOT DEFINITION AND CATWOE

2.12.1 From the analysis, based on the method taught by The Open University (1984), five primary relevant systems associated with performance measurement were identified:

- to provide information on organisations
- to measure success or failure
- to keep track of the performance of large organisations
- to exert some control
- to aid the setting of standards

2.12.2 These were accordingly refined into root definitions (RDs). The following brings together the key aspects and attempts to define performance measurement within the context of this study and the case studies involved. The definition is followed by its comparison with CATWOE.

ROOT DEFINITION

A system deliberately devised by somebody to provide meaningful information on the performance of an organisation and the people involved in it. The system is devised for the benefit of those who administer it and is potentially beneficial for those who receive the output of the organisation, whether it be a product, service or wage packet. The information is based on the outcomes of the organisation employees performance and is often an analysis or interpretation of core or quantifiable activities. It depends on a mutual understanding of the importance of performance information and the nature of measurement and abstraction. If such an appreciation does not exist then the system is unlikely to provide useful or actionable information on which to maintain or improve performance.

2.12.2 The application of CATWOE - even to a much revised root definition - consistently highlighted certain difficulties. It could be argued that further revisions and options are thus required, however the issues raised do not appear compatible with redefinition. Instead they are a point to be considered in further stages of conceptualisation and debate.

2.12.3 The Customers are primarily the administrators who were likely to collate and act upon the information provided by the measures. The employees and customers may also be on the receiving end of the system to measure performance however they appeared low priority for this particular system. If performance is measured and problems with sales or product quality are detected then there should be some benefit. The system focus however is on gathering information and analysing it. Action on the findings requires a further root definition for the role of administrator that may well depend far more on the type of organisation being considered, public or private sector, or social/secular group.

2.12.4 There was little difficulty in describing the Actors in this system. They are those who carry out the activities of the system and theoretically they would be everyone involved in an organisation, either being measured, analysing the data or using it as an overview. Users of the organisation's output may also be included here as providers of feedback on the product or service.

2.12.5 The Transformation consisted of collecting raw data inputs such as production figures or tasks completed. These are then analysed, weighted or presented in such a way that the outputs indicate any changes in performance. Although many different means of transforming the data were available the principle remains that some sort of order or priority is placed upon available information. Analysis

of this stage is expanded further using the five E's in the following section.

2.12.6 The World-view reflects the sense of inevitability associated with measuring performance. Although generally disliked or distrusted moving to a complete abandonment of measures appeared inconceivable. The modern workplace is viewed as so complex that you need information in order to survive. The world-view defined in this brief analysis is applicable to the root definition but perhaps so implicit and unquestioned that further investigation is required.

2.12.7 Reflecting on the Owner of the root definition prompted questions about administrators as Customers and again the potential benefit of the system. It can be argued that the employees as Actors have sufficient power to damage the system through lack of co-operation or falsification of performance figures. This might in the end cause the system to collapse but it did not appear inevitable. So the system appeared devised for and to the benefit of primarily the administrators. This could go some way to explaining the bewilderment of the employees.

2.12.8 Three brief Environmental constraints are given above but there are probably many more depending on the organisation. For instance a large, office based organisation such as the civil service, will have different constraints to a small, mobile company, such as a one man, plumbing repair business.

2.13   THE 5 E'S

2.13.1 This section reviews the criterion by which the Transformation in CATWOE would be judged. It was at this point that the way performance measurement is interpreted - rather than its actual structure - really began to appear significant. The transformation of performance into measured items appeared relatively straightforward (especially given quantitative data) but the interpretation of its worth varied considerably.

2.13.2 Efficacy (does the means work?) - Although many of the outputs are achieved in many organisations there are gaps. The methods for processing performance information is theoretically straightforward. Statistical and accounting methods, if applied as designed, should provide robust and comparable data. Consequently the means can be deemed as working even if the results are not always useful.

2.13.3 Efficiency (are minimum resources used?) - It appears that from the complaints about increased workloads the data collected on performance may not be collected as efficiently as it should. Schemes that take advantage of existing information should prove less resource hungry but in organisations where this is not possible there may have to be some trade off with an increased use of resources at the beginning.

2.13.4 Effectiveness (does the T help the attainment of longer term goals related to O's expectations?) - The longer term goals of senior managers will be varied and gauging expectations could be difficult. The data gathering and interpretation may well only be part of an overall strategy. The goals of the people involved in those activities at variance with the system owner. This may be due to conflicting

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worldviews or alternatively a lack of explicitness in communication of the owner's goals.

2.13.5 Ethicality (is T a moral thing to do?) - This area is made difficult by the multiple-perspectives on the rights and wrongs of management. At one end of the spectrum it could be argued that reducing people and their work to measurements demeans dignity and offends human rights. For administrators in large organisations however there is no way personal knowledge of each individual can be gained. Summary figures or measurements may be better morally than ignoring employees altogether, especially if health and safety issues are included.

2.13.6 Elegance (is T aesthetically pleasing?) - A clearly presented set of data providing a comprehensive view of an organisations overall performance does have a certain elegance in simplicity and the scope for comparison. Placed in a human context elegance raises similar issues to ethicality in that perhaps it is not pleasing to summarise a set of complex relationships and processes in a table of measurements.

2.14 CONCEPTUAL MODEL

2.14.1 Following on from further analysis a conceptual model of performance measurement definition and application was developed (Figure 2.4). The environmental constraints have been compensated for by introducing elements of appreciation and understanding. These include actions to gain information on the organisation context and the values that are in priority within that context. The aspects of organisation member performance is more specifically determined by the types of measures, their ease of accumulation and testing. The testing not only incorporates effectiveness but also the values

measuring and abstraction are perceived to represent. All of which impact on the transformation.

2.14.2 The left side of the diagram contains the many different areas of information that need to be sought before embarking on performance measurement. Moving across to the right, more practical considerations appear before measures are devised and then tested before refining and reapplying and publishing if appropriate.
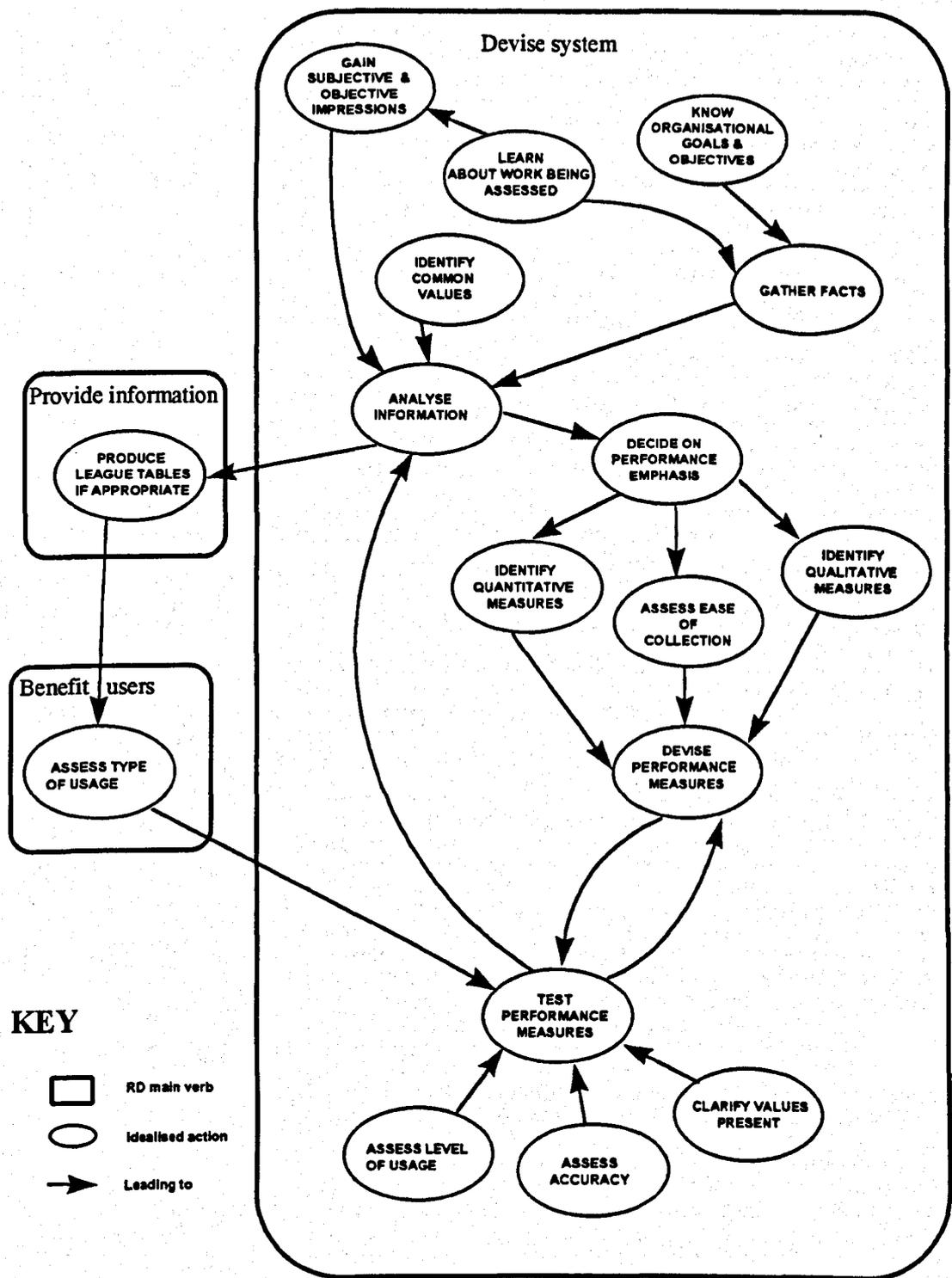
Figure 2.4 - Conceptual model of performance measurement definition
and application

2.14.3 The conceptual model included a number of well-established procedures in performance measurement, such as identifying qualitative measures and assessing ease of collection. It also however included areas that are currently either ignored or are covered insufficiently such as identify common values or clarify values present.

2.14.4 The main themes highlighted by the comparison of the conceptual model to reality form the remainder of this study and are summarised in Figure 2.5. In order to explore these issues further the approach was widened within the Action Research paradigm.

2.14.5 The most noticeable aspect of this particular conceptual model apart from the absence of any attempts to match the scheme to environment is the focus on improvement of the measures rather than the performance. This is in part due to the original root definition but this in turn was based on the initial literature review (Hebel 1995a).

Conceptual Model	Present in generic 'real world'
Learn about work being assessed	Performance measures are not applied at random so some knowledge of the environment must be gathered. The exception is where very general measures such as profit are applicable.
Identify common goals	This is interpreted as meaning the goals of both manager and employee and it is possible that this is an area of neglect. The goals of PM could be quite different.
Gain subjective and objective impressions	This may not be done explicitly and have considerable effect on what is considered important or measurable.
Know organisational goals/objectives	In simple terms of manufacturing or service this should not be difficult unless organisation is large and diversified.
Gather facts	Again scale could make this difficult.
Analyse information	The basis of analysis will depend on the background and knowledge of the analyst - this may not have been given sufficient consideration in the past.
Decide on performance emphasis	Given that this is checked out with those using the measures emphasis should be OK, it could however lead to some aspects appearing more important than others which may cause problems.
Identify qualitative measures	This can prove difficult without a proper definition of quality. It is however done with satisfaction surveys and product quality assurance.
Assess ease of collection	Given the earlier rich picture on attitudes towards PM this may be neglected at times. Not everyone is numerate and information is not always easily extracted from current work practices.
Identify quantitative measures	Items that are easily countable are probably most obvious and therefore this stage should not be difficult.
Devise performance measures	Given that the previous stages have been understood and worked through this should not - in theory - be difficult.
Test performance measures	This appears to be done but test criteria may vary e.g. measures that are useful in government planning may be irrelevant to those being measured.
Clarify values (and norms) present	Not done explicitly although identifying the goals of those participating might give some clue. It is this part of the model that should help sort out the different levels of value placed upon the workplace.
Assess level of usage	This activity would come much later in the process and may be neglected. Alternatively the usage may play a very small part in some greater scheme that may not warrant the effort put into gathering information.
Assess type of usage	Ideally PM are used to monitor, maintain or improve performance. If the measures aren't used for this purpose then problems may occur. If they are used to castigate groups or promote conflict then the usage is inappropriate and should be questioned.
Assess accuracy	A common complaint of PMs (from rich picture) is inaccuracy. It is caused many ways and at times may even be imagined but again perhaps this later stage activity is neglected.
Produce league tables if appropriate	For large or public organisations comparison across groups or regions may be necessary. This results in a further distillation of the figures and should link in with level and type of usage.

Figure 2.5 - Table of conceptual model comparison with the 'real world'

2.15 OVERVIEW

2.15.1 Figure 2.6 shows an overview of the preliminary analysis undertaken and is built upon in consequent research. It is included here as it was the first attempt to consolidate the approach taken using the terminology of SSM if not adhering strictly to its mode of analysis.

2.15.2 The upper part of the diagram summarises the initial point of enquiry and the key areas that prompted the themes outlined in Figure 1.2. The relevant systems and some potential models along with the case studies are indicated below the introduction. These do not directly correlate but are possibilities that in practice were mixed, matched and compared.

2.15.3 The lower section of the diagram is based on the findings described in later chapters but is included here as the process of enquiry was highly iterative and linked in with the social system and intervention analysis already alluded to.

2.15.4 Action to improve the situation is not prescribed in this diagram as at the time of composition there were no specific intentions. As the research progressed the outcome varied from local interventions in case studies to proposing a method by which values could be discussed and improve the adoption of performance measures. Full details are described in consequent chapters.

history

Performance
measurement
schemes aren't
as useful as they
could be

Managers
Devisors of PM schemes
Researchers/Writers on PM

the situation
as a culture

TASKS
Define PM in organisations
Identify Problems
Look at possible causes

ISSUES
Differences in priorities of manager & worker
Sub-optimisation of organisations purpose
Over-emphasis of numerical measures

analysis of the
intervention

'social system'
analysis

'political system'
analysis

}

RELEVANT SYSTEMS
• to provide information on organisation
• to measure success or failure
• to keep track of large organisations
• to exert some control
• to set standards

MODELS
• Causal
• Conceptual
• Metaphorical
• Influence

SITUATION
• Police
• School
• Quakers
• Construction Industry

Differences between models and real world
• Differences in attitudes towards what is important at work
•A culture of uniqueness - the strength of a team is it's difference to others
• A subjective rather than objective environment
• An entrenchment of values at a pre-work age
• The family as a blue-print for organisations
• A 'them and us' syndrome based on reward & punishment model

STREAM OF
CULTURAL
ANALYSIS

Changes: systemically desirable culturally feasible
•Values for many organisations set beyond living or generations memory
• Change cannot be brought about without a sharing of values
• Values cannot be imposed only existing ones reprioritised

action to improve
the situation

LOGIC-BASED STREAM
OF ANALYSIS

Figure 2.6 - Overview of SSM process applied to problems with performance measurement

2.16 CONCLUSION

By adopting action research principles helped to maintain a practical application focus for the research which otherwise might have been difficult. Drawing on other systems ideas helped to check assumptions and to reduce the risk of becoming so concerned with the methodology that the situation is not actually improved. In addition all studies only progressed once commitment from both clients and analyst was agreed. The exchange of information and perceptions became as much a part of the method of study as the techniques of collating information.

CHAPTER 3

THE FEATURES OF
PERFORMANCE MEASUREMENT:
A FAD OR USEFUL ACTIVITY?

SUMMARY

This thesis started with a search for reasons why implementing performance measurement schemes in the workplace experienced such difficulty despite many attempts to clarify the process and warn of the pitfalls. This difficulty is evident in the attention paid to it by the media and the numbers of publications covering the subject. Historically performance measurement was the provenance of monarchs, religious groups and the military. The origins of today's performance measurement schemes lie with merchants and accountants and it is difficult to imagine how businesses could survive without reference to at least the performance indicator of profit. Contemporary performance measurement though is applied to a much wider environment. All types of group are likely to make some assessment of its performance as an organisation and very often that of its members. It is from this point that the research attempts to gain a fuller understanding of the process of measuring human activity in any group.

3.1 SHORT CHRONICLE OF PERFORMANCE MEASUREMENT

3.1.1 Performance measurement has existed for as long as a means of documenting progress has existed. It has proved both useful and detrimental. Prior to 3000BC the Babylonians used clay tablets to measure agricultural yield. In the Old Testament of the Bible there are a number of books (Numbers and 1 Chronicles especially) dealing primarily with statistical data. In the story of Moses in

Exodus, a group of Jews are instructed to make bricks and are set performance targets for each day. The targets were met but consequently made more difficult to attain by reducing the resources available. Failure to meet the new targets resulted in punishment and this contributed to the reasons for exodus across the Red Sea (Smart, 1980).

3.1.2   Military logistics further the requirement for practical detail in order to move troops around with some degree of success. Battles are traditionally rated by numbers killed, injured or captured. Progress is gauged by the amount of ground taken or the number of victories won. The use of propaganda can exaggerate these figures further. The aim of this is an increased alarm in the enemy but the adverse side effects can be complacency in the protagonist and post-war scepticism about the information quoted (Marshall, 1995).

3.1.3   The story of Moses and military logistics may seem a long way from present day organisational problems but in many ways the pattern of expectation still exists. It may be caused by a human need to control the environment or the use of religious texts as moral philosophy for a largely illiterate population. Whatever the reason, those in a position of power seem to find setting targets and attainment of those goals a necessity. Those being measured must either maintain their performance in order to survive or fear reprisal if targets are not met. This message is consistently reinforced through both religious and secular teaching. In simple terms the outcome must be maintenance of the performance or some change in it, otherwise there would be a collapse of the measurement process.

3.1.4   One fundamental characteristic of performance measurement is use of numbers or scores to indicate the level of achievement. This has a great appeal in providing a simple summary of an organisation's

progress. Numbers can include profit made; numbers in membership or staff employed; products made and costs incurred. This sort of analysis is based on an accounting policy that originated in the use of tally sticks after the Norman Conquest (Cowie, 1973) and was refined in the nineteenth century on their abolition. This was a time of much smaller organisations, simpler business processes and an entirely different social structure. It could be argued that the entire method of accountancy is steeped in archaic values, apparently numeric and objective but actually very subjective, especially when concerned with the stock market and share price.

3.1.5 Qualitative measures also exist, in the way we form our first impressions of a newcomer. We may not consciously measure the judgements made but in a matter of seconds a person's clothing, body language, words, intentions can be appraised and not always correctly (Tannen, 1986; Yalom, 1991). Measurement of various aspects of human behaviour have been the pursuit of psychologists for some time. Clinical tests for intelligence or attitudes, for instance, first appeared at the beginning of this century (Allport and Vernon, 1931). These have mostly been based on the closely observed and documented performance of certain tasks. In more recent years more widely applicable means of assessment such as Belbin (1981) team profiles and the MBTI[1] (Briggs and Myers, 1987) have sought to gauge individual and team strengths in order to enhance performance of groups.

3.1.6 On a wider scale performance measurement in the workplace has been typified in modern times by persona of the time and motion man. Despite the humanising intentions of Gilbreth to produce a less tiring work environment (Huczynski and Buchanan, 1991) this

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[1] Myers-Briggs Type Indicator

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person is epitomised by a clipboard and stopwatch. He/she would observe people undertaking certain tasks and determine the optimum work rate. This is an advantage to those working on piece work but is much less attractive if the wage is set. The result expected by those being measured was usually an instruction to work harder for the same money or for the task to be mechanised. Even now this activity is perceived as threatening even though the term 'time and motion' has been avoided by professional managers for some years.

3.1.7   Over the past 20 years there has been more emphasis on performance management and systems of monitoring (Lucey, 1991; Armstrong, 1994; Cole, 1996). This is in recognition of the increased need for management given the greater size and complexity of organisations. With increase in scale comes potential for economies of scale and a greater need for efficiency and measurement where direct supervision is not feasible.

3.1.8   Kaplan and Norton (1992) attempted to combat problems with traditional financial performance measures by devising the balanced scorecard. This is a means of taking four perspectives on work: financial, customer, internal business and innovating and learning. Their intention was to provide a more balanced view of a business and is supported by the work of Garratt (1987) and Senge (1992) on learning organisations

3.1.9   Perhaps the most obvious aspect of present day performance measurement is performance related pay (PRP). It is based on theories of reward management and traditional commercial bonus payment (Armstrong, 1994). It has become increasingly popular in the UK public sector. Allied with the threat of unemployment it is considered by some to be all that is required to ensure best performance (Harvey-Jones, 1994). Access to ever-improving

technology allows easier processing of data as well as better means of presenting the information and has made PRP seem both attractive and easy to administer.

3.1.10 Whatever the practical face or outcome of performance measurement the measures themselves appear to have certain generic characteristics. Hence this thesis is concerned not with the specific issues of PRP or quality assurance, for instance, but in the responses and underlying issues surrounding them.

3.2 GENERAL ATTRIBUTES OF PERFORMANCE MEASUREMENT

3.2.1 Performance measurement is not new. The earlier sections demonstrate that it carries with it a legacy of stereotypes and apprehensions. One consequence of this is that performance measurement schemes are expected to have certain characteristics or general attributes and prompt particular responses.

3.2.2 A good Management Information System (MIS) should provide an accurate summary of the accomplishments of an organisation (Armstrong, 1994). Measurement should be taken at a variety of levels from charting individual progress to declaring public success compared with competition. The MIS should be flexible enough to adapt to changes in the environment and robust enough to cope with fluctuations in data. Most of all it should provide meaningful data to the right audience.

3.2.3 The specification of an ideal performance measurement scheme is clear and well documented. Lucey (1991), Armstrong (1994) and White (1995) all state the key design points are identifying the right audience, gathering useful information, and presenting the findings in

the right way - on the surface not a difficult task. The widespread use of computers certainly helps with the last two requirements and surely one would not embark on such an activity if the audience was not known? They all state the advantages of a good MIS include summarising important data on which to make strategic and forecasting decisions and detection of potential strengths and weaknesses. The instructions are so clear and the advantages so beneficial, it is difficult to see how an MIS could ever fail.

3.2.4   The influences on the success of a performance measurement scheme however are both enormous and disparate. Figure 3.1 summarises the key factors but this diagram can only hint at the complexity and risks involved.
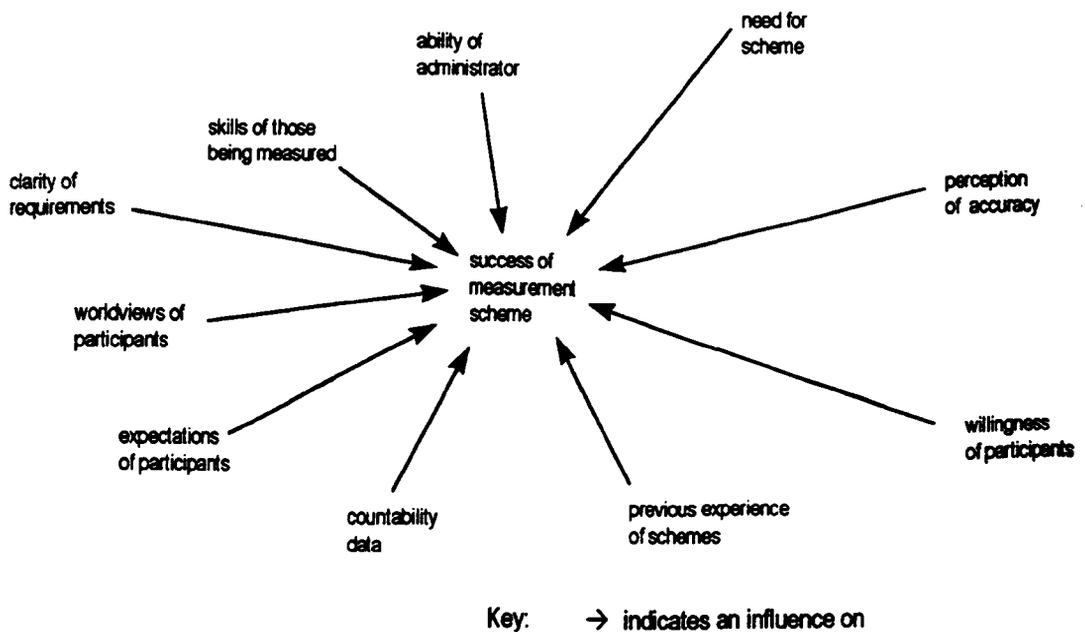
Figure 3.1 - Influences on the success of performance measurement in the workplace

3.2.5   The literature also clearly outlines the risks involved in performance measurement. White (1995) warns of measuring too much in

excessive detail, Lucey (1991) about the importance of finding the right source and audience, Armstrong (1994) about the meaningfulness of the measures to the working environment. They all go to considerable lengths to offer a practical way forward to managers. In practice however MIS still experiences considerable difficulties with alienation of employees who resent collecting the information and managers who are not quite sure what to do with it. An example of this is the school league tables that, although used in education, seem to be of more interest to the media and Government.

3.2.6   Holloway, Lewis and Mallory (1995) have compiled a selection of papers on the issues involved in management and performance measurement and highlight three core themes:

1.   Performance is multidimensional and multidisciplinary;

2.   The setting of performance measures implies the setter has power;

3.   There is, therefore, a need for careful matching of performance measures to each unique situation.

Failure to appreciate the consequences of each of these themes can result not only in the downfall of the scheme. It can also produce misleading information for customers, demotivation of a workforce or disruption of an organisation if the wrong information is collected and acted upon. Both groups and individuals are affected.

3.2.7   Figure 3.2 is a development on Figure 3.1 and summarises the causes and effects of issues raised in this section. The diagram adopts multiple-cause conventions with each arrow indicating a cause or contribution to the succeeding item. The four statements in boxes are highlighted as they have the most contributory factors associated with them.   They are in effect the key outcomes of efforts to make

Figure 3.2 - Multiple-cause diagram of the causes of successful performance measurement and its impact on the workplace

performance measurement successful. Three specifically mention performance but the fourth (Group morale) was an area that grew in importance as the diagram was developed. Although not a single or even necessary cause of successful performance, or its measurement, its causal factors lend themselves to newer balanced measurement schemes.

3.3   FEATURES OF NUMERIC DATA

3.3.1   It is at this point we need to look more closely at the traditions of numeric information. As mentioned, counting products, tasks completed, sales or conquests, has become established practice over time. The modern context presents somewhat different challenges particularly in the nature and size of the organisations, but counts or rates still characterise measurement. Why should this be so in such a different environment?

3.3.2   Perhaps this is not too surprising as the collection of such quantitative data is frequently considered more objective than qualitative data. Its conciseness also making it seem easier to utilise than written reports or minutes of meetings. Checkland and Scholes (1990 p.112) observed this phenomena in the NHS where:

> *"Much attention within the NHS has been directed to the idea of Performance Indicators (PI's) against which health care provision might be judged. Many people feel particularly satisfied if they can find an indicator which can be expressed quantitatively. In systems terms however measures of performance should never be one-dimensional, should never be plucked out of thin air, and should never be defined in a vacuum; they are one part of a description of a system, and cannot usefully be regarded in isolation."*

3.3.3 Ackoff (1993) supports this statement by stating *"Management should focus on interactions rather than actions. Practices selected by benchmarking seldom take interactions into account."*. But how can we gather information on interactions? Furthermore how can we represent it in such a way as to be easily understood and be capable of giving a realistic assessment of performance at any one time? This task is made doubly difficult if employees feel that measures - quantitative and qualitative - are inadequate and unrepresentative of their hard work. Simplistic counts appear to ignore the interactions and relationships that make working for organisations worthwhile and without which they would be simply production lines run by automata.

3.3.4 One argument is that numbers imply a soundness of data that opinions of success just does not have. This argument stems from the differences between objectivity and subjectivity. The strong influence of scientific thought over the past few centuries and particularly the scientific management school - from Taylor, Gantt, Gilbreth and others (Lucey, 1991; Cole, 1996) - constantly endorses the appeal of apparent objectivity. Even the human relations school of thought (Herzberg, McGregor, Maslow[2]) supports the categorisation of objectives and the measurement of same.

3.3.5 Checkland and Scholes (1990) have undertaken much research within the NHS and comment on their preference for a quantitative indicator, often with the appearance of it having been chosen at random. The use of numbers to indicate changes in performance also implies objectivity in the use of 'pure' facts, uncluttered by subjective judgements. According to Lucey (1991) numeric data in the

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[2] See references for scientific management for background information

workplace is also less likely to be challenged especially when sophisticated statistical methods have been applied.

3.3.6 When talking about measurement as statistics we come across a further hurdle to their successful usage, the quote *"There are lies, damn lies - and statistics"* (Rees, 1994 p.123) is often used to discredit performance calculations. This almost century old comment, attributed variously to both Mark Twain and Disraeli, typifies many a reaction to official figures. Maxims such as these frequently find a lasting place in people's memories and do little to further the idea of the usefulness of performance statistics. Earlier than this Andrew Lang stated *"He uses statistics as a drunken man uses lamp-posts - for support rather than illumination"* (Cohen and Cohen, 1986).

3.3.7 In systems theory the monitoring of system performance is included in many different methodologies. For example, in early cybernetics models (Wiener, 1954) a feedback loop with a measurement function was fundamental to the whole concept. In soft systems methodology (Checkland, 1981) conceptual models usually contain feedback mechanisms and a the final comparison of the ideal and actual is crucial to the methodology. The Viable Systems Model (Beer, 1979, 1981, 1985) is based around a set of systems connected by indices of performance. Whether soft or hard in origin the methodologies imply that performance measurement is tangible and often quantifiable, supporting the appeal of numeric data.

3.4 FEATURES OF INFORMATION

3.4.1 Mingers (1996) has attempted to provide an evaluation of the main theories of information. He concludes, after reviewing 16 distinctive proposals, that no definition of information can exist without

meaning. He finds the theories of MacKay/Luhmann and Dretske to offer the most potential but with a preference for Dretske because the definitions matched common usage of both terms.

3.4.2   What is apparent from Minger's assessment is that 'pure' information can only be disentangled from meaning by a process of gross simplification. This is not to say there is no worth in it but that worth is closely tied in with meaning to the recipient. Direct parallels between performance measurement and information can be drawn especially when looking to common usage. Performance measurement is not an entirely theoretical field but one closely linked to real world activities of business, services and other organisations. Consequently it can be argued that it is not only the actions or performance that needs to be measured but the *meaning* placed on it as well.

3.4.3   Hintikka (1968) reasons that the worth of information is measured by the amount of uncertainty we are relieved of once we find that certain information is true. This is an interesting theory to apply to performance measurement as first impressions are that measurement does not increase security but prompts a disproportional anxiety. Whether this is due to uncertainty or certainty is debatable. It could be that the measures confirm to individuals that they are not performing to their full potential. Alternatively uncertainty could be promoted by having their performance represented in a way that is alien to them and that perhaps implies they are not doing their best when actually they are.

3.4.4   Checkland and Scholes (1990) define information as equal parts of data plus meaning. Although both information systems and organisational performance measurement focus on data it can be argued that the latter is far more oriented towards human activity

systems. It is this point that prompts Mingers (1996) to prefer the more sociological oriented viewpoints of Dretske and MacKay/Luhmann. It also suggests that there are different levels of focus and meaning attributed to measurements that directly affect its use as information.

3.5 LEVELS OF FOCUS FOR PERFORMANCE MEASUREMENT

3.5.1   Certain performance measurements such as profit in a business may be more universally accepted. Even the assumption that group decisions are more reliable than individual judgement (Huczynski and Buchanan, 1991) is often shared across an organisation. The worth of such assumptions may need questioning before measurements are made. Is there really any use in measuring individual performance when what is actually wanted is a group performance? If groups are pursuing different goals whilst working together or for a larger organisation then again what should be the focus of measurement?

3.5.2   Different levels of an organisation give different priorities to performance measures. Armstrong (1994) indicates clear differences in his diagram reproduced in Figure 3.3. This diagram indicates - by use of diagonal lines - the overlap of task reality onto formal or designated roles. This is a factor that may be underestimated by standard literature or practice.

Senior Managers	Managers, Team Leaders, Professionals	Administrative and Support staff	Production Workers
Objectives (targets)	Competences	Task standards	Work Outputs
Principal Accountabilities		Main Tasks	Work measured Standards

Source: p.48 *Performance Management* by Armstrong (1994)

Figure 3.3 - Focus for performance measurement

3.5.3 White (1995) is keen to point out that it is often assumed that people join a particular organisation because they identify with their goals or ethos and that they have a clear idea of what the organisation is trying to achieve. He goes on to state that this is not the case and that the majority of people join organisations - especially as employees - for far more general reasons, such as it was the only job on offer, or it seemed like a good place to work. Hence it is hardly surprising, particularly in large organisations, that the employees or members are uncomprehending of management directives.

3.5.4 The five main needs for performance measurement are listed in Figure 3.4. All are legitimate and fair requirements, however each carries its own advantages and disadvantages. These perceptions of worth may be directly attributable to the level of focus.

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3.5.5   From the previous sections we find that different parts of an organisation have distinct requirements of performance measurement. The information itself can be defined in many ways and attributed disparate meaning. If the focus is on numeric data then there are certain risks that need to be considered. In particular the place of measurement within human activity systems poses many problems that may be conceptually explainable but realistically troublesome to overcome. The following section outlines the further investigation of this matter.

Need	Advantages	Disadvantages
Need for accurate and concise information where there is much available	♦ Senior management has summarised information at fingertips ♦ Broad comparisons possible ♦ Trend forecasting possible	♦ Not all organisational activities are suitable ♦ Mistakes can easily be made ♦ Can't account for subtlety or occasional fluctuations ♦ Can become misinformation
Provide meaningful information on large or geographically diverse organisations	♦ Enables large scale comparisons ♦ Identifies strong/weak spots ♦ Enables international strategy to be developed	♦ Doesn't account for cultural differences ♦ Counting rules difficult to establish ♦ Local variations possible ♦ Not all organisations activities are suitable
Need to monitor organisations continuing viability	♦ Indicates how well an organisation is functioning ♦ Supports management or control functions	♦ Focus is on quantitative rather than qualitative data ♦ Results in finance taking priority over everything else
To addresses accountability	♦ Encourages individual awareness and responsibility for performance ♦ Forms basis of PRP	♦ Encourages focus on target rather than performance ♦ Changes emphasis according to what is measured
To allow public comparison	♦ Allows easy assessment of competitors ♦ Encourages improved performance via competition	♦ Can be used against an individual or organisation ♦ Can be demotivating for staff

Figure 3.4 - Summary of purpose, advantages and disadvantages of performance measurement

3.6 THOSE WHO WANT TO MEASURE PERFORMANCE

3.6.1 The previous section suggests that a great deal of understanding is required about who and what is being measured if a scheme is to be successful. A key figure in the implementation of any MIS will be the setter of the targets and the designer of the scheme. This may or may not be the same person. In fact a large organisation may well have a team of people devising a scheme for a group of senior managers. This section covers the influence of managers on measures within an organisation.

3.6.2 Senior managers traditionally spend much of their time in meetings and are required to take a strategic viewpoint. Managers in large organisations often require simplification of copious amounts of information in order to act quickly if required. Consequently their priorities will be on a distillation of facts and figures. Fine detail or long reports will be unappealing or simply impractical.

3.6.3 The demands of a managerial role will often require individuals to adopt a different Weltanschauung than the one they held prior to becoming a manager. This German word meaning literally 'world-perception' was first used in English by writer, William James in the mid-19th century (Ayto, 1991). It is used to indicate an individual's or group's understanding of the world in which they live. New managers will have to adjust their Weltanschauung in order to make strategic decisions, appraise performance, co-ordinate staff and prioritise decision making. The mental model on which such decisions are made is likely - at least in part - to be unconscious. This makes explanation of some actions difficult to verbalise. Certain procedures and information will seem inherently 'right' and others will not.

3.6.4   An example is provided by Dyer (1993) who notes that by showing a preference for a particular approach indicates application of *"their own visions and techniques to problems they encounter before readily accepting others"*. He argues for instance that real systems thinkers are mostly unaware that they are applying a discipline to their actions and interventions, but rather, are simply flexible and open in their approach. He further notes that those that do consciously adopt a systems approach will always show a preference for the general principles of that approach. This of course does not only apply solely to systems methodologies but to any problem solving, managerial or analytical method.

3.6.5   It may be useful to further investigate the role of the evaluator in light of their world-view here. Do evaluators or interventionists want to facilitate the emancipation of many, increase the status of a few or simply feather their own nest? Realistically they are probably trying to achieve a range of goals but this is not necessarily how they are seen.

3.6.6   The role of a new manager or consultant to an organisation is an especially sensitive one. It can be compared with introducing a new organism to an ecosystem, where because of its different characteristics presenting an unknown quantity puts other creatures on the defensive. This makes values, norms and world-views difficult to explicate, without considerable trust being established.

3.7   THE INFLUENCE OF THE PERFORMANCE MEASUREMENT DESIGNER

3.7.1   Performance measurement is essentially a means of gathering and analysing information in order to assess progress or forecast problems. All such methods will reflect the priorities of those devising them. In the case of MIS these can also be management

scientists, consultants, accountants or statisticians well versed in numerical techniques. Their emphasis will be on devising a scheme that best demonstrates numerical, statistical and graphical techniques. There would be no benefit in employing them in their appointed capacity otherwise.

3.7.2   Implementation of a different or more complex performance measurement scheme presents similar problems to many other change initiatives in organisations. As stated above, in the workplace, performance measurement schemes are often devised by someone other than those being measured. This in itself should not be a problem as it is presumed that sufficient research will be conducted beforehand. In essence they decide what is important to those requiring the information, what can be collected and consequently devise appropriate measures.

3.7.3   Nevertheless there appears to be a gap in understanding between those who want the measures and those being measured. Gummesson (1991) calls this a *perception gap* when observing it within the research community believing *"different perceptions of quality* [of research] *are often one cause of unclear specifications"*. In businesses and in management theory, the emphasis on quality is very often linked to value for money. Consequently these quantitative terms can easily dominate when performance measurement specifications are defined. Transferring this emphasis to service or social organisations' performance indicators further complicates what could be a simple issue (Pass et al, 1991).

3.8 THE PEOPLE BEING MEASURED

3.8.1 Those being managed and who contribute to the measures appear to have a different emphasis to the senior managers and designers of performance measures. They are not required to think strategically and tend to focus on their particular part of the organisation rather than the whole. They are also unlikely to be involved in the accounting or measuring function of an organisation and consequently can find it difficult to understand the purpose of MIS. In other words they hold a different world-view of their working environment with alternative priorities.

3.8.2 Lucey (1991) readily acknowledges that wherever people are involved then there will be a considerable 'soft' or behavioural element that will impinge on the effectiveness of any measurement scheme or analytical technique. White (1995) claims that when people are responsible for monitoring their own performance they tend to be more accurate and honest. Armstrong (1994) supports this with his view as enhancing empowerment.

3.8.3 There is a risk however that the figures may be improved rather than the performance. Morgan (1986) describes this as a deception devised to protect individuals in organisations that rewards success but punishes failure. Based on the supposition that there are likely to be fewer winners than losers, failure is the more common result and so problems are obscured and difficulties go undeclared.

3.8.4 Performance measurement appears to result in the opposite response to the Hawthorne Experiment (Lucey, 1991; Morgan, 1986) where workers worked harder not because of the specific changes made to their work conditions but because they felt special due to all the attention focused on them. Measurement appears to make many feel insignificant and commonplace.

3.8.5   Because what we do is measured, targets are set, standards are reached and these come to appear more substantial than the performance or the process of reaching those targets. Presenting a good set of performance statistics becomes a way of redressing the need to feel special and unique. The means of doing this though may not actually be an improvement in performance.

3.8.6   The common theme shared by all the parties mentioned above is the importance of world-view or perspective on performance measurement. Schemes are generally devised by one group, applied to another and used by a third - all with apparently conflicting world-views. This theme is explored in the next section.

3.9   WORLD-VIEWS OF PERFORMANCE MEASUREMENT

3.9.1   From the previous section it seems that the individuals involved in performance measurement play a crucial part in both defining and interpretation. Experience is interpreted through the filter of our world-view. Consequently if a performance measurement scheme does not account for what we consider important or valuable it will be considered, at the very least a chore, or at the worst useless or even harmful.

3.9.2   Checkland (1981) includes world-views as Weltanschauung. This is described as the *"part of CATWOE the (unquestioned) model of the world which makes this particular human activity system a meaningful one to consider"*. Checkland probably encouraged the consideration of world-views in systems thinking more than any other systems theorist. His emphasis appears to lie in the understanding of

different Weltanschauungen as a way of helping to see different perspectives on a problem situation.

3.9.3   Flood and Jackson (1993) interpret this somewhat differently however. They argue that the emphasis of SSM is to modify social systems by changing Weltanschauungen, but that this cannot possibly be done without also tackling the political and economic environment. Figure 3.1 attempts to summarise the influences on work performance and the world-view we take to it.

3.9.4   Checkland (1981 p.219) states *"we only seek answers to what is going on around us if seeking is a value we hold dear"*. From this we can infer that if a person does not value learning then it will be very difficult for others to educate them. Likewise if self-development or enquiry is not valued then these actions in others will be difficult to comprehend. Even then seeking out our ingrained assumptions and beliefs can be painful.

3.9.5   The left side of Figure 3.5 summarises some of the main influences on our personal values. These in turn affect the way we work or perform in organisations. They define whether 'seeking', or any other value, is considered important given the other influences at play as shown on the right side of Figure 3.5. The values combining together to make up the world-view which defines the perceptions of other human being behaviour.

3.9.6   The uniqueness of personal experience and circumstance very often creates a personal world-view based on singularity. It can be very difficult to admit that in many ways we are just the same as everyone else. Bonds with similar individuals are necessary and comforting but there are always differences to reassure this perception of distinctness (Schein, 1988).
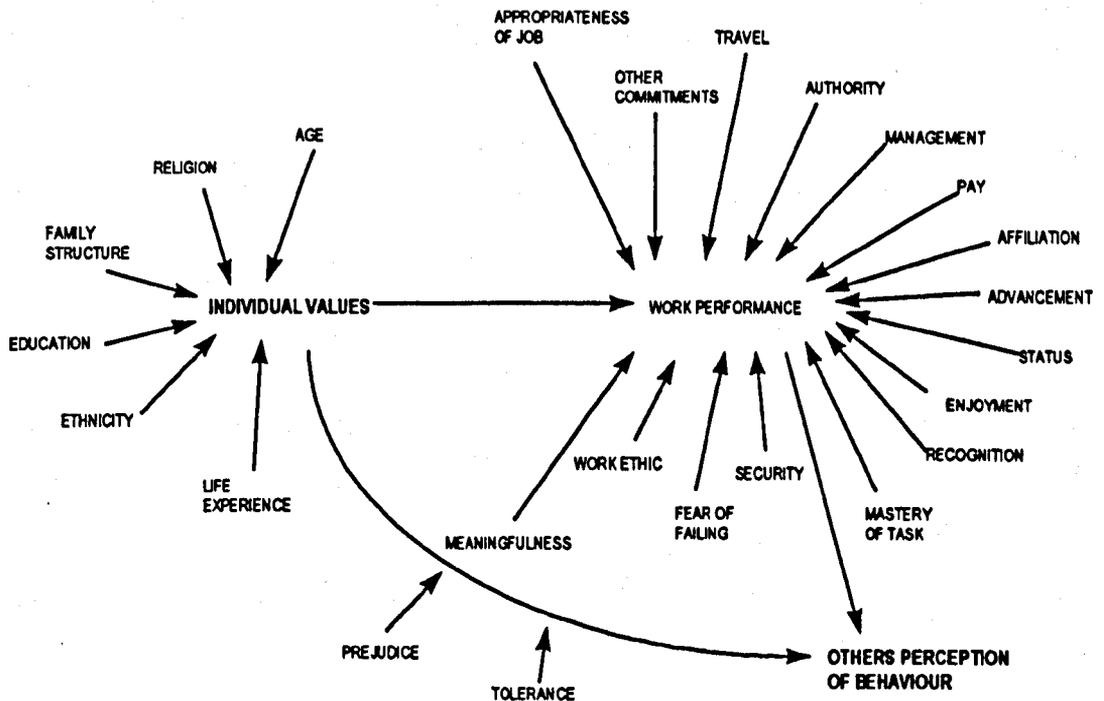
Figure 3.5 - Influences on work performance and the importance of values and perception

3.9.7 Performance measurement can challenge our personal belief that we are special, unique and important in some way to the running of an organisation. To be dispensable or to be acknowledged only by a number or series of numbers can create great discomfort. Of course performance is rarely just managed by single performance indicators or league tables, but because of the cognitive dissonance caused it can be perceived this way. All it takes is an anecdote, of mythical quality, indicating the inaccuracy of the figures and the process of performance measurement is falsified.

3.9.8 Alternatively, it can be argued that if performance measurement works then it is because those being measured subscribe to a set of values that supports attributes such as numeracy, simplicity etc. Those individuals who appear to grow and develop - according to Checkland's theory of accumulating different world-views according

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to experience - will only do so if they hold values of self-development and learning. If on the other hand they hold values such as consistency or resistance to change, anything radically different that comes within their experience will be rejected. This is not to say that both world-views cannot be held. It is unlikely however that both will prevail at the same time.

3.9.9   Checkland (1981) simplifies the key difference between humans and animals by stating that humans have a special kind of consciousness and consequently are capable of holding many different Weltanschauungen throughout their lifetime. This implies that humans are infinitely flexible. The difficulties experienced in any change management process indicates that such flexibility is not common or easily learned.

3.9.10 James (Ayto, 1991) decided that any view of the world is a compromise between the objectivity given and that personally desired. He objected to the logical but unreal systems proposed by metaphysicists and idealists. The supreme test of truth for James was the conduct it inspired and this conduct represented the Weltanschauung. His argument for Pragmatism is known to have influenced the later philosophers Wittgenstein and Ayers (Shand, 1994). These in turn appear to have influenced a later generation of systems theorists.

3.9.11 The implication of holding many different Weltanschauungen are that they can be many and varied. Checkland (1981) acknowledges Popper's observation that moving from one mental framework to another is not easy. What is more conceivable is that variations upon a theme occur. Core values change priority over time but maintain a thread of continuity. Intellectual challenge and exploration prompt

what may look like more varied Weltanschauungen than particularity or meekness for instance.

3.9.12 Many Weltanschauungen explored over the centuries can all be applied to the responses demonstrated by those involved in performance measurement. The universal truths believed to exist by Aquinus (Kenny, 1980) could represent the views of senior managers looking for general trends in a large workforce. Alternatively Nietzsche's Perspectivism (Shand, 1994) outlines many 'families' of truths, based on different systems of values. To Nietzsche each individual was entitled to find his or her own way whilst recognising that some will prefer to lead whilst others follow.

3.9.13 An alternative world-view of management is that of it being based on a patriarchal model. This results in a conceptual prison where managers and people in authority are assumed to be male. Management theorists may be considered to be in their own conceptual prisons. This is based on decades of publications written by male writers reflecting views of a traditional business structure where man is assumed to have dominated.

3.9.14 Moreover, alongside this prison is another. This one contains feminist writing that implies that women would have done it better. What must be noted here is the opposite of patriarchy is not matriarchy as the emphasis remains on adult, superior or royal control. Matriarchy or patriarchy implies an imposition of performance measures leading to a certain passivity or vulnerability. Perhaps the opposite is a less hierarchical model or fraternity as suggested by Greer (1970). But how might this change performance monitoring? Self or peer assessment seems the obvious answer but this may lead to some of the other difficulties outlined in this chapter.

3.9.15 Invisible power is recognised as existing but by its very nature is difficult if not impossible to detect. Values and world-views must come into this category as even the cleverest psychometric test (e.g. MBTI, Belbin, PAPI etc) may find it difficult to unearth some of the deeply entrenched and complex motives behind our behaviour. This invisible power could be the one behind the resentment of MIS. Those on the measuring end of a performance measurement scheme resent the loss of their own power over their work and the assertion of the setters. The setter (Holloway et al, 1995) may not even realise that it is received in this way but even if they do, they may think this is right and proper or feel a need to be more accountable.

3.10   CONCLUSION

Performance measurement is not just about collecting accurate and appropriate information. There are many influences and unexpected consequences. Not least of these are the value systems held by those involved at all levels of an organisation. These are mutually supportive of those represented by organisations and their sub-groups. The consequences of not appreciating these systems and drawing on them in order to assist the decision making process may be serious. The following chapters look at what these consequences might be and how we might assess the environment into which performance measurement is introduced.

CHAPTER 4

PERFORMANCE MEASUREMENT
IN THE CONTEXT OF THE CASE STUDIES

SUMMARY

This chapter summarises the findings from the four case studies based on questionnaire and interview results as well as an informal review of local literature. The main trends are highlighted based on a comparison of the studies. Speculation on some of the reasons behind the attitudes towards performance measurement helps to provide grounding for further chapters.

4.1   INTRODUCTION

4.1.1   The four case studies upon which this research is based are described in the ensuing section. This provides a brief description of the background and context of each one which are consequently referred to using the shorthand terms CID, Builders, Quakers and School. This is followed by a summary of what the case study participants identified as performance measures and what were perceived to be their advantages and disadvantages. Figure 4.1 summarises the research base. Following sections describe the findings and explore the difficulties outlined.

Case Studies	CID	Builders	Quakers	School
Questionnaire distributed	27	10	10	26
Questionnaire returned	17	5	7	18
Number of interviewees	17	13	15	28
Specialist publications covered	18	2	32	10
Number of observations	20	16	27	35

Figure 4.1 - Summary of case study data

4.1.2 *Limehouse Criminal Investigation Department (CID)*

The CID studied is one of around 60 in the Metropolitan Police in London. The main responsibility of this department is to record and respond to reports of crime made to local police divisions. Once the initial details are noted CID officers investigate the crime, interviewing witnesses and victims, following possible enquiries, keeping meticulous documentation and gathering evidence. The Police as a whole face an ever-changing political and sociological environment. At times they find it difficult to adjust to the change in pattern of both social and criminal behaviours that has occurred over the last ten to twenty years (Wolff Olins, 1988; Schlesinger and Tumber, 1994).

The CID looked at in this study is in the East End of London and covers a population of around 80,000. It comprises 50 to 60 police officers and civilian support staff. At the time of the research it was headed by a Crime Manager, a Detective Chief Inspector (DCI) assisted by two Detective Inspectors (DI's). About half of the personnel are formed of Criminal Investigation Priority Project (CIPP)1 teams, comprising one Detective Sergeant (DS) team

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[1]defined Investigation Team sizes and composition

manager, two Detective Constables (DC) and four Trainee Investigators (TI). In addition to the CIPP teams there is a Crime Desk team that administers the crime report paperwork and provides line management for the uniform officers seconded to other small teams and units. The senior CID management oversees all other groups and squads.

Most of the research (Hebel 1995b) was conducted in and around the CID offices at Limehouse Police Station. This is because the study concentrated on the collation and usefulness of performance indicators, primarily an office-based activity. Along with the rest of the Police Service they are measured by Home Office statistics on crimes recorded, arrests made and clear-ups achieved. They also set their own performance targets and compare their figures by investigation teams to assess performance. They also use a long established annual performance appraisal system for all staff. Other measures used are public satisfaction surveys, manpower levels, response times, overtime, welfare cases, and sickness.

Those consulted within the Metropolitan Police Service ranged from Area Commander to cleaner, but were mostly CID officers and civilian support staff. The rich picture on which this information is based is included as Appendix E.

4.1.3 *Mark Richardson & Co. Ltd - Building Contractors (Builders)*

The builders are based in the south east of England. They specialise in up-market renovations to old or unusual buildings and shops. They rely on their good reputation and usually receive offers of work based on word of mouth recommendations. The business is co-ordinated by two independently, self-employed, property developers who provide quotes and then if successful employ others on a sub-contracting

basis. The teams they put together and manage vary according to the skills required and the size of the job. Once reliable craftsmen are found they tend to be re-employed. Profit is the main measure of performance as without it none of the craftsmen and labourers could survive. The recognition of good craftsmanship was also considered to be an important measure, for managers as a measure of quality and for sub-contractors as a boost to self-esteem and a lead into more work (Hebel 1995c).

The UK construction industry shares characteristics with other industries but its collective features appear in construction alone. The physical nature of the product is paramount and is invariably both unique and fixed. The products, especially buildings, include in their production a great many materials and components supplied by a number of other industries, which require an equally diverse workforce (Hillebrandt, 1984). At various times during a typical small to medium scale building project one can expect to find, a client; architects; draughtsmen; carpenters and joiners; electricians; bricklayers; plasterers; painters and decorators; plumbers; roofers; scaffolders; other specialist building workers; Health and Safety Inspectors plus a range of material suppliers.

Many of the sub-contractors are manual workers or craftsmen who find themselves unprepared for the demands and complexities of sub-contracting. They work as individuals and often appear to refuse ownership of site problems, resorting to blaming other trades when something goes wrong. If another, more attractive job presents itself then a current job may well be abandoned without notice to the site manager. It is also traditional in the UK to avoid paying invoices until the last possible moment and this can cause considerable cascade failure even on small projects. This diversity has many performance consequences for the builders in this study, including difficulties in maintaining quality, significant delays to completion, and purchasing

materials plus payment problems. These problems result in a high level of bankruptcy within the industry as a whole and prove a continual threat that current performance measures seem unable to monitor or predict.

The rich picture on which this information is based is included as Appendix F.

4.1.4 *The Quakers - Wandsworth Preparative Meeting (Quakers)*

It is necessary to start with a brief description of how the Quakers undertake their activities. This is in part due to the different way they practice their religion compared with other Christian groups and also because there is a close link between the manner of worship and the conduct of business (Hebel 1997a & Hebel-Holehouse 1997).

Quakers are a Christocentric religious group established over 300 years ago as a reaction to the over complex and conflictual churches of the time. The most obvious difference between Quakers and other Christians in worship is the absence of ordained ministers and lack of prearranged liturgy. Places of worship and business are called Meeting Houses, identifiable by location. Meetings for Worship are held once or twice weekly in silence. Anyone attending may speak (minister), to the group if they feel so moved to do so. The emphasis is on sharing insights and feelings, rather than preaching, hence ministry is not prepared beforehand. Creeds and dogmas are avoided although a book of significant Quaker experiences is updated and republished every thirty to forty years. There is a very practical emphasis that includes holding regular business meetings and active involvement in secular, ecumenical and political activities (Gorman, 1981 & 1988; Hubbard, 1985; Allen, 1993).

Business Meetings are conducted in a very similar way to Meeting for Worship in that each one begins with a period of silence, after which the Clerk presents an agenda (Quaker Home Service, 1986). This agenda takes a familiar format - minutes of the last meeting, items of interest or action and other business. It includes items that range from leaking roofs to the spiritual development of the meeting. What is notably different is the response to items, which although passionate at times, rarely includes the non-listening conflict and argument that occurs at other types of business meeting. Opinion is usually voiced thoughtfully and received considerately. Once comment is heard the Clerk attempts to summarise the sense of the meeting (Sheeran, 1983) and immediately presents this back for further comment. The process is more like an intellectual argument whereby different views are reconciled by intelligent persuasion. This process sometimes takes a long time. Friends are careful to avoid applying the word consensus to the decision making process as this implies that objectors still exist. If unity cannot be achieved a further period of silence ensues in order to give those involved time to reflect. Sometimes an item is held over to the next meeting for further reflection or for more information to be obtained. Voting is never undertaken and the emphasis is on united decision. Meetings are theocratic rather than democratic (Gorman, 1981).

The benefits of going to a Meeting vary according to the individual. Examples however are the spiritual peace, resulting from a gathered meeting; a comfort derived from sharing time with people one trusts; breathing space in a hectic world; a time to reflect on the happenings of the week; a time to deal with stress (Halliday, 1991). In other words the benefits are not as religiously oriented as one might expect. Another more general appeal of Quakerism is the practicality of their beliefs, especially furthering the interests of human dignity and peace. Simplicity and equality considered vital to their existence (Allen, 1993).

The rich picture on which this information is based is included as Appendix G.

4.1.5 *Stonyhurst College, Lancashire (School)*

Stonyhurst College was founded by Jesuits 400 years ago (Muir, 1992). It was originally a boys' boarding school, however in recent years girls have been allowed into the sixth form and the numbers of day pupils are steadily increasing. The Jesuit presence is much less prominent now than in earlier years but the ethos of developing each child within the Society's rules according to their abilities, rather than stressing academic achievement still holds true (Suave, 1987). More recently it has found the need to focus on its exam successes in order to improve its place in the schools league tables and consequently continue to attract new pupils (Hebel 1995d).

One of the school's major difficulties in recent years has been adjusting to changes in societal and education trends. Single sex and boarding schools have become less popular and running a boarding school has become increasingly expensive. The decline in the numbers of adherents to the Catholic religion and those choosing to follow a vocation with the Jesuits has also narrowed the school's choice of both teachers and pupils. Like many other similar schools it faces a decline in pupil numbers although this problem is not as bad as elsewhere as many of the pupils come from Catholic countries abroad. Many of the teachers and some of the pupils are neither Catholic nor even Christian.

Income, exam results and parental satisfaction appear to be the prime measures of performance, however old boys' achievements, sporting

(especially rugby) and cadet corps activities are also considered very important (Stonyhurst Magazine, 1993, 1994, 1995).

The rich picture on which this information is based is included as Appendix H.

4.2   QUESTIONNAIRE RESULTS

4.2.1   A total of 47 out of 73 questionnaires were returned as a follow-up to the interviews conducted. This gave a return rate of 64%. More were returned by those in the police and school cases studies. They were equally distributed to those in management and non-management. Just over three-quarters (79%) were provided by males and the remainder female. The respondents were predominantly of white-European ethnic background, the average age was 34 although the range was from 16 to 58 years.

4.2.2   The first part of the questionnaire consisted of a list of values associated with work and the respondents were asked to rate them in order of importance. The statements were associated with work rather than organisations in general even though Quakers do not qualify as a business or industry. They are however a homogenous group who emphasise the practical and productive nature of their beliefs. Accordingly they form many committees and sub-groups involved in many secular areas of life. It seemed reasonable to assume their attitudes towards work would reflect this.

4.2.3   The second part of the survey contained a randomly arranged selection of organisational characteristics that described how each individual viewed their particular organisation. These focused on how individuals perceived their current situation rather than their conception of what was important.

4.2.4 Although the size of the overall response does not allow large scale statistical analysis, the return rates were good. All the surveys given to the police were returned and even the lowest returns came to 40% of those interviewed. Consequently the following results offer some considerable support to the findings of the interviews and raise issues that may be explored later in the research.

4.2.5 Figure 4.2 covers the results obtained from the first set of questions. It can be seen from the table that all the values were felt to be really important, the lowest mean being close to the median. This may have been due to the values being essentially ideal states rather than representations of reality as it stands.

4.2.6 Perhaps more interesting is the very high rating for the *intellectual stimulation*. If the respondent did not find their tasks personally challenging then they were not likely to do it well. Of course the level of intellectual stimulation is likely to be varied. For instance the Quakers might be more inclined to conceptual debates and the builders to a more technical piece of work but the principle appears the same.

4.2.7 This is also reflected by the importance given to a sense of *achievement*. Whatever the individual did and within whatever context, they appeared to need to feel as if they had done well and had satisfied their own personal standards. This is in accordance with self-actualising theories of motivation and it must be noted that the type of challenge varied considerably across the case studies according to the skills of the person concerned.

4.2.8 Although personal challenge is important, *pay* was a factor of notable secondary importance. The mean is low but so is the standard deviation for this work value. As the majority of the questionnaires

came from employment case studies this is not perhaps surprising. But work is no longer just about earning the means by which to live, it is integrated into the society in which we function. The results imply a complicated mix of reasons that make a satisfactory and hopefully productive organisational environment.

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Intellectual stimulation	47	3.60	.58
Achievement	46	3.54	.59
Creativity	47	3.21	.83
Team recognition	47	3.11	.87
Security	44	3.07	1.07
Predicatability	46	3.02	.93
Affiliation	46	3.00	.82
Personal Recognition	46	2.96	.99
Independence	47	2.94	.84
Status	46	2.89	.85
Authority	47	2.72	.99
Advancement	46	2.70	1.07
Pay	41	2.59	.89
Aesthetics	46	2.39	1.06

Figure 4.2 - Table of responses rating the importance of certain values at work
(where 4 is most important and 1 least important)

4.2.9 *Security, advancement* and *aesthetics* were more variable across the sample and may reflect the somewhat varied nature of the case study organisations. Job *security* is more tenuous in the building trade and *advancement* via management or education less likely to occur. The value of *aesthetics* is likely to be different according to the functional or artistic focus of the survey participant.

4.2.10 Overall those values that appealed to the individual's sense of well-being appeared more important than group working or status within a group. This perhaps reflects each individual's world-view in which they first and foremost draw on their own lives. Because the focus is themselves they find their context as part of a group or organisation difficult to perceive or rate highly.

4.2.11 Figure 4.3 shows the results from the second part of the questionnaire that covered 49 organisational characteristics. Those in the upper two-thirds of the table (to *requires shared background*) have a more positive tone than those in the lower third. Consequently some of those who achieved a very low rating such as *unpleasant* might be interpreted in reverse i.e. that work was mostly pleasant.

4.2.12 Although essentially descriptive, the responses focused on characteristics that ensured the respondent and the job appeared in the best light. For instance saying your job is easy can imply over confidence or under utilisation. In general they presented their current position as being *useful, important, active motivated and demanding* and if the later items are taken as inverse responses *multi-tasked, pleasant, interesting* and *co-operative*.

Descriptive Statistics

Variables	Statistics		
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Sharing humour	46	1.87	1.19
Very useful	44	1.95	1.01
Important	46	2.02	1.11
Requires common sense	45	2.02	1.48
Active	45	2.11	.98
Motivated	45	2.13	1.27
Demanding	47	2.17	1.24
Efficient	46	2.26	1.12
Involves much responsibility	47	2.28	1.08
Careful	43	2.33	1.19
Practical	41	2.44	1.32
Work as part of team	47	2.49	1.64
Well led	44	2.59	1.13
Precise	45	2.67	1.31
Common goals	45	2.67	1.46
Need to be economical	38	2.68	1.32
Safe	41	2.71	1.38
Requires much intelligence	45	2.71	1.20
Requires experience	45	2.73	1.75
Exciting	45	2.80	1.25
Inventive	42	2.98	1.46
Relaxed	46	2.98	1.29
Requires much formal education	43	3.00	1.36
Changeable	45	3.04	1.54
Well-defined	42	3.05	1.43
Idealistic	42	3.10	1.03
Requires extensive training	44	3.18	1.53
Authoritative	44	3.41	1.37
Conforming	45	3.58	1.20
Conventional	41	3.59	1.30
Closely supervised	47	3.68	1.45
Requires shared background	41	3.95	1.24
Routine	47	3.98	1.64
Badly paid	42	4.05	1.06
Predictable	43	4.09	1.29
Easy	45	4.13	1.20
Tedious	45	4.22	1.20
Slow	42	4.26	1.13
Rigid	45	4.38	1.27
Indecisive	43	4.56	1.20
Undisciplined	43	4.67	1.30
Impersonal	44	4.68	1.01
Lethargic	41	4.68	1.23
Unsatisfying	46	4.70	1.40
Narrow in scope	43	4.70	1.23
Uncooperative	45	4.93	1.05
Uninteresting	47	4.98	1.13
Unpleasant	44	5.00	1.06
Involves one task	47	5.30	1.20

Figure 4.3 -

Job characteristics rated by agreement

from page 2 of the questionnaire based on the scale

1 = most in agreement

6 = least in agreement

4.2.13 Figure 4.4 shows the types of work characteristics broken down into four categories. The three outside the cloud, *personal identity, facts* and *norms* reflect the individual and are mostly found at the extremes of the responses. They are characterised by phrases beginning with 'I'. The fourth category covers a middle ground, less related to the personal although perspective may have some influence on assessment. The purpose of the diagram is to illustrate the pattern of responses are closely related to the type of question asked. In a real world situation questions that can be related to the personal pronoun appear easier to answer than more descriptive or abstract.

4.2.14 The strongest responses mostly reflected perceptions or feelings rather than more factual statements about the environment such as 'requires working in a team' or 'requires formal education' which tended to occupy middle rating. This may be due to the varied nature of the case studies and respondents but it may also be a genuine indication of how we view the world and what we rate as important.

PERSONAL
IDENTITY

"I like to think I
do a .... job"

FACTS
"I have these skills...."

e.g. experience
background

e.g. humour sharing
useful active
important

MIDDLE GROUND
"The environment is...."

e.g. relaxed
changeable

NORMS

"It's best to say I am...."

e.g. hard working
disciplined
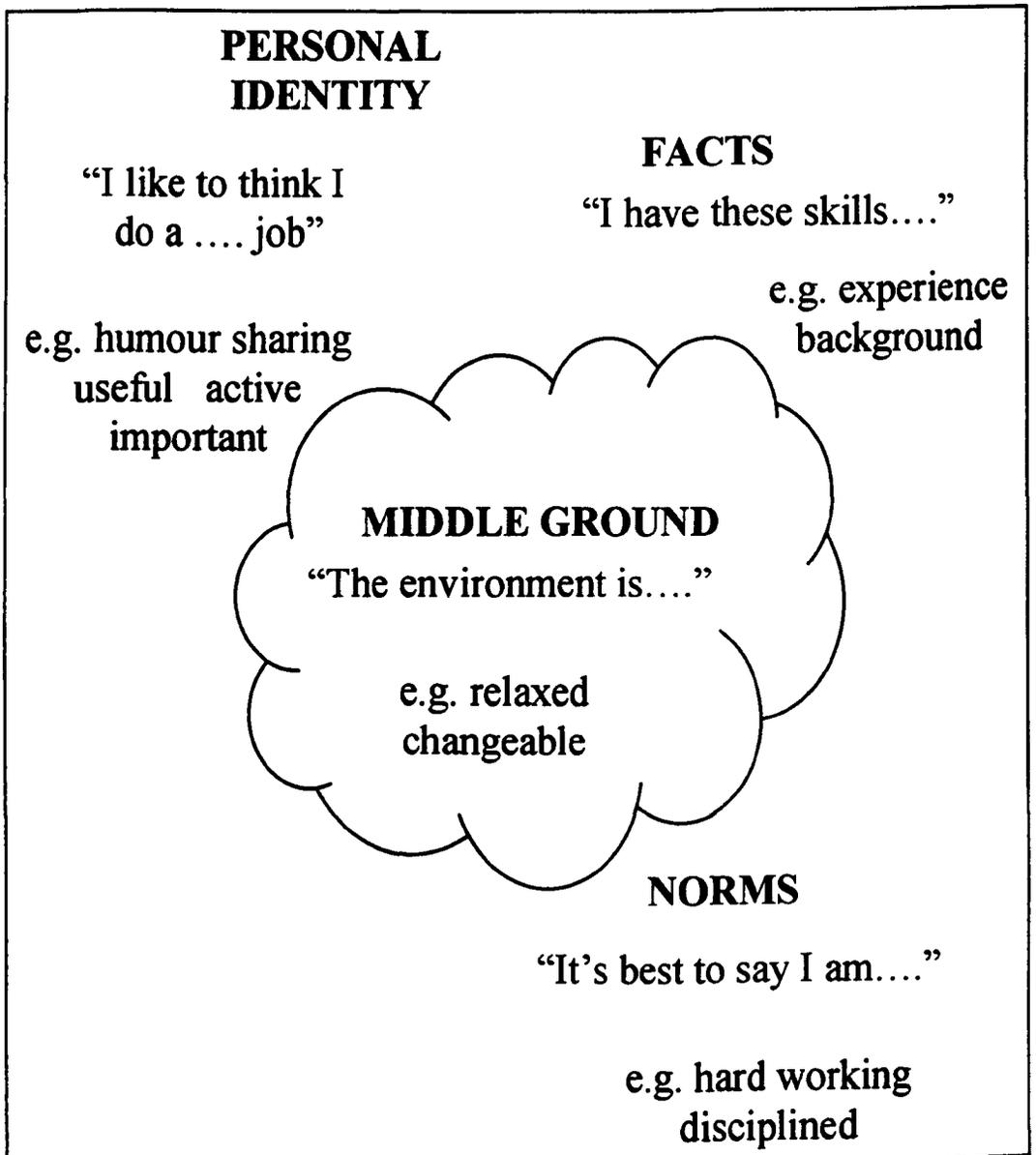
Figure 4.4 - Groupings of work characteristics assessed in survey

4.2.15 It appears that world-views supported by feelings and perception prompt strong responses. This affects what is written on questionnaires and said to interviewers. It must also affect what we consider important or useful in the workplace. Performance measurement is firmly based in the descriptive or abstract middle category but measures things that are distinctly personable. The following section looks at the interview outcomes in more depth and with this model in mind.

4.3 INTERVIEW OUTCOMES

4.3.1 Interviews were conducted at all the case study sites although the numbers of people varied. Each interview was followed by a questionnaire although not all returned it afterwards. The interview questions established the details of existing performance measures, many of the respondents cross-validating the information given by others in the case studies.

4.3.2 Organisational membership and statements of financial situation were the most common performance measures. Figure 4.5 shows a summary of the main categories. The CID and school tended to have more measures in place than the other two sites. They also both had some form of performance management system in place whereby performance of individuals was reviewed on a regular basis. For the CID this was a permanent part of the Metropolitan Police structure; for the school this only applied to students although as an unintended consequence of this study a more formal appraisal of staff was introduced after the first round of interviews.

4.3.3 Given the differences between the studies, some variation on the wording of the structured interview was required e.g. teacher was used instead of manager when interviewing sixth-form pupils, but nothing that seriously altered the meaning of the questions.

Types of measure	CID	Builders	Quakers	School
'Numbers of' and 'time taken to complete' tasks	✓			✓
Incoming and outgoing work	✓			✓
Costs incurred	✓	✓	✓	✓
Profit made		✓	✓	✓
Qualifications or commendations gained	✓			✓
Complaints received	✓	✓		
Group membership - classification and numbers	✓		✓	✓
Customer satisfaction	✓	✓		✓

✓ indicates the characteristic as present

Figure 4.5 - Types of performance measurement

4.3.4 In addition to gathering information on current practices, interviewees were asked about the ideal or desired measures. Figure 4.6 indicates the case studies' desired measures. It is necessarily couched in general terms in order to cover all the case studies, but there were notable similarities. Even the Quakers who appear to have a collective modesty about their attainments were keen to acknowledge good work, whether by an individual or group.

4.3.5 One of the most prominent findings was the importance of shared humour as the mark of a good working environment. Both interview and survey results endorsed this. The view appeared to be that if humour could be shared then group members had something in common and performance was consequently improved.

Valued performance measures	CID	Builders	Quakers	School
Recognition of activities outside job description e.g. dealing with problems, arranging social events	✓	✓		✓
Acknowledgement of work well done e.g. . completion of especially difficult piece of work	✓	✓	✓	✓
Recognition of activities which can't be measured quantifiably e.g. networking or courtesy	✓	✓		✓
Individual satisfaction e.g. personal development, happiness of staff	✓	✓	✓	✓
Shared humour e.g. the more relaxed the environment the easier it will be to communicate	✓	✓	✓	✓

✓ indicates the characteristic as present

Figure 4.6 - Summary of ideals

4.3.6　Alongside the interview and questionnaire, local literature was reviewed and both participant and non-participant observation employed. The Quakers have produced a lot of literature on their beliefs and practices and the table above only indicates the number actually surveyed. Access to the libraries of both Wandsworth Meeting and Friends House provided a wealth of material. The builders and the construction industry as a whole provide a large amount of books of construction practices and regulations but little on the nature and problems of the industry.

4.4   SUMMARY OF CASE STUDY ATTITUDES TO PM

4.4.1   A PowerPoint generated rich picture summarising the viewpoints of the case study research (Hebel 1995b, c & d) is shown at Figure 4.7. It attempts to reflect the history as well as the employee and management point of view.   As the rich picture attempts to summarise a general situation, no one component is considered more influential than another at this stage.   Consequently the many relational links are not shown.

4.4.2   The rich picture groups areas of commonality and the cloud in the middle summarises the predominantly doom-laden viewpoints of the organisations considered. Alligators are taken to be a metaphor for threat and crossed swords an indication of conflict. Speech bubbles contain phrases most often used or else précis the essence of comments.
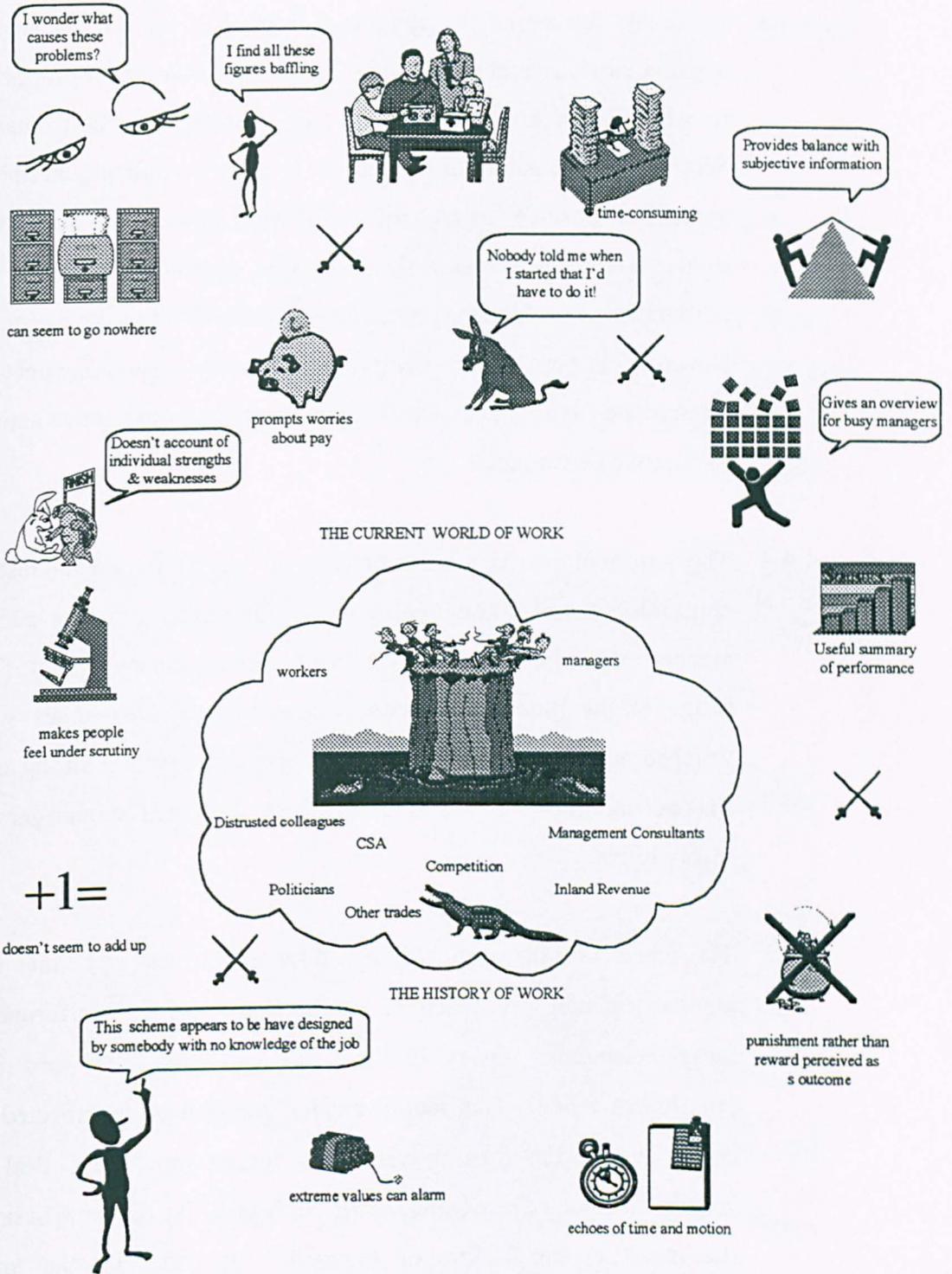
Figure 4.7 - Rich picture of attitudes to performance measurement

4.4.3   A notable feature of the comments from the case studies are the negative or distrustful remarks that seem somewhat out of proportion to what should be a simple matter of summarising performance. Whether it is the nature of the subject, or simply a difficulty in finding something 'positive' to say, was not entirely clear in the first stages of the research. Consequently a question specifically covering the advantages of performance measurement was added to the interview. Nevertheless even among managers performance measurement was often treated as an inexorable chore rather than a constructive activity to improve performance.

4.4.4   The bottom of the rich picture indicates an area of detrimental history concerning performance measurement. This implies that a certain amount of prejudging goes on before measurement occurs. The image of the time and motion review whereby individuals were watched and an optimum time set for production was a strong one. This occurs despite 'time and motion' being outdated in management theory terms.

4.4.5   The expectation that standards would be too difficult to be met was also a common preconception. It appears that for performance measurement the history is long and based on a reward and punishment model. This model implies punishment is expected to occur more often than reward. This results in a great deal of scepticism among those being measured. It may also form the basis of the cloud in the middle of Figure 4.7. It could be the latter expectation that prompted the frequent statements of data being inaccurate, thus pre-empting any figures hinting at poor performance.

4.4.6   The top left of the rich picture shows the main responses of employees to performance measurement. They range from bafflement to downright resentment, the general impression being one of

incomprehension. This may in part be due to those who were interviewed being unused to taking a strategic viewpoint. They appeared to find it difficult to imagine any real benefit from performance information.

4.4.7 The top right of the picture shows the need for managers to have summarised information. This need varied according to the size of the organisation and may well have some influence on the perception of measurement. Larger organisations probably require summarised information more than smaller groups. The type of information most popularly desired or described are listed in Figure 4.8 with examples.

	Type of performance measure	Real world example
1	Overall profit and loss	end of financial year accounts
2	Competitive advantage	market share
3	Items/paperwork processed	crime reports made, patients examined
4	Products made	cars produced, books published
5	Quality assurance rates	number of goods classed as seconds
6	Customer satisfaction	number of complaints, repeat business, media representation
7	Scores achieved	goals scored, exams passed, arrests made
8	Personnel issues	pay scales, appraisal marks, staff retention rates, training
9	Membership (e.g. of voluntary organisations)	number or type of members, changes over time
10	Objectives met	number of specific goals achieved

Figure 4.8 - Examples of performance measures

4.4.8   The middle of the picture tries to summarise the overall perception. This seems to be that administrators and workers appear to be working against each other in a tug of war rather than being on the same team. Whilst they do this it is within the context of the real world, other organisational activities and the history of the organisation. The history presented in the rich picture appears rather threatening with its alligator infested waters. This prompted two questions: firstly, who benefits from performance measurement schemes; and secondly, how do we view the workplace in the late 1990's?

4.5   BENEFITS AND PROBLEMS ASSOCIATED WITH EXISTING MEASURES

4.5.1   The usefulness of performance indicators was acknowledged only by very senior members of each group, except in the builders. They preferred to get on with the job and avoided anything they associated with paperwork whenever possible. The main benefit was seen as providing a necessary précis of large amounts of information. The easing of personnel appraisals by use of tick boxes was considered of secondary usefulness by the police. In view of the relatively little support given to performance measurement the remainder of this section focuses on the problems highlighted.

4.5.2   Figure 4.9 shows the problems highlighted in interviews. Many also occur in the original analysis and issues raised in Chapter 3. The ticks indicate in which case study each problem occurred. All those included here featured in at least two of the case study organisations.

4.5.3   The first item in the list indicates a *decrease in motivation as response to measures being perceived as just numbers*. This was most common in the schools and police where performance figures are published in national media. Many felt deeply affronted at this

apparent simplification of their hard work. This resulted in disinclination to do anything other than that which was counted. For the builders this meant doing the barest minimum to make a profit as they thought this was all that was expected of them.

4.5.4   The second item *no obvious benefits seen by those being measured* again tended to occur in public sector groups. Here the hierarchy of managers and government related organisations through which the information had to pass before publication tended to distance the participants from the value of measurement information. The figures seemed to take so long to work their way through the process that it was difficult to see the advantages of any action taken. In fact the actions were perceived to work against those being measured.

4.5.5   The third problem, *considered too simplistic - cannot take account of uniqueness of work* links with the first. It was especially prevalent at the school that emphasised development of each child's personal talents rather than simply examination achievement. For example many ex-pupils joined the services or excelled at sports and music. The CID also felt that arrest and conviction figures could hardly represent the many hours of patient detective work devoted to each case.

4.5.6   The fourth problem, *too money-oriented* was perceived a disadvantage even to profit oriented cases. The builders in particular felt that because they made money their customers felt disinclined to appreciate them in any other way. The police considered the use of financial accounting methods to a public service was inappropriate. The demands on the CID varied over time and the way such methods were applied at the time of the study appeared unable to cope with unexpected events such as murder and armed robbery.

Problems with current measures	CID	Builders	Quakers	School
Demotivation as response to measures being perceived as just numbers	✓	✓		✓
No obvious benefits seen by those being measured	✓			✓
Considered too simplistic - cannot take account of uniqueness of work	✓	✓		✓
Too money-oriented - a disadvantage even to profit oriented cases	✓	✓		✓
Results in more paperwork which detracts from real purpose	✓	✓	✓	✓
Exhibit bias towards those devising or using the measures	✓	✓		✓
Often inaccurate due to careless collation or unclear guidelines and consequently not trusted	✓			✓
Measures cannot replace a good manager who knows his/her staff	✓	✓	✓	✓
Risk being based on the superficial or most easily counted facets of work	✓		✓	✓

Figure 4.9 - Summary of problems

4.5.7 *Results in more paperwork that detracts from real purpose.* This opinion on performance measurement was expressed by interviewees in all case studies but was most prevalent in the CID. The action of collecting the information required was considered to take time that could be better allocated to detecting crime. For the school it was time better spent teaching children, for the builders it was finishing the job and for Quakers it was social action or contemplation.

4.5.8 The sixth issue was performance measurement seen as *exhibiting bias towards those devising or using the measures*. There was evidence of some resentment or animosity towards management as a matter of course in some groups. The measurements were seen as focusing on the wrong priorities by those being measured. In cases where measures had been devised by researchers or consultants they showed a bias towards mathematical information. Managers were seen as biased towards that which made the employee look least favourable such as crime clear-up figures in the CID and exam passes in the school.

4.5.9 The perception that performance measures were *often inaccurate due to careless collation or unclear guidelines* tended to originate from the two organisations that were obliged to provide information to government bodies. Both the school and the CID treated performance figures with some scepticism. It was not entirely apparent though whether they were genuinely unclear about what to do or whether this was a caveat to what might be considered poor performance.

4.5.10 The importance of human awareness was emphasised by all the case studies. In summary *measures cannot replace a good manager who knows his/her staff.* The Quakers keep a minimum of performance figures on membership and financial status and balked at taking this further as relationships and consideration were considered more important. The builders also spoke of 'good' managers who not only knew what was going on but did not feel the need to monitor everything they did.

4.5.11 Finally, comments were made that performance measures *risk being based on the superficial or most easily counted facets of work*. It was recognised by some in the case studies that performance measures in

a large organisation required simplification. This had with it the associated risk of opting for the most obvious measures. School interviewees felt that exam passes, although important, were simply easily countable and therefore took precedence over personal development or overcoming learning difficulties. Quakers were concerned that what they perceived as superficial large, public, media grabbing activities took precedence over small or private actions of concern.

4.5.12 A common thread through these observations appeared to be the difficulties prompted by performance measurement when other agencies - particularly government departments - became involved. The following section looks briefly at this situation.

4.6   A COMMENT ON UK LEAGUE TABLES

4.6.1   Both the UK police service and education system produce performance league tables which are collated nationally as well as locally. This is perceived as threatening by both the CID and the school and consequently they adapt performance figures in order to present the best possible picture.

4.6.2   The figures are not deliberately fraudulent but rather carefully chosen or omitted according to the perceived error. Unfortunately the measures become increasingly distorted and an unrepresentative picture is composed. Those measured then feel justified by claiming the tables are false. This re-enforcing cycle is a difficult one to escape from but appears to be a means whereby those being measured can reassert their control.

4.6.3 An example of adapting the same set of figures to present a better picture is the attitude towards exam results exhibited by the school. In the national league table of results they do not rate very highly and this is perceived as unjust by the staff. They argue that this is a false rating because the school's focus is on developing the individual students' strengths and they recognise this may not be area that is readily examinable. The staff feel very strongly that the league tables are unfair. As a consequence a member of staff has recently compiled a different set of results based on complex statistical analysis to give what is believed to be a more representative and is certainly a better profile.

4.6.4 A further example is the CID who produce - often with much extra effort - their own figures on crime reported and cleared-up. These were consistently claimed to be more accurate than those produced by the Home Office. Perhaps not too surprisingly they also reflected higher clear-up rates or comments on extreme figures.

4.6.5 One outcome of this hostility towards outside agencies is an increased coherence of the organisations involved. This may mean the development of complex coping mechanisms, a real sense of teamwork or perhaps a gloss of teamwork in the face of adversity. This later option is considered in the next section.

4.7 PSEUDOCOMMUNITY

4.7.1 There is evidence that some groups refuse to even accept that internal conflict exists (rather than get upset about it) which leads to the creation of what Peck (1987:109) calls *pseudocommunity*, where *"signs of conflict are somehow a failure to keep the smooth feathers of civilisation unruffled"*. Arguments may occur but order is maintained at the expense of honesty and people refrain from saying things, even things they feel deeply, on the grounds that other people may get upset or that it will disturb the group.

4.7.2 For example, complaints about the police appraisal system are not expressed because *"I don't want to drop anyone into trouble"* or on a more personal level *"I don't want to jeopardise my promotion prospects"*. In other words the risks outweigh the chance for improvement. Some jeopardy exists when questioning performance measures within an organisation.

4.7.3 Senior management at the school did not want to risk losing pupils so they also minimised their observation of discord. Consequently they insist that basically it is a happy school with everyone working towards the common good. This viewpoint was not one always endorsed by the staff. They often declared some departments and teachers were favoured over others.

4.7.4 For the builders, discontent with colleagues or surroundings is clouded in jokes and innuendo. Consequently it is difficult to distinguish the real problem. Communication appears to be on a very basic level but its lack of subtlety allows little scope for moving outside the pseudo-community. A praising of their own trade and derision of all others helps to maintain the illusion that conflict cannot occur.

4.7.5   For Quakers, tempering their opinions with courtesy is an established practice. At times however, Quaker statements can be worded with such politeness they become unclear. Consequently their meaning has to assumed rather than clearly understood. Conflict does occur though, as encouragement of honest opinions inevitably produces alternative viewpoints. A maintenance of some 300 year old practices and procedures confirms to many Quakers that they are doing thing correctly. This not only preserves the atmosphere of pseudo-community but also gives some Quakers an air of complacency somewhat at odds with their purported beliefs.

4.7.6   Given this carefully constructed gloss of coherent organisation it seems impossible that a true assessment of any group's performance can be obtained. Morgan (1986:140) commenting on the work of anthropologist Franz Boas observes that we should be cautious not to focus on the *"hoopla and ritual that decorate the surface of organizational life, rather than by the more fundamental structures that sustain these visible aspects"*. But perhaps the *hoopla* is reality to the majority of those who belong to organisations. Perhaps they do not wish to be aware of fundamental structures. It may be safer emotionally to assume that relationships are as we expect them to be and the reason why early life associations play a key part.

4.8   FAMILY ANALOGY

4.8.1   An extension of this idea of community, possessed of both superficial and deep values, lies in the parallels drawn between groups and family. In response to a question on whether their working relationships bore similarities to any other aspects of their experience, a number stated that they viewed their role as a parental one or that the situation was familial.

4.8.2   Berger (1963 pp.22/3) states that a family tends to use disapproval, loss of prestige, ridicule or contempt rather than coercion as a means of keeping members in check. In a large group, or big organisation, the tendency is more towards dictating and removing control from employees - rather than ridicule or contempt - who then seek alternative ways of restoring control. This sort of behaviour prevails in the relatively small CID system, the builders and the school. The Quakers also attempt to create a family atmosphere, however their definition of a family is a warm, loving and caring configuration.

4.8.3   Hofstede (1991) takes a different viewpoint based on his exploration of this parallel in a variety of different working situations and countries. He notes how children learn to avoid or embrace uncertainty and about what is good and bad. These lessons are transferred to adulthood and an organisation that matches these lessons will have a comfortable family feel.

4.8.4   Many members and attenders of the Religious Society of Friends who were not raised in the tradition expressed a sense of 'coming home' on finding Friends. They were not persuaded to hold radically different viewpoints but rather found Quaker values and ideals in concord with their existing thoughts. Other case study participants joined their organisations for similar reasons. The partners in the builders readily acknowledge a shared background and opinion of right and wrong that they consider to be the secret of their success.

4.8.5   Berne (1964), Stewart and Joines (1991) take the family link further back by stating the basis of all our relationships are based on three significant roles of *Parent, Adult* and *Child* developed within the first ten years of our lives. Stewart and Joines have developed the *Transactional Analysis* (TA) first put forward by Berne thirty years ago whereby any interaction replicates earlier learnt behaviours. When somebody behaves in a way that trigger a distant memory of

say an authoritarian parent we may revert to the feelings, if not the behaviour, of the child on the receiving end.

4.8.6   For example, when the near retirement aged, male, DCI protects his much younger staff from the harshness of the real world (by not revealing all that he knows about their performance for instance) he believes he is doing the best a father can. His staff however, may resent being treated this way, especially when they are parents themselves. The problem with such a conflict of roles, norms and values (Vickers) is the entrenchment and intractability of viewpoint on all sides. Each viewpoint of the worth of the DCI's approach to management is equally as valid to the person expressing it.

4.8.7   This parental world-view occurred among many managers in the non-Quaker case studies. They protected their staff, but complained about having to watch over them all the time. They rewarded them when they did well and felt justified in punishing them when required. The problem that arises out of this world-view is that if staff hold different world-views and see this behaviour as patronising, or the manager incapable of coping or understanding, they may well respond by rebellion or desertion rather than revision of behaviour, thus making the situation more complicated.

4.8.8   There is perhaps no escaping our family values in the workplace and so resistance to having our performance measured - based on failures and insecurities of our childhood - goes back much further than many managers are prepared or able to cope with. Consequently whatever types of measures are introduced we must ask if it is valid for the circumstances. If an administrator does not consider their staff as capable of accurate measurement then no matter what is produced the measures will not be believed. Alternatively if those being measured are unable to see beyond the potential punishment they will adjust the figures to minimise that threat.

4.9   CHOICE OF SOLUTION

4.9.1   The way performance measures are introduced gives rise to another area of concern. They often come about in a piecemeal implementation of change via a process of *satisficing*. This means managers find a solution to a problem that is 'good enough' and often very similar to prevailing solutions. They apply one solution at a time so decisions build on and add to what already exists. This is fine as long as previous solutions are sound but not if the foundations are poor.

4.9.2   For instance no one at the police station could tell me how long the number of arrests and the number of complaints have been recorded, but it had been "for a long time". Over time they had become familiar and consequently viewed as a standard. Further measures became simply the addition of other numbers e.g. clear-up rates and number of letters of appreciation.

4.9.3   A further example are the parents' days held at Stonyhurst College. These have been for many years been grand two day events, with much pomp and ceremony. In more recent years though the school population has changed considerably with fewer boarders, more local pupils and a changing wealth profile for parents. The parents' days are also no longer financially feasible but still the school clings to the tradition as a demonstration of their performance and culture.

4.9.4   The trouble with this approach is that it does not encourage the adoption of new measures that may well be deemed not useful when applied against the familiar standards. National league tables for schools provide a similar example, exam results are relatively easy to

collate and this has been done by the Department of Education for many years. When presented with the challenge of demonstrating schools' performance publicly the obvious option was to draw on figures already produced. Academic brilliance however is not part of the ethos of all schools. There are many which cater for those with learning or physical difficulties and where the focus is on developing the individual to their best ability. These schools can feel undervalued. Alternatively, anxieties arise that parents will not send their children to the school because of a low league placing.

4.10   DEFENCES

4.10.1 One of the most interesting observations during the study has been the incompatibility between what is measured and what is valued by the individuals or group involved. The responses to this dilemma fell into three main categories: an abdication of any responsibility by dismissal of performance measures as unimportant; an attempt to regain local control by recalculating figures or producing alternative measures; and a focus on the measures themselves rather than the quality of performance.

4.10.2 These behaviours correspond to the defences illustrated in Figure 4.10. This is only one possible construction by Jacobs (1988) showing the way in which many defences interweave. The arrows indicate a connection which varies with the situation. These defence responses are exhibited by individuals who find their values and worldviews under threat (Morgan 1986; Gardner 1995). They respond, for example, by fixation, a rigid commitment to a particular attitude or behaviour that may well not be in accord with the new measurement scheme. They may on the other hand respond by

idealisation and focus on their good performance pretending the bad does not exist.

4.10.3 Resorting to psychodynamic counselling may seem a rather drastic solution to problems with measuring performance within organisations. An attempt to counsel groups may actually engender even more of a threat if it is not a culturally acceptable activity. Perhaps what is more important is the variety of defences or behaviours that can occur when faced with something unfamiliar or threatening in its difference. The threat of performance measurement may be genuine or imagined but it is authentic to the individual concerned. For instance if each person in a group of fifteen people responded with a different defence shown in Figure 4.10, what might this do to the stability of an individual or group value system?
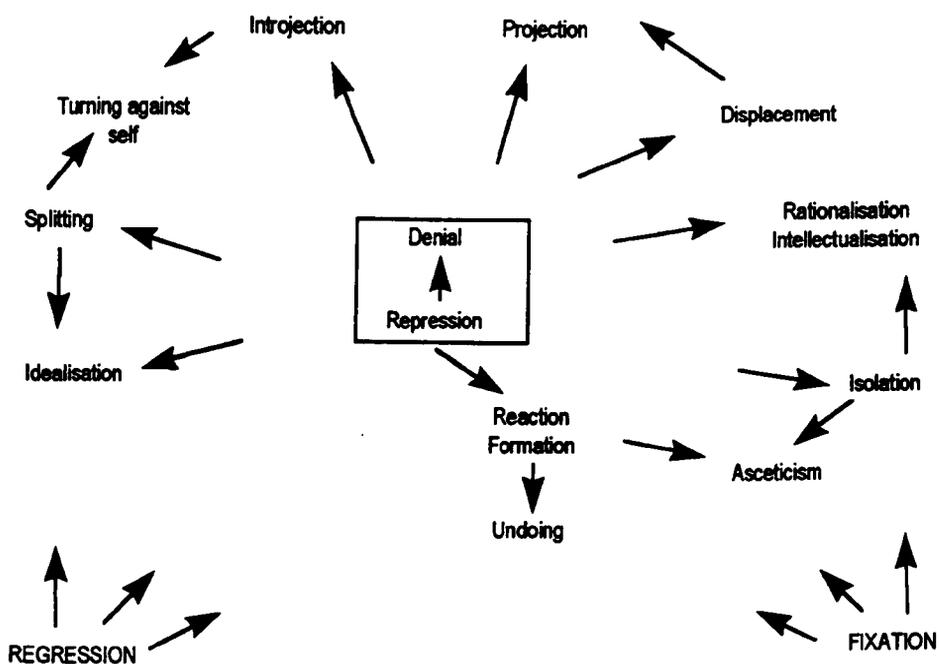
Figure 4.10 - The interweaving of defences - a possible pattern

Source: p. 82, Jacobs, M. (1993).
Psychodynamic Counselling in Action, Sage

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4.10.4 To take this one step further, what if the devisor of a performance measurement scheme is projecting their own feelings and impulses to others? Morgan (1986) illustrates this point in a brief analysis of Frederick Taylor the creator of 'scientific management'. Morgan describes him as *"a man totally preoccupied with control ... driven by a relentless need to tie down and master almost every aspect of his life."* He follows this description with one of Taylor's lifelong interest in measurement, problem definition and solution. Morgan states Taylor provides a good example *"of how unconscious concerns and preoccupations can have an effect on organization."* In Taylor's case this effect went much further than his own lifetime, scientific management still underpins many hard systems and operational research theories and techniques.

4.10.5 Argyris (1985) also notes that managers often unwittingly resist change, focusing on getting the job done, avoiding emotions and accepting control as inevitable. These defence mechanisms are viewed as simply too difficult to change and Argyris suggests the only way to cope with them is to build on the strengths of 'defensive' employees by bringing in change slowly.

4.10.6 From this we could concur that performance measurement needs to be designed in such a way that it is, or is perceived to be, of more benefit to the organisational member. If it is of benefit then it should not be viewed as such a threat.

4.11   CONCLUSION

A possible explanation for the responses covered in this chapter, is that the measures are used to represent human values that are not held to be important by those carrying out the work. If this is the case then it seems pointless to try and implement performance measurements in an environment unwilling or unprepared to receive them. Therefore it is incidental what the reasons are for thwarting the implementation of performance measurement. Perhaps the answer is to better gauge the sort of world-views one is likely to encounter upon introducing new schemes. The following chapter describes the reflection upon the method used and the findings obtained resulting in a new survey that attempts to identify the atmosphere for change.

CHAPTER 5

LOOKING FOR CLUES IN HUMAN VALUES THEORY

SUMMARY

This chapter takes a closer look at values and value systems. The history of human values theory is reviewed within the context of philosophy, psychology, sociology along with systems thinking. Values theory as applied to both individuals and organisations is considered. The fundamental characteristics of values, with reference to performance measurement, are clarified.

5.1   A BRIEF HISTORY OF HUMAN VALUES THEORY

5.1.1   Human values are often expressed in terms of morals and ethics. They are traditionally good qualities to be aspired to or possessed. They form the basis of individual personalities and consequently affect all human groupings. But they are so subtle and so core to our very being that they very often vary without us even knowing it. To better understand the continued discussions about the nature of human action in an organisational context, a closer look at what theorists have had to say about human values is needed.

5.1.2   Human values theory is not a new subject for investigation. Attempts to distil the essence of man, to define his attributes and desired characteristic have probably been going on since time began. Each new era however has presented a different slant on the ontology of values. To begin with, religion and philosophy dominated the discussion, in attempts to understand human nature and to guide it

along a particular path. Over the last two centuries the emphasis has been more with psychology and science and latterly sociology and organisational effectiveness. The ensuing sections trace the history of the values theory.

5.2   PHILOSOPHY

5.2.1   Aristotle has provided an enduring legend over two thousand years. His Nichomachean Ethics (1985) is still considered one of the most influential treatises on moral philosophy. It might be argued that it is so firmly entrenched in ancient Greek culture that it really has no place in the modern world but still it is discussed and referred to especially in discussions on morality. He focused on virtues rather than values (Shand, 1994) rationalising what was good and to be aspired to for the benefit of both the individual and the society. As a member of Plato's academy he was both strongly influenced by and keenly critical of Plato.

5.2.2   Plato sought definitions of universal, immutable, ethical standards as well as clear values and norms for all so that justice could be maintained. Pursuit of the common ground and immutability were essential for the highest knowledge. At the heart of Plato's philosophy is his theory of Forms (Blackburn, 1994) and this underlies all his other work. Forms are classic templates on which all ordinary things are based. Being copies however they can be flawed and are not easily attainable and the myth of the cave (Blackburn, 1994) indicates what a struggle it is to attain such perfection.

5.2.3   After the time of Aristotle and Plato, Christianity evolved and Western philosophy was dominated by St Augustine in the 4th and 5th centuries. He taught that in the search for truth people must depend on sense experience. He developed doctrines of original sin

and predestination, which together implied an inherent badness of human beings and a certain lack of free will. Values in this sense had to be learned in order to counter the effect of original sin, and divine teaching or forgiveness was the only way.

5.2.4   Over a thousand years later Aquinus saw values as psychic or human dispositions (Kenny, 1980). He returned to the teachings of Aristotle and to him values could either be conscious or inherent. He appears more willing than Plato or Aristotle to recognise the difference between the divine and the natural. His interest was also less about influencing government of the time and more scholastic.

5.2.5   John Calvin and Martin Luther, 16th century leaders of the Reformation were both students of St Augustine and originators of the work ethic. Calvin in particular believed that business success was evidence of God's grace, given that that businessman had been thrifty and industrious. In general, individual responsibility was held to be more important than complying with convention or authority. This tradition has endured many centuries and had a profound influence on current work practice.

5.2.6   In the 19th century Hegel described values as coming from our family and that they were inculcated very early on in life. He did not see them however as a social contract but a natural growth which continued into the wider world development. To him the question of value is ethical (Russell, 1946) because all parts of the universe are profoundly affected by its relations to the whole.

5.2.7   Nietzsche on the other hand interpreted Christian and Jewish moral codes as a slave ethic, ensuring the poor or weak sublimated their self-realisation to the powerful (Russell, 1946; Shand, 1994). Again his focus was on the values and development of the individual, albeit within the context of power.

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5.2.8   On the other hand Russell's logical realism (Shand, 1994) which separated objects and perception contained an orderliness that could appeal to those in scientific management. Objects, in his definition, had characteristics of their own, independent of our senses or perception. Values had their place in evaluating what individuals or groups perceived, but objects existed nonetheless. His mathematical training - where a definite answer is always potentially attainable - appears to have prompted a strong sense of right and wrong as well as the belief that humans have the ability to be truly objective.

5.2.9   This brief recap on philosophy brings us to modern ethics and values that appear to have been more strongly influenced by the development of psychoanalysis and the science of psychology.

5.3   PSYCHOLOGY AND SOCIOLOGY

5.3.1   Attempts to measure or categorise values have proved a thorny problem for social psychologists for many decades. Perhaps the most definitive work on values is that by Rokeach (1973) who stated that: *"A value is an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence"*. He went on to say that: *"Value systems are an enduring organisation of beliefs concerning preferable modes of conduct or end-states of existence along a continuum of relative importance."* From his definition he composed a list of 36 values split into two equal sized groups of values. Terminal, which are end states such as equality and freedom, and instrumental values, modes of behaviour such as honesty and ambition.

5.3.2 In simpler terms Hogg and Vaughan (1995:567) define a value as *"A higher order concept thought to provide a structure for organising attitudes"*. Their focus is on the social manifestation of values as attitudes rather than identifying specific values. Essentially however values provide a frame of reference against which we compare opinions.

5.3.3 Pavlov and Freud (Hogg and Vaughan, 1995) had much to say about how we learn and are motivated by basic urges. Although the behaviourists focus on the conditioned-reflex implying little thought, Freud's emphasis was on understanding motivation and then classifying them in thinking terms, such as guilt. This in turn implies that standards or values were known and behaviour measured against them.

5.3.4 Allport and Vernon, in 1931, were the first to link values to attitudes. They consequently endeavoured to gauge values by psychological test. Their test was designed to measure the relative importance of six broad classes of value orientation within a person, which defined their interests and activities. Since this time the majority of research into values and their manifestation as attitudes, beliefs and behaviour has belonged exclusively to the domain of social psychology with the chief aim of predicting reactions to various stimuli. This has primarily been measured by asking people to react to a number of verbal or written statements about their affinity or aversion to some identifiable aspect of their environment.

5.3.5 In the 1960s the link between attitudes and value systems was explored by the psychologist Henri Tajfel (1969) who looked at perception and the social and cultural factors that affect it. Others, like Hershenson and Haber (1965), worked on laboratory studies of cognitive selection where social values and social consensus were identified as the main social determinants. Williams (1968), studying

selective behaviour, observed that social values were an essential part of this behaviour.

5.3.6 Developmental psychology contends that fundamental behavioural patterns - the projection of our values - are consolidated in the first seven years of our life (Berne, 1964; Jacobs, 1988). This experience determines a life-script (Stewart and Joines, 1987) that maps out subconsciously what we will do and how we will react to certain situations. It is composed without us even being aware of it. It is strengthened by parents or carers and vindicated by subsequent events.

5.3.7 The causal nature of such a process results in values being prioritised in response to the behaviour of others or the anticipated meaning of that behaviour. For instance if a parent regularly beats a child, when that child becomes an adult they may well attack others as an echo of early behaviour. Alternatively they may avoid conflict for fear of the result, thus reiterating the earlier role of victim. These reactions will occur regardless of real intent or actual behaviour. This is because each individual holds their own personal model of normal behaviour. This model is so strong it can be difficult to see beyond it.

5.3.8 Stewart and Joines (1987) argue that change to a life-script is impossible without conscious effort as reality is redefined to justify the script. Values form the core of this script and therefore could be considered immutable. They are transmitted through time and family history, altered only by major disruptions in life pattern such as divorce or sickness, and then maybe only subtly.

5.3.9 This early entrenchment is likely to have a profound effect on our adult lives. Unresolved childhood issues (Bradshaw 1990) and unquestioned beliefs or constructs (Kelly, 1955) will cause us to interpret our experiences and behave in ways that may be impossible

to understand because the lessons were learnt so long ago. In fact the psychodynamic evidence suggests there is little space for free will, our individual behaviours being solely determined by our past. The possible exceptions to this are shock or the intercession of counselling.

5.3.10 It appears that certain representations of human values survive over many generations regardless of social conditions but perhaps symbiotically supported by society. The context and application may be vastly different but the essence is the same. Values are passed down through time like heirlooms and could explain why individuals, groups and societies still hold values extolled by ancient philosophers and demonstrated by early civilisations.

5.3.11 The values that are passed on are not necessarily traditional moral virtues offered by Aristotle. According to Hofstede (1991) they are broad preferences that have both a plus and minus side. A virtue such as courage may even be the mean along a human values continuum ranging from chivalrous assertion to ruthless domination. The outcome of possessing a value in this range could just as likely be conflict as bravery. But what sort of impact does this consistency of values over time have on contemporary organisations?

5.3.12 Rokeach (1973) and Hall (1994) have identified values by name and have devised surveys to identify patterns of values linked to attitudes. Rokeach divides individual values into two different groups instrumental and terminal. Hall subdivides these further and identifies many more discrete values. This has resulted in the compilation of the Hall-Tonna Inventory of Values (Figure 5.1). These values may be held by both individuals or groups. From this list it is argued that between 12 to 15 core values will form the basis of their attitudes or behaviour. These core values represent the priorities of an individual's circumstances and consequently they will vary.

125 Values Used in the Hall-Tonna Inventory

1.	Accountability/Ethics	43.	Equity/Rights	85.	Play/Recreation
2.	Achievement/Success	44.	Expressiveness/Joy	86.	Presence
3.	Adaptability/Flexibility	45.	Faith/Risk/Vision	87.	Prestige/Image
4.	Administration/Control	46.	Family/Belonging	88.	Productivity
5.	Affection/Physical	47.	Fantasy/Play	89.	Property/Control
6.	Art/Beauty	48.	Food/Warmth/Shelter	90.	Prophet/Vision
7.	Authority/Honesty	49.	Friendship/Belonging	91.	Quality/Evaluation
8.	Being/Liked	50.	Function/Physical	92.	Reason
9.	Being Self	51.	Generosity/Compassion	93.	Relaxation
10.	Belief/Philosophy	52.	Global Harmony	94.	Research
11.	Care/Nurture	53.	Global Justice	95.	Responsibility
12.	Collaboration	54.	Growth/Expansion	96.	Rights/Respect
13.	Communication/Information	55.	Health/Healing	97.	Ritual/Communication
14.	Community/Personalist	56.	Hierarchy/Order	98.	Rule/Accountability
15.	Community/Supportive	57.	Honor	99.	Safety/Survival
16.	Competence/Confidence	58.	Human Dignity	100.	Search for Meaning/Hope
17.	Competition	59.	Human Rights	101.	Security
18.	Complementarity	60.	Independence	102.	Self-Actualisation
19.	Congruence	61.	Integration/Wholeness	103.	Self-Assertion
20.	Construction/New Order	62.	Interdependence	104.	Self-Interest/Control
21.	Contemplation	63.	Intimacy	105.	Self-Preservation
22.	Control/Order/Discipline	64.	Intimacy/Solitude	106.	Self-Worth
23.	Convivial Technology	65.	Justice/Social Order	107.	Sensory Pleasure
24.	Corporation/New Order	66.	Knowledge/Insight	108.	Service/Vocation
25.	Courtesy/Hospitality	67.	Law/Guide	109.	Sharing/Listening/Trust
26.	Creativity	68.	Law/Rule	110.	Simplicity/Play
27.	Decision/Initiation	69.	Leisure	111.	Social Affirmation
28.	Design/Pattern/Order	70.	Limitation/Acceptance	112.	Support/Peer
29.	Detachment/Solitude	71.	Limitation/Celebration	113.	Synergy
30.	Dexterity/Coordination	72.	Loyalty/Fidelity	114.	Technology/Science
31.	Discernment	73.	Macroeconomics	115.	Territory/Security
32.	Duty/Obligation	74.	Management	116.	Tradition
33.	Economics/Profit	75.	Membership/Institution	117.	Transcendence/Solitude
34.	Economics/Success	76.	Minessence	118.	Truth/Wisdom
35.	Ecority	77.	Mission/Objectives	119.	Unity/Diversity
36.	Education/Certification	78.	Mutual accountability	120.	Unity/Uniformity
37.	Education/Knowledge	79.	Mutual Obedience	121.	Wonder/Awe/Fate
38.	Efficiency/Planning	80.	Obedience/Duty	122.	Wonder/Curiosity
39.	Empathy	81.	Ownership	123.	Word
40.	Endurance/Patience	82.	Patriotism/Esteem	124.	Work/Labour
41.	Equality/Liberation	83.	Physical Delight	125.	Workmanship/Art/Craft
42.	Equilibrium	84.	Pioneerism/Innovation		

Figure 5.1 - Hall-Tonna Inventory of Values

(From p.32 Hall, B.P. (1994). *Values Shift - A guide to Personal &
Organisational Transformation*, Twin Lights Publishers, Rockport)

Hall states (1994:3) *"Each of us has core values that give meaning to our lives, values that we feel are important in the workplace and that we need to survive on a daily basis"*. Within this definition values priorities can be both constant over a long time or continually readjusting according to the demands of daily life.

5.3.13 Other recent research into values has been conducted by Feather (1993) who has explored the attitudes of high achievers using a range of hypotheses. He suggests that values are characterised by certain properties summarised by Hogg and Vaughan (1994) below:

1. *They are general beliefs about desirable behaviour and goals.*

2. *Unlike wants and needs, they involve goodness and badness and have an 'oughtness' quality about them.*

3. *They both transcend attitudes and influence the form these attitudes may take.*

4. *They provide standards for evaluating actions, justifying opinions and conduct, planning behaviour, for deciding between different alternatives, engaging in social influence, and presenting self to others.*

5. *They are organised into hierarchies for any given person, and their relative importance may alter over the life span.*

Value systems vary across individuals, groups and cultures.

(Hogg and Vaughan, Social Psychology, An Introduction, pp. 129-130)

5.3.14 Given the early origins of values formation, one possible interpretation of values in the workplace could be a parallel with family systems (Berger 1963; Manuel 1996). Consequently attempts are made to recreate family relationships within the organisations we are involved with. People become adults but never forget the responses learnt in childhood. The transactive nature of this behaviour will result in different values and behaviours surfacing

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according to the particular combination of 'family' members in any one group (Berne 1964).

5.3.15 Consequently some behaviour will be productive such as learning to trust (Fukuyama 1996). Other behaviours will be dysfunctional such as the cycle of violence many co-dependents find it difficult to escape from (Norwood 1989). Damaging behaviour will require a significant non-reinforcing action in order to introduce change (Franz 1995). This may not be feasible within an organisation.

5.3.16 Building on from the work of psychologists and sociologists are the cross-disciplinary approaches of systems and organisational theorists. The next section looks more particularly at groups rather than individuals.

5.4 SYSTEMS, MANAGEMENT AND ORGANISATION THEORY

5.4.1 Organisations are made up of people and groups with different sets of values. That both interact with the environment implies there are unlimited variations of values combinations. It is also conceivable that organisations comprised of humans experience a similar developmental process.

5.4.2 Vickers (1965) was one of the first systems thinkers to consider the place of values in policy making and the often subtle power they have over our judgements. To him the sole purpose of human intervention was to regulate and control in an attempt to make things more acceptable than the existing and inherent situation. He stated that "Policy making assumes, expresses and helps to create a whole system of human values" (p.29).

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5.4.3   Vickers (1970) went on to develop the idea of an 'appreciative system'. This system was based on his observations of Royal Commissions, the value judgements they made over time and the ensuing interactions between different appreciative systems. He saw it as a more or less coherent system by which we learn from experience to develop knowing via a screen of values. In summary the appreciative world is what our appreciative system enables us to know.

5.4.4   Checkland (1981) explored this notion whilst putting together his soft systems methodology. In particular he considered how changes occurred within the appreciative system. The ideas were further in collaboration with Scholes (1990) into a 'social system' model that looked at the mutual dependency of values, roles and norms (Figure 5.2 and methodology). This interpretation regards values as a product of company ethos or professional speciality; roles as an assessment by the peer group and norms the expected behaviours of the role. Despite being a very simple model they found it useful in highly complex organisations as long as the 'social system' was never considered complete or static.

5.4.5   Two other key figures in stressing the importance of values in systems thinking are Churchman and Ackoff. They were both concerned with 'objectivity' in systems approaches. Churchman (1968) argued that every world-view is restricted by its own set of *a priori* assumptions that means subjectivity cannot be excluded from any systems analysis. Ackoff (1993) proposed that purposeful behaviour can never be value-free - in fact he saw it as "value-full" - otherwise there would be no ambition or priorities to aim for.

ROLES
(social position)

NORMS
(expected behaviour)

VALUES
(local standards)
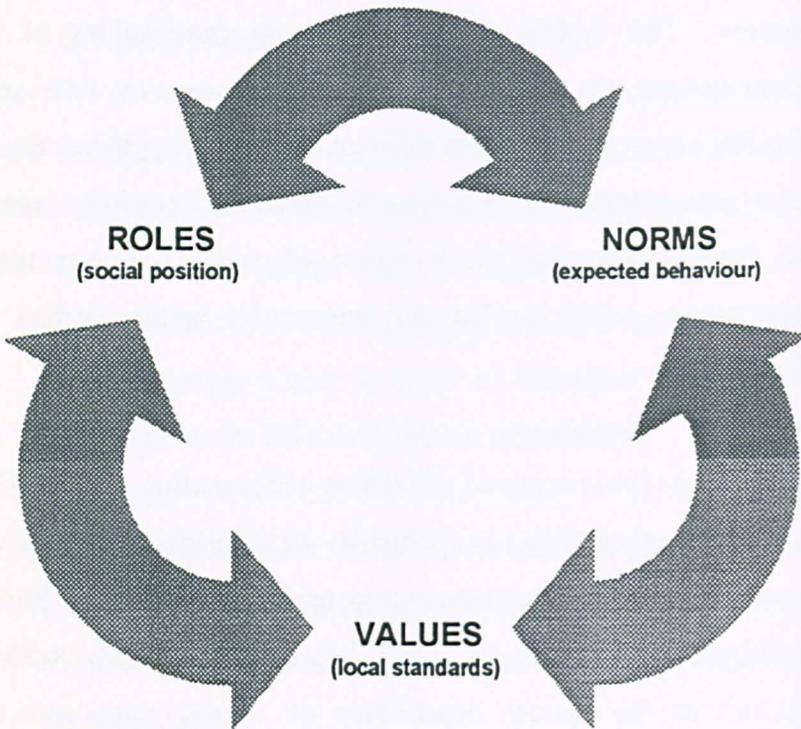
Figure 5.2 - Social System Model
(adapted from Checkland and Scholes)

5.4.6   Study into values and technology came in the late 1970s with the ever increasing presence of computers. Writers like Kaplan and Bosserman (1971) and Evans (1979) forecast a major change in the structure of society and our values due to the impact of the micro-chip. They built on Wiener's (1954) earlier proposition that the novelty and threat presented by the introduction of computers would be comparable to that presented by the Industrial Revolution in 18th century Western society.

5.4.7   Of course organisations cannot be considered without taking into account their environment. It is this cultural context that results in theories of motivation and orientation, reflecting the norms of the society at that time. The nature of work has changed much over the last century, changing the relationships and lifestyles of management

and employees. Hofstede (1991 p.8) states that *"The core of culture is formed by values. Values are broad tendencies to prefer certain states of affairs over others ... they have a plus and a minus side"*.

5.4.8   Hofstede (1994) has travelled extensively and using a variety of methodologies, has gathered case studies from many cultures and situations. Values are considered an integral part of organisational behaviour. Using a list of 19 work goals derived from values applied to the workplace, he identifies both similarities and differences between the values of professionals and unskilled workers in seven occupational categories.[1] The differences are explained as resulting from a comparison of job content and an individual's expectation with their social environment.

5.4.9   Applying Maslow's hierarchy of needs to his results he concludes that unskilled workers are unlikely to be interested in the higher levels of self-actualisation. For the majority their values are held to be different. It is not quite that straightforward however, as he also concludes that the more common a goal the less likely it is to be a priority. For example in a time of high job insecurity, 'security' will be rated highly but once attained it will drop in importance

5.4.10 When faced with each new circumstance, the favourable or most familiar values dominate the unfamiliar. Kelley's theory of attribution (Hogg and Vaughan 1995) reasons that behaviour is built on internal or external causes. Internal causes are values and external are the events against which we construct parallels. In other words attitudes and behaviour are not random but carefully constructed responses based on a narrow band of fortified values.

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[1] Research professionals, systems analysts, service technicians, plant technicians, clerical workers, unskilled workers, and managers

5.4.11 Morgan (1986) comments that the inhibiting factors to organisational learning are the structure and expectations of the organisations themselves. Bureaucratic approaches fragment interest and knowledge encouraging individuals to know their place in the overall set-up (in other words, know which values they are supposed to hold) and are consequently rewarded for staying there.

5.4.12 It is also noted by Morgan (1986) that the core of most organisational performance is based around a set of rewards and punishments. This encourages organisational stagnation, as breaking out of the current pattern can carry great risk to the individual. In a traditional, hierarchical, tightly-coupled organisation outspokenness or unconventional dress could cause a manager to decide that an individual does not fit. In a more loosely-coupled organisation that encourages flexibility and risk-taking, caution and timidity can produce similar response but for very different reasons.

5.4.13 Because values are formed so early in life most of the time we are only aware of level of comfort or affinity when we are confronted by something new. Specific values are subtle and usually appear indirectly as attitudes, needs and feelings. Fineman (1993) and Goleman, (1996) argue that any choice we do make is likely to be made via our emotions We may identify the essence of a situation and fit ourselves to it accordingly. The ability to adopt a different viewpoint or rearrange established priorities must be severely tested before we can pull away from our preferred practice.

5.4.14 Challenges to values engender a discomfort that at times cannot be placed. It can be the rejection of a social venue because it does not 'feel' right. Sometimes it is because an organisation that has been joined changes over time or on closer inspection turns out not to practice the values espoused or expected (Armson and Paton 1994; White 1995).

5.4.15 The risk is not only to the individuals however. The knock on effects of a 'misfit' being dismissed or resigning, can often be a consolidation of the management view that some norms are more appropriate than others. It feels safe to have everyone apparently agreeing on the organisational mission. This unfortunately does not take account of the middle ground where the espoused theory conforms, more or less, to corporate views but the theory in action can be significantly if subtly different.

5.4.16 Even if they cannot be explicit or fully appreciated, standards exist in our environment, are potentially achievable and consequently exert a subtle influence. This implies that humans are in possession of intuition, perhaps drawing on values that have become internalised to the point where they do not seem to have been formally learned and their original source cannot be accounted for. Not being able to trace the origin of a belief could mean that its manifestation is attributed to being transcendental or supersensible.

5.4.17 This viewpoint might offer support the theory of autopoiesis (Mingers 1996) or self-organising ability of living systems to develop over time without losing structural integrity. Based on the theories of Maturana and Varela (Mingers 1991) we find that the environment acts as only a trigger to our value systems. The actual process of decision making is cognitive and self-organising so it is still likely to be unique to an individual. The values remain the same but the organisation changes according to the stimuli.

5.4.18 On a broader level human beings may be the environmental trigger that prompts self-organisation of systems theory. If disciplines have a life of their own and reproduce, the action of choosing a methodology may be irrelevant. In a way it chooses us by exhibiting certain characteristics and sharing its originator's world-view.

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5.4.19 Senge (1992) considers values and assumptions as part of 'Developing Personal Mastery' - one of five disciplines - with the focus on the spiritual and higher values. He argues that they are linked with purpose and vision. They also need to be learned voluntarily and cannot be imposed by management training. Another of Senge's disciplines, 'Systems thinking', supports this by encouraging an appreciation of interconnectedness and ultimately the inculcation of new values.

5.4.20 An alternative viewpoint is that taken by Ballé (1994) who interprets values plus memories to comprise experience, a conditioning that can be very hard to break. He argues that value systems are one of six, what he calls basal structuring 'systems' - accountability, recognition, performance, output, feedback and value systems - of organisations providing consistent sets of corporate codes. If they are not aligned then there is a strong likelihood that participants will resort to defensive routines; however, he also acknowledges that alignment is difficult because functional departments are built to pursue different goals.

5.4.21 Morgan (1986) looks on values as one of a set of predispositions that lie behind interest. He puts them into three categories, task, career and extramural (middle section of Figure 5.3). Given the increasing awareness of ecological issues it may be fair to add a more global or environmental category to this model (Marsden, 1995). This would incorporate the material world of Habermas' three worlds (shown in the clouds of Figure 5.3 adapted from Mingers and Brocklesbury, 1996). This world exists even if we do not, however we shape it by our actions.

5.4.22 This allows for further conflict between values. For instance, where personal interest includes the acquisition of material goods but the

environmental interest discourages further depletion of the natural materials that go to make up the goods. Either conciliation must occur or a focus on one world at a time.

5.4.23 Flood and Jackson (1993) looked at organisations and problem situations using a variety of metaphors, including a culture metaphor composed of values and beliefs. They saw this comparison as positive in that it emphasised the human nature of organisations, and negative in that it may lead to greater explicit or perceived ideological control.
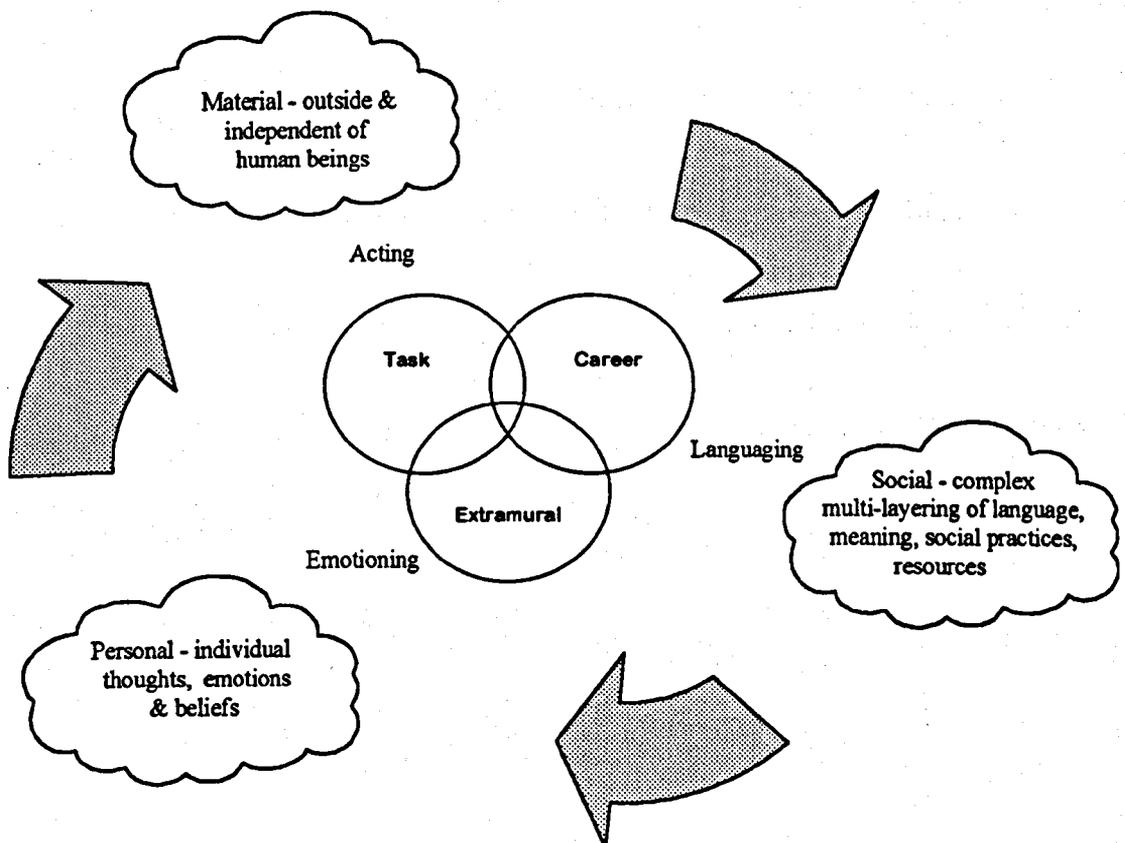
Figure 5.3 - Morgan and Habermas' model combined

5.4.25 Morgan (1996) warns those interested in this metaphor however not to be taken in by the surface rituals of organisational life whilst ignoring the more fundamental structures. He argues that managers - who are increasingly aware of the symbolic consequences of

organisational values – may nurture desired values but they can never control culture, it is simply not that easy.

5.4.26 Systems, management and organisational theorists have passed much comment on values. The importance of values is acknowledged and there appears some evidence that they are reinforced over time. They also appear to act as a discriminator or filter for what we choose to experience and how we decide to act. The following section explores this aspect by looking at the assimilation of values as a process of communication.

5.5 VALUES AND COMMUNICATION

5.5.1 Shannon and Weaver (1949) developed a simple model of communication in order to simulate the way an electronic signal is carried. Their model has proved robust enough to be applied to wider areas of communication (Mingers 1996a). An updated version is shown at Figure 5.4. The paradigm demonstrates a simple communication flow between different senders and receivers. The elimination of noise (indicated by a cloud) was considered paramount by the originators of the model. They did however accept that some noise was inevitable.

close approximation

| Set of symbols = common language |

| Set of symbols = common language |

| Message Originator = Manager or Director |

| Encoder = Worldview of Manager |

| Channel = e.g. memo., e-mail, verbal statement |

| Recorder = Worldview of recipient |

| Message receiver = Employee or customer |

NOISE =
Values
Experience
Expectations etc..

| Rules for symbol use = jargon conventions courtesy |

| Rules for symbol use = jargon conventions courtesy |

close approximation

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Source: Adapted from Open University 'Model of a generalised communication system'
Block II, Systems Paradigms, p.30
Course: Complexity, Management and Change: Applying a Systems Approach

Figure 5.4 - Communication paradigm

5.5.2 Bignell and Fortune (1983) reviewed this model in the light of systems failure (Fortune 1993). All aspects are expected to be in place if an identified system is to work effectively. Given a simple communication between two people with a shared language it might be argued that if the communication fails to be mutually understood then there must be some noise present. This may be external noise such as traffic but it may also be values in the form of attitudes.

5.5.3 Richardson (1991) interpreting Deutsch's work, saw values as a filter or switchboard through which information had to pass. It can be argued that by virtue of preferring a particular model of communication, values act as interference or as a discriminating mechanism. In the case of performance measurement they could cause interference in the form of resentment to an imposed action or criticism of a scheme could be filtered out as it was not in accord with what had already been done.

5.5.4 Alternatively their usefulness could be interpreted in the light of a filter that says "what's in it for me?". This may at first appear to lend itself more to the semiotic viewpoint. After all it is about meaning and not just the transmission of a method. In fact there are similarities between this dilemma of categorisation in information systems theory and performance measurement that at its basic level is about mathematics. Measurement is assumed to be objective and clear by virtue of its numeracy. Its ultimate aim is to provide straightforward information on which actions can be based.

5.5.5 What is less obvious is the impact of noise when it is comprised of values and expectations of behaviour. This is partly due to their intangibility but also due to the assumptions made about other people behaving as we would or how we expect them to. This appears to offer an explanation as to why clearly articulated and documented schemes still failed. The major difficulty here though is assessing

whether this is actually so. Individuals may be unprepared to disclose or even be unaware of the mental models they use to interpret information received. For instance a deep-seated resentment or distrust of management could produce an adaptation of performance figures in order to present an individual or group in the best possible light.

5.5.6   World-views are built upon our values and experiences, consequently they perceive and make judgements upon information (Bradshaw, 1990). Hall (1994) states "people make decisions from their predominant mind set, their own paradigm of reality, and the values that underlie them, even if facts advise otherwise'. Figure 5.5 shows a simple communication where the misunderstanding of motives based on preconceived world-views results in a range of modifications to the original message.
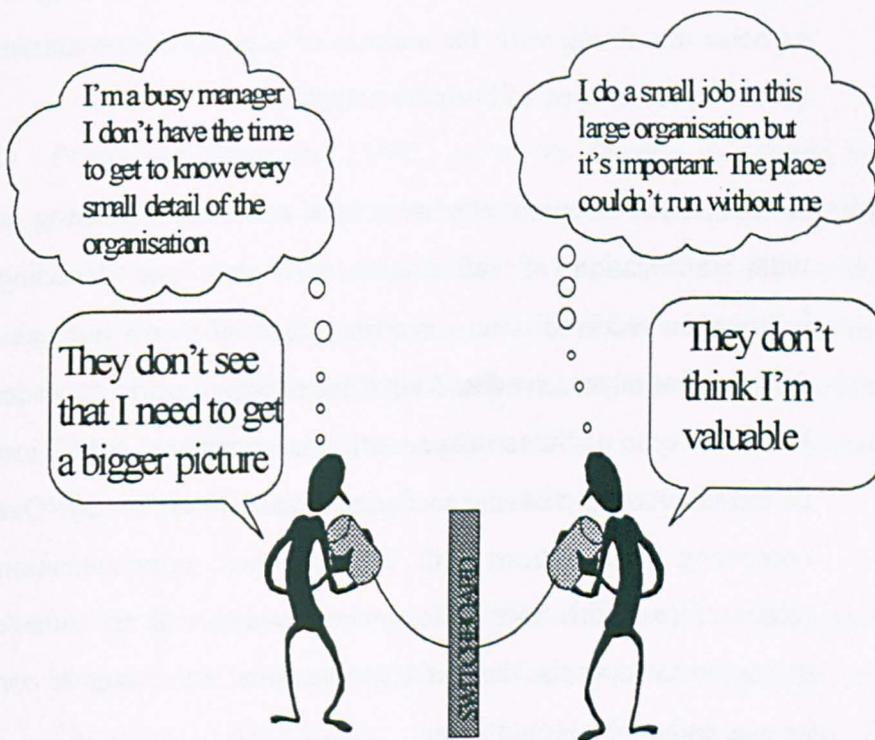
Figure 5.5 - Values as a switchboard or directional filter

5.5.7 A medium to large employer will engage staff with a wide range of skills, backgrounds and intelligence. A shared language alone will not provide sufficient shared ground for successful communication. In fact a shared language can lead to assumptions about understanding 'the obvious'. Whenever a message is to be conveyed, sensitivity to other's expectations or values will help that message to be heard. For example, if a group expects managers to be only interested in the state of finances then that is what they will hear unless the manager makes a determined effort to avoid this.

5.5.8 Noise of course cannot be eliminated whatever form it takes. Drawing parallels with newer communications methods, such as satellite links and the Internet, disruptions can still occur caused by features of the communication environment such as atmospherics. Likewise it would be as impossible to remove values from communications as it would to identify and categorise all those in play during a conversation. So what is the point of looking at values as noise interfering with the success of a performance measurement scheme or other type of business activity?

5.5.9 In summary, values can be interpreted as noise, interfering not only with transmission of information but also our decoding. The information received comes in a multitude of forms but values will dictate what is perceived and what we make an effort to understand. Whatever type of human organisation is considered it will inevitably be based on people having to communicate in some way. Over time continuing organisations will develop their communications and relationships. With this development values will be enhanced or discarded forming the distinct characteristics that result in corporate images and public reputations.

5.6   VALUES NARRATIVE IN ORGANISATIONS

5.6.1   This thesis is concerned with issues surrounding the introduction of performance measurement into existing organisations. It is worth considering however the influence of the values of founders or the history of an organisation as these appear to have a continuing effect. For instance, a new business headed by an entrepreneur of strong personality (such as Richard Branson of the Virgin Corporation) is likely to find it easier to convey its values. At the outset organisations are invariably small and the founder has a clear direction.

5.6.2   As a consequence we can expect those starting-up an organisation to have some impact on the values of the whole. The influence of the values held by a leader was explored by Chester Barnard back in the 1930's (Peters and Waterman, 1992; Kennedy, 1993). He saw the chief executive as the shaper and manager of shared values but also stressed that points of views and attitudes of all concerned need to be inculcated.

5.6.3   Peters and Waterman (1992) go on to develop this theme in their description of the attributes of successful companies. They call it hands-on, value-driven. For them it is important not just to be clear about the values the company stands for but also having the right sort. They are describing effective models existing organisations. These models can not be simply overlaid onto other organisations without a certain amount of commonality of values.

5.6.4   Values or ideals are more easily stated in a new association than in a long standing or large organisation formed by a merger for instance. The older an organisation, the slower it will be at adapting. Values and work patterns become entrenched and in part this will be due to in many cases to management personnel being older than those they manage. Mental models of organisations will be held, mechanistic or

organic for instance. A management structure ideal, such hierarchical or flat will also be held as right. There is no one right model. They all exist at anyone time though some may seem to dominate when the majority of values are similar.

5.6.5   It is possible that those individuals who have been in management positions for some time are especially fixed on a particular mental model. Harvey-Jones (1994) believes value systems in organisations reflect those of founders and both he Vickers (1970) are convinced that values are reinforced over time both in individuals and in organisations. Hofstede (1994 p.223) notes that by the time people reach top decision making roles they are usually no longer young and their values are set.

5.6.6   This entrenchment is not however the sole prerogative of middle age but applicable to anyone in any position. If the values held emphasise conformity or structure for instance the outlook is far less likely to embrace change. From the idea of learning by analogy (Dryden and Voss, 1994), it can be seen that this is almost inevitable as we draw on our experience. If parallels are not obvious or favourable then we may discard learning or avoid certain activities.

5.6.7   For example, if an individual's management model is based on the assumption that those managed will obey, agree or not answer back, an employee not conforming to this mental model will be considered a poor employee. In addition it can result in acute discomfort for the manager who may respond by endorsing their own management tradition as a way of restoring personal control. This will be done regardless of the short-term consequences as the manager will find it difficult accept that it is not the best way of initiating successful change.

5.6.8   Values depend on the perspective taken and consequently the external set of qualities against which they are judged (Mackie, 1990; Warr, 1991). For instance self-assertion is a good value for a shy person to aspire to but can be a bad one for a bully. Honesty may be the best policy but lies may prevent unnecessary insult and hurt.

5.6.9   An example of differing perspectives is that given by Rees (1994) who contrasts the viewpoints of Margaret Thatcher and Neil Kinnock - during and after the general election of 1983 - on returning to Victorian values. Mrs Thatcher in a variety of interviews defined them as beneficial and the embodiment of hard work, patriotism and self reliance. Mr Kinnock, then Chief Opposition Spokesman on Education, responded with the observation that Victorian Britain was a place where a minority made money but most lived in deprivation and poverty. For him there were few benefits, values instead being greed and selfishness resulting in misery and ignorance.

5.6.10   Moreover the benefit is rarely clear cut. Prohibition in the USA is a startling example of this. In 1873 a relatively small women's movement began to try and close some saloons and thus reduce the chances of husbands dying young of alcoholism. It grew not only into a change in the American constitution but formed the basis of the suffragette movement, destroyed many viable distilling businesses and founded both political careers and a major crime wave.

5.6.11   The very simple original values purported at the outset (abstention and family life) resulted in consequences that could hardly have been imagined at the inception of the 'Women's War'. The outcome was so devastating that the change in the constitution was repealed less than ten years later. It appears that the heartfelt values of an entire country were altered.

5.6.12 Using systems terminology it is argued that the manager refers to at least two separate personal mental models or world-views (Senge, 1990 and Morgan, 1986). Even if a manager only refers to one paradigm, conflict will occur if staff refer to alternative models. If it is assumed that world-views consist of values and norms (Checkland and Scholes, 1990) it can be seen how a discord between thoughts or beliefs - held by a person and the information they are now receiving - can lead to cognitive dissonance. The system they perceive is not the same as the one others see and consequently the decisions made can be difficult, if not impossible, to understand.

5.6.13 One of the most common complaints about performance measures in the public sector is their focus on commercial aspects that appear inappropriate to a service oriented environment. It seems inconceivable to measure the dedication of a caring nurse just by patients seen or the quality of teaching by exam results alone. The values are incompatible. Even in a profit oriented industry there appears to be conflict between maximising profit and welfare of workers as the current European debate on a minimum wage illustrates.

5.6.14 Performance measurement in the context of this thesis comes as an intervention rather than an established process. Gregory (1996) looks at evaluation as intervention, arguing that the methodology or means of intervention is virtually irrelevant. What is important is the intervention itself which challenges established thought and prompts those being evaluated to a more detailed examination of their practices. The perceived values of performance measurement then may not be the ones outlined in earlier sections, such as conciseness or numeracy, but instead change or interruption.

5.6.15 Following this argument it is not the performance measures themselves that are important or even useful but it is the action of intervention that improves performance. This requires those intervening to recognise that the measures themselves are genuinely extraneous albeit they may have to be produced in order to exact the required effect. This is a Catch 22 situation where the interventionist balance what is produced against its impact. The main problem lying with what they have achieved appearing useless on the surface.

5.7 CHANGING VALUES

5.7.1 The bonus of being able to categorise values is that they become more tangible and available to management. Peters and Waterman (1982), for instance, are convinced that new values can be introduced to companies by clear articulation by leaders. They also believe that the right values have to be chosen in order for them to be most valuable. But can new values be learned as part of a change process?

5.7.2 There is much evidence to suggest that humans learn by analogy (Pask, 1976; Entwistle, 1981; Dryden and Voss, 1994). Successful learning is aided by linking new ideas to old ones, by drawing comparisons and building on what is already known. If we keep learning in this way however it seems difficult to see how change of any type ever occurs. It is particularly difficult to imagine how a persons values could be changed by somebody else.

5.7.3 Systems theorists too have used metaphor and analogy in an attempt to convey concepts differently to traditional science and that this has prompted some criticism (Robinson, 1990). The imposition of any mental model onto a situation will inevitably be value-full and exclude aspects that may be meaningful to others.

5.7.4   Values are not genetic imprints but learned attitudes and opinions and therefore they too can be strengthened by gaining more evidence to support their 'rightness' to the individual or group concerned. Further evidence for this lies in the societal themes that run throughout history. Many of the worthy values propounded by today's society are little different to those put forward by Aristotle and his contemporaries.

5.7.5   Philosophers summarised human nature as they perceived it. Consequently human nature is either basically the same or else we have conformed to fit into their model. Given that the classics have influenced education for many centuries, this is a possibility. The percentage of people formally educated in Western countries however was fairly small until the last century, which implies continuity of values must have occurred some other way.

5.7.6   Another possible influence on values is religion. In the past this has probably had a wider impact than formal education. Differences in religious values or their interpretation have been the cause of many disagreements stressing their importance. Churches have a vested interest in maintaining certain values in order to continue their existence via the support of their congregation (Smart, 1980). Religious factions all over the world provided much of the earliest teaching and relied very much on hymns or songs and wrote learned texts to convey its message. So much so that many religious ceremonies are still based on this.

5.7.7   Until recently many schools relied on a similar format to convey learning, such as copybook texts (Cowie, 1973), and compulsory reading of moralising or improving stories. This rote learning format underlines the need to be consistent and to aspire to a predetermined set of values and norms. Non adherence resulted in punishment, social exclusion or stigma.

5.7.8   Given that in extreme circumstances of war or other trauma it is likely that change will occur. Being forced to react to unexpected events must produce different values or culture in some groups. In the everyday world of organisations and business the environment is likely to be fairly stable. If a disturbance does occur it may due to a loss of market share, scandal or new competition, but perhaps the most likely cause is change of significant personnel.

5.7.9   Human nature, whether entirely deterministic or governed by free will, does appear to exhibit a certain polarity (Schein, 1988). People are drawn or forced towards certain extremes of beliefs or behaviours. The dominance of certain political parties and religions might be an example of this. At election time votes must be placed to support specific parties often representing the opposing political views. Religious groups also encourage this polarity, with fundamentalists not only becoming intolerant with those who do not agree with them but exacting punishment for dissension. This despite the common threads that world religions share in defining values and expected behaviour from their patrons.

5.7.10 This section indicates that much effort has been exerted to maintain certain values and norms. There appears to be a tendency for polarisation to make some values appear more dominant than others. Changing individual or group values is possible but requires some identification with the values being introduced.

5.8 CONCLUSION

Values are core beliefs or ideals about the way things should be. They are fixed very early on in life and only their manifestation changes in priority over time and circumstance. They are held by both individuals and organisations and although values patterns exist - giving rise to paradigms and models - they can be widely polarised. Changing the values of an individual or group requires some common ground or trauma of some sort.

CHAPTER 6

A REVIEW OF
CONTEMPORARY QUESTIONNAIRES
THAT ASSESS VALUES AND ROLES
IN ORGANISATIONS

SUMMARY

This chapter focuses on a review of three surveys in current use that attempt to assess individual and team characteristics. They have been chosen as they all express the outcome in descriptive words (adjectives) many of which equate to human values. They are also all applied as a means of better understanding and consequently improving group performance. One looks specifically at roles within teams; the second, personal characteristics and how they affect communication in the workplace; the third identifies values present in both individuals and organisations. The surveys are described, placed into context with other similar surveys and their advantages and disadvantages discussed.

6.1 INTRODUCTION

6.1.1 Whilst researching the means of measuring performance and also ways of identifying values, psychometric tests were often referred to (Belbin, 1991; Coolican, 1990; Hall, 1994; Hogg & Vaughan, 1995). Not only did they attempt to crystallise people or group characteristics but they appeared to determine values for each character or role. This link to values and the apparent simplicity of using a questionnaire to match people to groups suggested a separate review of contemporary tests might prove useful.

6.1.2 The following review gives a brief description of three widely used organisational surveys sometimes called personality tests. All of them aim to identify human attributes within the context of organisations, for the benefit of those same organisations.

6.1.3 They are all available in questionnaire format and are aimed at an international audience. They do however have different emphasis and styles. Two require administration by trained psychologists the third is more widely available. One is explicit about values the other two more centred on personality traits and roles. They are all intended to be management tools with self-development as a useful by-product.

6.1.4 They are reviewed in order of increasing complexity. The first is the Belbin Self-Perception Inventory (SPI) developed in the UK. The second is the Myers-Briggs Team Inventory (MBTI) and the third the Hall-Tonna Inventory of Values both originating in the US. Figure 6.1 summarises the structure of the survey, its conduct, outcome and emphasis.

	Belbin SPI	MBTI	Hall-Tonna Values Inventory
Structure	Fairly simple questionnaire although rating mechanism can cause difficulties - results can be self-analysed	Straightforward questionnaire and self-marked simple option analysis - group comparisons must be facilitated	Complex questionnaire and/or literature audit but simple multi-choice response sheet - analysed by V.T. - complex report with facilitated feedback
Outcome	1/2 preferences out of 9 roles	16 combinations of 4 preferences	Priorities identify small selection out of 125 potential values
Emphasis	Role within team and putting together effective team	Attitude/behaviour preferences - their impact on communication especially in work situations	Specific values identified as dominant in both individual and organisation

Figure 6.1 - Table of survey characteristics

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6.1.5 The following sections describe the surveys in more depth. The analysis considers both advantages and disadvantages focusing on their application rather than the soundness of their origins.

6.2 BELBIN SELF-PERCEPTION INVENTORY (SPI)

6.2.1 Belbin has conducted a great deal of research into team roles and produced a number of books on the subject (1981, 1993, 1996, 1997). The inventory was developed from a number of earlier versions and was designed to give a simple means of assessing an individual's best team-roles. The outcome is a rating of a series of nine roles each with its own set of characteristics.

6.2.2 His questionnaire asks the respondents to read a range of nine statements in each of the seven sections (Appendix I). For each section a total of ten points are distributed among the sentences that the respondent thinks best describes their behaviour. These points may be distributed among several sentences: In extreme cases they might be spread among all the sentences or ten points may be given to a single sentence. The points are then placed in the table provided.

6.2.3 The advantage of this survey is its simplicity and humour. It does not require a specialist to manage it and the results are phrased in every day but positive terms. Strengths and weaknesses are allowable and the process embraces the idea that not everybody can be good at everything. Each person in a team regardless of status or work role is considered to have skills to offer. Human values are represented in the *typical features, positive qualities and allowable weaknesses* of Figure 6.2. This table is taken from an earlier version of the inventory but it gives a flavour of the values attributed to the different roles

Type	Symbol	Typical features	Positive qualities	Allowable weaknesses
Company Worker	CW	Conservative, dutiful, predictable.	Organizing ability, practical common sense, hard-working, self-discipline	Lack of flexibility, unresponsiveness to unproven ideas.
Chairman	CH	Calm, self-confident, controlled.	A capacity for treating and welcoming all potential contributors on their merits and without prejudice. A strong sense of objectives.	No more than ordinary in terms of intellect or creative ability.
Shaper	SH	Highly strung, outgoing, dynamic.	Drive and a readiness to challenge inertia, ineffectiveness, complacency or self-deception.	Proneness to provocation, irritation and impatience.
Plant	PL	Individualistic, serious-minded, unorthodox.	Genius, imagination, intellect, knowledge.	Up in the clouds, inclined to disregard practical details or protocol.
Resource Investigator	RI	Extroverted, enthusiastic, curious, communicative.	A capacity for contacting people and exploring anything new. An ability to respond to challenge.	Liable to lose interest once the initial fascination has passed.
Monitor-Evaluator	ME	Sober, unemotional, prudent.	Judgement, discretion, hard-headedness.	Lacks inspiration or the ability to motivate others.
Team Worker	TW	Socially orientated, rather mild, sensitive.	An ability to respond to people and to situations, and to promote team spirit.	Indecisiveness at moments of crisis.
Completer Finisher	CF	Painstaking, orderly, conscientious, anxious.	A capacity for follow-through. Perfectionism.	A tendency to worry about small things. A reluctance to 'let go'.

Figure 6.2 - Belbin's categories of 'useful people to have in teams'

(from 8 role - 1983 version)

6.2.4 The limit of this type of survey is the narrowness of scope and size of a team. The SPI was developed in the controlled environment of Henley Management College. Although significantly adapted when tried out in the real world it can have limited use in large organisations or those with high complexity and differentiation (Reavill, 1997). Indeed, Lumley (1997) argues that teams, especially those classed as high-performance, have very complex origins but this is glossed over in favour of simple descriptions of team behaviour.

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Belbin (1997) has extended his research to look more closely at the way work and teams are set-up but still uses simple categories - colour coded this time - as the basis.

6.2.5   The use of categories also runs the risk of stereotyping that may inhibit personal growth. In the short term or if the team is a temporary fixture this may not be a problem as it is precisely the skills identified that meet the task. This may also be applicable to teams put together for a very specific purpose, such as the Red Arrows (Owen, 1996), for which there may be little requirement to change roles. In more everyday or long-term circumstances maintaining a single role continually could become wearisome. For instance somebody who starts with the strengths of a *Team Worker* may, if given alternative experiences, over time become a *Chairperson*. Once a person is described as *Team Worker* (indecisive in a crisis) however it may be difficult to persuade anyone in management to support development of responsibility.

6.2.6   Belbin appears to assume that those using the SPI will be able to disassociate the role from value judgements. The terms he uses however indicate certain judgements made about what is desirable. The weaknesses allowed can have negative connotations that may be focused on to the detriment of the more positive attributes.

6.2.7   In conclusion the Belbin SPI has a simplicity that makes it easy to use by small groups, in training exercise and by organisations that are non-office based. Its strength is in an introduction to the area of team work and group composition. The main disadvantage is the complexity of its scoring scheme and the risk of judging and stereotyping in established groups.

6.3   MYERS BRIGGS TYPE INDICATOR (MBTI)

6.3.1   This Jungian based personality type indicator carries with it strict instructions that it must be conducted by qualified personnel. The survey and analysis however can be completed by the individual. Feedback to groups however is considered best managed by an experienced facilitator. This way it is strengths or 'gifts' that are emphasised as well as highlighting the benefits to group interaction.

6.3.2   The MBTI was developed in the USA by Myers and Briggs. It has a world-wide distribution and has promoted considerable research interest (Mullins, 1996:111). Its strength and curiosity lie in the way it correlates personality type, occupation and management style. Although there are unofficial variations on the MBTI such as the Kiersey Temperament Sorter (Magid, 1997) the sensitive nature of the feedback is such that it should really only be conducted under the supervision of a licensed administrator.

6.3.3   The survey consists of 94 questions and characteristics each with two possible options (Appendix J). The emphasis is on how the individual feels or acts. The results indicate the four most dominant categories out of a set of eight. These four in combination then define the personality type. The 16 different combinations are shown in Figure 6.3 (Hirsh and Kummerow, 1990) where the headings in initials are description as follows:

	ENERGIZING	
E - Extrovert		I - Introvert
	ATTENDING	
S - Sensing		N - Intuition
	DECIDING	
T - Thinking		F - Feeling
	LIVING	
J - Judgement		P - Perception

ISTJ	ISFJ	INFJ	INTJ
factual	detailed	committed	independent
thorough	conscientious	loyal	logical
systematic	traditional	compassionate	critical
dependable	loyal	creative	original
steadfast	patient	intensive	systems-minded
practical	practical	deep	firm
organized	organized	determined	visionary
realistic	service-minded	conceptual	theoretical
duty bound	devoted	sensitive	demanding
sensible	protective	reserved	private
painstaking	meticulous	holistic	global
reliable	responsible	idealistic	autonomous
ISTP	**ISFP**	**INFP**	**INTP**
logical	caring	compassionate	logical
expedient	gentle	gentle	skeptical
practical	modest	virtuous	cognitive
realistic	adaptable	adaptable	detached
factual	sensitive	committed	theoretical
analytical	observant	curious	reserved
applied	cooperative	creative	precise
independent	loyal	loyal	independent
adventurous	trusting	devoted	speculative
spontaneous	spontaneous	deep	original
adaptable	understanding	reticent	autonomous
self-determined	harmonious	empathetic	self-determined
ESTP	**ESFP**	**ENFP**	**ENTP**
activity-oriented	enthusiastic	creative	enterprising
adaptable	adaptable	curious	independent
fun-loving	playful	enthusiastic	outspoken
versatile	friendly	versatile	strategic
energetic	vivacious	spontaneous	creative
alert	sociable	expressive	adaptive
spontaneous	talkative	independent	challenging
pragmatic	cooperative	friendly	analytical
easygoing	easygoing	perceptive	clever
persuasive	tolerant	energetic	resourceful
outgoing	outgoing	imaginative	questioning
quick	pleasant	restless	theoretical
ESTJ	**ESFJ**	**ENFJ**	**ENTJ**
logical	conscientious	loyal	logical
decisive	loyal	idealistic	decisive
systematic	sociable	personable	planful
objective	personable	verbal	tough
efficient	responsible	responsible	strategic
direct	harmonious	expressive	critical
practical	cooperative	enthusiastic	controlled
organized	tactful	energetic	challenging
impersonal	thorough	diplomatic	straightforward
responsible	responsive	concerned	objective
structured	sympathetic	supportive	fair
conscientious	traditional	congenial	theoretical

Figure 6.3 - Brief descriptors of the sixteen (MBTI) types

6.3.4   These word associations do not stand on their own. MBTI preferences are also viewed in the context of work situations and by the way they influence communication. In Figure 6.3 the dominant function in the middle (SN and TF) is underlined and this function is the one most used or favoured.

6.3.5   Four temperaments, named after Greek gods, are identified from groupings in Figure 6.3. The characteristics bear some considerable likeness to those used by Eysenck and Wilson (1976) and Handy (1995). It is, in part, this link to shared and established images that the groupings are considered useful. The simplification of the original sixteen variations are also thought to be easier for people to grasp.

6.3.6   A major advantage of this inventory are the subtleties of human nature that it attempts to unveil. It also stresses the importance of managed feedback, ensuring a group perspective and not just an individual one is taken. In common with the Belbin inventory both strengths and weaknesses are identified and allowed. The use of the results also proves more critical than the data itself, a common attribute of this type of inventory according to Stewart (1996)

6.3.7   The disadvantages are the length of the inventory and the use of terms such as 'feel' or 'sense'. This may appear threatening to those unused to relating to work situations this way. Some terms may also be unfamiliar those with an average vocabulary. The prospect of group feedback, however sensitively handled, may also prove daunting to the more reserved.

6.3.8   Finally, with the necessary management of the questionnaire also comes increased cost. It is a feature of both the MBTI and the Hall-Tonna inventory that their administration is heavily tied into

consultancy services. The use of outside agencies has both pros and cons offering both objectivity and a lack of understanding.

6.3.9   Taking the MBTI a stage further is Magid (1997) who has devised a version for the use on the Internet. Called the Keirsey Temperament Sorter. This questionnaire can be completed and the results fed-back instantaneously (Appendix K). The web site acknowledges that whilst it is based on the Myers-Briggs system the real test needs to be administered by a licensed practitioner. The results use similar categories and an interesting summary of the types that have completed the survey on the Internet is provided. Interestingly there appears to have been some debate about the order in which the 70 pairs of statements are given. Initially they appeared in random order but the web site visitors requested a more consistent pattern.

6.3.10 In conclusion the MBTI has been carefully designed, administered and is firmly placed within an overall schedule of managing personality types and their interaction within groups. The questions can seem rather intimidating and personal though and the outcomes can appear less than flattering given the differences between the language of psychology and colloquialism.

6.4   HALL-TONNA VALUES INVENTORY

6.4.1   The company of Values Technology[1] stresses the importance of values as a quality information system that is the driving force of our lives, whether at home or at work. Brian Hall, the founder of the company, devised the inventory with Benjamin Tonna. It is based on

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[1] Values Technology, 740 Front Street, Suite 315, Santa Cruz, CA 95060, USA

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many years of research into values and human and organisational development.

6.4.2   In Hall's book *Values Shift* (1994) many case studies and stories are used. Firstly they explain why values are so important and then they attempt to show how values can be transformed. The stress is always on a practical way to improve personal worth and organisational performance. The research has resulted in the compilation of a questionnaire (Appendix L) which when analysed gives values priorities based on the Hall-Tonna Inventory of Values mentioned in section 5.3.

6.4.3   Hall believes that values and their priorities are not immutable. They move between levels of priorities and develop in cycles, as a result they are reflected in our behaviour, both actual and sought. The four skills listed as necessary for the development through the four phases of consciousness are allied to Senges' (1990) idea of personal mastery. They are instrumental, interpersonal, imaginal and system skills. In many ways Hall tries to use all of these to demonstrate his conviction that values are the key to greater understanding.

6.4.4   The Hall-Tonna Inventory claims to be a way of assessing a company's corporate values, reviewing them and then realigning them in order to reach a consensus. It is a technique for companies experiencing problems with its workforce or with a need to understand them better. It is based on the assumption that individuals' and companies' value systems are not always obvious.

6.4.5   The fact that values lie under the surface and are reflected in attitudes and behaviour is rarely discussed directly. Hall's method attempts to bring them to the surface, thus showing people they either have more in common than they realise or else that their espoused values - such

as those in corporate statements - are not necessarily those actually governing their behaviour. The core assessment technique is a questionnaire for individuals and a document scan for corporate publications to identify value priorities from key statements or words used. Once identified, discussion or counselling takes place thus facilitating change.

6.4.6   The language of the questions can be difficult to comprehend. This may in part be due to the US base of the company but essentially the survey appears best suited to literate people working in an environment where such surveys may be easily completed.

6.4.7   The Inventory is directly concerned with values, going as far as to name them very explicitly and indicate a progression that comes with self-development. The levels of growth infer that organisational development is possible once values are surfaced. The Inventory offers an attractive solution to those interested in the human activity systems within their organisation. It is however time consuming and may require people to be more emotional or open than normal. This may induce unnecessary feelings of vulnerability and insecurity.

6.4.8   Analysis of the survey is undertaken by the company Values Technology. This promotes an air of mystery and expertise as the questions themselves give no clue as to the outcome. The results show how often certain value statements are concurred with but the report as a whole is complicated and not easy to decipher. It is recommended that the results are delivered and shared with the help of a facilitator. This again endorses the air of expertise, inferring sincerity but actually making the service accessible only to those who can afford the fees.

6.4.9 In conclusion this survey makes an attempt to represent the complexity of value systems. Unfortunately it ends up giving the impression that they are tangible and measurable and acting in isolation. The language appears elitist and the whole process requires a commitment from the administrators (Values Technology) that would prove inhibiting to small companies or groups.

	Belbin SPI	MBTI	Hall-Tonna Values Inventory
Link to values	Implicit - words that describe a role strengths/weakness imply values e.g. inflexible or dynamic. Knowing a team composition could result in value judgements based on shared ground	Not obvious in questions but explicit in 'Brief descriptions of the 16 types'	Outcome explicitly called values - report produced as result of analysis attempts to explain values in terms such goals, focus.
Application	To individuals and teams - can be adapted to circumstances pretty easily	To individuals and teams - Outcome facilitated in groups to minimise potential friction and ensure feedback is given sensitively	To people and documentation used in an organisation
World-view represented (assumptions)	Effective teams can be constructed as long as the right balance of roles is ensured	That understanding the different preferences of people within a team will help to strengthen it and not undermine it with prejudice	That personal values can be identified and value systems changed given careful questioning and double checking

Figure 6.4 - World-view of surveys and their application

	Belbin SPI	MBTI	Hall-Tonna Values Inventory
Pros	• Simple to complete • original version low cost to administer	• Appears thorough and well researched • Complex outcome of analysis looks impressive	• Looks at values present at many levels in an organisation • Doesn't hide its values link
Cons	• Risk of stereotyping especially in 'low-key' roles such as *monitor evaluator* and *teamworker* • Simplicity may not acknowledge real life complexity	• Requires facilitator • Material heavily copyrighted • Too personal in using terms such as *judgement* and *introversion*	• Uses uncommon vocabulary • US and psychoanalyst oriented • Touches a bit too 'deep' • Appears judgmental in its allocation of levels of values • Requires considerable discussion • forms basis of consultancy so conflicting interests may occur in facilitating
Developments since start of research	CD-ROM and training courses offered. Team activity developed into 'Workset' IT related team working	Variation (Kiersey) can be done and analysed immediately on the Internet	Originally US based with focus on multinational cos.- increasing search for European customers not proving particularly successful

Figure 6.5 – Advantages, disadvantages and developments of surveys

6.5   OTHER SURVEYS

6.5.1   Whilst attempting to find something that would aid in the definition of human values and how they could be surfaced a number of other means of gathering such information were identified. These included a ten year old Transactional Analysis (TA) survey of a similar pattern to Belbin. This survey was considered singularly unsound by Stewart[2] as it did not take in any of the non-verbal indications of ego-states. A criticism that could be levelled at any survey of something as intimate as values.

6.5.2   Other surveys considered were the Rokeach value survey (Appendix M) referred to earlier and the World Values Survey as published on the Internet (ICPSR, 1994). Saville and Holdsworth General Abilities Profile and Advanced Occupational Interest Inventory[3] (Saville and Holdsworth, 1997); the PA Preference Inventory (PAPI) (Kostick, 1980) and the Honey and Mumford (1986; 1989) Learning Styles. The latter three were the ones in most contemporary use but their characteristics were less values oriented than those covered earlier in this chapter. Their main features are summarised in Figure 6.6.

6.5.3   They are presented here as they share some of the same advantages and disadvantages as those described earlier. All attempt to summarise properties of individuals and go some way to placing these within the context of a group. The ultimate aim of all of them appears to be a highlighting of strengths to be developed or weaknesses to be remedied resulting in an overall improvement of performance.

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[2] In a personal letter to the author

[3] These are in effect psychometric tests similar to those conducted by MENSA and other organisations

	Saville and Holdsworth	PAPI	Learning Styles
Structure	3 main areas - verbal, numerical and abstract reasoning based on psychometric tests	90 pairs of statements requiring indication of preference	80 statements to which an indication of agree or disagree is required using ticks and crosses
Outcome	An indication of career preference in printed report used in conjunction with careers advisor	Circular grid indicating 20 predisposition's grouped into 7 sub-headings	Grid indicating prominence on 4 learning styles, activist, theorist, reflector and pragmatist
Emphasis	Flexible but focus on graduates and self-development	Work oriented based on emotional and personal style	Personal learning with suggestions how to build up weak areas

Figure 6.6 - Table of survey characteristics

6.5.4   Psychometric tests, of the type demonstrated by Saville and Holdsworth, identify specific traits. They are often used in the context of making career choices or determining suitability for certain activities.

6.5.5   The PAPI not only looks at the individual in an organisational situation but also attempt to assess leadership characteristics. It is an assessment used mostly among management staff and within the context of training courses. It is both a reflective and proactive tool.

6.5.6   The Learning style questionnaire is not employment oriented but more personal and educationally focused. It is still however used as a means of highlighting areas where performance might be improved. Recognising the dominant means of learning and utilising that to best advantage can be a revelation to some (Stewart, 1996).

6.6 CRITIQUE

6.6.1 The surveys reviewed here all possess characteristics that make them potentially useful tools. They offer the chance to go beyond first impressions or the obvious aspects of group behaviour. They can also help managers to take a more objective view of teamwork and skills development. Nevertheless without human administration and skilful intervention there is capacity for them to do more harm than good.

6.6.2 Where the outcome is a list of explicit values or roles there is a risk of stereotyping. This is present even where authors or administrators acknowledge that changes in profile are likely over time. This might be easily dealt with by undertaking the survey on a regular basis but this action presents its own difficulties of cost, time and familiarity.

6.6.3 It might also be argued that for some questions the response may change from one day to the next according to general well-being and organisational roles held. For instance one of Belbin's categories asks about a characteristic approach to group work. This could well change within a group according to colleagues, age or role status. From the earlier review of values theory (Chapter 4) a change in environment or of a single person on a team could impact on this.

6.6.4 The tests covered in this chapter rely heavily on those completing them to be honest and respond in the manner the designer intended (Mullins, 1996). They must be prepared to put the findings in context and appreciate the use of a snapshot of opinions or roles. If there is no investment in the action or results this places limits on the usefulness of outcomes. The perceptions that exist and which are endorsed with each questionnaire or test completed add to the difficulties.

6.6.5   Looking at the values of individuals in organisations does however go some way to illuminating why it is so difficult to measure performance and implement change. Gauging them is a complex exercise and there is great risk involved in decisions based on a single assessment of the values or strengths. Even the MBTI, which provides possibly the most balanced analysis, simplifies its groupings in order to be more easily understood. This endorses Lumley's (1997) concern that simple linear models are consistently chosen over more complex models.

6.6.6   From the surveys and prior research (Chapter 4) it appears that many values and norms are present even within small organisations. It is therefore perhaps too ambitious to think that we can identify the core beliefs or traits of an individual albeit in the narrower context of an organisation. Even if accurately identified the process of change and the interaction with other value systems means the identification will have to be an ongoing feature of organisational management. This is an activity that would need careful balancing with cost and time commitment if it were to work effectively.

6.6.7   In summary it appears that the search for a straightforward, easily administered values survey, applicable to a wide variety of simple and complex organisations is still ongoing. In many ways such surveys offer similar benefits to performance measurement, easily gathered summarised information that better enables effective management. In turn it also carries similar risks in oversimplification and perceived threat.

6.6.8   This chapter summarises a specific aspect of the literature review, which from the parallels drawn to performance measurement warranted a separate section. From the complicated advantages and disadvantages identified it appeared that although the surveys were

themselves sound the environments into which they were introduced varied so much the results could always be brought into question. The results - regardless of the originators' intentions and qualifications - implied a static environment where in actuality a dynamic one existed.

6.7 CONCLUSION

All the surveys covered by this chapter have their merits. In the main they allow data to be gathered on a large scale. They encourage self-knowledge of strengths and weaknesses and should allow managers to put together the ideal team made up of an appropriate mixture of values, skills and roles according to the task. In lieu of the 'perfect' team they can indicate areas of expertise or those in need of development. They are, however, only a snapshot and run the risk of being intimidating, stereotyping and inhibiting. Because of the often intense psychology underlying them they can seem mysterious and doubtful. Their use in determining worth can make them seem threatening particularly to those for whom the vocabulary is unfamiliar. The following chapter attempts to explore the real-world context further by the application of questionnaires and concepts to the four case studies.

CHAPTER 7

THE SYSTEMIC NATURE OF VALUES

SUMMARY

Thus far the relative merits of performance measurement have been explored. Consistent problems with implementation have been identified using action research and SSM analysis of case studies. Consequently the impact of values systems on performance measurement has been examined and the background to values theory described. This chapter places human values theory within the context of systems thinking. Values are taken as system components, their groupings as systems and the expectations and behaviours produced by them as emergence. It is established why individual values are less relevant than the interaction of value systems and their emergent properties of world-view and expectation. It is concluded that systems paradigms are appropriate to apply to values and that they have a tendency to be self-reinforcing.

7.1 VALUES AS SYSTEM COMPONENTS

7.1.1 To recap, human values are conceptual beliefs or preferences such as *freedom* or *self-development*. They may be traditional virtues or statements of social worth such as *honesty*, or subconscious assessments on what is right and wrong. Values are human qualities, aspired to or held dear, that we all have. They have the capacity to be both beneficial or damaging (Hofstede, 1991; Hebel, 1996a). Organisational values demonstrate similar beliefs by what they

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produce, their mission statements and in they way they market themselves.

7.1.2 Values are usually very private depending on perceived 'goodness'. It is for these reasons that specific values are given only as example in this thesis and not as separate items to be identified. For instance in simple terms the combination of *honesty* and *ambition* is likely to produce very different actions. This will depend on which is considered most important, what other values are held and the circumstances in which the holder finds themselves. One person may be prepared to be a little dishonest in order to attain a desired position. Another may feel more comfortable maintaining their honesty rather than be promoted on a lie. Consequently it is considered more relevant to investigate the emergence of groups of values and the way value systems interact.

7.1.3 Neither people nor organisations hold values in isolation and this is what makes them suitable to be viewed in a systemic light. Both comprise collections of values formed from experience and circumstance. Their purpose is to reassure and provide meaning to actions. Combinations of values prioritise themselves according to the situation forming different hierarchies over time. These hierarchies result in the emergence of our world-views and expectations.

7.1.4 In summary, the identification of specific values is not pursued in depth in this thesis for a number of reasons. World-views result in different interpretations and vocabulary. Many values are unconscious or intangible. It also seems that similar combinations of values will have different emphasis. This prompts a further look at values arranged as systems. These aspects of value systems are explored in the next section.

7.2   VALUE SYSTEMS

7.2.1   Each individual and group has a set of values which when combined
form the components of a value system. Figure 7.1 shows a simplified
map of the sort of values and value systems an individual might hold
and interact with. The core values that are defined early within the
family context will form the central or core system, some remaining
consistently high in whatever is undertaken, *cleanliness* perhaps.
Other values are applied to other circumstances and overlap other
value systems, such as *pleasure*. Others will only be relevant within a
particular sub-system such as *social recognition.*

7.2.2   In simple terms an organisation of any type can be seen as a
collection of systems with the potential to sub-optimize. Dyer (1993)
states that each of these systems contains an inherent 'connectedness'
that should provoke questions about intangible links such as values.
These links are in turn connected. Values form the basis of our
personalities (Bradshaw, 1990) and when combined form a subtly
adapting system that governs what we do and how we evaluate those
around us (Yalom, 1991).

7.2.3   Individuals and groups will react in different ways to the same
situation. Checkland (1981) perceived attitudes as *"intangible
characteristics which reside in the individual and collective
consciousness of human beings in groups".* The behaviour that
emerges will be a direct result of the particular combination of value
priorities present at any one time.

Another persons value system

Another persons value system

Another organisations value system

Another organisations value system

Another persons value system

Another organisations value system

Core personal value system

Work value system

Social value system

Friendship

Honesty

Social recognition

Pleasure

Ambition

Self-development

Sense of belonging

Camaraderie

Variety

Cleanliness

Society values systems

Social worth

Skill

Obedience

Religious system

High standards

Politeness

Political system

Producing something

Media system

Thrift

Founders values

Cultural system

Organisational value system

Maintaining viability

Law & order system

Another persons value system

KEY ⎯⎯⎯ Core system boundary
Other system boundary
O System component

Figure 7.1 - System map of one possible arrangement of value systems

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7.2.4   Figure 7.1 is of course a much simplified version of what is really going on when people in organisations interact. Each system would alter in hierarchy according to circumstance. In organisations, the work and organisational value systems have dominance perhaps over the core values, until perhaps a crisis occurs when decisions need to draw on wider values. So not only are particular values raised and lowered in priority but also systems of values in a hierarchy of need.

7.2.5   From the research covered in this thesis it might be argued that there are four layers of values giving a rough indication of priority (Figure 7.2). There are those of high priority either above the surface of social acceptance or just below, either way they can be articulated. Above the surface are those most acceptable to those around us (section 6.3). They might perhaps be indicated by popular opinion or organisational culture, education by school teachers, anti-crime by police officers for instance.

7.2.6   Just below the surface feature the values we might be disinclined to admit to others for fear of censure. They can still be articulated but may not fit in well with some environments such as snobbery or politically incorrect opinions (section 6.3.11). This reflects Hofstede's (1991) comments that values have a positive and a negative side. Both of the levels close to the surface are likely to be the everyday values present in an organisational system. They should produce an emergence that gets the job done and provides normal social exchange.

7.2.7   The next level down consists of values of medium priority. These are values that are not regularly reinforced or challenged in the current environment. They must however still meet Rokeach's (1973) requirements that a value must be at least personally, if not socially, acceptable. It might be argued that they are lying in wait to produce a surprising reaction. These values are the ones that produce symbolic

actions or sudden resignations. They could also be the ones most likely to put a spanner in an organisational works. The change in priority might be a sudden one in the face of blatant injustice or slow build up over time such as the development of the trade union movement (section 6.3.15). In the case studies it could be a response to the sudden introduction of performance measurement or the perception that it is one of a long series of changes recently presented to a previously very stable environment.

7.2.8   The bottom layer contains the most deeply entrenched attitudes that are far less likely articulated. Because of this they will result in a subconscious choice of reinforcing situations. They will cause people to find some organisations attractive and others repulsive. It is this layer that provides the 'oughtness' quality proposed by Feather (1993) and might be described as 'gut feeling' or instinct. They are not exactly low priority but as they are unlikely to be articulated or changed (sections 6.3.1 and 6.3.8) and as this research is primarily interested in the way values impact on organisations it is the other layers that are of most interest.

7.2.9   Perhaps it is because of this substrative quality of values that the urge to categorise and measure them is so compelling and has been attempted for so long. The scientific paradigm encourages us to find out about them, but human nature shies away from revealing them openly. There is a kind of value blindness that prevents us from either understanding or tolerating alien values.

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┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│                  ABOVE THE SURFACE                        │
│    social/cultural norms, most endorsed or rewarded       │
│                beliefs or behaviour                       │
│  e.g. reliability, environmentally aware, family          │
│              oriented, anti-murder                        │
│                                                           │
│  △▽△▽△▽△▽△▽△▽△▽△▽△▽△▽△▽△▽△▽△               │
│                                                           │
│                JUST BELOW THE SURFACE                     │
│   resentments, 'anti-social' norms, personal beliefs      │
│           that might contrast with social norms           │
│  e.g. values held about petty theft, over-assertion,      │
│                     dress code                            │
│                                                           │
│                    MEDIUM LEVEL                           │
│  responses to unfamiliar or infrequent occurrences        │
│                  such as crisis                           │
│  e.g. change in management style or co-workers,           │
│    increased competition or change in market              │
│                                                           │
│                     DEEP DOWN                             │
│  early experiences, childhood trauma, long-term values,   │
│    entrenched and mostly unacknowledged, basis of         │
│                 behaviour patterns                        │
│  e.g. difficult to account for anger, frustration,        │
│              dysfunctional behaviour                      │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
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Figure 7.2 - Four Layers of Values

7.2.10 Morgan (1986) suggests that values define cultural groups and provide an identity. Hall (1994) states that groups have values and that these also organise themselves into a system that gives structure and meaning to the individual as well as the group's existence. This is not a one way relationship however, but a mutually supporting association. Organisations must grow with reference to the culture of their operating environment. When there is a conflict here - such as the introduction of financial performance measures into organisations oriented towards social benefit not profit - the system will be required to redefine its structure and meaning.

7.2.11 Once the original fear settles down it can be argued that attitudes to change fall into a dichotomy where the glass is perceived to be either half full or half empty. A general attitude to give change a chance or one that is convinced it will fail or be disadvantageous. Much of the evidence on performance measurement described in this research indicates the later attitude (Chapter 6) but still schemes are used and results published so some benefit must be perceived (Chapter 3).

7.2.12 This half full, half empty analogy is illustrated in Figure 7.3 where there is an extreme to indicate optimism. Alternatively there will be an anticipation of failure or disadvantage, resulting in the perception that the glass is seen as half empty - the outlook is pessimistic. Two areas of middle ground are also indicated. One is cautious but open to persuasion, the other appears more open but deep down there is scepticism. As an illustration from the case studies, the Quakers generally seem to subscribe to the half full analogy, the police and school half empty and the builders representing a mixture (section 2.17) . It is possible that these two areas of middle ground could prove most difficult to deal with.

```
open & positive environment          cautious but generally positive
little persuasion required                    wary of unknown
comfortably in control               needs some persuasion on merits

(PRO-CHANGE)                         (PRO-CHANGE/ ANTI-CHANGE)

                      HALF FULL



                      HALF EMPTY

(PRO-CHANGE/ ANTI-CHANGE)

                                           (ANTI-CHANGE)

    say they're in favour of change          fixed in opinion & solutions
but don't really believe it'll be successful     environment unwilling
       hangover's are likely                  persuasion almost impossible
       persuasion difficult            only radical shake-up or personal counselling
                                              will promote change
```

**Figure 7.3 - Half full or half empty glass analogy of attitudes
towards change**

7.2.14 From section 6.3 it is clear that values are interconnected by a process of selective reinforcement. This in turn provides a life position where a person's basic beliefs are used to justify decisions and behaviour thus providing a purpose. For instance if the value of *independence* is held the inclination will be to seek out opportunities to assert that independence and convince ourselves that it is better than dependence on others. Alternatively, if it is believed that people work best if they are watched over and their work controlled, that

behaviour will be maintained by ignoring comments to the contrary on the basis perhaps that all employees are not to be trusted in what they do or say.

7.2.15 Given that early life sets our values, adult experience can only seek to endorse values rather than create new ones. The activities and environment may appear very different from childhood, but basic patterns are repeated (Bradshaw, 1990). We prefer to associate with those who hold similar views or join organisations that appear to represent values that are important to us. The systems do not exactly become closed as there is still interaction with the environment but the system components themselves do not change except in priority.

7.2.16 Consequently the basic ingredients of a system are present. The values or beliefs are the components interconnected by being mutually supporting. Values and their sub-systems function in hierarchy according to circumstance and the overall purpose of the system is to provide meaning to life and to maintain a feeling of well-being.

7.3   SOFT SYSTEMS METHODOLOGY

7.3.1   In an attempt to clarify what exactly is meant by value system the following root definition was composed:

> *A subconscious system that regulates our sense of well-being and determines our actions to life events. Core values are established on early life experiences and later life serves to adjust their priority or emphasis. The process is continually reinforcing unless a crisis occurs challenging and unearthing low priority values.*

7.3.2   Applying CATWOE to this, the customers and owners of this system are fundamentally ourselves. Others in the environment serve primarily the transformation process. The actors it might be argued are the values themselves rather than other people as it is their priority that dictates how the system fulfils the aim of providing meaning. The world-view is one that some meaning and purpose is required by everyone in order to remain relatively happy. Whether this is working in a worthwhile employment or maintaining a family depends on the individual.

7.3.3   Figure 7.4 lists the key areas on which world-views demonstrated by the case study participants about their context within organisations. The second and third columns of this table give examples of single values that form the core of the world-views. This is based on the case study data whilst acknowledging that the priorities expressed by the participants are open to variation across organisations. Named values are given as illustration but it should be noted that these are only exemplars of a continuum as the indications are that vocabulary and emphasis should be left to those involved in organisations.

7.3.4   For example determining the values of a world-view on personal work ethic can be represented by values of hard work (Protestant work ethic) or of doing the minimum required. This is directly covered by statement 33 of the second questionnaire and received a mean rating of 2.61. Those valuing 'minimum effort' may be more inclined to cheat and adjust the performance measurement calculations rather than improve performance. Those inclined towards 'hard work' may improve their performance in real terms but may also argue against measures as not being 'real' work.

7.3.5   Another example is to take the world-view of management (covered by a number of statements in the survey) if the common world-view of those being measured inclines towards an authoritarian perception of management the consultation and discussion about performance measurement may not be appropriate. Likewise if a low level of security is important and risk is the dominant value performance measurement will have to be adaptable to rapid changes in circumstance.

World-view on......	Examples of values that represent world-view	
Behaviour	passive/covert	active/overt
Classification (mental process)	objectivity	subjectivity
Commitment	conviction	apathy
Communication preference	grumbling (informal)	action (formal)
Confidence in others	trust	distrust
Context in group	belonging	remaining aloof
Group priorities	loyalty	self-interest
Learning	change	consistency
Level of interest	surface appearance	underlying process
Management	authoritarian	co-operative
Organisational persona	conformity	individualistic
Organisational purpose	service	profit
Personal priorities	home	work
Personal work ethic	hard work	minimum effort
Personality	modest	audacious
Security	safety	risk
Social order	hierarchy	equality
Theoretical framework	idealism	practicality
Viability	variety	specialisation

**Figure 7.4 - World-view subjects in case studies and
examples of the values that support them**

7.3.6   Figure 7.5 summarises the transformation process. It shows the main contributory factors and manifestation of our value systems and the process by which they are intensified by feedback. Beginning on the left side of the diagram there are examples of the early effects (shown in clouds) that influence both the individual and those that raise them. From the evidence available at the time a view of what is right or wrong is formed, then at some point in the future this is tested by behaving in a certain way. The consequences of this action then get fed-back into experience. It should be noted however that this action is quite selective. Not all information will be fed back, it will mostly consist of that which supports established values.
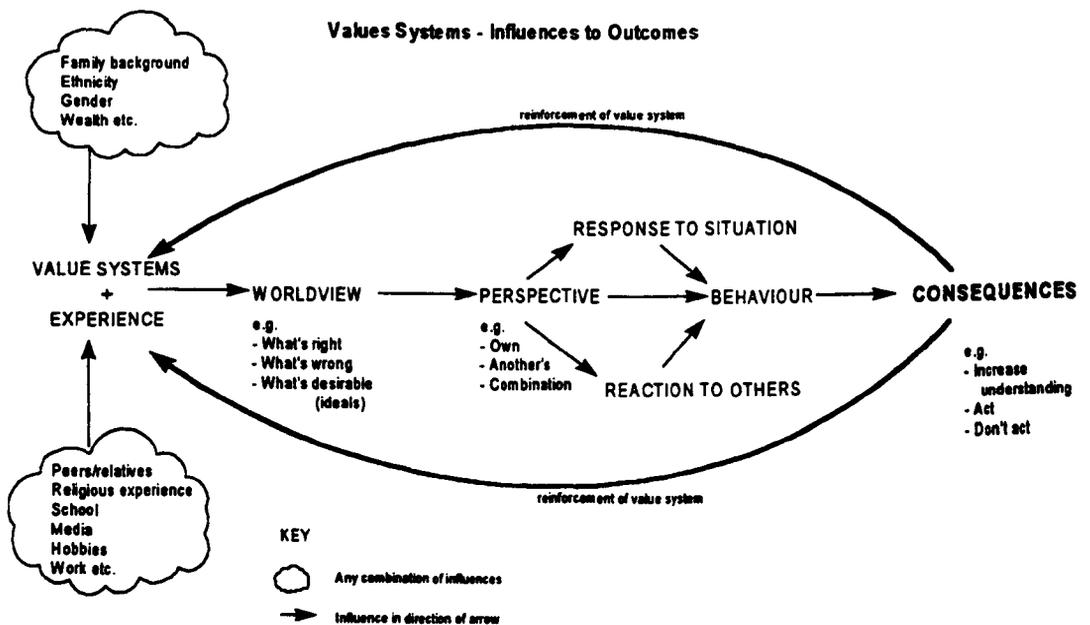
Figure 7.5 - The transformation process of building value systems

7.3.7   An alternative interpretation of value systems as a system to give meaning to life is that taken by Hall (1994). He stresses the importance of values as a quality information system, the driving

force of our lives whether at home or at work. This is viable as long as quality is defined and not necessarily assumed to be 'good'. Quality may mean eliminating competitors or hurting another person's feelings.

7.3.8   To summarise, in order to make sense of the world in which we live our individual and group values are organised so that the system purpose is fulfilled. If this is not done cognitive dissonance occurs and individuals can become disoriented or depressed and groups face serious disagreements or collapse. It can be argued that identifying the potential for disintegration and either supporting or preventing it by intervention requires a proactive systems analysis, rather than the reactive style normally adopted.

7.4   INTERACTING VALUE SYSTEMS

7.4.1   Values and even value systems are often categorised and considered in isolation such as the call for a return to family values without reference to societal value systems. Consequently it may be of benefit to consider the possibility of a collection of value sub-systems within an individual and focus on the interaction between them and external value systems. These might include one value system for work, another for home or family and another for environmental matters (refer back to Figure 7.1).

7.4.2   For example taking home small items of stationery from work is often considered a perk by employees but to their employers it is theft as the cumulative cost can be enormous. The same individual who acquires these items might never have committed an arrestable offence and may well be shocked at the thought of being called a thief. Many apparently reconcile these incongruent relationships,

either by ignoring their incompatibility or by finding a middle ground where only small, low cost items are 'borrowed'.

7.4.3   An alternative example could that of the CID (Hebel, 1996b) where traditionally the work world was placed higher than personal. The need to conform to the male-dominated social norms was often in direct conflict to the needs of home and family. Changes in legislation, equal opportunities and education over the past twenty years have seriously challenged the dominance of the traditional model. Separating the worlds has become increasingly complicated, younger officers attempting to reconcile the different value systems can find themselves incomprehensible to older more fixed officers.

7.4.4   This contains parallels to *social exchange theory* (Armson and Paton, 1994), where the focus of exchange will reflect the values held by individuals or groups. Values that do not appear to support the continued existence of a group in its current form will therefore be rejected or ignored. In performance measurement there can be perceived to be no exchange. The earlier root definition of a performance measurement system indicated a very much one sided benefit - not in itself wrong but likely to cause problems according to this theory.

7.4.5   Examples of this could include the attitude of governments towards *whistleblowers* or the contradictory views of the existence of Nazi concentration camps during the Second World War. In the latter example there are those who completely reject such camps existed or that atrocities ever occurred there, despite the evidence of survivors.

7.4.6   If assumptions are not made explicit, and they cannot always be, reflection and learning will be single track and may in fact end up going in circles (Armson, 1997). Denying the existence of something despite evidence is a manifestation of being locked into a reinforcing

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cycle of values. This is not the sole prerogative of the simple or uneducated. This can include those who possess the value of education so that when faced with an individual or group that seems to refuse to take on board what is being taught their behaviour appears incomprehensible.

7.4.7 An alternative viewpoint is one of a world-view that attempts to conciliate different levels of values an example of which is that of the Quakers. Their emphasis is fundamentally practical, based on the belief that all are equal and deserved of respect (Hebel-Holehouse, 1996). They acknowledge the different levels of interest and influence each human being has in their environment and also the conflict that is likely to occur. As a society they have maintained a clear set of values since their inception (300 years ago) adapting the practicalities according to the needs of the time. Beliefs about suitable behaviour or motives are supposed to apply in all situations encountered.

7.4.8 For example an early emphasis was on plain dress at a time when fashion had become very frivolous, in the last century the focus was on prison reform and now one of its main interests is human rights. The values have remained but their manifestation is different. The membership of the Quakers is, however, small compared with other religious groups. People have a tendency to drift in and out of attendance often moving on to other groups with strong ideals. This perhaps indicates that to attain such open and flexible concord of values applicable to all areas of life is difficult.

7.4.9 For any administrator of an organisation - or consensual group -there is much to consider and consequently identifying values may be low on their list of priorities. It might be argued that they are there to represent the organisations value system and to ensure their aims are met as well as possible. The administrator however has a value system of their own. Middle managers in particular are surrounded by

many different people and groups all making demands and asking for different values priorities.

7.4.10 It may be that in pursuit of ever better management proficiency an appreciation of both the skill required and preparedness to acknowledge and work with different viewpoints has been underestimated. In many ways managing an organisation is like flying a stunt kite - assumed to be a simple child-like activity by some but appreciated as a highly skilled sport by others.

7.4.11 The following diagram attempts to demonstrate the complexity of middle management. Figure 7.6 shows a manager as the flyer of a kite apparently making the action look effortless. The rest of the picture though warns of a great many seen and unseen obstacles. For a start the kite flyer has to know some basics about the kite and when it will fly. If it is unbalanced or too heavy or there is insufficient wind it will not go up. Once these obstacles have been dealt with a suitable site away from trees, other kite flyers, dogs and small children needs to be found. These complications do not have to be removed altogether but reasonable precautions are taken to avoid crashes.

7.4.12 Unexpected problems can still happen though. A sudden change in weather conditions or a broken spar will require a rethinking of the strategy initially adopted. The analogy to management does not just include planning and execution of a strategy but also an appreciation of space, the unexpected and the subtle pulls made by values changing in priority. This is a matter of not just knowing the theory and skills behind managing something but being actively aware that others have theories and skills, not necessarily in accord.
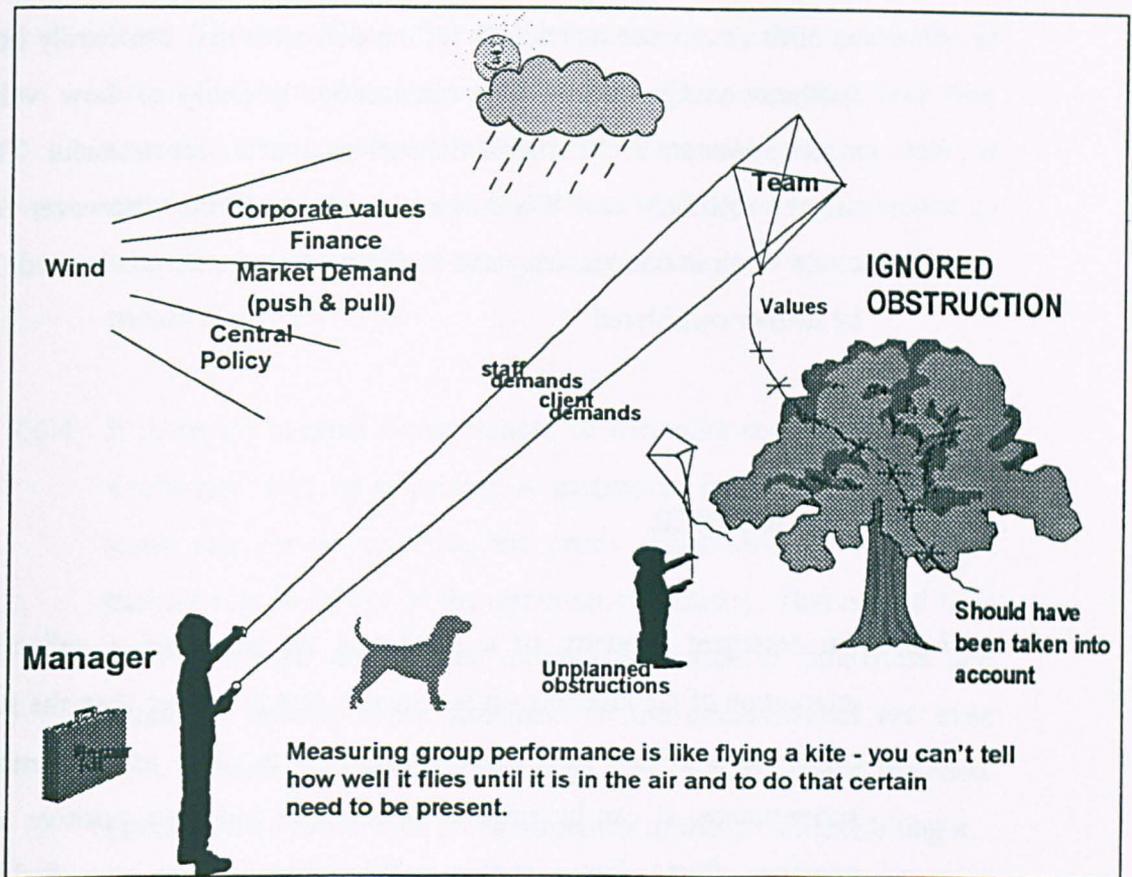
Figure 7.6 - Kite flying Analogy

7.4.13 Thus values and value systems interact. The values appear to remain fairly consistent but their priority shifts and changes according to life circumstances and the other value systems they interact with. It is only by confronting one set of values with another that change is likely to occur. A clash will result in a thunderstorm that will either herald a longer period of bad weather or sunshine and clearer air. For the storm to abate some common ground is needed or else deeper entrenchment is a likely outcome.

7.4.14 Problems may occur because human values are conceptual and often hidden or disguised by social norms. They are difficult to determine because they are established very early in life and can be unclear even to individuals themselves. Unearthing individual values will not only

be difficult but put individuals on the defensive that can hardly help facilitate change within an organisation. Looking at how value systems interact and manifest themselves appears more useful. This may be relatively easy if a culture is well established, however this could result in complacency and so the quality of emergence needs to be further considered.

7.5   EMERGENCE

7.5.1   An emergent property of a system is the result of a collective interaction of components - it is a quality that is greater than the sum of its parts (Flood and Carson 1988). It is often an unintended consequence. It can be singular or multiple and have positive and negative effects. For a human value system it may be a feeling, opinion or behaviour. Each values combination or priority may present a subtly different emergence.

7.5.2   An important emergent property of a value system is the Weltanschauungen or world-views, manifesting itself for example as attitudes or personality in individuals. It contributes to how individuals look and how they present themselves. For an organisation it can be a culture or reputation. A company will attempt to present its world-view via its marketing and corporate statements. Customer perception may be in accord with this alternatively they may fix on an earlier presentation or preconception about what the company is like. For example Quakers appear old-fashioned and friendly, Policemen formal and suspicious.

7.5.3   The emergence of a value system will probably be the first aspect that attracts a person. As Adorno states we *'search for sameness'* (Brocklesbury and Cummings, 1996) and personally validate what we

learn (Hyman, 1981). But this emergence may not be exactly as originally intended or quite what it seems. The police may think they appeal to their employees' altruism and responsibility but in reality it may be the perceived power or excitement that prompts someone to become a police officer. If none of these values seem attractive then a person is unlikely to join.

7.5.4   If there are unusual circumstances or excessive stress however, the world-view may be surprising. A participant from the building case study can appear to value the crude vocabulary and boisterous humour representative of the construction industry. That is until they are interviewed alone when other values such as politeness and sensitivity become more prominent. If the circumstances are even more extreme such as the response to war or death, the world-view exhibited may prove even more surprising to the person exhibiting it.

7.5.5   An example is where one individual will respond angrily to criticism another will respond thoughtfully. Where one group responds to a depletion of a natural resource by synthesising an artificial substitute another may focus on looking for an alternative natural source. Some responses may be more widespread than others, such as disgust as a response to a murder, however we cannot predict the world-views of others without reference to our own framing of a situation.

7.5.6   Morale could be considered an emergent property of a group of value systems. High morale occurs when there is a significant sharing of values. Hofstede (1994) notes that high morale appears more common in small groups and the smaller the group the greater the probability of shared values. Morale does not feature much in most management and organisations literature despite frequent mention of its importance to the case study participants.

7.5.7   One of the few management theorists to mention it is Belbin (1981) who has conducted many experiments in team working based on his typical team roles (see Chapter 6). He comments on existence of morale but does not feel confident that it actually improves performance. He does however state that high morale is one consequence of the performance of united teams even when the outcome may not be good in the eyes of the researcher.

7.5.8   Among the case studies high morale was the single most commonly mentioned feature that encouraged people to work well. It was typified by the sort of workplace that workers visited even on their day off, where they socialised with others and enjoyed going in each day. These characteristics were perceived to be fundamental to group performance. This memory of being part of a great team is one of the factors that prompted Senge (1992) to investigate what it was that made people enjoy working together and consequently to learn more easily.

7.5.9   Senge (1992) argues that successful learning is impossible unless it is sought and entered into willingly. He states that new values cannot be learnt but will occur at the successful culmination of learning and progressive change. He does not make clear whether these are totally new or simply re-prioritised values. In an existing organisation it is likely to be the latter. Either way this is likely to require considerable time and effort and the emergence may not be exactly as required. It is an investment many organisations could find difficult to support. Even with support it still may not be successful as it requires so many value systems components to concur with the change. There must be something to build on, change cannot evolve from nothing.

7.5.10 Senge *et al* (1994) use practical, work-based examples to enhance the five disciplines of learning described in Senge's earlier book *Fifth Discipline*. For them organisational learning, development and

change cannot occur without the commitment of the individual. The synergy of teamwork is essential not only in their arguments but in their own work. The reward in adopting Senge's ideas are in the everyday, practical language.

7.5.11 Organisations derive from a variety of foundation values. It may be to earn money, produce a product that there seems to be a need for or to solve a particular problem. Many well established organisations - including profit-making businesses - grew from sets of values about what would be good for individuals or groups. Religions and societies grow from this basis (Smart, 1980). A business example of this is the food company Heinz which evolved from its founders' desire to help illiterate immigrants in the USA see what they were buying by putting food into glass jars rather than tins. Many banks in the UK were founded by Quakers as their trustworthy reputation made them more attractive to potential investors.

7.5.12 When it comes to learning new things and consequently developing ourselves either at work or in our extramural activities, the world-view restricts or encourages. We can choose to turn off a television programme or turn the page on the newspaper if it does not interest us or meet our preferences. Likewise it can be argued that we turn off to what others say about organisational change - such as the introduction of performance indicators or new working practices like total quality management (TQM) - if it does not fit in with our particular set of values.

7.5.13 Given the limit on the number of values an individual can hold in high priority (Rokeach, 1973; Hall, 1994) this 'turning off' may be the predominant action and an indication to why change is viewed with such scepticism. It is expected to undermine our personal system of values.

7.5.14 Nonetheless value systems have been shown to have emergent properties that are world-views. These vary, albeit subtly, over time and particularly circumstance. Organisations also have value systems and world-views that both attract and repel members. The nesting and interaction between value systems can either challenge or support depending on their dominant emergence. If challenged the values are prone to submergence or polarisation in defensive behaviour. If supportive then a sustainable system is more likely.

7.6   PERFORMANCE MEASUREMENT AND VALUE SYSTEMS

7.6.1   Value systems were earlier described as a filter. The worth of performance measurement relies heavily on this filter, which presents itself as world-view expectations. For example in the police case study there was a consistent anticipation that centrally collated figures would be inaccurate. The schools expected parents to only consider schools with high examination ratings. The builders expected other trades to always let them down. The Quakers expected to see *"that of God in everyone"*.

7.6.2   A set of expectations is formed in any group. These are not so much norms within a group but judgements about norms outside the group. It is with this mental model that individuals within groups respond to change. Each event is subconsciously checked against the evidence already gathered.

7.6.3   This mental model varies across groups and within groups but can perhaps be characterised by the statements made expressing a level of consensus. By joining an organisation people demonstrate they have certain values in common (Hofstede, 1991 and, 1994). The basis is there. It is then in the interest of those running the organisation to

establish a normative model in order to minimise conflict or disruption to whatever the organisation produces.

7.6.4 The expectations of those new to an organisation are likely to be more straightforward than those in an existing or large organisation. A new business (this does not include mergers or take-overs) will contain a lot of unknowns - change and uncertainty will be anticipated. People will be prepared to work hard in order to get the business 'off the ground'. Performance measurement is not likely to exist or will be in simple terms.

7.6.5 Existing organisations that have become established, grown large or merged with others are likely to contain a mixture of expectations according to their history. Very often myths and apocryphal stories abound and performance measurement will inevitably be included.

7.6.6 Values and opinions are strongly held by all strata of an organisation and short of managerial coercion, values need to be shared for an organisation to perform effectively. Consequently it can be argued that many other organisational theories or techniques bear comparison to performance measurement, and management oriented. Not a problem in itself but without accounting for the values and theories of those being managed, this can prove problematical.

7.6.7 Vickers (1970) looking at the history of the police, acknowledges both its potency and its crudity. Rules and their enforcement are fundamental to their existence and the more simplistic they are the clearer they are to get across. The rules however seem to vary across the hierarchy. In the Metropolitan Police many senior managers are trained at Bramshill, a separate training centre to the one used by the rest of that service at Hendon. This distinction means they are perceived as operating on a level so different that they cannot

possibly have anything in common with the many thousands of officers they manage.

7.6.8 Another inherent difficulty of management theory is the necessity to assume consistent conditions. In real-life this is rarely so for long. People in organisations change membership, role and interest. The addition of one new extrovert member to a team for example, can present a challenge to the entire group's values priorities. For the builders this occurred when a particular plasterer joined the usual team. He provided the best quality and most cost-effective service but grumbled the entire day. Co-workers would avoid working in the same area or having a tea-break at the same time.

7.6.9 People can be forced to behave in a way contrary to their core values but they cannot be forced to believe new things without first having some propensity towards them. If a parallel is drawn to research methods Mingers and Brocklesbury (1996) ask *"Can individuals operate effectively in non-preferred research modes?"*. Choice of mode seems more an expression of individual comfort or partiality rather than an idealistic or explicit *rightness* of an action. It can be argued that we cannot operate at all using a non-preferred mode. If a mode does not represent any preferred values, functioning effectively will be made difficult by resentment or lack of essential skills.

7.6.10 Gummesson (1991) takes this distinction a stage further by linking the ideas to the interventionist role, as either a consultant or researcher. He states that whilst they have a lot in common, *"the first pecks at theory and contributes to practice, whilst the latter pecks at practice and contributes to theory"*. He infers that they can never truly be one and the same. When the differences in the values of designer or manager and those being measured are further exaggerated by cognition and culture, can performance measurement schemes really help?

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7.6.11 Performance measurement very often represents value system properties of management, summary and numeracy. It stresses the importance of information over people, of conformity over individuality. The performance process is virtually ignored. This process however appears more important to those being counted. It may also be a reminder that somebody else is in control or has some sort of power to make people work. Memories of childhood and associations of poor performance and punishment serve to recall a time of relative powerlessness. So when it comes to performance measurement, many of the difficulties occur because of their perceived meaning.

7.6.12 Simply implementing performance measurement schemes will therefore not convince groups of workers that it is a useful activity if they do not value brevity or numerical information (Hebel, 1996). Gregory (1996) argues that the purpose of an evaluator is not to solve a problem but simply to act as a catalyst for change. If this is the case, the choice of measurement scheme is arbitrary. If, in addition, it results in an increased workload collating the figures but without obvious benefit then success is unlikely.

7.7   CONCLUSION

Organisations are composed of links and paradigms that share common ground, they are interpreted not in the light of facts but models of reality. Means of identifying specific values are not included in this thesis as they are not considered useful in isolation. It is contended that it is the interaction between value systems and their emergent properties that have more of an effect on measuring performance. Emergent properties of value systems are fundamentally manifestations of world-view, such as expectations of management and co-workers, happiness or morale in organisations. Trying to assess the priority of these properties is the purpose of the next chapter.

CHAPTER 8

VALUES THEORY AND SYSTEMS IN ACTION

SUMMARY

This chapter reviews - after reflection on the impact of value systems - the issues arising from the original case study research. In particular, the vocabulary used in the questionnaire and interviews, is interpreted as representing values in an organisation. This led to a much revised survey based upon terminology used by case study participants. These were seen as indicative of world-views representing values in organisations. The survey intends to validate the earlier conclusions on value systems composition and behaviour. It also tests a practical means of surfacing values that might help indicate the type of environment to which performance measurement is introduced. The findings of this survey are subsequently discussed and potential future research described.

8.1 INTRODUCTION

8.1.1 As the case study research, literature review and SSM analysis were undertaken in parallel there were some issues that only became evident after time. The following sections review the main outcomes and concerns raised by the case study research, supported by the human values literature. This reflection led to a rationale for a new survey of similar organisations. Finally the findings from this survey are discussed and potential areas of development proposed.

8.2   REFLECTIONS ON THE ORIGINAL SURVEY

8.2.1   The initial research survey (Appendix B) provided data on attitudes towards performance measurement in organisations. Nevertheless some components of the survey caused difficulties or were responded to differently by the case study groups. These issues are described below.

8.2.2   The scale of work characteristic statements on the second page of the questionnaire appeared perplexing for some respondents. Accordingly different areas were left blank, prompted queries or appear to have been misunderstood. This may have been due to the survey pilot being limited to only three of the four case study groups as the fourth group was a late addition to the research plan. Alternatively it may also have been due to the varied skills base and background of all the respondents. The survey was intended to go to a varied audience but the diversity proved greater than anticipated.

8.2.3   Because the questionnaire went out to four very different case studies it was not always possible to phrase it in a way applicable to all the case study participants. Common terms were used in the hope they would be understood but some still had to be explained. References to the workplace were not always recognised by those in the school sixth form or the Quakers even though the context had been explained beforehand. Additionally the building company employees who were used to drawings and verbal instructions appeared to find written matter difficult to respond to.

8.2.4   The request for a tenet that influences the way people worked elicited some interesting responses from variations on 'golden rule' to jokes and strong anti-authority comments (Chapter 4). It indicated

however that there were indeed core beliefs that underlie peoples'
behaviour and attitudes and that many were willing to summarise
them in a sentence.

8.2.5   The workplace attributes also on the first page fell into two broad
groups. One perceptual, qualitative categories such as *exciting* or
satisfying. The second group predominantly factual or descriptive
covering items such as *requires training* or involves *working in a
team*.

8.2.6   The first qualitative category depends on each individual relating to
their value systems. It gives some indication of the extent to which
people both like and identify with their role in an organisation.
Finding the role exciting may not necessarily mean good performance
but it will indicate a close matching of values with co-workers or
organisation resulting in a comfort zone (Chapter 5). This indicates
that there is something to build on if other data suggest that
performance is poor.

8.2.7   This second set of characteristics emphasised the self-promotional
aspects of the individual in the workplace. Those attributes that
attained a far higher rating than others were often the ones that
created a good impression. The job or role characteristics in
Figure 8.1 were rated highly by over 60% of respondents. They
appeared to make that person look organisationally 'best'. In other
words that they were doing an important or useful job that they
enjoyed and were well motivated to do.

satisfying	industrious
pleasant	personal
interesting	decisive
involves many tasks	very useful
co-operative	disciplined
broad in scope	

**Figure 8.1 - Job characteristics receiving
highest importance rating**

8.2.8 These characteristics seem to fulfil an individual's need to feel they are doing something important (Chapter 4). They may also hope that these attitudes will be fed back to managers or colleagues thus presenting the individual in a favourable light. In part this may be due to the defence mechanisms described in section 6.9.3 prompted by an outsider asking questions and posing a potential threat.

8.2.9 The second category of information could be gathered by a number of different means, Literature, brochures, job descriptions, CVs, reference material for instance. Respondents did not always agree on facts but verification was possible by observation or by drawing on other sources. For instance it was fairly obvious if a person required specific training in order to do a particular job.

8.2.10 The descriptive attributes provided a contrast to the qualitative aspects of the job or role. They introduced a detached or one-stage removed position. Questions about team involvement or management structure referred to others, about whom respondents did not seem to feel so obliged to present the best picture. In fact it may well have been in the interest of some respondents to present a less attractive view of their work environment in the hope that improvement might

occur. This was particularly evident when it came to opinion on management, which was often critical.

8.2.11 Those in management however tended to give very positive views about both themselves and their organisation. For them the questions on management were less removed. Again this may be the hope that this positive attitude would filter back to staff. Alternatively they simply wished to present themselves and the case study in the best possible light. This observation prompted consideration of the inclusion of statements on staff as well as management.

8.2.12 The original questionnaire also included a range of organisational values that could be rated by importance. The results emphasised the personal rather than the group with intellectual stimulation and personal achievement taking priority over pay, status and affiliation. Perhaps this reflects the statement that "There is no such thing as Society. There are individual men and women, there are families." (Thatcher - quoted in Rees, 1994).

8.2.13 Consequently it seems likely that whatever the status of membership of an organisation, our interests as individuals are likely to come first - at least within the context of the case studies. These interests may well be in accord with the organisation, if they were not no-one would join in the first place (section 4.4). It could be argued however that if those personal needs are not met then a collective benefit is unlikely because pursuing personal benefits will take priority.

8.2.14 On a more general note this questionnaire, along with many other self-completion questionnaires (Chapter 6) shares some common risks. Firstly they appear to focus on the individual because completing them is a solitary activity. This occurs even if they attempt to assess an individual's place within a team. Consequently

an organisational perspective may be difficult to obtain. Secondly, despite assurances that the questionnaire would be confidential some respondents expressed concern that information would be traced back so demographic details were left blank or the serial number was torn off. Thirdly, there is also a risk that the results lead to identification with a 'type' which may provide a barrier to personal development.

8.2.15 Finally, the survey, although in line with current texts on survey design (Chapters 2 and 6), turned out to be better suited to office environments thus excluding, to some extent, the construction industry. This is an area that appears to be in greater need of research and development. Especially given that those in the construction industry have characteristics that are representative of the wider population. Consequently the issues surrounding both paper-based questionnaires and appropriate language have consequences reaching much further than this research.

8.3   RATIONALE FOR SECOND SURVEY

8.3.1   The previous section highlighted the issues surrounding the case study questionnaire. These issues concentrated on the difficulties of gauging attitudes and the values that underlie them, rather than the characteristics of performance measurement which turned out to be relatively straightforward (Chapters 3 and 4). Consequently a second questionnaire focusing on this area was considered. The following section develops the rationale for this activity based on both the reflection of section 8.2 and Chapters 5, 6 and 7 discussion on human values.

8.3.2   A number of key characteristics of value systems have been identified in this thesis. Firstly, they are formed early in life and are

consequently deeply entrenched (section 4.3). Secondly, continual reinforcement of those early values makes the value system both closed and complicated (Chapter 7). Where change only takes place over a long time or by trauma (section 4.4 and 4.5). Thirdly, different combinations of values are held for each situation encountered (section 4.5) and fourthly measuring values encounters the same problems as measuring performance (Chapters 4, 6 and 7).

8.3.3   The early formation of values makes their specific identification troublesome - if not impossible - by the time an individual joins an organisation as an adult (Chapters 5 and 7). This is because much of the process of values formation is in the sub-conscious, based on the knowledge gained in the first seven years of life (section 4.3). Verbalising values can therefore be difficult and so attempts to identify a person's values can appear threatening or unreasonable.

8.3.4   Some perception of threat is always likely to be associated with change (Fineman, 1993; Dalton, 1994) and questionnaires are often associated with preparation for change. The original survey also focused very much on the individual and what they valued, carrying an extra element of threat. This appears to have resulted in a certain number of collectively 'right' answers. It appears that if the question emphasis was personal then a sort of survival instinct would chip in and 'good' organisational qualities would be emphasised.

8.3.5   One way around this is to phrase the question so it asks about expectations of others. By using projection it might give a clearer idea of what the individual thought or expected from an organisation. It is also possible that respondents are more likely to say that others are driven by greed or a need to control than admit the same motivation themselves.

8.3.6   Identification of 'ideals' (Frantz, 1995) is also a good way of sharing what we think is important but the action runs the risk of building a false picture of the environment. Working towards that ideal or perfect formula world could in part explain why some change initiatives and in particular performance measurement schemes fail to be accepted as the devisors expect. Designers appear to work towards the ideal, whilst those being measured work toward what is practical. Both do so within the limits of their own experience.

8.3.7   Nevertheless projection carries some risks. One is splitting and isolating the experience (Sections 4.3 and 6.9). The other is that reaction formation may be occurring, for instance the individual concerned may genuinely believe that they are honest but everyone else is dishonest. As it is expectations of others' viewpoints and not a summary of an individual that is the emphasis this may not be a problem. Consequently a survey identifying values must minimise the threat and use language that explains the characteristics of values appropriate to the situation.

8.3.8   The continual reinforcement of personal values carries huge implications for the management of change in organisations (Chapters 5 and 7). If values are set early in life and built upon over time, the introduction by management of new or low priority values may well not succeed in an unwelcoming environment. For performance measurement this could mean taking many years to establish a process that will be familiar enough to be both robust and accurate. In the current business environment the demands for fast responses to competitive, legislative and workforce changes this does not appear viable.

8.3.9   The steady reinforcement of values does however bode well for identification. Verbalising may not be easy but high priority values in

particular should be accessible via the strength of their intensity. Even low priority values will simply be those with as yet insufficient evidence to back them up. For the questionnaire this means either a scale of priority for an individual or a collective result showing frequencies of supported values for the organisation concerned.

8.3.10 It is important to stress here that although relatively fixed, values can combine in many ways and the impact of this should not be underestimated. Depending on circumstance different values will be held in priority (Sections 4.4 and 5.4). This is not just for the categories of work, home and social situations suggested by Morgan (1986) but for each detailed encounter during the day. This implies that priorities might actually change within minutes according to who or what is encountered. The values shared by colleagues at lunch time may be very different to those shared with a manager implementing performance measurement after lunch. This means that some mechanism for gauging collections of values or emergence is required in a new questionnaire.

8.3.11 The act of measuring values experiences similar problems to those associated with measuring performance. It can be viewed as a gross simplification of a complex, subjective activity (Chapter 6). It can also challenge the locus of control by asking somebody to reveal something that may make them feel vulnerable (section 6.9). Where a questionnaire is used to measure values the threat can be double edged given the issues raised in section 8.3.4.

8.3.12 From the case studies and review of performance measurement literature it became apparent that the differences of the world-view of the performance measurer and those of the people being measured often caused problems (Chapters 3 and 4). Different backgrounds and world-views result in different priorities and vocalisation. Loyalty

may be held to be important by all the members of a particular team but the way it manifests itself - in resisting management initiatives for instance - may cause more conflict than benefit.

8.3.13 The process of measurement itself challenges both performance in organisations and identification values by offering an alternative target (Chapter 3). It can act as a diversionary activity so that performance deteriorates while figures improve or grow more complicated. The consequence for values is a focus on what is right or wrong and not an improved understanding of how they interact. From this perspective measurement of values does not appear to provide the best way of promoting their comprehension and ultimately enhancing performance. Some way of starting the process is however required if values are to move from the conceptual to the practical hence a compromise is necessary.

8.3.14 This section is based on the assumption that successful implementation of performance measurement is dependent on value systems being identified and matched. In the light of the main conclusions about the formation and behaviour of value systems a further questionnaire was deemed a practical, if not ideal way, of taking this research further. It was hoped that the results would demonstrate the diversity of values consequently providing further evidence of the variability and subtlety of value systems.

8.3.15 In summary, the issues raised by the first survey and a review of human values theories has culminated in a second survey to address the following:

1)   To identify the value priorities represented by people in
     the case study organisations;

2)   To test the phrasing of questions concerning values based
     on expectation or projection;

3)   To demonstrate diversity in values within and across groups;

4)   To validate the findings of prior research;

5)   To be open to any further areas of research required.

The following section summarises the questionnaire's composition, demographic distribution and findings.

8.4   THE SURVEY DESIGN AND DISTRIBUTION

8.4.1 The principal aim in devising an alternative questionnaire was to give an indication as to the types and variety of values that exist. This questionnaire does not attempt to identify any deep psychological processes but to assess the values represented by people in organisations. General indications rather than complex relationships are sought at this stage.

8.4.2 The questions do not directly address attitudes towards performance measurement. Nevertheless it is anticipated that the results will provide clues to whether the environment is favourable towards its introduction. Demographic details are requested as a means of establishing the research base.

8.4.3 In order to address earlier problems of terminology and the difficulty of verbalising values the new survey was based on phrases given in response to original interview questions. They are intended to represent world-views and expectations of organisations. A gauge of the prevalent atmosphere into which performance measurement might be introduced, plus some clues as to what aspects of motivation might be focused on as a good basis for change.

8.4.4   A copy of the survey is shown at Appendix N. It consists of a series of 54 statements which the respondents are asked to indicate a level of agreement on a four point scale. The final section covers demographic information and invites the respondent to add further comments should they wish to do so.

8.4.5   The questionnaire was distributed to the same case study groupings as before and summarised in Figure 8.2. Due to the time lapse and changes in key personnel in previous case studies a mixture of the original participants and representatives from matching organisations were included in the new sample population.   As no direct comparison with the earlier questionnaire only a contrast with the broader literature review was envisaged this did not present difficulties.

	Distribution (No.)	Response (No.)	Response (%)
Police Service	180	81	45%
Construction	120	55	46%
Quakers	181	92	51%
School	65	26	40%

Figure 8.2 - Table of distribution base for second survey

8.4.6   As well as revisiting Mark Richardson & Co. Ltd, and Wandsworth Preparative Meeting, new respondents came from the Lancashire Constabulary; the Metropolitan Police Counter-Terrorism Search Wing; The King John School, Benfleet; JPS Environmental Services, Basildon; the Women's Institute, Halfway, Kent and Kingston and

Wandsworth Monthly Meeting of the Religious Society of Friends, London.

8.4.7   A total of 254 questionnaires were returned out of the 568 distributed giving an overall response rate of 45%. Two-thirds of respondents were male and the remaining female. Almost all the respondents were of white-European origin. The majority of respondents were aged between 31 and 50 years.

8.4.8   Although it was intended to distribute an equal number of surveys for each case study this was not always practical. The timing of the survey coincided with examinations at secondary schools. As a result some schools approached stated they did not wish to impose on their staff further. Consequently not as many were distributed to schools compared to other case studies. This was not an ideal circumstance but necessary in order to keep within the timescale.

8.4.9   The response rates per case study were very similar and close to the average of 45%. The Quaker surveys were the only ones to be distributed by post, all others were given out by the author or an agent. Figure 8.3 shows the distribution breakdown.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Police	80	31.5	31.5	31.5
	Schools	26	10.2	10.2	41.7
	Quaker	93	36.6	36.6	78.3
	Construction Industry	55	21.7	21.7	100.0
	Total	254	100.0	100.0	

Figure 8.3 - SPSS table of case study distribution breakdown

8.4.10 Many of the questionnaires returned by the Quaker group were incomplete and annotated to indicate that the respondent was unhappy agreeing or disagreeing with the statements as they were too simplistic. Twelve phone calls confirming this disquiet were also received. The time suggested for completion (10 minutes) was also felt to be insufficient. This may have been in part due to the core beliefs of Quakers who dislike stereotyping or making decisions without sufficient information. It may also have been due to the less personal means of distribution which made it easier to question.

8.4.11 The construction workers and police however appeared to have no difficulties in completing the survey. Many completed the questionnaire whilst the author was on site. Some took longer than ten minutes however and occasionally a statement was raised for clarification. On the whole the school respondents had no difficulties completing the questionnaires although they included more blanks than the police and construction workers.

8.4.12 The last part of the questionnaire asked the respondent to give some indication of the size and age of their organisation. This elicited some very different responses from within the same units indicating a very different perception of what comprised an organisation. The size of the organisation as given by the case study respondents varied so considerably that the figures are not given here. The range was from 10 to 12,000 members with a mean of 20 per local team. Interestingly the teachers from the school respondents tended to view the membership of their organisation as very small whereas students gave a much larger figure. This suggests that they did not perceive the whole school population as part of their organisation. This raises some interesting issues about the transference of values across boundaries.

8.4.13 Police respondents appeared divided on whether to combine police and support staff. This reflects the history of the police (Wolff Olins, 1988) and the different extent of integration in the two constabularies covered. Over all the case studies the tendency was towards vague estimates and a great deal of uncertainty on size and age of the organisation concerned.

8.4.14 The research has necessarily been based on a sample of organisations. Chapter 2 provides the original justification for the choice of these four groups. It is hoped that the broad spectrum of characteristics (Figure 2.7) represented by the case studies has provided an adequate base. Nevertheless further exploration would not go amiss. Areas not covered or in need of further development include targeting newer or flatter structured organisations, those using home or tele-workers and more on manual or technical employment.

8.4.15 This section has described the population base of the second questionnaire as well as how this might be extended in future research. The following section gives an overview of the analysis and levels of agreement with the 54 statements on values and world-views.

8.5   FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

8.5.1   This section comments on those results that were applicable across all groups. The initial analysis was based on the four point scale shown on the survey however the majority of responses were clustered around the middle options. Appendix O lists the questions and the mean response rating where 1 indicates a strong agreement and 4 a strong disagreement. Statistical analysis was kept simple in accordance with one of the initial aims of the research which was to

ensure the findings would be easily transferable to a non-academic audience (Chapter 1).

8.5.2 Perhaps the most obvious characteristic of the results is the varying extent of agreement. The mean figures cover a wide range and rarely were any of the statements supported so strongly that a confident prediction of commonly held views was possible. This gives some indication of the variety of values held within any organisation.

8.5.3 The responses to the statements broadly fell into three categories. Those that were consistently at one end of the agreement scale, those with a mean greater than 3 or less than 2. Those in roughly equal agreement with a mean around 2.5 and those that indicated a tripartite split over agreement.

8.5.4 Only six out 54 of statements were overwhelmingly at one extreme of the agreement scale and these are listed in Figure 8.4 in order of priority. These are mostly descriptions of ideals. In particular the first one on the list seem to have struck a chord. It was widely agreed that organisations need to adapt in order to stay viable. This provided an interesting contrast with the dislike individuals have for change and the need for security. This is explored further in later sections.

Question number	Question	Base	% in agreement
31	An organisation needs to adapt in order to stay viable	251	97%
42	People who have been in an organisation for some time are a valuable resource	249	92%
25	People work best if they feel secure	250	91%
8	Colleagues and peers should be loyal to each other	250	90%
54	The purpose of management is to support and develop staff	251	89%
39	People learn best if they are active in and responsible for their own learning	251	79%

Figure 8.4 - List of high level agreement responses

8.5.5 At the other end of the scale were those indicating a high level of disagreement with the statements (Figure 8.5). These statements are less about ideals and more about the way people actually operate in organisations. Most interesting perhaps is attitude towards learning. Three statements about learning were included, the other two featuring at the other end of the scale. The emphasis therefore appears to be that being taught and taking responsibility for that is preferred over immediate experience.

8.5.6 These results also confirm the dislike of change indicated by many people in the case study interviews (Chapter 4). This ties in with the link of security to motivation and raises a divergence with the need for an organisation to remain viable. The characteristics of management are also not deemed to be simply a matter of age or status according to these results. Instead a more supportive role is indicated as valued.

Question number	Question	Base	% disagreed
49	The older a person is, the better they will be at management	247	96%
45	Questionnaires only ask for personal details so critical comments can be traced back	249	90%
36	People in authority know best by virtue of them being in that position	245	89%
11	People learn best if dropped in at the deep end	251	87%
27	Most people like change	248	80%
43	People who have tidy desks are better workers	245	78%

Figure 8.5 - List of high level disagreement responses

8.5.7 Those results that were close to the median are shown in Figure 8.6. These statements, more than any other tended to be commonplace solutions often suggested in media reports, such as more training or investment is required. The statements in Figure 8.6 perhaps more than any other, recognise the complexity and diversity of organisational life.

Question number	Question	Total Base
29	Most people get promotion based on their ability	248
6	Anyone can be a good worker if they get the right training	249
13	If people in authority were prepared to invest more money things would work better	248
38	Good workers are hard to find	247
40	People who try to fit in are more reliable than rebels or eccentrics	252
34	People are only motivated by benefits to themselves not the organisation	246
12	If only the senior personnel listened to what the majority have to say everything would be OK	243

Figure 8.6 - List of equal agreement statements

8.5.8 Even though Figure 8.6 recognises the diversity of values it is important to note that half of the respondents agreed with what are sometimes rather pessimistic statements, such as the comment on the listening skills of management. In this case a breakdown of the figures by case study or group within the case study might prove fruitful.

8.5.9 Contingency tables breaking down the results by four case study groups are also shown in Appendix P. In order to make these tables easier to interpret the four levels of agreement are condensed into two, agree and disagree. As the main aim of the survey was to identify value statements common to particular organisational types, contingency table of the 54 statements across the case studies proved sufficient for this purpose.

8.5.10 The contingency tables indicate that although some statements were fairly equal in agreement across case studies, others were not. In particular the statement that 'good workers are hard to find' (Q38) was agreed with by three-quarters of the construction industry, but less than a quarter of school respondents. This may reflect the sub-contractual nature of employment in the industry as well as the increasing shortage of skilled workers due to the decline in the standard of construction and engineering training in recent decades (section 2.17.2 and Chapter 4).

8.5.11 The Quakers indicated a much lower level of agreement with the statements on motivation (Q34) and senior personnel listening skills (Q12) than the other groups. This appears to support their espoused beliefs described in section 2.17.3 and Chapter 4. Also the police and school representatives were more inclined to support the desire for more investment (Q13), a reflection perhaps of their public sector status.

8.5.12 Throughout the findings some pessimistic expectations of management was evident. Data was not gathered on organisational role in this survey, seeking as it was to show that organisational type have more impact on values. The reason for this cynical viewpoint may however have been the predominance of non-management personnel. Alternatively it may have been due to two of the case studies - the Quakers and construction industry - disposed not to use the term manager.

8.5.13 This negative viewpoint however was especially evident among the police, of whom 70% thought senior personnel were out of touch. The statements concerned did however match the findings of the initial research. Those in management roles were not necessarily poor at their job but were certainly not perceived as doing it well. If values were shared - as some are bound to be within the same organisation e.g. service in the police - their priority varied considerably.

8.5.14 The remaining results covered a range of agreement and disagreement. This seemed to imply some commonality but reference back to the four categories of agreement indicated the strength of accord varied for some case studies. The list shown in Appendix O could act as a starting point for identifying the values most important to those in organisations. Those with the highest level of agreement indicate values of considering and supporting others are as important - if not more important - than fulfilling the organisations specific goals i.e. earning money or producing a product or service.

8.6   REFLECTION ON SECOND SURVEY

8.6.1   Although some questions elicited a distinct level of agreement across the case studies, the way in which different organisations responded to sweeping or categorical statements also appears to be of interest. These responses fell into two categories. The way the questionnaire was handled by the case study and those results that were widely different.

8.6.2   From the results there appeared to be some conflicts between the needs of the organisation and the individual. In particular it was considered very important that organisations need to adapt to be viable (97%) but however the perception was that most people didn't like change (80%). There was also a contradiction over the agreement on supervision and being left alone. This dichotomy presents an uneasy relationship between what is good for the individual and what is best for the organisation and could raise issues of ethicality (section 2.8.5).

8.6.3   Respondents from Quaker Meetings and schools were more reluctant to agree to the polarised statements, often inserting question marks or leaving the agreement level blank. Many Quakers returned additional comments sometimes with uncompleted questionnaires explaining why they were not prepared to indicate a general level of agreement. The main reason given for this was that different statements were applicable in different situations, thus endorsing the finding that values re-prioritise according to the situation.

8.6.4   The Quaker respondents also espouse application of their beliefs to every aspect of their lives. Nevertheless fourteen individuals contacted the author to ask which organisation they should consider when responding to the questionnaire. Additionally most of these

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queries came from Members rather than Attenders. In other words those who had made an official commitment to the Society rather than those simply attending meetings.

8.6.5 This seemed to indicate a different world-view for different areas of their life. There appeared to be some conflict as to whether it should be their place of work, the society or organisations in general. The original intention was for it to be the Society of Friends itself. It was assumed from the earlier research that as Quaker beliefs were often explained as a philosophy for life there would be no distinction. As there appears to be a conflict this adds a further dimension to Checkland and Scholes social system model in Figure 2.4 and Sections 2.5.3 to 2.5.5. The values or the local standards prompting different roles and sets of norms.

8.6.6 This reaction also indicates at least two layers of values (Chapter 7), one to represent social norms and one for real-time application. The figures suggest that even within a small organisation, or one with a clear value set, world-views and opinions will be infinitely flexible. In effect the survey endorses the Morgan model of different world-views for different situations. This means at least one for organisational life and another for personal well-being but potentially many more according to who or what is encountered.

8.6.7 As commented earlier those questionnaires returned by teachers often gave an organisation size so small it could not possibly have included all the students, if it included them at all. Students on the other hand viewed the school as a much larger organisation, although it was not clear whether the numbers included teachers or support staff as the figures were variable.

8.6.8 This raised an interesting contrast in world-views and what constitutes a school as an organisation. If the students are not seen as part of the group then the sharing of values is not likely to be active between the two groups. This may be in part due to the traditional model of a school as a means of conveying knowledge and social standards without specific reference to the students. Values held by successful students must necessarily be representative of those presented by the school. Teachers did not however appear to be concerned about matching the values of scholars.

8.6.9 Although police and construction workers indicated some confusion over what constituted their organisation they did not appear to experience problems in responding to a polarity of viewpoint. A reflection perhaps of the norms (section 2.5.3) of their working life. This might, in part, be due to a clearer specification of task or organisational purpose; but if that were the case then the school respondents should have found this easier. The police share the characteristic of service and the construction workers of multiple skills and levels of communication. In terms of values however this could be due to the background of debate associated with academic disciplines. The age range may also have had significant impact on responses with those under 18 still having not formed a definite opinion on organisational issues, of which their experience may be limited.

8.6.10 The issue of money as a prime motivator also received widely varying responses. It was strongly supported by the construction industry who not only believed it to be of paramount concern but was mostly sought with as little effort as possible. This supports the strong pattern of support for reward and punishment in that industry. The tradition of risk associated with the self-employed and the trade

rivalry evident in earlier research suggest gambling to be valued but with clear consequences.

8.6.11 In contrast the Quakers considered money of very little importance. This is in part due to the non-profit making emphasis of Quaker beliefs or their espoused theory. The previous contention that their theory-in-use may not be in as much accord as expected suggest this might be an ideal rather than a practicality. Motivation for Quakers appeared a lot more complex than that purported by the construction industry.

8.6.12 In summary, it might be argued that in terms of values Quakers hold those of appreciation of difference and principles. Whilst schools value maintaining a knowledge base and academic debate. The police and construction workers valuing clear cut statements of right and wrong and compliance to instruction.

8.6.13 This questionnaire set out to validate the prior research and gather data to support the ideas on value systems speculated upon in Chapter 7. In particular it set out to address the five points outlined in section 8.3.15, identify case study participant value priorities; test out values statements based on expectations; demonstrate level of values diversity; validate research and highlight new areas for research.

8.6.14 Sections 8.3 to 8.6 have outlined the findings by which these aims were met. Values have been identified and clear priorities identified across the groups. On the whole the statements used worked well and considerable diversity in values priorities highlighted. The results confirmed some characteristics presented by the case study groups and suggested a prioritised list of value statements. This focus on values has however created some distance from the original issues

surrounding performance measurement. The following section attempts to redress this.

8.7 TURNING VALUE SYSTEMS THEORY INTO PERFORMANCE MEASUREMENT ACTION

8.7.1 Earlier work established that there were genuine problems - as well as advantages - with performance measurement in existing organisations e.g. the target becoming the focus or redressing control issues (Chapters 3 and 4). The manifestation of the problems was not generic as originally hypothesised due to local differences in organisation type. Nevertheless it was noted that the majority of the problems were generic in that they represented a conflict of value systems.

8.7.2 This chapter has taken the earlier work (Chapters 4-6) further by identifying some key values held by those case study organisations. Transferring these findings to practical application might incorporate a comparison of a proposed measurement scheme to the two most highly agreed with value statements. For example how might the scheme match the recognition that organisations need to adapt to remain viable, or how does this affect an organisations members perception of security? If the most highly prioritised value statements represented by the groups are taken to be those at the top of the table in Appendix O then some of the implications for performance measurement are as follows.

8.7.3 Organisations need to adapt to be viable - This was so widely recognised that it appears there is no clear link at present between the advantages of performance information and the ability to adapt. Admittedly performance measurement needs to be flexible and

accurate if it is able to support adaptability but perhaps it needs to be an organisation wide activity rather than solely of management (section 2.7).

8.7.4   People work best if they feel secure - An organisation, by adapting appropriately can maintain job security. Consequently it appears to be a matter of linking what is valued by an organisations members to the benefits of performance measurement to them. They should feel more secure if the right performance measurement information is forwarded to those who make strategic decisions.

8.7.5   Management are there to support and develop staff - Performance measurement, as discussed in Chapter 3, carries with it hints of punishment as well reward. As a management tool it appears easy for it to be misunderstood as a means to aid the former. Yet again if performance measurement is portrayed as a means of support and development it should, by matching the values of those being measured, stand an improved chance of succeeding.

8.7.6   Long time members of organisations are a valuable resource - High agreement with this statement challenges the current move towards multiple career changes. Where performance management schemes existed in the case studies there was often a time limit on continuing a certain job. This was especially evident in the interviews with police personnel (Chapter 4).

8.7.7   Colleagues should be loyal to each other - This value of peer loyalty may be one of the main contributory factors in those case studies where figures were adjusted to make performance look better. It could also pose difficulties where good performance relies on the performance of someone else such as for the sub-contractors of the construction industry (Chapter 4). Drawing on loyalty as a value may

not on its own aid measurement but it may help improve performance at least for the sub-group.

8.7.8   People should be responsible for their own learning - This statement seems to support the move towards learning organisations (Senge, 1992; Garratt, 1987). From the case studies however it can be seen that the type of learning varies considerably across groups. Performance measurement such as education league tables (section 6.5) or complaints received (Figure 6.5) can indicate gaps in learning. A means of assuring ownership of the findings will be necessary however before personal responsibility for learning will come into play.

8.7.9   From these examples it can be seen that people do not just belong to organisations to earn money or provide a service - there is a definite social exchange. From the early formation of values it can be seen that they hold not only reflect the types of organisation they belong to but also reinforce it. The introduction of an idea or management practice that is not in accord with the shared values is destined for a rocky path.

8.7.10 This research has revealed not that performance measurement schemes are ineffectual but that the multiple values systems in existence aid or hinder their success. They are not just those espoused by the senior personnel of an organisation or its customers, they are present at every layer of an organisations activities. So if a new set of corporate values are devised and they are not in some accord with the existing values conflict is likely to occur. Likewise if performance measurements do not reflect the values priorities of an organisation they are more than likely to be undermined.

8.7.11 It must be noted however that the values shared by a successful organisation need not be the exciting, high-level, dynamic leadership, entrepreneurial ones espoused in some popular management literature. Those of security, stability, consistency, loyalty, persistence and clarity may be just as likely to provide the basis of good measurement as well as sound performance.

8.7.12 Finally the overriding recommendation for establishing a successful performance measurement scheme must be that time is required. This is not only to decide what information is collectable and useful to managers, but also to determine what is agreeable to those being measured. From the findings of the survey covered in this chapter this might include perceptions of security and management support for instance. The detail however must be tailored to the organisation otherwise there is a serious risk of a scheme being undermined. The information may be solely for the manager's benefit (section 2.7) but it will be of little use if a discrepancy in values results in inaccurate information.

8.8   CONCLUSION

This chapter further supports the contention that values are both variable and prioritise according to circumstance. The second survey provided evidence to support certain common values, such as the importance of security, peer loyalty and adaptability. Other values priorities however depend very much on the type of organisation and the individuals who are its system components. It is concluded that performance measurement has its place but its success will depend on a matching of values appropriate to each set of circumstances. One of the main problems being the failure to match measurement schemes to the values of those it measures. The relationship between the individual and the organisation is reciprocal due to the reinforcing nature of values. Consequently simply defining a set of organisational values will not be enough to ensure success.

CHAPTER 9

LESSONS FOR SYSTEMS THINKING AND DEVELOPING VALUE SYSTEMS CONCEPTS

SUMMARY

This chapter describes further developments of this research into value systems and the lessons it may hold for systems thinking in general. It is at present the outline for ongoing or future work in particular investigating the application to areas of information systems, technology and change management.

9.1 LESSONS FOR SYSTEMS THINKING

9.1.1 The use of systems thinking in this thesis has enhanced the exploration of issues surrounding performance measurement and the nature of values. Theories on why performance measurement schemes experience problems have been proposed. The work is based on the four case studies but it can be argued that there are wider implications for systems thinking. By clarifying the origin and manifestation of values a way of ensuring a better assessment of the environment is suggested.

9.1.2 The issues surrounding measurement of performance in organisations can also apply to the measurement of system performance - a common feature of many methodologies. The act of measurement appears to challenge the values of those within a system which in turn distorts the results. In terms of values measurement represents a

reductionist viewpoint that may not sit well with the more holistic nature of soft methodologies. This may contribute towards the different perceptions of success of any systems intervention (Gregory, 1996).

9.1.3 Measurement also carries with it the implication that an organisation's performance is static rather than dynamic. Many discrete measurements need to be taken to cover the subtleties of performance but this appears counteractive in the case studies as it is also time consuming. The transfer of theory to practice poses different challenges that require systems theories to be matched to the environment. For instance if the personnel in an organisation do not rate responsibility for own learning very highly it may be inappropriate to try and establish a discursive consultation process.

9.1.4 In the case studies it was observed that the target rather than the performance became the focus of performance measurement. This may also impact on systems methodologies where refining the methodology may prove more attractive than analysing a problem. The values that are rewarded in each case are different and particularly in an academic environment it might be argued that the method is more important than a solution. This may in part contribute towards the proliferation of methodologies that has caused some systems theorists to express concern (Stowell et al, 1997).

9.1.5 The early formation and reinforcement of values may also impact on systems theories. This is perhaps exemplified by the way many systems theories are connected with specific individuals, Checkland and SSM, Flood and Jackson with TSI, Beer and VSM for instance. Consequently a systems methodology may only be adopted if it represents values that match the world-view of the analyst using it rather than that of those involved in a problem situation. Even where

a double-loop learning model is used the risk of confirming the world-view rather than new learning still persists.

9.1.6 The interpretation of values as noise in communication supports the risks of amplifying feedback. Personal values either support a world-view or else obstruct comprehension of other people's messages. This may be an area that has been underestimated in present day communications systems where an ever-improving infrastructure implies that communication should be easier. However recent research (Collins & Bicknell, 1997) indicates that there are still many failures occurring in the introduction of new IT systems. When these systems fail to meet the expectations of those installing them it is because the values of those using them are not well matched.

9.1.7 One of the early observations on the literature was the lack of explanation of what exactly constitutes a world-view. By viewing values as components of a world-view it should be easier to determine what perspective system participants are taking. Behaviour may be very different but represent very similar values. Using values statements those working within systems should be able to take a step away from the behaviour.

9.1.8 This section draws parallels between the impact of value systems on performance measurement and the lessons there might be for systems thinking. The next section describes a possible method of improving values awareness and clarification and the final section briefly outlines area whereby this research might be taken further.

9.2   VALUES AWARENESS AND CLARIFICATION

9.2.1 Below is a suggested procedure for gradually building up awareness of the impact of values on groups. This can consequently be used to generate change. It is based not only on the findings of the research activities but also on the responses to the explanation of values influence when conveyed back to those involved. It is intended to be a long-term process for established organisations. It could however be used at the inception of a business if clarification of the values to be represented is required.

1)   Clarification of the meaning of human values, non-threatening;

2)   Value systems - nature in words and model form - recognition of reinforcing nature and difficulty of moving out of value set ;

3)   How value systems interact - why we get on with some and not others - how impacts on organisation - examples of values from Figure 7.4;

4)   Exploring what values are shared using the language of the group - method most appropriate to group e.g. Discussion, drawing own models and/or using the questionnaire or a variation on it using the colloquialisms of the group;

5)   Looking for widely supported values or potential areas of conflict;

6)   Fitting performance measurement to these values.

9.2.2 The first stage of this process involves an explanation of what values are and how they are formed. By explaining the meaning of the term a clearer understanding of what is important to each individual is given the chance to develop. This stage also provides the groundwork for shared interpretation of the term.

9.2.3 The next stage takes this explanation further by explaining how value systems are formed in particular by early life experience. A development of Figure 7.5, shown in Figure 9.1, could be used to demonstrate how values are formed. This could be extended to include the notion of groups of values and how they alter according to circumstance. The initial stage of the process allows values to be understood and brought into everyday language before any further development occurs. This stage should develop an appreciation that common sense lies purely in the interpretation of the individual. Recognition of the difficulty in acting upon another persons viewpoint and the way we selectively add to our experience is key to this stage.

9.2.4 The third stage involves explaining how value systems interact. By explaining behaviour in terms of values the co-operation or conflict that occurs when value systems interact appears less threatening. Examples from the case studies may help to place the concepts in the real world. Alternatively the table of world-views subjects and values (Figure 7.4) may provide a prompt for this activity as might the kite-flying model of management (Figure 7.6). It is suggested that time should be allowed to think this over before going on to developing a solution to a performance measurement requirement or other problem.

9.2.5 The fourth stage is exploring values in a group. This is perhaps the most difficult stage as it requires active listening skills and a preparedness to use the colloquialisms of the majority in an organisation. If the questionnaire is used it may need adapting. If a discussion is adopted then a comfortable environment is required to minimise the threat of vulnerability - this may mean avoiding the traditional staff development arena but remote 'sterile' atmosphere of classroom or using 'management speak'

9.2.6   The fifth area builds on the values identified by identifying shared ground and potential areas of conflict - difficulties 'letting go' may occur but awareness may make it easier to recruit new people. A tendency to identify rights and wrongs is also a possibility. It is important to stress that values can manifest themselves in very different forms of behaviour and yet be very similar. An example is that of self-development which may mean overcoming shyness for one person but achieving MD status for another.

9.2.7   Finally, if this process is to be linked to developing a performance measurement scheme the values should be used to greater understanding of the requirement for PM. In turn this may lead to schemes being developed locally to include measures relevant to both managers and personnel.

Family background
Ethnicity
Gender
Wealth etc.

Peers/relatives
Religious experience
School
Media
Hobbies
Work etc.

VALUE SYSTEMS
+
CORE EXPERIENCE

Timeline   WORLD-VIEWs OF ORGANISATIONS   *Pre-work life*
e.g. What's right, wrong or ideal   *Work life*

SITUATIONS

EVENTS

ACCIDENTS

MAKE COMPARISON
against world-view

ETHICS

NORMS

OTHERs ATTITUDES

Choose evidence most
suited to own world-view

Decide on values priority
for this circumstance

FEEDBACK TO ENDORSE VALUE SYSTEM

KEY

Examples of influences

Contributory factor in direction of arrow

**Figure 9.1 - Developed model of how values are formed
and reinforced**

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9.3   FURTHER RESEARCH

9.3.1   As well as the procedure described above there are number of areas that appear to warrant further investigation. Some have formed the basis of exploratory papers and others new case studies. These are described in brief below.

9.3.2   **Values in systems philosophy** - This perspective looks at the philosophical process of matching MIS to organisational needs. It is argued that if the values characterised by the method, the participants and organisation are not in some accord the choice of approach is irrelevant (Hebel 1998a). Consequently it is important to describe how human values theory relates to systems thinking. This is done by assuming values are components, their assembly as systemic, their expectations and consequent behaviours as emergence. From this perspective it is determined that new values cannot be introduced to - or taken away from - a value system but they may be changed in priority with intervention. The identification of specific values is not however considered useful, instead the conclusion speculates on the practical consequences of interpreting systems philosophy in this way.

9.3.3   **Values in technology** - This area approaches technology in a general sense by taking a phenomenological approach the requirements of matching technology to organisational needs (Hebel 1998b). It is suggested that in order to achieve this it is necessary to harmonise the human values embodied by both areas. It is based on the idea that performance measurement and technology share many conceptual parallels. Soft systems analysis places human values theory within the context of systems thinking, where the values systems emergence are the expectations and behaviours produced by them. The paper discusses the interaction of value systems and their emergent

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properties of world-views which impact on the introduction of new technology or its application.

9.3.4 **Values in Information Systems and Technology** - This theme takes a more specific look IS and is currently being explored with another researcher (Davis & Hebel 1998). It is contended that Information Systems are simply the combination of information gathering methods with Information Technology (IT). Despite innovations in IS development methodologies the process of IS design and implementation still involves substantial trade-offs. These impose an increasingly reductionist design ethic particularly as the project nears completion. This reductionism is exacerbated by conventional evaluation techniques which rely on rational performance measures aimed at the (by now) narrow performance criteria set for the system.

9.3.5 It is suggested that the synergy of IS in their organisational context has largely been ignored particularly during evaluation and assessment. The difficulties have been observed independently and the findings have been combined to look for shared ground and improved understanding. This work describes the areas of commonality and parallels in approach. It is based on fieldwork in a range of organisational settings, with hospitals and fingerprint departments added to that already described. Action research and interpretivist approaches have both led to assessment mechanisms that allow for changes in circumstances including Repertory Grid analysis and methods described in earlier chapters.

9.3.6 The research reported explores generic and specific perceptions of value which individuals use to judge performance. Evaluation is taken to be grounded in human values which adjust the perceptions of value with each intervention and evaluation. The complementarity of the techniques used is demonstrated by convergence towards a range of

criteria which can be used to overcome the shortcomings of conventional evaluation. As information systems proliferate and their impacts become more complex it is important to re-examine the validity of the evaluation process.

9.3.7 **Practical application of method to similar and different case studies** - Work is in progress with the police at Paddington in central London where major boundary changes in line with borough based policing and business excellence model is being introduced. The values survey and method described in the previous section has been described and stages 1-4 are progressing at different rates with different groups. As yet the research is in the early stages however the senior management were quick to acknowledge the importance of values, identifying common ground and the need to identify expectations before change was implemented. It is hoped to extend the method to local community groups and others involved in the boundary and policing style changes.

9.3.8 **A development of values terminology** - Although it has been stated that the naming of values is a risk laden activity and stereotyping is a serious danger without some sort of description it has been found to be difficult to explain the values concepts. Consequently it may be useful to develop the values examples in figure 7.4 in order to provide a shared language that cuts through the assumed norms and jargon of organisations. At this stage it is thought important to keep the language simple, colloquial and open to adaptation because of the risks described above. It is also paramount to be clear about the judgmental consequences inherent in values terminology.

9.3.9 **Change management and the idea that new values cannot be introduced** - It has been stated previously that pursuit of consensus or installation of new values is not however considered feasible.

Starting from this perspective it might be argued that change never really happens, values stay the same but their emergence varies according to changes in circumstances. There are arguments against this and consequently it is considered worth exploring because it challenges the underlying assumption of all change initiatives. It provides a different starting point and may provide a more practical finishing point.

9.4 CONCLUSION

There is considerable material here to support further enquiry into value systems as the underlying theme to information and organisational behaviour. Although speculative the areas proposed stress an understanding of the importance of values with minimal imposition of a methodological world-view. In particular the method proposed provides structure for those who require it and flexibility for those who don't. The key lesson for systems thinking is perhaps that a reacquaintance with fundamental concepts rather than ever complicated methodologies may be the best path for development. It is hoped these areas and others will fund much more research in the years to come.

CHAPTER 10

CONCLUSION

SUMMARY

*The concluding chapter of this research recaps on the main characteristics
of performance measurement in organisations and redefines groups of
values in systemic terms. The difficulties in measuring or categorising
values are also summarised. It is argued that introducing performance
measurement sparks a re-prioritisation of values. It is concluded that values
cannot be created where there is no affiliation to existing values even if they
are of low priority. Consequently the values represented by any proposed
changes to an organisation need to be compatible with the majority of those
involved with the organisation if it is to be successful. This includes
employees at all levels as well as customers and those in leadership
positions.*

10.1 INTRODUCTION

10.1.1 This research has been undertaken in three phases. Initially the
character and issues surrounding performance measurement were
investigated using systems concepts. From the exploration of
problems entailed in implementing performance measurement
emerged the theme of human values and their impact on expectations
of performance measurement. Consequently the second phase
examined the origins of values and the nature of value systems. This
led to the third phase which attempted to link the two areas by

devising a practical means of identifying values. The following sections summarise these phases and speculate on the wider lessons for systems thinking.

10.2 PERFORMANCE MEASUREMENT

10.2.1 This thesis originated from the hypothesis that problems with performance measurement are generic (Chapter 1). In order to explore this contention SSM combined with action research was considered appropriate to explore the performance measurement taking place in four case studies (Chapter 2).

10.2.2 From the initial analysis in Chapter 2 and consequent investigation in Chapter 3, the characteristics of performance measurement in organisations were defined. It was found that they often consisted of schemes that enumerate certain activities or events (Figure 2.3). These numbers or rates usually indicate whether targets have been attained. They summarise overall trends in performance that are intended to indicate whether an organisation is performing well.

10.2.3 The primary aim of performance measurement - identified in the SSM analysis in Chapter 2 - is to provide succinct information for managers so that appropriate responses can be made quickly and effectively. They provide a condensed reference point for people who are required to take in a considerable amount of varied information and take a larger view of the organisation.

10.2.4 In large organisations, such as the Metropolitan Police, the task of gathering the information is often the responsibility of personnel very remote from those requiring the information. Out of necessity

performance measures are often restricted to those activities of an organisation that are readily accessible and easy to reckon.

10.2.5 There are obvious advantages of performance measurement such as the provision of succinct information on large organisations allowing early warning of problems (Figure 3.4). Nevertheless there are a variety of problems associated with the various schemes covered in this research. These include inconsistency in data gathering; alienation of those being measured; measurement bias; increased complexity over time and a focus on the target rather than the performance.

10.2.6 Although the research has identified some commonality across case studies the types of performance measures and the problems experienced have varied. Consequently the problems themselves have not proved generic as suggested in the original hypothesis. What does appear generic however is the underlying theme of conflicting values of those measuring and those being measured (Chapter 3). The consequent section covers the next stage of the research that focuses on the way values are formed and interact.

10.3 HUMAN VALUE SYSTEMS

10.3.1 From Chapter 5 it was established that values are beliefs or ideals that are held to be important by both individuals and groups. In groups they are more commonly known as norms. In this thesis it is argued that they are structured very early on in life (section 6.3). They subsequently act as components of a system (section 6.4-6). As such they are subject to continual reinforcement via feedback. Consequently the system boundary cannot change significantly over time except perhaps in the case of trauma (Chapters 4 and 7).

10.3.2 It is argued that the value components do however shift in hierarchical priority. This is in response to contact with other value systems present in circumstance (Chapter 7). This adjustment in priority is a result of exposure to different levels of evidence supporting existing values (Figure 7.4). Each encounter is subconsciously compared to our values and fed back or ignored accordingly. Some experiences will be deliberately chosen to reinforce values. Alternatively only aspects that support existing values will be taken in, aspects that challenge will be rejected or result in discomfort or anger. The purpose of a value system can consequently be interpreted as providing meaning and purpose to existence.

10.3.3 In Chapter 7 it is suggested that the emergent property of both individual and group value systems will be a world-view or particular behaviour. If values priorities are in a continual state of flux then it is further argued that many world-views are possible even within a short time span. An example of an organisational emergent property is the 'feel good' factor of a team that gets on well (Senge, 1992). Alternatively it could be the 'grumbling' culture of those at the base of a hierarchical organisation such as the police.

10.3.4 Given that in any situation there are a range of value systems there must be some interaction between them. For an individual one set may be for family life, another for work another for extra-mural activities (Morgan, 1986). The distinction between the different areas may be discrete or share much in common. These individual value systems interact in turn with other people or group value systems. This can engender a feeling of camaraderie (Fineman, 1993) as well as raising the potential for conflicts of interest.

10.3.5 Whilst considering the characteristics of values and value systems the means of identifying specific values came into question. This led to a review in Chapter 4 of some of the surveys that attempt to either measure values or identify group characteristics that might contribute towards performance. From this review it was argued that gauging values using a questionnaire is feasible but needed careful administration to ensure the correct design and vocabulary and the minimising of perceived threat (section 4.7).

10.3.6 It has been shown that an organisation's value system is often representative of its founders' values (section 6.6). These corporate values can also endure many decades of environmental change such as those of the Quakers and Stonyhurst College. It has also been argued that the apparent values of an organisation comprise much of what attracts personnel to join them (Hofstede, 1991). From the premise that organisations are made up of groups of human beings it was determined that the conclusions drawn about individuals' value systems are transferable to organisational behaviour.

10.3.7 Consequently new values cannot be created or imposed on organisational members (section 6.7; Kellaway, 1997) as this will challenge those formed early on. Those responsible for implementing change can however appeal to values already existing within value systems. Existing values may be held in any state of priority but in general terms the lower the priority the more difficult the introduction. If identical values are not present it is possible that the values of education or self-development may enable an easier transition for change. It is important to note however that these did not always exist in the case studies or if they did they occurred outside the work environment such as the social emphasis in the CID and the construction industry.

10.3.8 So what are the consequences of value's formation for performance measurement? If there is no organisational tradition supporting measurement then the conflict of values can result in the headlines included in Chapter 1 or the resentment demonstrated in the case studies. This appears to apply to both service and product oriented organisations where human activity systems warrant at least equal importance as the primary tasks. If on the other hand the measures are deemed appropriate to current values - such as the incidence of repeat work in the construction industry - they can provide useful performance indicators.

10.3.9 In conclusion the long established nature of value systems means that anticipation of outcome may be fixed long before the performance measurement scheme is introduced. The expectation may be about management, change or measurement but drawing parallels with earlier situations that formed values will be inevitable. Consequently value systems have significant impact on the way a performance measurement scheme is both responded to and perceived.

10.4 THE IMPACT OF VALUE SYSTEMS ON PERFORMANCE MEASUREMENT

10.4.1 It has been argued that human values and value systems impact on the success of performance measurement. From this point the research entered a third phase to clarify what values were present in the case studies. In order to gather information from as many respondents as possible a questionnaire was used (section 8.3). This was circulated to as many of the original respondents as possible but where this was not possible people from analogous groups were used. This enabled a validation of earlier work and the development of potential future work.

10.4.2 This stage was not entered into without some caution as earlier work had suggested that values are visceral (Chapter 4). In addition it had been observed that asking questions about values or measuring them can create a perception of threat that results in people behaving defensively. Some individuals may also separate activities in different areas of their life (sections 5.9, 8.3 and 8.6) and thus feel unable to respond to questions with any particular emphasis.

10.4.3 Although measuring values has its disadvantages there appeared to be some common values that existed in high priority in all the case studies (section 4.2). In the light of the differences in voicing values among the four studies the questionnaire was phrased using statements provided in earlier interviews (sections 8.2 and 8.3). Each respondent was asked to indicate a level of agreement with a range of statements about people in organisations. In this way both generalities and differences between organisations were highlighted (section 8.5).

10.4.4 This survey identified a recognition of the need for organisations to be adaptable along with a strong need for individual security and peer loyalty. The contradictions present suggested some implicit assumptions across all the case studies that deserve further exploration. It also highlighted some differences between organisations that reflect their world-views. The findings also suggested that comparison of the performance measurement and organisational values might prove useful in other organisations (section 8.7). This was potentially applicable to other areas of management and a process of organising such a comparison is proposed in Chapter 9.

10.4.5 It was concluded that it is the expectations of measurement and management that often provide infertile ground for performance indicators. If performance measurement schemes are to be successful

then they need to be matched to the values of the organisation's personnel. This includes not only the values of those that construct or use performance measures but also those who are measured. If this cannot be matched to the needs of both organisation and individual, as suggested by the survey results, then in some cases performance measurement may be inappropriate.

10.5 CONCLUSION

10.5.1 Performance measures have been identified and a number of reasons for their difficulties highlighted. A common theme running through these difficulties are the values represented or perceived to be inherent. Figure 10.1 summarises the main conclusions based on the objectives described in Chapter 1.

No.	Chapter Theme/Objective	Major conclusions
1	What is the problem with performance measurement (PM) in organisations?	Those being measured often disagree or undermine PM schemes Not static and require frequent changes
2	How might this be explored and related to the real world?	By using case studies covering as broad a organisation base as possible - fact and perception tested
3	What does the literature have to say on performance measurement?	Historic military and accounting traditions have resulted in autocratic and simplistic models Recent developments attempt to counteract this but perception has not changed
4	How can these ideas be applied to real world situations?	Underlying theme is incongruent values and value systems of PM and organisations members
5	What are value systems?	Collections of beliefs or ideals that fund our world-view. The emergence of this system is what makes introduction of PM effective or not
6	Can we measure values?	Measuring values prompts change and the subtleties of semiotics make this very difficult Straightforward statements of value may work better than direct identification
7	Exploring values and impact on PM further	Further research with questionnaire based on statements of value evolved out of case study research
8	Reflection on practicality of identifying values emergence	Process of looking at values acts as intervention and prompts change
9	What are the lessons for systems thinking?	Too much focus on methodology and not enough on core concepts Developmental research outlined
10	Conclusion	PM needs concordant value systems if it is to be useful as designers intended. The modelling of value systems provides an alternative way of describing change

Figure 10.1 - Summary of major conclusions

10.5.2 This thesis has determined that the success of a performance measurement scheme is strongly influenced by its underlying value system as well as those of the people involved. The findings are based on responses of those using a range of performance measures within four case studies as well as a broader literature search. From the analysis it has been argued that human values behave in a systemic fashion and a broadly applicable method of gauging values has been tested. Certain key values have been distinguished in the case studies and these have been shown to be contrary to most of the values presented by performance measurement.

10.5.3 To respond to the question whether performance measurement is a useful activity then it must be stated that it is but not necessarily in the way the designer intended. If performance measurement is to succeed then it must quantify what is important to those being measured and not just managers. Alternatively it must be presented in a manner that is compatible with the values held. In other words, performance measurement in organisations will not work where values are incompatible and the environment unwilling or unprepared to receive it.

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APPENDIX A

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Background details

Rank/Title/Position

Age

Time in job

Have you done any other sorts of jobs? If so, what?

Training

This Job

How did you come to decide on this particular career/job?

How do you see (describe) your job?

What do you like/enjoy about your job?

What do you dislike (frustrates you) about your job?

Has your job changed since you started?

How do you feel about change?

How should you and/or your staff be rewarded for good work?

How should your boss/manager be rewarded?

What makes your job easier?

What makes your job difficult?

Process & Structure

Do any formal communication structures exist?
- staff meetings
- management meetings
- official publications
- newsletters
- e-mail networks

What informal communication structures exist?
- social gatherings
- rumour networks
- posters
- sports activities

What encourages you to work well?

What makes a good team?

What makes a bad team?

How do you measure what you do?
- formally

- informally

Does any of your work compare with anything outside the workplace?
- TV shows
- home
- family
- social activity

Do you think that there is there any one person (role model) who has had a
significant impact on the way you work

APPENDIX B

FIRST QUESTIONNAIRE

In order to help me keep track of who has filled in this questionnaire, please could you answer the following questions.   All information given will be entirely confidential.

Briefly describe your job and any rank or position held?_____

_____

How long have you worked at this job?_____

How long have you worked in your current capacity?_____

Are you?   Male   ☐₁
                     Female ☐₂   How old are you?_____

How would you describe your ethnic origin?

White - European	☐₁	Black - Caribbean	☐₂	Black - African	☐₃
Black - Other	☐₄	Indian	☐₅	Pakistani	☐₆
Bangladeshi	☐₇	Chinese	☐₈	Asian - Other	☐₉
Other	☐₁₀	I do not wish to say	☐₁₁		

Please circle the number that you feel best describes the scale of importance, the following values have in your current working life.

	Very important			Least important
Security - freedom from worry about job loss	4	3	2	1
Predictability - certainty of what is required of you	4	3	2	1
Status - how you appear in the eyes of others	4	3	2	1
Pay - remuneration	4	3	2	1
Advancement - improvement, progress, promotion	4	3	2	1
Affiliation - being associated with and liked by colleagues	4	3	2	1
Personal Recognition - being noticed for individual effort	4	3	2	1
Recognition of team - being noticed for team/group effort	4	3	2	1
Authority - having the power to direct events	4	3	2	1
Achievement - mastery of the task, project or skills to do job	4	3	2	1
Independence - freedom from control of others	4	3	2	1
Creativity - finding new ways of doing things, being innovative	4	3	2	1
Intellectual stimulation - using initiative, new ideas, variety	4	3	2	1
Aesthetics - desire for beauty in work or surroundings	4	3	2	1
Other values important to you (please state and rate)				
	4	3	2	1
	4	3	2	1

Please add others on a separate sheet if you wish

If there is any belief, tenet or golden rule that you feel strongly influences the way you work, please state or give brief details below:

_____

_____

_____

_____

PTO

On the right hand side is a list of characteristics that may apply to the job you described overleaf. Consider this job, then indicate where you think each characteristic rates by circling the most suitable number on the scale. The opposite end of the scale is given on the left hand side to help you decide.

CHARACTERISTIC							OPPOSITE	
involves working as part of a team	1	2	3	4	5	6	doesn't involve working as part of a team	1
safe	1	2	3	4	5	6	risky	2
unsatisfying	1	2	3	4	5	6	satisfying	3
inventive	1	2	3	4	5	6	uninventive	4
requires experience	1	2	3	4	5	6	does not require experience	5
authoritative (in command)	1	2	3	4	5	6	participative (responding to command)	6
unpleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	pleasant	7
precise	1	2	3	4	5	6	vague	8
exciting	1	2	3	4	5	6	dull	9
well-defined	1	2	3	4	5	6	ill-defined	10
relaxed	1	2	3	4	5	6	tense	11
closely supervised	1	2	3	4	5	6	unsupervised	12
routine	1	2	3	4	5	6	variable	13
active	1	2	3	4	5	6	passive	14
requires a great deal of common sense	1	2	3	4	5	6	did not require common sense	15
uninteresting	1	2	3	4	5	6	interesting	16
involves one task	1	2	3	4	5	6	involves many tasks	17
uncooperative	1	2	3	4	5	6	co-operative	18
demanding	1	2	3	4	5	6	undemanding	19
involved sharing humour	1	2	3	4	5	6	no humour shared	20
common goals	1	2	3	4	5	6	individual goals	21
narrow in scope	1	2	3	4	5	6	broad in scope	22
practical	1	2	3	4	5	6	theoretical	23
conventional	1	2	3	4	5	6	unconventional	24
involves much responsibility	1	2	3	4	5	6	involves no responsibility	25
requires much formal education	1	2	3	4	5	6	requires no formal education	26
changeable	1	2	3	4	5	6	stable	27
conforming	1	2	3	4	5	6	individualistic	28
lethargic	1	2	3	4	5	6	industrious	29
badly paid	1	2	3	4	5	6	well paid	30
requires very much intelligence	1	2	3	4	5	6	does not require much intelligence	31
impersonal	1	2	3	4	5	6	personal	32
tedious	1	2	3	4	5	6	fascinating	33
requires shared background	1	2	3	4	5	6	requires different backgrounds	34
well led	1	2	3	4	5	6	poorly led	35
indecisive	1	2	3	4	5	6	decisive	36
careful	1	2	3	4	5	6	careless	37
rigid	1	2	3	4	5	6	flexible	38
slow	1	2	3	4	5	6	fast	39
need to be economical	1	2	3	4	5	6	need to be extravagant	40
requires very extensive training	1	2	3	4	5	6	did not require training	41
important	1	2	3	4	5	6	unimportant	42
easy	1	2	3	4	5	6	difficult	43
very useful	1	2	3	4	5	6	not very useful	44
undisciplined	1	2	3	4	5	6	highly disciplined	45
efficient	1	2	3	4	5	6	inefficient	46
predictable	1	2	3	4	5	6	unpredictable	47
idealistic	1	2	3	4	5	6	materialistic	48
motivated	1	2	3	4	5	6	undirected	49

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire

If you have any additional comments please write them on a separate sheet of paper,
or contact Misha Hebel at City University on 0171 - 477 8000 x 4627 or   on 0181 - 870 8346.

MH (City University) 16/5/95

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APPENDIX C

SECOND VERSION OF SSM

history

Real world
problem
situation

Would-be improvers of
the problem situation

tasks, issues

the situation
as a culture

analysis of the
intervention

'social system'
analysis

'political system'
analysis

relevant
systems

models

situation

compare

differences between
models and real
world

STREAM OF
CULTURAL
ANALYSIS

changes: systemically desirable
culturally feasible

action to improve
the situation

LOGIC-BASED STREAM
OF ANALYSIS

The process of SSM

adapted from Soft Systems Methodology in Action

APPENDIX D

EARLIER VERSION OF SSM

RICH PICTURE

Problems & issues
faced by
case study

ACTION
by problem owners

AGENDA FOR DEBATE

PRIMARY TASK

The difference between conceptual
models and real world

Real World

*Systems Thinking about
Real World*

Relevant purposeful activity systems existing in parallel

System to	System to	System to
System to	System to	System to
System to	System to	System to
System to	System to	System to

CONCEPTUAL MODELS OF
RELEVANT SYSTEMS

i.e.... models of
ideal systems

Soft Systems Methodology - The conventional 7 stage model

APPENDIX E

RICH PICTURE OF
LIMEHOUSE POLICE CASE STUDY

RICH PICTURE OF
LIMEHOUSE CID CASE STUDY

by M. HEBEL

EOI — staff officer — SAT

OU

COUNSELLING SKILLS

MANY YES EXPERIENCE

L.D WITH DCI (BRIXTON)

VALUES ARE IMPORTANT + NEUTRAL

NEED TO BE SIGNED UP TO BE —
- SIMPLE
- UNDERSTAND
- ACHIEVABLE

SOME OF THIS IS FAMILIAR BUT I DON'T KNOW HOW THIS PARTICULAR UNIT MEASURES PERFORMANCE?

I'M NEW AND WANT TO MAKE A GOOD IMPRESSION

THIS D.V. NEEDS TO HONE PROVINGLY INTO THE 2000's

DIV. COMMANDER LIMEHOUSE

SIR

I HAVE ALL OF THESE TO LOOK AFTER ~300

HUGH HAN HELD AS A GOOD IDEA

POLITICS
RACISM
IMMIGRATION
RECESSION
LIMEHOUSE
ILLNESS
TERRORISM

WE HAVE TO LOSE 2 DI's

THE EVIL OF DIVISION

HO
SHEEHY
HISTORY

MIGHT BE SUPPRESSED OR REPRESSED

COME AND SEE US WHAT'S AND ALL

BE PREPARED FOR CRITICISM

CANTEEN CULTURE

"WORK WELL AT LIMEHOUSE" BUT BAD BLOOD

"THEY'VE GOT IT IN FOR US"

WE CAME ABOUT THESE "THEY SEE HIM AS..."

MY MEN ARE LIKE FAMILY

2 DI's

CID
NEEDS SYSTEMS IN PLACE
MORGAN WORLD

DS
DI

CO

CID WAY OF DOING THINGS
- to ease the flow
- to volunteer to go back to...
- to help/let them down gently

GOOD CO OFFICER
- firmly, even
- reliable (totally)
- sound/steady
- outside element
- ...
- ...

- true adept
- mature
- ethics
- trustworthy
- considerate
- humour

How is the future we will judge our T1's?
what systems need to be in place?

DI "Jack"

CO

E-2

APPENDIX F

RICH PICTURE OF
MARK RICHARDSON & COMPANY LIMITED
CASE STUDY

RICH PICTURE OF BUILDERS CASE STUDY

BY M. HEBEL

THIS IS DIFFERENT

ARE THESE PERFORMANCE MEASURES HERE?

OTHER CONTRACTORS

CLIENT

ARCHITECTS

PROFIT / No. TRADES INVOLVED

PROFIT / SATISFACTION

RECOGNITION

PROFIT / NEW WORK

QUALITY OF WORK

PROFIT / HOURS

RELIABILITY OF TRADESMAN

STICK A FEW QUID ON — TIGHTEN IT UP

POST

NEED TO MAKE A PROFIT

QA

COOPERATION BETTER THAN ADVERSARIAL ACTIONS

MARK RICHARDSON

SIMILAR BACKGROUND

TURNOVER LESS, HOURS LONGER, ENJOYMENT GREATER

BUT PRESSURE CAN BE TEDIOUS

"THE MORE PATERNALISTIC YOU ARE THE MORE S&G PUSH THE WORKFORCE GETS"

STILL ARC CHANFIELD Wellington KEELS

FAMILY LIFE — INFLUENCE SHARED

Co.

MUTUAL BENEFIT

DISCLAIMED STRICT

MAY BE TAKEN ADVANTAGE OF BUT HIRED

WORK WITH US — FRIEND NOT BOSS

IMPORTANT — HEALTH RELIABILITY INITIATIVE

JOHN DORRING

8-10 WEEKS

SUB-CONTRACTORS

REG

I LIKE GOOD QUALITY WORKMANSHIP + PERSONABLE WORKMEN

CUSTOMER BASE

THIS IS THE WAY I DO IT — IF YOU CAN'T THINK OF A BETTER WAY DO IT THAT WAY AS LONG AS RESULT IS THE SAME

WE'LL ONLY FOLLOW INSTRUCTIONS

DON'T THINK FOR THESE LIVES

EVENING 120 HRS STATUS

NEED TO BE TREATED WHAT YOU WANT TO 85-95%

DO WHAT'S VISIBLE FIRST

WE WANT TO MAKE QUICK MONEY, GET CASH FOR WORK

QUICK $

NEW SUB-CONTRACTORS

SUPPLIERS

ABROAD

WHEN I LEAST NEED IT — ESPECIALLY WHEN UNSUPERVISED

THINGS WILL GO WRONG

PUT RIGHT STRAIGHT AWAY

DON'T LOSE TEMPER

DON'T DITHER + AVOID

APPENDIX G

RICH PICTURE OF
QUAKER CASE STUDY

RICH PICTURE OF QUAKER ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURE

by M. HEBEL

G-2

APPENDIX H

RICH PICTURE OF
STONYHURST COLLEGE CASE STUDY

Rich picture of Stonyhurst case study by M. Hebel & S. Crowther

APPENDIX N

SECOND QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire forms part of a study into organisations and is being given to people in a variety of situations. Your co-operation is entirely voluntary but very much appreciated. All information given will remain completely confidential.

Please read all the statements and using the scale below, grade each one depending on how much you agree with it.

Thank you for your time and co-operation.   Misha Hebel

1 = Agree Strongly   2 = Agree   3 = Disagree   4 = Disagree Strongly

Level of agreement

#	Statement	Code
1	Working people are only interested the amount of money they can earn	C1
2	All managers think about is cutting costs	W2
3	Close supervision is the only way to get things done properly	W3
4	Almost nobody gets to the top on ability alone	W4
5	An employer has a responsibility to maintain job levels	C5
6	Anyone can be a good worker if they get the right training	C6
7	As long as people earn a living wage they will work well	C7
8	Colleagues and peers should be loyal to each other	C8
9	Employees that socialise together work better	W9
10	Everything would be OK if only people took time to apply common sense	W10
11	People learn best if dropped in at the deep end	C38
12	If only the senior personnel listened to what the majority have to say everything would be OK	W12
13	If people in authority were prepared to invest more money things would work better	W13
14	If you don't tell everyone what you can do they won't know about it	C14
15	It is better to be modest about what you can do so people will be more easily impressed	C15
16	It is important to appear confident in your own abilities otherwise you will not be trusted	C16
17	It's a waste of time managers asking employees opinion as they will do what they want regardless	W17
18	It's pointless filling out questionnaires as nobody takes any notice of them	W18
19	Job satisfaction is usually considered to be more important than earning money	C19
20	You need to know the right people to get ahead	W54
21	Management consultants are a useful occasional resource	W22
22	Organisations only call in management consultants if they need a scapegoat	W23
23	People who dress formally are more professional	W41
24	In general managers are not to be trusted	W25
25	People work best if they feel secure	C26
26	Most people are happy where they are in an organisation	C27
27	Most people like change	W28
28	Leadership qualities originate from having the right background	W20
29	Most people get promotion based on their ability	W29
30	Most people would like to be promoted if they could	C30
31	Organisations need to adapt in order to stay viable	W31
32	Other people and organisations usually seem to get more recognition	W32
33	Other people try to earn as much money as possible with as little effort	W33
34	People are only motivated by benefits to themselves not the organisation	W34
35	People at the lowest level of the hierarchy in an organisation are the most important	C35
36	People in authority know best by virtue of them being in that position	W36
37	Senior personnel in organisations are often out of touch with what's going on in it	C46
38	Good workers are hard to find	C11
39	People learn best if they are active in and responsible for their own learning	C39
40	People who try to fit in are more reliable than rebels or eccentrics	W40

P.T.O.

41	Management consultants are paid lots of money to restate the obvious............	W24
42	People who have been in an organisation for some time are a valuable resource...............	C42
43	People who have tidy desks are better workers............................	W43
44	People who stay in the same place for a long time are poorly motivated................	C44
45	Questionnaires only ask for personal details so critical comments can be traced back...........	W45
46	People learn best if they are taught by an expert on the subject.................	C37
47	Senior personnel know what's best for an organisation because they see the bigger picture.......	W47
48	People work better if they are left to get on with a task.................	C48
49	The older a person is, the better they will be at management.................	C49
50	There is no point in fixing things if they are not broken..................	W50
51	Those who appear eccentric or different help to maintain an organisation's creativity...........	W51
52	What I do is specialised so it is hard for someone from outside to really understand it...........	W52
53	You need to have had some lucky breaks to get anywhere in life...............	W53
54	The purpose of those in management is to support and develop their staff....................	W21

In order to help me put your hard work into context, please could you answer the following by ticking (✓) the appropriate option.

55. Are you?

Male ○1
Female ○2

56. How old are you?

57. How would you describe your ethnic origin according to the census categories below?

White - European ○1
Black - Caribbean ○2
Black - African ○3
Black - Other ○4
Indian ○5
Pakistani ○6
Bangladeshi ○7
Chinese ○8
Asian - Other ○9
Other ○10
I do not wish to say ○11

58. What type of organisation did you have in mind whilst completing this questionnaire?

School ○1
Higher Education ○2
Police Service ○3
Religious Group ○4
Building trade ○5
Engineering ○6

Other - please describe briefly below

○7

59. Briefly describe what you do or any specific role held

60. Roughly how many people in total are there in your organisation?

61. Approximately how old is the organisation?

62. How many people make up your local part of the organisation? e.g. Department or team

If you have any additional comments please send them to me on a separate sheet of paper, telephone 0181 - 870 8346 or e-mail M.Hebel@city.ac.uk
If posting please return this to me at 4 Brazil House, 32 Armoury Way, London, SW18 1HZ

EXP5(coded) 02/04/97

APPENDIX O

TABLE OF AGREEMENT MEANS OF RESPONSES TO VALUE STATEMENTS

Q. no.	Topic	Mean
31	Organisations need to adapt in order to stay viable.	1.64
25	People work best if they feel secure.	1.66
54	The purpose of those in management is to support and develop their staff.	1.73
42	People who have been in an organisation for some time are a valuable resource.	1.87
8	Colleagues and peers should be loyal to each other.	1.88
39	People learn best if they are active in and responsible for their own learning.	1.93
16	It is important to appear confident in your own abilities otherwise you will not be trusted.	2.01
46	People learn best if they are taught by an expert on the subject.	2.14
48	People work better if they are left to get on with a task.	2.15
37	Senior personnel in organisations are often out of touch with what's going on in it.	2.17
51	Those who appear eccentric or different help to maintain an organisation's creativity.	2.17
53	You need to have had some lucky breaks to get anywhere in life.	2.19
5	An employer has a responsibility to maintain job levels.	2.21
9	Employees that socialise together work better.	2.22
14	If you don't tell everyone what you can do they won't know about it.	2.23
10	Everything would be OK if only people took time to apply common sense.	2.24
19	Job satisfaction is usually considered to be more important than earning money.	2.27
30	Most people would like to be promoted if they could.	2.27
50	There is no point in fixing things if they are not broken.	2.27
4	Almost nobody gets to the top on ability alone.	2.31
20	You need to know the right people to get ahead.	2.32
41	Management consultants are paid lots of money to restate the obvious.	2.33
21	Management consultants are a useful occasional resource.	2.4
13	If people in authority were prepared to invest more money things would work better.	2.43
38	Good workers are hard to find.	2.43
40	People who try to fit in are more reliable than rebels or eccentrics.	2.46
29	Most people get promotion based on their ability.	2.49
6	Anyone can be a good worker if they get the right training.	2.53
34	People are only motivated by benefits to themselves not the organisation.	2.57
12	If only the senior personnel listened to what the majority have to say everything would be OK.	2.58
33	Other people try to earn as much money as possible with as little effort.	2.61
52	What I do is specialised so it is hard for someone from outside to really understand it.	2.61
35	People at the lowest level of the hierarchy in an organisation are the most important.	2.64
26	Most people are happy where they are in an organisation.	2.65
15	It is better to be modest about what you can do so people will be more easily impressed.	2.67
47	Senior personnel know what's best for an organisation because they see the bigger picture.	2.68
32	Other people and organisations usually seem to get more recognition.	2.72
2	All managers think about is cutting costs	2.74
18	It's pointless filling out questionnaires as nobody takes any notice of them.	2.78
44	People who stay in the same place for a long time are poorly motivated.	2.79
17	It's a waste of time managers asking employees opinion as they will do what they want regar	2.8
7	As long as people earn a living wage they will work well.	2.85
23	People who dress formally are more professional.	2.86
1	Working people are only interested the amount of money they can earn	2.9
28	Leadership qualities originate from having the right background.	2.9
24	In general managers are not to be trusted.	2.92
22	Organisations only call in management consultants if they need a scapegoat.	2.93
3	Close supervision is the only way to get things done properly	2.95
49	The older a person is, the better they will be at management.	3.01
27	Most people like change.	3.04
36	People in authority know best by virtue of them being in that position.	3.06
45	Questionnaires only ask for personal details so critical comments can be traced back.	3.08
43	People who have tidy desks are better workers.	3.11
11	People learn best if dropped in at the deep end.	3.12

APPENDIX P

SPSS CONTINGENCY TABLES FOR THE FOUR CASE STUDY GROUPS

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Case Study * Money main motivator	252	99.2%	2	.8%	254	100.0%
Case Study * Cutting Costs	253	99.6%	1	.4%	254	100.0%
Case Study * Close supervision	250	98.4%	4	1.6%	254	100.0%
Case Study * Ability alone gets you to the top	251	98.8%	3	1.2%	254	100.0%
Case Study * Responsibility to maintain jobs	244	96.1%	10	3.9%	254	100.0%
Case Study * Right training = good worker	249	98.0%	5	2.0%	254	100.0%
Case Study * Living wage = motivation	249	98.0%	5	2.0%	254	100.0%
Case Study * Loyalty paramount	250	98.4%	4	1.6%	254	100.0%
Case Study * Socialising enhances performance	248	97.6%	6	2.4%	254	100.0%
Case Study * Common sense	245	96.5%	9	3.5%	254	100.0%
Case Study * Deep end learning	251	98.8%	3	1.2%	254	100.0%
Case Study * Need senior personnel to listen	243	95.7%	11	4.3%	254	100.0%
Case Study * Need more investment	248	97.6%	6	2.4%	254	100.0%
Case Study * Need to tell people of skills	247	97.2%	7	2.8%	254	100.0%
Case Study * Modesty allows people to be impressed	248	97.6%	6	2.4%	254	100.0%

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Case Study * Confidence in own abilities	249	98.0%	5	2.0%	254	100.0%
Case Study * Opinion gathering waste of time	250	98.4%	4	1.6%	254	100.0%
Case Study * Questionnaires are pointless	250	98.4%	4	1.6%	254	100.0%
Case Study * Job satisfaction more important than money	245	96.5%	9	3.5%	254	100.0%
Case Study * Need to know right people	247	97.2%	7	2.8%	254	100.0%
Case Study * Consultants useful occasional resource	247	97.2%	7	2.8%	254	100.0%
Case Study * Consultants are used as scapegoats	245	96.5%	9	3.5%	254	100.0%
Case Study * Formal dress = professionalism	247	97.2%	7	2.8%	254	100.0%
Case Study * Managers not to be trusted	250	98.4%	4	1.6%	254	100.0%
Case Study * Security = motivation	250	98.4%	4	1.6%	254	100.0%
Case Study * Happy where they are	244	96.1%	10	3.9%	254	100.0%
Case Study * Most people like change	248	97.6%	6	2.4%	254	100.0%
Case Study * Leadership = right background	246	96.9%	8	3.1%	254	100.0%
Case Study * Ability provides promotion	248	97.6%	6	2.4%	254	100.0%
Case Study * Most people want promotion	250	98.4%	4	1.6%	254	100.0%
Case Study * Adapt to be viable	251	98.8%	3	1.2%	254	100.0%

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Case Study * Others get more recognition	239	94.1%	15	5.9%	254	100.0%
Case Study * Max money with min effort	244	96.1%	10	3.9%	254	100.0%
Case Study * Personal benefit = motivation	246	96.9%	8	3.1%	254	100.0%
Case Study * Ground level people most important	243	95.7%	11	4.3%	254	100.0%
Case Study * Senior position = knows best	245	96.5%	9	3.5%	254	100.0%
Case Study * Senior personnel out of touch	247	97.2%	7	2.8%	254	100.0%
Case Study * Good workers are hard to find	247	97.2%	7	2.8%	254	100.0%
Case Study * Responsible for own learning	252	99.2%	2	.8%	254	100.0%
Case Study * Conformity = reliability	252	99.2%	2	.8%	254	100.0%
Case Study * Consultants just restate the obvious	240	94.5%	14	5.5%	254	100.0%
Case Study * Long service = valuable resouce	249	98.0%	5	2.0%	254	100.0%
Case Study * Tidy desk = better worker	245	96.5%	9	3.5%	254	100.0%
Case Study * Long service = poor motivation	247	97.2%	7	2.8%	254	100.0%
Case Study * Demographics needed to trace criticism	249	98.0%	5	2.0%	254	100.0%
Case Study * Learn best by expert teaching	245	96.5%	9	3.5%	254	100.0%
Case Study * Senior personnel see bigger picture	241	94.9%	13	5.1%	254	100.0%

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Case Study * Left alone = better work	244	96.1%	10	3.9%	254	100.0%
Case Study * Age makes a good manager	247	97.2%	7	2.8%	254	100.0%
Case Study * No point fixing what's not broken	245	96.5%	9	3.5%	254	100.0%
Case Study * Eccentricity = creativity	243	95.7%	11	4.3%	254	100.0%
Case Study * Uniqueness	244	96.1%	10	3.9%	254	100.0%
Case Study * Need luck to get on	245	96.5%	9	3.5%	254	100.0%
Case Study * Management are there to support	251	98.8%	3	1.2%	254	100.0%

Case Study * Money main motivator Crosstabulation

			Money main motivator		Total
			Agree	Disagree	
Case Study	Police	Count	27	53	80
		% within Case Study	33.8%	66.3%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	5	21	26
		% within Case Study	19.2%	80.8%	100.0%
	Quaker	Count	8	83	91
		% within Case Study	8.8%	91.2%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	24	31	55
		% within Case Study	43.6%	56.4%	100.0%
Total		Count	64	188	252
		% within Case Study	25.4%	74.6%	100.0%

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Case Study * Cutting Costs Crosstabulation

			Cutting Costs		Total
			Agree	Disagree	
Case Study	Police	Count	40	40	80
		% within Case Study	50.0%	50.0%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	6	20	26
		% within Case Study	23.1%	76.9%	100.0%
	Quaker	Count	16	76	92
		% within Case Study	17.4%	82.6%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	23	32	55
		% within Case Study	41.8%	58.2%	100.0%
Total		Count	85	168	253
		% within Case Study	33.6%	66.4%	100.0%

Case Study * Close supervision Crosstabulation

			Close supervision		Total
			Agree	Disagree	
Case Study	Police	Count	8	72	80
		% within Case Study	10.0%	90.0%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	6	20	26
		% within Case Study	23.1%	76.9%	100.0%
	Quaker	Count	17	72	89
		% within Case Study	19.1%	80.9%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	19	36	55
		% within Case Study	34.5%	65.5%	100.0%
Total		Count	50	200	250

Case Study * Cutting Costs Crosstabulation

Case Study * Ability alone gets you to the top Crosstabulation

			Ability alone gets you to the top		Total
			Agree	Disagree	
Case Study	Police	Count	50	30	80
		% within Case Study	62.5%	37.5%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	20	6	26
		% within Case Study	76.9%	23.1%	100.0%
	Quaker	Count	53	38	91
		% within Case Study	58.2%	41.8%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	37	17	54
		% within Case Study	68.5%	31.5%	100.0%
Total		Count	160	91	251
		% within Case Study	63.7%	36.3%	100.0%

Case Study * Responsibility to maintain jobs Crosstabulation

			Responsibility to maintain jobs		Total
			Agree	Disagree	
Case Study	Police	Count	49	31	80
		% within Case Study	61.3%	38.8%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	19	7	26
		% within Case Study	73.1%	26.9%	100.0%
	Quaker	Count	53	30	83
		% within Case Study	63.9%	36.1%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	38	17	55
		% within Case Study	69.1%	30.9%	100.0%
Total		Count	159	85	244

Case Study * Right training = good worker Crosstabulation

			Right training = good worker		Total
			Agree	Disagree	
Case Study	Police	Count	33	47	80
		% within Case Study	41.3%	58.8%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	13	12	25
		% within Case Study	52.0%	48.0%	100.0%
	Quaker	Count	38	51	89
		% within Case Study	42.7%	57.3%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	22	33	55
		% within Case Study	40.0%	60.0%	100.0%
Total		Count	106	143	249
		% within Case Study	42.6%	57.4%	100.0%

Case Study * Living wage = motivation Crosstabulation

			Living wage = motivation		Total
			Agree	Disagree	
Case Study	Police	Count	17	63	80
		% within Case Study	21.3%	78.8%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	4	22	26
		% within Case Study	15.4%	84.6%	100.0%
	Quaker	Count	22	66	88
		% within Case Study	25.0%	75.0%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	14	41	55
		% within Case Study	25.5%	74.5%	100.0%
Total		Count	57	192	249

Case Study * Loyalty paramount Crosstabulation

| | | | Loyalty paramount | | |
			Agree	Disagree	Total
Case Study	Police	Count	70	10	80
		% within Case Study	87.5%	12.5%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	22	4	26
		% within Case Study	84.6%	15.4%	100.0%
	Quaker	Count	80	9	89
		% within Case Study	89.9%	10.1%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	52	3	55
		% within Case Study	94.5%	5.5%	100.0%
Total		Count	224	26	250
		% within Case Study	89.6%	10.4%	100.0%

Case Study * Socialising enhances performance Crosstabulation

| | | | Socialising enhances performance | | |
			Agree	Disagree	Total
Case Study	Police	Count	58	22	80
		% within Case Study	72.5%	27.5%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	19	7	26
		% within Case Study	73.1%	26.9%	100.0%
	Quaker	Count	59	29	88
		% within Case Study	67.0%	33.0%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	34	20	54
		% within Case Study	63.0%	37.0%	100.0%
Total		Count	170	78	248

Case Study * Common sense Crosstabulation

			Common sense		Total
			Agree	Disagree	
Case Study	Police	Count	59	21	80
		% within Case Study	73.8%	26.3%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	16	9	25
		% within Case Study	64.0%	36.0%	100.0%
	Quaker	Count	36	50	86
		% within Case Study	41.9%	58.1%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	43	11	54
		% within Case Study	79.6%	20.4%	100.0%
Total		Count	154	91	245
		% within Case Study	62.9%	37.1%	100.0%

Case Study * Deep end learning Crosstabulation

			Deep end learning		Total
			Agree	Disagree	
Case Study	Police	Count	9	71	80
		% within Case Study	11.3%	88.8%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	4	22	26
		% within Case Study	15.4%	84.6%	100.0%
	Quaker	Count	10	80	90
		% within Case Study	11.1%	88.9%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	10	45	55
		% within Case Study	18.2%	81.8%	100.0%
Total		Count	33	218	251

Case Study * Need senior personnel to listen Crosstabulation

			Need senior personnel to listen		Total
			Agree	Disagree	
Case Study	Police	Count	48	32	80
		% within Case Study	60.0%	40.0%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	8	16	24
		% within Case Study	33.3%	66.7%	100.0%
	Quaker	Count	22	63	85
		% within Case Study	25.9%	74.1%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	21	33	54
		% within Case Study	38.9%	61.1%	100.0%
Total		Count	99	144	243
		% within Case Study	40.7%	59.3%	100.0%

Case Study * Need more investment Crosstabulation

			Need more investment		Total
			Agree	Disagree	
Case Study	Police	Count	52	28	80
		% within Case Study	65.0%	35.0%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	17	9	26
		% within Case Study	65.4%	34.6%	100.0%
	Quaker	Count	44	43	87
		% within Case Study	50.6%	49.4%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	23	32	55
		% within Case Study	41.8%	58.2%	100.0%
Total		Count	136	112	248

Case Study * Need to tell people of skills Crosstabulation

			Need to tell people of skills		
			Agree	Disagree	Total
Case Study	Police	Count	52	28	80
		% within Case Study	65.0%	35.0%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	17	8	25
		% within Case Study	68.0%	32.0%	100.0%
	Quaker	Count	52	35	87
		% within Case Study	59.8%	40.2%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	35	20	55
		% within Case Study	63.6%	36.4%	100.0%
Total		Count	156	91	247
		% within Case Study	63.2%	36.8%	100.0%

Case Study * Modesty allows people to be impressed Crosstabulation

			Modesty allows people to be impressed		Total
			Agree	Disagree	
Case Study	Police	Count	30	49	79
		% within Case Study	38.0%	62.0%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	10	16	26
		% within Case Study	38.5%	61.5%	100.0%
	Quaker	Count	25	64	89
		% within Case Study	28.1%	71.9%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	20	34	54
		% within Case Study	37.0%	63.0%	100.0%
Total		Count	85	163	248
		% within Case Study	34.3%	65.7%	100.0%

Case Study * Confidence in own abilities Crosstabulation

			Confidence in own abilities		Total
			Agree	Disagree	
Case Study	Police	Count	61	19	80
		% within Case Study	76.3%	23.8%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	21	5	26
		% within Case Study	80.8%	19.2%	100.0%
	Quaker	Count	68	20	88
		% within Case Study	77.3%	22.7%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	51	4	55
		% within Case Study	92.7%	7.3%	100.0%
Total		Count	201	48	249
		% within Case Study	80.7%	19.3%	100.0%

Case Study * Opinion gathering waste of time Crosstabulation

			Opinion gathering waste of time		Total
			Agree	Disagree	
Case Study	Police	Count	32	47	79
		% within Case Study	40.5%	59.5%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	6	20	26
		% within Case Study	23.1%	76.9%	100.0%
	Quaker	Count	10	80	90
		% within Case Study	11.1%	88.9%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	19	36	55
		% within Case Study	34.5%	65.5%	100.0%
Total		Count	67	183	250

Case Study * Questionnaires are pointless Crosstabulation

			Questionnaires are pointless		
			Agree	Disagree	Total
Case Study	Police	Count	33	47	80
		% within Case Study	41.3%	58.8%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	2	24	26
		% within Case Study	7.7%	92.3%	100.0%
	Quaker	Count	18	71	89
		% within Case Study	20.2%	79.8%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	18	37	55
		% within Case Study	32.7%	67.3%	100.0%
Total		Count	71	179	250
		% within Case Study	28.4%	71.6%	100.0%

Case Study * Job satisfaction more important than money Crosstabulation

			Job satisfaction more important than money		Total
			Agree	Disagree	
Case Study	Police	Count	46	34	80
		% within Case Study	57.5%	42.5%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	24		24
		% within Case Study	100.0%		100.0%
	Quaker	Count	55	31	86
		% within Case Study	64.0%	36.0%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	31	24	55
		% within Case Study	56.4%	43.6%	100.0%
Total		Count	156	89	245
		% within Case Study	63.7%	36.3%	100.0%

Case Study * Need to know right people Crosstabulation

| | | | Need to know right people | | Total |
			Agree	Disagree	
Case Study	Police	Count	54	26	80
		% within Case Study	67.5%	32.5%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	15	10	25
		% within Case Study	60.0%	40.0%	100.0%
	Quaker	Count	49	38	87
		% within Case Study	56.3%	43.7%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	39	16	55
		% within Case Study	70.9%	29.1%	100.0%
Total		Count	157	90	247
		% within Case Study	63.6%	36.4%	100.0%

Case Study * Consultants useful occasional resource Crosstabulation

			Consultants useful occasional resource		Total
			Agree	Disagree	
Case Study	Police	Count	44	36	80
		% within Case Study	55.0%	45.0%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	23	2	25
		% within Case Study	92.0%	8.0%	100.0%
	Quaker	Count	73	15	88
		% within Case Study	83.0%	17.0%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	34	20	54
		% within Case Study	63.0%	37.0%	100.0%
Total		Count	174	73	247
		% within Case Study	70.4%	29.6%	100.0%

**Case Study * Consultants are used as scapegoats
Crosstabulation**

			Consultants are used as scapegoats		Total
			Agree	Disagree	
Case Study	Police	Count	26	54	80
		% within Case Study	32.5%	67.5%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	3	19	22
		% within Case Study	13.6%	86.4%	100.0%
	Quaker	Count	16	73	89
		% within Case Study	18.0%	82.0%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	12	42	54
		% within Case Study	22.2%	77.8%	100.0%
Total		Count	57	188	245
		% within Case Study	23.3%	76.7%	100.0%

Case Study * Formal dress = professionalism Crosstabulation

			Formal dress = professionalism		Total
			Agree	Disagree	
Case Study	Police	Count	21	59	80
		% within Case Study	26.3%	73.8%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	8	17	25
		% within Case Study	32.0%	68.0%	100.0%
	Quaker	Count	25	62	87
		% within Case Study	28.7%	71.3%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	12	43	55
		% within Case Study	21.8%	78.2%	100.0%
Total		Count	66	181	247
		% within Case Study	26.7%	73.3%	100.0%

Case Study * Managers not to be trusted Crosstabulation

			Managers not to be trusted		Total
			Agree	Disagree	
Case Study	Police	Count	23	57	80
		% within Case Study	28.8%	71.3%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	5	21	26
		% within Case Study	19.2%	80.8%	100.0%
	Quaker	Count	9	80	89
		% within Case Study	10.1%	89.9%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	12	43	55
		% within Case Study	21.8%	78.2%	100.0%
Total		Count	49	201	250

Case Study * Security = motivation Crosstabulation

			Security = motivation		
			Agree	Disagree	Total
Case Study	Police	Count	70	10	80
		% within Case Study	87.5%	12.5%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	22	3	25
		% within Case Study	88.0%	12.0%	100.0%
	Quaker	Count	84	7	91
		% within Case Study	92.3%	7.7%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	51	3	54
		% within Case Study	94.4%	5.6%	100.0%
Total		Count	227	23	250
		% within Case Study	90.8%	9.2%	100.0%

Case Study * Happy where they are Crosstabulation

			Happy where they are		
			Agree	Disagree	Total
Case Study	Police	Count	27	53	80
		% within Case Study	33.8%	66.3%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	10	16	26
		% within Case Study	38.5%	61.5%	100.0%
	Quaker	Count	35	48	83
		% within Case Study	42.2%	57.8%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	20	35	55
		% within Case Study	36.4%	63.6%	100.0%
Total		Count	92	152	244

Case Study * Most people like change Crosstabulation

			Most people like change		
			Agree	Disagree	Total
Case Study	Police	Count	15	65	80
		% within Case Study	18.8%	81.3%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	5	21	26
		% within Case Study	19.2%	80.8%	100.0%
	Quaker	Count	13	74	87
		% within Case Study	14.9%	85.1%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	17	38	55
		% within Case Study	30.9%	69.1%	100.0%
Total		Count	50	198	248
		% within Case Study	20.2%	79.8%	100.0%

Case Study * Leadership = right background Crosstabulation

			Leadership = right background		
			Agree	Disagree	Total
Case Study	Police	Count	25	55	80
		% within Case Study	31.3%	68.8%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	6	20	26
		% within Case Study	23.1%	76.9%	100.0%
	Quaker	Count	15	70	85
		% within Case Study	17.6%	82.4%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	19	36	55
		% within Case Study	34.5%	65.5%	100.0%
Total		Count	65	181	246

Case Study * Most people like change Crosstabulation

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Case Study * Ability provides promotion Crosstabulation

			Ability provides promotion		Total
			Agree	Disagree	
Case Study	Police	Count	48	32	80
		% within Case Study	60.0%	40.0%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	17	9	26
		% within Case Study	65.4%	34.6%	100.0%
	Quaker	Count	56	31	87
		% within Case Study	64.4%	35.6%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	37	18	55
		% within Case Study	67.3%	32.7%	100.0%
Total		Count	158	90	248
		% within Case Study	63.7%	36.3%	100.0%

Case Study * Most people want promotion Crosstabulation

			Most people want promotion		Total
			Agree	Disagree	
Case Study	Police	Count	48	32	80
		% within Case Study	60.0%	40.0%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	20	6	26
		% within Case Study	76.9%	23.1%	100.0%
	Quaker	Count	56	33	89
		% within Case Study	62.9%	37.1%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	42	13	55
		% within Case Study	76.4%	23.6%	100.0%
Total		Count	166	84	250

Case Study * Adapt to be viable Crosstabulation

| | | | Adapt to be viable | | |
			Agree	Disagree	Total
Case Study	Police	Count	78	2	80
		% within Case Study	97.5%	2.5%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	26		26
		% within Case Study	100.0%		100.0%
	Quaker	Count	88	2	90
		% within Case Study	97.8%	2.2%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	53	2	55
		% within Case Study	96.4%	3.6%	100.0%
Total		Count	245	6	251
		% within Case Study	97.6%	2.4%	100.0%

Case Study * Others get more recognition Crosstabulation

| | | | Others get more recognition | | |
			Agree	Disagree	Total
Case Study	Police	Count	29	50	79
		% within Case Study	36.7%	63.3%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	7	19	26
		% within Case Study	26.9%	73.1%	100.0%
	Quaker	Count	13	66	79
		% within Case Study	16.5%	83.5%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	19	36	55
		% within Case Study	34.5%	65.5%	100.0%
Total		Count	68	171	239

Case Study * Max money with min effort Crosstabulation

			Max money with min effort		Total
			Agree	Disagree	
Case Study	Police	Count	37	43	80
		% within Case Study	46.3%	53.8%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	10	16	26
		% within Case Study	38.5%	61.5%	100.0%
	Quaker	Count	18	66	84
		% within Case Study	21.4%	78.6%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	34	20	54
		% within Case Study	63.0%	37.0%	100.0%
Total		Count	99	145	244
		% within Case Study	40.6%	59.4%	100.0%

Case Study * Personal benefit = motivation Crosstabulation

			Personal benefit = motivation		Total
			Agree	Disagree	
Case Study	Police	Count	46	33	79
		% within Case Study	58.2%	41.8%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	13	13	26
		% within Case Study	50.0%	50.0%	100.0%
	Quaker	Count	19	67	86
		% within Case Study	22.1%	77.9%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	25	30	55
		% within Case Study	45.5%	54.5%	100.0%
Total		Count	103	143	246

Case Study * Ground level people most important Crosstabulation

			Ground level people most important		Total
			Agree	Disagree	
Case Study	Police	Count	44	36	80
		% within Case Study	55.0%	45.0%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	6	18	24
		% within Case Study	25.0%	75.0%	100.0%
	Quaker	Count	16	68	84
		% within Case Study	19.0%	81.0%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	16	39	55
		% within Case Study	29.1%	70.9%	100.0%
Total		Count	82	161	243
		% within Case Study	33.7%	66.3%	100.0%

Case Study * Senior position = knows best Crosstabulation

			Senior position = knows best		Total
			Agree	Disagree	
Case Study	Police	Count	5	75	80
		% within Case Study	6.3%	93.8%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	3	21	24
		% within Case Study	12.5%	87.5%	100.0%
	Quaker	Count	9	77	86
		% within Case Study	10.5%	89.5%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	10	45	55
		% within Case Study	18.2%	81.8%	100.0%
Total		Count	27	218	245
		% within Case Study	11.0%	89.0%	100.0%

Case Study * Senior personnel out of touch Crosstabulation

			Senior personnel out of touch		Total
			Agree	Disagree	
Case Study	Police	Count	66	14	80
		% within Case Study	82.5%	17.5%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	14	10	24
		% within Case Study	58.3%	41.7%	100.0%
	Quaker	Count	61	28	89
		% within Case Study	68.5%	31.5%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	34	20	54
		% within Case Study	63.0%	37.0%	100.0%
Total		Count	175	72	247

Case Study * Good workers are hard to find Crosstabulation

| | | | Good workers are hard to find | | Total |
			Agree	Disagree	
Case Study	Police	Count	30	50	80
		% within Case Study	37.5%	62.5%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	6	20	26
		% within Case Study	23.1%	76.9%	100.0%
	Quaker	Count	35	51	86
		% within Case Study	40.7%	59.3%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	41	14	55
		% within Case Study	74.5%	25.5%	100.0%
Total		Count	112	135	247
		% within Case Study	45.3%	54.7%	100.0%

Case Study * Responsible for own learning Crosstabulation

| | | | Responsible for own learning | | Total |
			Agree	Disagree	
Case Study	Police	Count	48	32	80
		% within Case Study	60.0%	40.0%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	19	7	26
		% within Case Study	73.1%	26.9%	100.0%
	Quaker	Count	87	5	92
		% within Case Study	94.6%	5.4%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	45	9	54
		% within Case Study	83.3%	16.7%	100.0%
Total		Count	199	53	252

Case Study * Conformity = reliability Crosstabulation

			Conformity = reliability		Total
			Agree	Disagree	
Case Study	Police	Count	42	38	80
		% within Case Study	52.5%	47.5%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	13	13	26
		% within Case Study	50.0%	50.0%	100.0%
	Quaker	Count	42	49	91
		% within Case Study	46.2%	53.8%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	32	23	55
		% within Case Study	58.2%	41.8%	100.0%
Total		Count	129	123	252
		% within Case Study	51.2%	48.8%	100.0%

Case Study * Consultants just restate the obvious Crosstabulation

			Consultants just restate the obvious		Total
			Agree	Disagree	
Case Study	Police	Count	55	25	80
		% within Case Study	68.8%	31.3%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	6	16	22
		% within Case Study	27.3%	72.7%	100.0%
	Quaker	Count	38	45	83
		% within Case Study	45.8%	54.2%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	36	19	55
		% within Case Study	65.5%	34.5%	100.0%
Total		Count	135	105	240

Case Study * Long service = valuable resouce Crosstabulation

			Long service = valuable resouce		
			Agree	Disagree	Total
Case Study	Police	Count	70	10	80
		% within Case Study	87.5%	12.5%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	24	2	26
		% within Case Study	92.3%	7.7%	100.0%
	Quaker	Count	85	3	88
		% within Case Study	96.6%	3.4%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	49	6	55
		% within Case Study	89.1%	10.9%	100.0%
Total		Count	228	21	249
		% within Case Study	91.6%	8.4%	100.0%

Case Study * Tidy desk = better worker Crosstabulation

			Tidy desk = better worker		
			Agree	Disagree	Total
Case Study	Police	Count	15	65	80
		% within Case Study	18.8%	81.3%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	4	21	25
		% within Case Study	16.0%	84.0%	100.0%
	Quaker	Count	23	63	86
		% within Case Study	26.7%	73.3%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	12	42	54
		% within Case Study	22.2%	77.8%	100.0%
Total		Count	54	191	245

Case Study * Long service = poor motivation Crosstabulation

			Long service = poor motivation		
			Agree	Disagree	Total
Case Study	Police	Count	22	58	80
		% within Case Study	27.5%	72.5%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	4	21	25
		% within Case Study	16.0%	84.0%	100.0%
	Quaker	Count	19	68	87
		% within Case Study	21.8%	78.2%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	23	32	55
		% within Case Study	41.8%	58.2%	100.0%
Total		Count	68	179	247
		% within Case Study	27.5%	72.5%	100.0%

**Case Study * Demographics needed to trace criticism
Crosstabulation**

			Demographics needed to trace criticism		
			Agree	Disagree	Total
Case Study	Police	Count	6	74	80
		% within Case Study	7.5%	92.5%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	1	25	26
		% within Case Study	3.8%	96.2%	100.0%
	Quaker	Count	7	81	88
		% within Case Study	8.0%	92.0%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	11	44	55
		% within Case Study	20.0%	80.0%	100.0%
Total		Count	25	224	249
		% within Case Study	10.0%	90.0%	100.0%

Case Study * Learn best by expert teaching Crosstabulation

			Learn best by expert teaching		Total
			Agree	Disagree	
Case Study	Police	Count	61	19	80
		% within Case Study	76.3%	23.8%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	19	7	26
		% within Case Study	73.1%	26.9%	100.0%
	Quaker	Count	49	37	86
		% within Case Study	57.0%	43.0%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	39	14	53
		% within Case Study	73.6%	26.4%	100.0%
Total		Count	168	77	245
		% within Case Study	68.6%	31.4%	100.0%

Case Study * Senior personnel see bigger picture Crosstabulation

			Senior personnel see bigger picture		Total
			Agree	Disagree	
Case Study	Police	Count	21	59	80
		% within Case Study	26.3%	73.8%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	15	9	24
		% within Case Study	62.5%	37.5%	100.0%
	Quaker	Count	44	39	83
		% within Case Study	53.0%	47.0%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	29	25	54
		% within Case Study	53.7%	46.3%	100.0%
Total		Count	109	132	241

Case Study * Left alone = better work Crosstabulation

			Left alone = better work		
			Agree	Disagree	Total
Case Study	Police	Count	60	20	80
		% within Case Study	75.0%	25.0%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	15	11	26
		% within Case Study	57.7%	42.3%	100.0%
	Quaker	Count	71	12	83
		% within Case Study	85.5%	14.5%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	43	12	55
		% within Case Study	78.2%	21.8%	100.0%
Total		Count	189	55	244
		% within Case Study	77.5%	22.5%	100.0%

Case Study * Age makes a good manager Crosstabulation

			Age makes a good manager		
			Agree	Disagree	Total
Case Study	Police	Count	12	68	80
		% within Case Study	15.0%	85.0%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	3	23	26
		% within Case Study	11.5%	88.5%	100.0%
	Quaker	Count	14	72	86
		% within Case Study	16.3%	83.7%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	2	53	55
		% within Case Study	3.6%	96.4%	100.0%
Total		Count	31	216	247

Case Study * No point fixing what's not broken Crosstabulation

			No point fixing what's not broken		Total
			Agree	Disagree	
Case Study	Police	Count	47	33	80
		% within Case Study	58.8%	41.3%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	9	17	26
		% within Case Study	34.6%	65.4%	100.0%
	Quaker	Count	59	26	85
		% within Case Study	69.4%	30.6%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	32	22	54
		% within Case Study	59.3%	40.7%	100.0%
Total		Count	147	98	245
		% within Case Study	60.0%	40.0%	100.0%

Case Study * Eccentricity = creativity Crosstabulation

			Eccentricity = creativity		Total
			Agree	Disagree	
Case Study	Police	Count	52	28	80
		% within Case Study	65.0%	35.0%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	17	8	25
		% within Case Study	68.0%	32.0%	100.0%
	Quaker	Count	66	18	84
		% within Case Study	78.6%	21.4%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	32	22	54
		% within Case Study	59.3%	40.7%	100.0%
Total		Count	167	76	243

Case Study * Uniqueness Crosstabulation

			Uniqueness		Total
			Agree	Disagree	
Case Study	Police	Count	41	39	80
		% within Case Study	51.3%	48.8%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	11	15	26
		% within Case Study	42.3%	57.7%	100.0%
	Quaker	Count	29	54	83
		% within Case Study	34.9%	65.1%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	20	35	55
		% within Case Study	36.4%	63.6%	100.0%
Total		Count	101	143	244
		% within Case Study	41.4%	58.6%	100.0%

Case Study * Need luck to get on Crosstabulation

			Need luck to get on		Total
			Agree	Disagree	
Case Study	Police	Count	58	22	80
		% within Case Study	72.5%	27.5%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	16	9	25
		% within Case Study	64.0%	36.0%	100.0%
	Quaker	Count	52	33	85
		% within Case Study	61.2%	38.8%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	41	14	55
		% within Case Study	74.5%	25.5%	100.0%
Total		Count	167	78	245

Case Study * Management are there to support Crosstabulation

			Management are there to support		Total
			Agree	Disagree	
Case Study	Police	Count	70	10	80
		% within Case Study	87.5%	12.5%	100.0%
	Schools	Count	26		26
		% within Case Study	100.0%		100.0%
	Quaker	Count	77	14	91
		% within Case Study	84.6%	15.4%	100.0%
	Construction Industry	Count	51	3	54
		% within Case Study	94.4%	5.6%	100.0%
Total		Count	224	27	251
		% within Case Study	89.2%	10.8%	100.0%