

Implementation of Quality Management  
in the Public Sector versus the Private Sector:  
a cultural analysis

John M J Butler B.E, M.I.E

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Dublin City University Business School

Supervisor Dr Finian Buckley

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## **Declaration**

I hereby certify that this material, which I now submit for assessment on the programme of study leading to the award of PhD is entirely my own work and has not been taken from the work of others save and to the extent that such work has been cited and acknowledged within the text of my work.

John M Butler

23<sup>rd</sup> January 2009

ID No 96971380

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## **Dedication**

This thesis is dedicated to my wife Vivienne and to the memory  
of my late father Joe Butler

Table of Contents	
Declaration .....	i
Acknowledgement.....	ii
Table of Contents .....	iii
Abstract .....	viii
Introduction	ix
List of Figures .....	xii
List of Tables.....	xiv
Chapter 1 Quality .....	1
1.1 Introduction .....	1
1.2 History and Origins of Quality Management.....	1
1.3 Definitions of Quality .....	2
1.4 The Development of the Quality Concept .....	8
1.5 Approaches to Quality.....	10
1.5.1 The Guru Approach.....	10
1.5.2 The Certification Approach.....	15
1.5.3 The Business Excellence or Prize Approach .....	20
1.5.4 The Japanese Approach.....	25
1.5.5 The Exemplary Organisation Approach.....	28
1.6 Measurement of Quality.....	32
1.7 Conclusions .....	35
Chapter 2 Total Quality Management	37
2.1 Introduction .....	37
2.2 Origins of Total Quality Management .....	37
2.3 Definitions of Total Quality Management .....	37
2.4 The Main Components of Total Quality Management .....	39
2.5 Motivation for Total Quality Management .....	47
2.6 Benefits of Total Quality Management.....	47
2.7 Problems in Achieving a Successful Total Quality Management System.....	50
2.8 Advantages and Disadvantages of Total Quality Management .....	56
2.9 Limitations of Total Quality Management.....	57
2.10 Relationship Between TQM and the Classical Theories of Management .....	57
2.11 Approaches to TQM Research .....	65
2.12 Conclusions .....	67
Chapter 3 The Development of the Public Sector.....	68

3.1 Introduction .....	68
3.2 Background to current developments in the Public Sector .....	68
3.3 Theoretical underpinnings of Public Sector reforms .....	69
3.4 Structure of the Public Sector .....	72
3.5 Approaches to Managing the Public Sector .....	73
3.6 Criticisms of New Public Management .....	83
3.7 Looking to the Future.....	85
3.8 Differences between the Public and Private Sectors.....	86
3.9 Approaches to Public Sector Reform in different countries .....	90
3.9.1 United Kingdom.....	90
3.9.2 New Zealand .....	92
3.9.3 Australia .....	93
3.9.4 European Commission .....	94
3.9.5 Ireland .....	94
3.10 Total Quality Management Developments in the Public Sector.....	99
3.10.1 United Kingdom.....	100
3.10.2 Canada.....	101
3.10.3 USA.....	102
3.10.4 Ireland .....	103
3.11 Difficulties in Applying Total Quality Management in the Public Sector.....	104
3.12 Key Principles for Total Quality Management in the Public sector .....	108
3.13 A suggested 8 step model for implementing Total Quality Management in the Public Sector .....	109
3.14 Conclusions .....	111
Chapter 4 Organisational Culture.....	113
4.1 Introduction .....	113
4.2 History and Origins of Organisational Culture .....	114
4.3 Definitions of Organisational Culture.....	116
4.4 Antecedents and Development of Organisational Culture.....	118
4.5 Components of Culture .....	120
4.6 Classifications of Culture.....	122
4.7 Perspectives on Organisational Culture Research.....	128
4.8 Differences between Organisational Climate and Organisational Culture .....	133
4.9 Measuring Culture.....	134
4.9.1 Comparison of the Measurement Methodologies .....	144
4.9.2 National Standard Measurement .....	145

4.10 Managing Culture.....	146
4.11 Resistance to Culture Change	150
4.12 Leadership as a Shaper of Organisational Culture.....	152
4.13 Role of Managers in Culture Change.....	154
4.14 Relationship between Organisational Culture and Organisational Performance	159
4.15 Organisational Culture, Strategy and performance.....	161
4.16 Conclusions.....	164
Chapter 5 Research Hypotheses.....	166
5.1 Introduction .....	166
5.2 Description of Hypotheses.....	167
Chapter 6 Research Methodology.....	169
6.1 Introduction.....	169
6.2. Principles of Research.....	169
6.2.1 Types of Research.....	171
6.3 Selection of Research Methodology .....	177
6.3.1 Purpose of the Research.....	177
6.3.2 Process of the Research-choice of paradigm.....	178
6.3.3 Logic of the Research.....	178
6.3.4 Outcome of the Research.....	178
6.4 Design of Research .....	178
6.4.1 Individual Employee Questionnaires .....	179
6.4.2 Procedure for carrying out the research	183
6.4.3 Reliability and validity.....	184
6.4.4 Statistical Analysis.....	192
6.4.5 Organisational Analysis .....	193
Chapter 7 Results .....	198
7.1 Introduction.....	198
7.2 Employee Questionnaires .....	199
7.3 Organisation Analysis.....	219
7.4 Summary of Results and Conclusions	220
Chapter 8 Discussion .....	229
8.1 Introduction.....	229

8.2 Main findings .....	229
8.3 Comparison with other research .....	234
8.3.1 Research carried out in Ireland .....	234
8.3.2 Other public sector- private sector research	235
8.3.3 Research carried out using the 9 Dimension Framework .....	236
8.4 Contribution to theory	242
8.5 Limitations of the research.....	247
8.5.1 Research methodology	248
8.5.2 Sample selected	248
8.6 Areas for further research	252
8.7 Conclusions of this research	253
References .....	254
Appendix A Survey Data .....	
Appendix B Excellence Through People Standard .....	
Appendix C Excellence Through People Revised Standard .....	
Appendix D Investors in People Standard .....	
Appendix E Investors in People Revised Standard.....	
Appendix F Questionnaire .....	
Appendix G Reports on Organisational Assessments	



## **Abstract**

This thesis reviews the Total Quality Management (TQM) literature and concludes that core to the introduction of TQM in any organisation is a need to be acutely sensitive to the cultural aspects of the organisation.

This thesis proceeds to review the Organisational Culture literature and concludes that culture can be measured and changed. It also identifies four factors of Organisational Culture which facilitate measurement of the concept.

As the research programme is situated in the public sector the thesis considers the very different and indeed opposing views regarding the development of the public sector and concludes, that irrespective of the strategy used, that the human factor is a key area in public sector reform. This people focus requires culture change and time to implement.

The methodology employed to measure and compare organisational culture in both private and public sector organizations at two different times in the quality journey was primarily positivist and quantitative. Cartwright's 9-dimension culture questionnaire was employed to capture the human facets of organisational culture. The results indicate a significant difference in culture between the private and public sectors at both times but that the variation in culture had reduced during the time interval between the two surveys.

The implications of this study will assist in the understanding of organisational culture particularly in the public sector. Due to the shortage of research in this sector the results will assist in the development of public sector reform or modernisation programmes.

## **Introduction**

The researcher was involved in the introduction of quality systems into an organisation and found that most of the difficulties encountered were with regard to people related issues (e.g. resistance to change, lack of ownership, fear and suspicion of the motives of management, lack of communication and lack of training and development), rather than system issues (e.g. the development of standard operating procedures, quality procedures, service specifications etc). The author found that little progress could be made on the introduction of quality systems unless the people issues outlined above were addressed and once they were, substantial progress could be made on the system issues in a relatively short period of time.

There is currently a high degree of pressure on public sectors worldwide to become more efficient and more customer focused in order to meet the increasing demands of the public with the added pressures of limited public expenditure. The literature does not adequately address the design of organisational strategies to achieve new forms of public management which need to be developed with a recognition of the existing culture within the public sector.

Neither does the literature adequately address the differences between the cultures in the public and private sectors which may explain the resilience of the hierarchical culture in the public sector and which may assist in evaluating the appropriateness of management reforms derived from the experience of private sector organisations.

This research sets out to measure the cultural aspects of an organisation and how they could be managed with particular emphasis on the differences between the public sector and private sector in this regard.

The thesis is divided into 3 sections;

Section 1 covers the literature review which is divided into 3 main subsections, quality, the public sector and organisational culture, which are described as follows; Subsection 2 reviews the significant and wide ranging literature covering the field of quality including definitions and reviews a wide range of classifications of these definitions. It considers the main components of quality and the many perspectives on quality. The review reflects how the concept of quality has evolved over time and appraises a number of different approaches to quality both from a theoretical or practical viewpoint. A key feature in most studies in the field of quality is the work of the quality gurus (e.g. Deming, Juran etc) and the review presents a theoretical analysis of their views and compares them to accepted management theories. The review also introduces the concept of Total Quality Management (TQM) which has evolved in recent years and outlines its merits and demerits. The relationship between TQM and the classical theories of management are also reviewed. Given the amount of literature in this field and the breath of the subject, chapter 1 gives an overview of quality and chapter 2 focuses on the area of total quality management.

Subsection 2 considers the literature on Public Sector Management. Against the existence of a movement towards the improvement of the effectiveness of the public sector worldwide and to reduce its cost, it reviews a range of different approaches used in a number of countries and also the application of total quality management within the public sector. A weakness in the literature is the scarcity of published research with regard to organisational culture in the public sector and how culture in both the private and public sector compares.

Subsection 3 considers the significant and wide ranging literature covering the field of organisational culture, how it is defined, how it develops, its main components, a wide range of perspectives on organisational culture from a wide range of authors, and the key differences between organisational culture and organisational climate. Controversy surrounds the issue of measurement of Organisational Culture and the review describes a number of accepted methods of measurement of Organisational Culture and identifies one method which is used in the field research.

The management of organisational culture is also a controversial area but most authors agree that controlled change can be facilitated within organisations and a

number of approaches are reviewed. The review also considers the relationship between organisational culture and organisational performance.

Section 2 presents the research hypotheses, research methodology, results, summary of results and conclusions, and discussion. As there was no validation available on the 9 dimensions of Cartwright (1993) on which the questionnaire was based it was decided to do a factor analysis as part of this research. Chapter 5 outlines the six hypotheses two of which were deduced from the literature and the other four are as a result of the factor analysis. Chapter 6 introduces the choice of research methodology to operationalise the research programme and the rationale for their choice. The research programme is a longitudinal and comparative study whereby organisational culture is measured in a group of public sector organisations and a comparison group of private sector organisations on two occasions separated by an interval of 15 months.

Chapter 7 presents the results of testing the six hypotheses using statistical analysis. Chapter 8, the discussion chapter, outlines the main findings, provides a comparison with other research, indicates how this research makes a contribution to theory in the areas of total quality management, the public sector and organisational culture. This Chapter also describes the limitations of this research and suggests areas for further research.

Section 3 presents the appendices which includes the data collected, the questionnaire, both the current and revised standards for both the Excellence Through People and Investors in People Standards, the reference list and the reports on the organisational assessments .

## List of Figures

### Chapter 1

- Figure 1.1 Illustration of a process based quality management system (ISO 9001:2000)
- Figure 1.2 Criteria for the Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award
- Figure 1.3 Criteria for the EFQM Business Excellence Model

### Chapter 2

- Figure 2.1 Comparison of the Factor Models of Black (1993) and Saraph et al (1989)
- Figure 2.2 Comparison of the Factor Models of Mann (1992) and Saraph et al (1989)
- Figure 2.3 Comparison of the Factor Models of Saraph et al (1989) and ISO 9001:2000
- Figure 2.4 A model of relationships between national culture, organisational culture/structure and TQM implementation

### Chapter 3

- Figure 3.1 From traditional or progressive public administration to new public management

### Chapter 4

- Figure 4.1 Levels of culture
- Figure 4.2 Manifestations of culture
- Figure 4.3 Comparison of cultures by Person/Task and Hierarchical/Egalitarian
- Figure 4.4 Different cultural types
- Figure 4.5 The OCI Circumplex
- Figure 4.6 The emergence of corporate cultures

Figure 4.7	A model of organisational performance and change
Chapter 6	
Figure 6.1	Research steps
Chapter 7	
Figure 7.1	Comparison of Four Culture Factors for public sector at time 1 and time 2
Figure 7.2	Comparison of Four Culture Factors for private sector at time 1 and time 2
Figure 7.3	Comparison of Four Culture Factors for public and private sectors at time 1
Chapter 8	
Figure 8.1	Comparison of private and public sector scores
Figure 8.2	Model of Public Sector Activities
Figure 8.3	Model of Private Sector Activities

## **List of Tables**

### Chapter 1

Table 1.1	Strengths and weakness of quality definitions
Table 1.2	Comparison of Reeves and Bednar (1994) and Garvin (1988) classifications of quality
Table 1.3	Comparison of Garvin (1988) and Dumas (1989) classifications of quality
Table 1.4	Comparison of Reeves and Bednar (1994) and Dumas (1989) classifications of quality
Table 1.5	Quality Management Standard ISO:9001:1994
Table 1.6	Quality Management Standard ISO:9001:2000
Table 1.7	Comparison of the different approaches to quality

### Chapter 2

Table 2.1	Comparison of the work of the quality gurus by TQM variables
Table 2.2	Comparison of the work of the quality gurus by TQM dimensions
Table 2.3	Comparison if the work of the quality 4 main American Quality gurus against 10 dimensions of Total Quality Management
Table 2.4	Total Quality Management-Bouquet or Brickbat
Table 2.5	Comparison of TQM to the classical theories of management
Table 2.6	Principles, Practices and Techniques of Total Quality
Table 2.7	Management Practices associated with Total Quality Management and Total Quality Learning
Table 2.8	Comparison of Organisational Models

### Chapter 3

Table 3.1	Public Service Organisation Types
Table 3.2	Analysis of Public Service Organisation Types
Table 3.3	Comparing Perspectives: Old Public Administration, New Public Administration and New Public Service
Table 3.4	Shifting from a traditional Public Sector System to a Public Service System for the 21 <sup>st</sup> century

Table 3.5	Qualities Desired in Service Producers
Table 3.6	Tasks best suited to each sector
Table 3.7	Change and Markets in Public Organisations
Chapter 4	
Table 4.1	Three concepts of culture
Table 4.2	Comparison of values and opposites
Table 4.3	Contrasting organisational culture and organisational climate research
Table 4.4	Nine Factors Cultural Maturity Index
Table 4.5	Comparison of Cartwright (1993) and Ashkanasy et al (2000) Models
Table 4.6	Characteristics of the requisite strategy
Table 4.7	Organisational culture and strategy: The Miles and Snow Typology, Culture/Strategic Type
Chapter 6	
Table 6.1	The elements of a research process
Table 6.2	Types of research by classification
Table 6.3	Features of the two main research paradigms
Table 6.4	Assumptions of the two main paradigms
Table 6.5	Results of Cronbach Alpha tests
Table 6.6	Principal Component Analysis on Cartwright questionnaire
Table 6.7	Results of Cronbach Alpha tests
Table 6.8	List of questions for Factor 1
Table 6.9	List of questions for Factor 2
Table 6.10	List of questions for Factor 3
Table 6.11	List of questions for Factor 4
Chapter 7	
Table 7.1	Employee profile of private and public sector samples
Table 7.2	Mean, Standard Deviation and Correlation Table for variables at Time 1



Table 7.3	Mean, Standard Deviation and Correlation Table for variables at Time 2
Table 7.4	Paired sample t-test of Four Culture Factors for Public Sector at Time 1 and Time 2
Table 7.5	Paired sample t-test of Four Culture Factors for Private Sector at Time 1 and Time 2.
Table 7.6	Paired sample t-test of Four Culture Factors for Public and Private sectors at Time 1
Table 7.7	Regression Analysis with Fairness Culture as the dependent variable
Table 7.8	Regression Analysis with Commitment Culture as the dependent variable
Table 7.9	Regression Analysis with Development Culture as the dependent variable
Table 7.10	Regression Analysis with Empowerment Culture as the dependent variable
Table 7.11	Summary of ETP Assessment Scores – Public Sector
Table 7.12	Summary of ETP Assessment Scores – Private Sector
Table 7.13	Comparison of Mean ETP scores for Private and Public sectors
Chapter 8	
Table 8.1	Four Factor Model of Organisational Culture

## **1.1 Introduction**

This chapter considers the history and origins of quality, the different definitions of quality and how the quality concept has developed over time in management thought. It also considers the different approaches to quality and how quality is measured.

## **1.2 History and Origins of Quality Management**

The concept of quality can be traced back to ancient times. Significant discussions about quality or good practice were initiated by Socrates, Plato and other Greek philosophers. The ideal to the Greeks was *aretê* or excellence (Reeves and Bednar, 1994).

The quality movement could be said to have originated in medieval Europe where craftsmen began organising into unions called guilds in the late thirteenth century. These guilds were responsible for developing strict rules for product and service quality. Until the early nineteenth century, manufacturing in the industrial world followed this craftsmanship model (Johnson, 1988; [www.asq.org](http://www.asq.org)).

A division of craftsmen's trades occurred in Great Britain in the 1750's which resulted in the factory system which eventually developed into the Industrial Revolution in the early 1800's. This divided the craftsmen's trades into specialised tasks and forced craftsmen to become factory workers. Inspection became the guarantee of quality and became a separate job to the manufacture of the product with the onset of Taylorism in the early part of the twentieth century. From the 1920's some manufacturers began to include quality processes as part of their manufacturing cycle and the emphasis began to change from inspection to quality control. ([www.asq.org](http://www.asq.org))

In World War Two military requirements became the driving force behind the development of quality control and military specifications became the

basis for the development of quality standards. In the early 1950's quality management practices developed rapidly in Japanese manufacturing plants and became a major theme in Japanese management philosophy to such an extent that quality control and quality management became a national preoccupation ([www.dti.gov.uk](http://www.dti.gov.uk)). The USA response to developments in Japan emphasized not only statistics but also approaches that embraced the entire organisation and became known as Total Quality Management (TQM) ([www.asq.org](http://www.asq.org)).

### **1.3 Definitions of Quality**

A global definition of quality does not appear to exist, as different definitions are appropriate under different circumstances and different writers place a different emphasis on different aspects of quality. The term quality is open to a range of interpretations and the formation of a standard definition remains elusive (Dale and Plunkett, 1990). The position is made complicated through the colloquial use of the term "quality" as an adjective synonymous with elegance and luxury.

The following are some of the most common definitions of quality.

*Quality is fitness for use.* - Juran (1979:2-2)

*Quality is conformance to requirements.* - Crosby (1979:17)

*Quality is a predictable degree of uniformity and dependability at low cost and suited to the market.* - Deming (1982 cited in Flood 1993:42 )

*Quality is in its essence a way of managing an organisation.* - Feigenbaum (1983:6)

*Quality is meeting customer requirements.* - Oakland (1989:3)

*Quality is the totality of characteristics of an entity that bear on its ability to satisfy stated or implied needs.* - International Standard Definition (ISO 8402, 1994: viii)

*Quality is a system of means to economically produce goods or services, which satisfy customer requirements.* Japan Industrial Standards (Z8101-1981)

A range of definitions have been proposed over the years with different emphasis. In the case of Juran there is a definition from an engineer's viewpoint and related primarily to a product i.e. Fitness for Use. The Deming definition is again focussed on manufacturing and on decreasing variability in manufacturing. This reflects Deming's background and interest in statistics, although Deming's 14 Points of Quality expands quality into a broader arena. The Crosby definition is similar to Juran, relating to requirements and use. The Feigenbaum definition broadens quality into a way of managing an organisation and begins to emphasise what we will later term as Total Quality Management. The International Standard definition and Japan Industrial Standards definition broadens the definitions to include services and also puts a focus on the customer.

The definition of quality has evolved from a product based definition which originated in the manufacturing sector to a customer based definition which incorporates service both within the service sector and also the service element of manufactured products. For the purpose of this research programme the Oakland (1989:3) definition; *Quality is meeting customer requirements* is adopted. The reason for adopting the Oakland definition is that it addresses the aspects of the other definitions by focusing on the core purpose of an organisation.

Reeves and Bednar (1994) categorise definitions of quality under the following headings:

- 1) Excellence
- 2) Value
- 3) Conformance to specifications
- 4) Meeting and/or exceeding expectations

The most common category for the definitions chosen above is meeting and/or exceeding expectations and this category reflects the most common view of quality at the current time.

Reeves and Bednar (1994) outline the strengths and weaknesses of each of the definitions as follows:

Table 1.1 Strengths and Weaknesses of Quality Definitions (Reeves and Bednar, 1994: 437)

Definition	Strengths	Weaknesses
Excellence	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Strong marketing and human resource benefits</li> <li>2. Universally recognisable - mark of uncompromising standards and high achievement</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Provides little practical guidance to practitioners</li> <li>2. Measurement difficulties</li> <li>3. Attributes of excellence may change dramatically and rapidly</li> <li>4. Sufficient number of customers must be willing to pay for excellence</li> </ol>
Value	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Concepts of value incorporates multiple attributes</li> <li>2. Focuses attention on a firms internal and external effectiveness</li> <li>3. Allows for comparisons across disparate objects and experiences</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Difficulty extracting individual components of value judgement</li> <li>2. Questionable inclusiveness</li> <li>3. Quality and value are different constructs</li> </ol>
Conformance to specifications	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Facilitates precise measurement</li> <li>2. Leads to increased efficiency</li> <li>3. Necessary for global strategy</li> <li>4. Should force desegregation of consumer needs</li> <li>5. Most parsimonious and appropriate definition for some customers</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Consumers do not know or care about internal specifications</li> <li>2. Inappropriate for services</li> <li>3. Potentially reduces organisational adaptability</li> <li>4. Specifications may quickly become obsolete in rapidly changing markets</li> <li>5. Internally focused</li> </ol>
Meeting and/or Exceeding Expectations	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Evaluates from customers perspective</li> <li>2. Applicable across industries</li> <li>3. Responsive to market changes</li> <li>4. All-encompassing definition</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Most complex</li> <li>2. Difficult to measure</li> <li>3. Customers may not know expectations</li> <li>4. Idiosyncratic reactions</li> <li>5. Pre-purchase attitudes affect subsequent judgements</li> <li>6. Short-term and long-term evaluations may differ</li> <li>7. Confusion between customer service and customer satisfaction</li> </ol>

The suggestion is that quality is measured most precisely when defined as conformance to specifications and it is most difficult to measure when defined as Excellence. (Reeves and Bednar, 1994)

Another classification is made by Garvin (1988) who divides definitions of quality into five categories:

- 1) Transcendental Approach – quality is synonymous with excellence.
- 2) Product Based Approach. – Quality is precise, measurable and inherently present in the natural characteristics of the product.

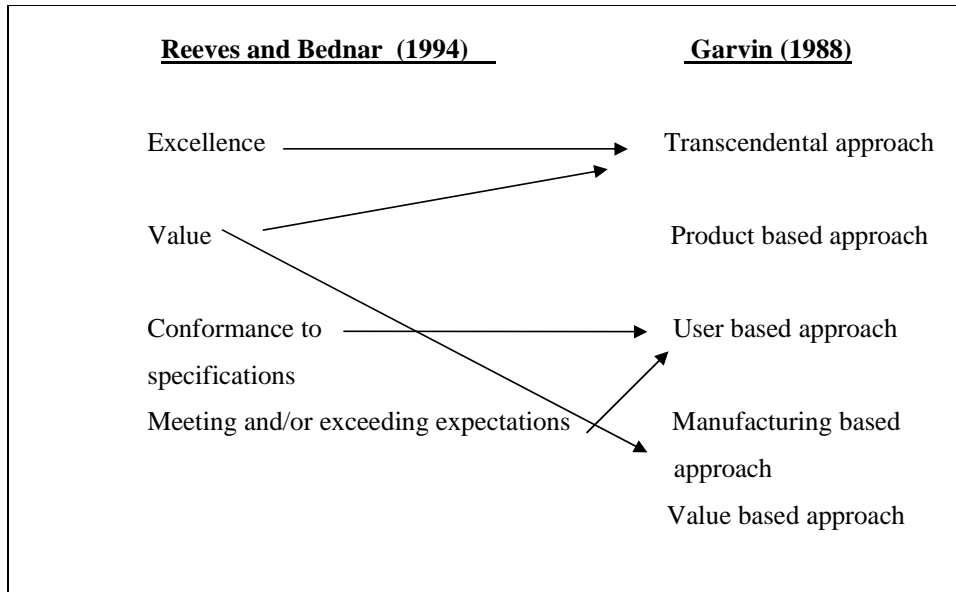
- 3) User Based Approach – quality is defined by the user i.e. Juran (1979) defines quality as “fitness for use”.
- 4) Manufacturing Based Approach – the focus here is on conformance, reliability and efficient production.
- 5) Value Based Approach – this relates to what one pays for the product.

A different approach is taken by Dumas (1989) who argues that definitions of quality are evolving in a predictable fashion driven by the market place. Four evolving stages are described:

- 1) Extra features – quality is enhanced through the addition of product features to a base product.
- 2) It works – this supersedes the first approach and is expressed as “meets customer specifications” and “right first time”.
- 3) It satisfies – when quality is defined in such a way that the customer is satisfied. It goes beyond meeting the articulated needs (fitness for sale) to the customer’s real needs (fitness for use).
- 4) It develops – at this higher level, customers are made better consumers through exposure to products and services of greater value.

In reviewing the different classifications of quality, the Reeves and Bednar (1994) classifications are similar to the Garvin (1988) classifications as follows

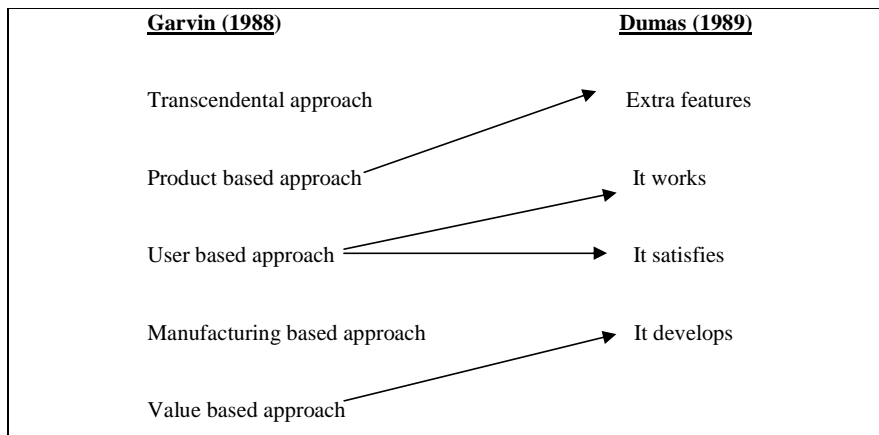
Table 1.2 Comparison of Reeves and Bednar (1994) and Garvin (1988) Classifications of Quality



Thus, there is similarity between the classifications of Reeves and Bednar (1994) and Garvin (1988) although conformance to specifications as outlined by Reeves and Bednar (1994) is divided into two of the classifications of Garvin (1988), the product based approach and the manufacturing based approach.

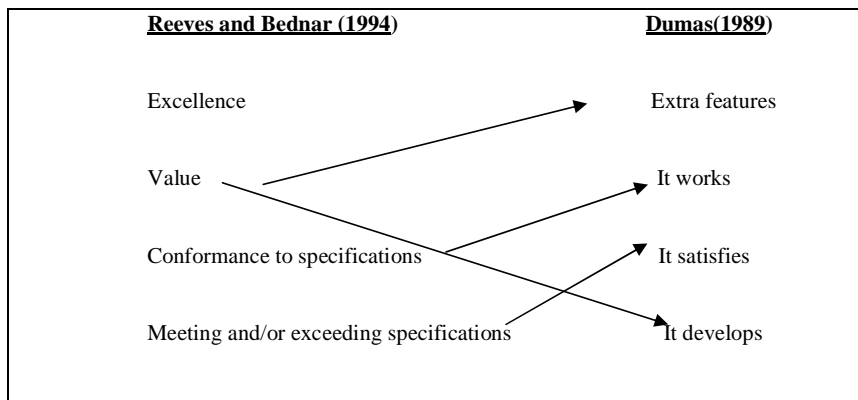
The Dumas (1989) classifications focus mainly on the market place and hence on conforming, meeting and /or exceeding expectations of customers.

Table 1.3 Comparison of Garvin (1988) and Dumas (1989) Classifications of Quality



In this case the Garvin (1988) classifications address each of the Dumas (1989) classifications. However Dumas focuses on the market place and does not address the Transcendental, Manufacturing based or Value based approaches of Garvin.

Table 1.4 Comparison of Reeves and Bednar (1994) and Dumas (1989) Classifications of Quality



The Dumas (1989) classifications focus mainly on the market place and hence on conforming, meeting and or exceeding expectations of customers. It does not address the area of Excellence as outlined by Reeves and Bednar (1994).



An important distinction is made between quality of conformance and quality of design where quality of conformance is the degree to which any product meets the specifications set for its production and quality of design concerns the extent to which such specifications define a product that is fit for the purpose for which it is intended (Buzzel and Gale, 1987; Oakland, 1989; Hill, 1991). Hill (1991) states that quality of conformance is about efficiency whereas quality of design concerns effectiveness i.e. “doing things right” verses “doing the right things”. Buzzel and Gale (1987) state that quality of conformance is associated with an internal perspective to the organisation as opposed to quality of design, which is more externally (customer) oriented.

#### **1.4 The Development of the Quality Concept**

The concept of quality has evolved over the years, in the 1950's and 1960's Quality Control was the key, with the emphasis being on inspection, finding faults reworking or scrapping the defective product, repairing the fault and ensuring that the fault did not reoccur (Garvin, 1988). Quality Control is defined as follows: *Quality Control is the operational techniques and activities that are used to fulfil requirements for quality. It involve operational techniques and activities aimed both at monitoring a process and at eliminating causes of unsatisfactory performance at all stages of the quality loop in order to achieve economic effectiveness.* (ISO 8402, 1994:15).

Whereas Quality Control focussed mainly on correction, a move then occurred in the 1970's and 1980's into prevention measures and the term 'Quality Assurance' became popular. Quality Assurance is defined as follows: *Quality Assurance is all the planned and systematic activities implemented within the quality system and demonstrated as needed, to provide adequate confidence that an entity will fulfil requirements for quality* (ISO 8402, 1994:16). The advance of Quality Assurance led to the development of quality systems and the development of quality system standards e.g. ISO 9001. This promoted consistency of product or service and compliance with the standard.

The next step in the evolution of quality was improvement, and in order to achieve not just improvement but continuous improvement the concept considered all parts and activities of the organisation and also involved all the employees in the organisation. This stage of evolution led to the concept of 'Total Quality Management' which is defined as follows: *Total Quality Management is a management approach of an organisation, centred on quality, based on the participation of all its members and aiming at long term success through customer satisfaction, and benefits to all members of the organisation and to society* (ISO 8402, 1994:17).

The four stages in the evolution of quality are Inspection, Quality Control, Quality Assurance and Total Quality Management (Dale, Lascelles and Plunkett, 1990; Yong and Wilkinson, 2002; Garvin, 1988). Garvin (1988) refers to these as quality eras.

According to Jackman (1995) cited in Yong and Wilkinson (2002), TQM is the phase of quality management we are witnessing today and has emerged as a critique of previous forms of quality management.

Tuckman (1995) characterizes the development of western interest in quality management as follows.

- First Phase: Late 1970 to early 1980, some experimentation with quality circles. Mostly affects firms in direct competition with industrial sectors in which Japan had concentrated, for example, electronics and motor industries.
- Second Phase: During the 1980s major companies, often affected by world recession, concerned with control of supplies and sub-contractors.
- Third Phase: From the mid 1980s a growing concern with customer service, particularly in the service sector.
- Forth Phase: From late 1980s penetration of concerns with customer service into areas which previously had not recognised the existence of customers. (e.g. public services).

The quality concept has now evolved into the concept of total quality management and has now moved from the original area of manufacturing industry into the service sector initially in private sector services, e.g.

financial services, hotels etc and then most significantly into the public sector in areas like healthcare and education. The area of Total Quality Management is covered in Chapter 2 of this thesis.

### **1.5 Approaches to Quality**

Contemporary organisations striving for optimal effectiveness often employ quality as a mechanism to achieve operational effectiveness. Different approaches to quality are taken by organisations based on their requirements and also based on the culture of the organisation.

Following a review both of the literature and of approaches taken by individual organisations five main approaches to quality are suggested, which are as follows:

- 1) The guru approach
- 2) The certification approach
- 3) The Business Excellence or Prize approach
- 4) The Japanese approach
- 5) The exemplary organisation approach

#### **1.5.1 The Guru Approach**

A guru is regarded as a good person, a wise person and a thinker. A quality guru should have all of these qualities plus have a concept and approach to quality within business that has had a major and lasting impact ([www.dti.gov.uk](http://www.dti.gov.uk)). Many organisations have followed one or more quality gurus on their quality journey. This subsection will introduce and deliver a short review of the approaches of four of the most significant gurus in the field in recent times.

- 1) W. Edwards Deming:- Often referred to as the 'Father of Quality' Deming, along with Juran is credited with the rebuilding of Japanese industry after the 2<sup>nd</sup> World War, and its transformation to becoming a major industrial power and the recognised world leader in quality, particularly in the 1970's and 1980's. Deming was a statistician by

education and had tried with limited success to convince management in the United States to address quality issues in the 1930's and 1940's. He was invited to Japan after the Second World War, and was initially very surprised by the large numbers of chief executives and top managers attending his seminars, whereas in the USA, the seminars would have been attended by engineers and technicians. He was even more surprised when the organisations started to actually implement what he was suggesting, in contrast to the situation in the USA. Deming's philosophy is outlined in his 14 points which are as follows:-

Deming's Fourteen Points (1986)

- 1) Create constancy of purpose towards improvement of product and service
- 2) Adopt the new philosophy. We can no longer live with commonly accepted levels of delays, mistakes, and defective workmanship.
- 3) Cease dependence on mass inspection. Require, instead, statistical evidence that quality is built in.
- 4) End the practice of awarding business on the basis of price tag.
- 5) Find problems. It is management's job to work continually on the system.
- 6) Institute modern methods of training on the job.
- 7) Institute modern methods of supervision of production workers. The responsibility of foremen must be changed from numbers to quality.
- 8) Drive out fear, so that everyone may work effectively for the company.
- 9) Break down barriers between departments.
- 10) Eliminate numerical goals, posters, and slogans for the workforce asking for new levels of productivity without providing methods.
- 11) Eliminate work standards that prescribe numerical quotas.
- 12) Remove barriers that stand between the hourly worker and his right of pride in workmanship.
- 13) Institute a vigorous programme of education and retraining.
- 14) Create a structure in top management that will push every day on the above 13 points.

To summarise, Deming focuses on the use of statistical techniques, management leadership and the training and education of employees to identify problem areas and their correction or elimination. He is not in agreement with the emphasis placed on numerical targets believing that this will focus attention on short term results at the expense of medium and long term benefits.

2) Joseph Juran:- A contemporary of Deming, but not referred to as a friend because of very intense rivalry. Juran was an engineer and also visited Japan from the early 1950's, and would also be referred to as one of the main architects of post-war industrial Japan. Juran's philosophy is summed up in his 10 points, which are as follows:

Juran's 10 Points (1979)

- 1) Build awareness of the need and opportunity for improvement.
- 2) Set goals for improvement.
- 3) Organise to reach the goals (establish a quality council, identify problems, select projects, appoint teams, designate facilitators)
- 4) Provide training.
- 5) Carry out projects to solve problems.
- 6) Report progress.
- 7) Give recognition.
- 8) Communicate results.
- 9) Keep score.
- 10) Maintain momentum by making annual improvement part of the regular systems and processes of the company.

To summarise, Juran proposes a project management approach to problem solving and to manage the different elements of the organisation's quality programme.

3) Armand V. Feigenbaum: Another American but of a slightly later vintage than Deming and Juran. Whereas both Deming and Juran had backgrounds in statistics, which had influenced their approaches,

Feigenbaum had an industrial background having worked in quality in the U.S. industrial giant General Electric. Feigenbaum suggests a whole new approach which focused on setting standards, measuring conformance to these standards and taking action when these standards were not achieved.

To summarise, Feigenbaum proposes a Systems Approach to managing an organisation by setting targets, measuring conformance, taking corrective action and implementing improvements.

4) Philip Crosby:- Another American, of a similar vintage to Feigenbaum, also had an industrial background and was Vice President of Quality in the giant U.S. multinational AT & T (Amalgamated Telephone and Telegraphs). He states that quality problems are created by poor management and offers a 5-stage maturity grid for implementing quality within an organisation. The 5 stages are as follows:

- 1) Uncertainty: Management confused by and uncommitted to quality.
- 2) Awakening: Management beginning to recognise quality management.
- 3) Enlightenment: Management establish quality policy and admit that they have problems.
- 4) Wisdom: Management have the chance to make the quality improvement stick.
- 5) Certainty: Quality Management is an absolutely vital part of company management.

He also says that each stage can be assessed through 6 measured categories as follows:

- 1) Management understanding: From no comprehension of quality to being an integral part of day-to-day work.
- 2) Quality organisation status: Where in the hierarchy the quality people reside, from non-existent to being a member of the board of directors.
- 3) Problem handling: From fire fighting to prevention.
- 4) Cost of quality: From 20% to 2.5% of sales.
- 5) Quality improvement actions: From no activity to continuous

activity

- 6) Summation of company quality posture: From not knowing why problems occur to knowing why problems do not occur.

Crosby's proposes a 14 step approach to Quality Improvement (1979) which emphasises the importance of management commitment, and advocates the establishment of quality improvement teams with the objective of identifying and resolving quality problems. The Crosby approach is similar to the Feigenbaum approach, possibly because both had backgrounds in industry, but Crosby puts more emphasis on the motivational aspects and the celebration of successes.

To summarise Crosby focuses on the motivation and involvement of employees, the setting of targets and the celebration when targets are achieved.

The different focal points of the four gurus can be summarised as follows:

- Deming                      Statistical Process Control
- Crosby                      Company wide motivation
- Feigenbaum                Systems Management
- Juran                        Project Management

Whereas the gurus have contributed greatly to the development of quality, and are particularly good in a technical sense, there are some limitations in their work.

- 1) They do not adequately cover the management of the human dimension of organisations.
- 2) They fall down in the area of organisational design.
- 3) They are almost exclusively concerned with commercial organisations.
- 4) They are based on beliefs and are not backed by academic research.

(Zain et al, 2001; Flood, 1993; Bendell, 1991)

The Crosby approach focuses on the motivation and involvement of employees, the setting of targets and the celebration when the targets are achieved. The Deming approach focuses on the use of statistical techniques and the training and education of employees to identify problem areas and their correction or elimination. He also advocates the elimination of barriers to change i.e. barriers between departments and driving out fear. Whereas Crosby advocates the setting of targets, Deming is not in agreement with the emphasis placed on numerical targets believing that this will focus attention on short term results at the expense of medium and long term benefits. The Juran approach is very similar to the Crosby approach but uses a project management approach to manage the different elements of the organisation's quality programme. The Feigenbaum approach is a way of managing a business using a systems approach. His approach is a high level approach of setting targets, measuring conformance to standards, taking corrective action and making the necessary improvements. However in order to achieve the above, the detailed steps of training, staff involvement etc as outlined by Deming, Crosby and Juran are necessary. All of the gurus advocate top management commitment as a prerequisite for a quality programme. Interestingly neither Deming nor Juran use the term empowerment, they are quite vague about the involvement of staff and lay most emphasis on management action regarding systems etc.

#### 1.5.2 The Certification Approach

The concept of quality certification was developed in order to have a uniform standard or benchmark and also an independent assessment or audit against the standard. Generally quality certification can be divided into two main areas (a) product certification and (b) system certification. A summary outline of these is as follows:

##### (a) Product Certification

This is where an independent organisation assesses or tests a product against a standard or specification. Organisations which provide this function include the National Standards Authority of a country for example The National Standards Authority of Ireland (NSAI) or The British Standards



Institute (BSI). There are also specialised organisations like the Food and Drugs Administration (FDA) in the USA which certifies and controls food and drug products, which are not only produced in the USA, but are manufactured abroad for consumption in the USA. In Ireland a similar function is supplied by the Irish Medicines Board for pharmaceutical products.

(b) System Certification

Senge (1990) described Systems Thinking as a mental discipline for observing totalities and wholes rather than isolated parts, and the observing of interrelationships, patterns and processes rather than things and events.

System Certification is where an independent organisation assesses or audits the quality system in an organisation against a standard or specification. The recognised standard for quality systems is ISO 9001. Before ISO 9001 was introduced in 1987 a number of countries had their own national standards and these were brought together into the ISO 9001 Standard which was in most part the British Standard BS 5750. This Standard is developed through the International Organisation for Standardisation (ISO) which is based in Switzerland and represents approximately 150 countries worldwide. Thus, an organisation which attains ISO 9001 certification is recognised in each of the 150 member countries of the ISO. The word ISO comes from the Greek word *iso* which means equal.

ISO 9001 was updated in 1994 and comprised the following 20 clauses. These are included in Section 4 of the Standard which is titled Quality System Requirements and is described as follows;

Table 1.5 Quality Management System Standard ISO 9001:1994

4.1 Management Responsibility	4.2 Quality System
4.3 Contract Review	4.4 Design Control
4.5 Document & Data Control	4.6 Purchasing
4.7 Control of customer supplied products	4.8 Product Identification & Responsibility
4.9 Process Control	4.10 Inspecting & Testing
4.11 Control of inspection, measuring & test equipment	4.12 Inspection & test Status
4.13 Control of non-conforming product	4.14 Corrective & preventative action
4.15 Handling, Storage packaging, preservation & delivery	4.16 Control of quality records
4.17 Internal quality audits	4.18 Training
4.19 Services	4.20 Statistical techniques

It was further revised in 2000 and renamed ISO 9001:2000, the standard is covered in Sections 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 which are as follows;

Table 1.6 Quality Management System Standard ISO 9001: 2000

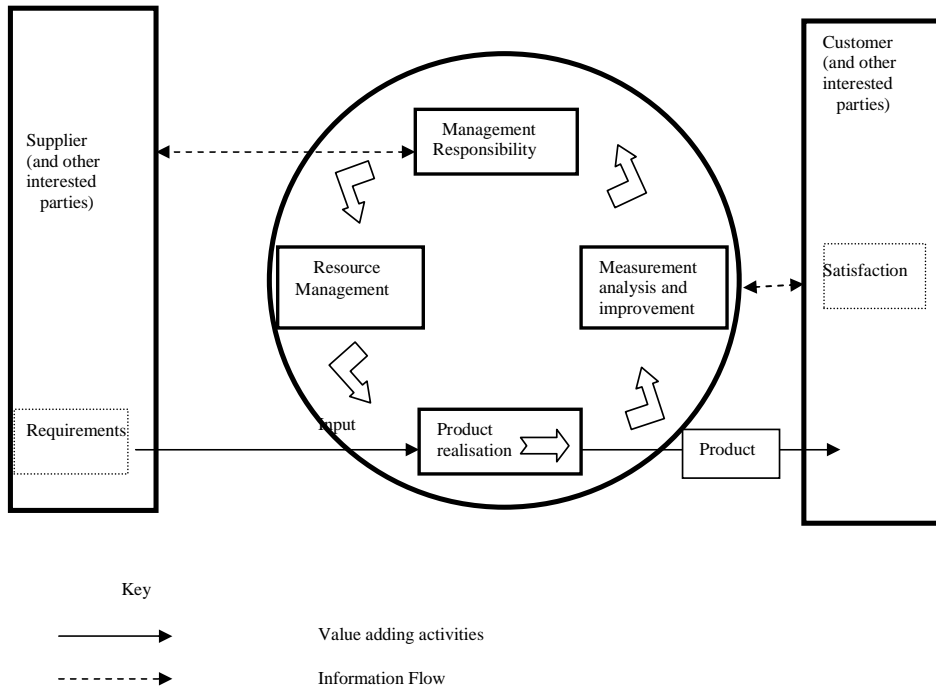
4 Quality Management System	5 Management Responsibility	6 Resource Management	7 Product Realisation	8 Measurement Analysis and Improvement
4.1 General Requirements	5.1 Management Commitment	6.1 Provision of Resources	7.1 Planning of Product Realisation	8.1 General
4.2 Documentation Requirements	5.2 Customer Focus	6.2 Human Resources	7.2 Customer-related Processes	8.2 Monitoring and Measurement
	5.3 Quality Policy	6.3 Infrastructure	7.3 Design and Development	8.3 Control of Non-conforming Product
	5.4 Planning	6.4 Work Environment	7.4 Purchasing	8.4 Analysis of Data
	5.5 Responsibility, Authority and Communication		7.5 Production and Service Provision	8.5 Improvement
	5.6 Management Review		7.6 Control of Monitoring and Measuring Devices	

The ISO 9001: 2000 Standard provides a framework not just for a Quality Management System but a framework for managing a business in line with the definition that quality is meeting customer requirements.

The following illustration of a process based quality management system shows the ISO 9001:2000 Standard as a system i.e. with inputs from suppliers and other interested parties and outputs to customers and other interested parties. Converting the inputs to outputs are the internal processes which is the ISO 9001:2000 quality management system which is as follows:

Figure 1.1 Illustration of a process-based quality management system (ISO 9001:2000:3)

Continual Improvement of  
the quality management system



Whereas the Certification to ISO 9001 brought about a consistency of quality levels and a reduction in quality defects, its primary emphasis has been on compliance rather than improvement, although the new ISO 9001:2000 sets out to promote improvement.

In the development of ISO 9001:2000 eight Quality Management Principles were identified as a framework towards improved performance of an organisation. These are aimed at helping organisations to achieve sustained success and are as follows:

- (a) Customer Focus
- (b) Leadership
- (c) Involvement of People
- (d) Process Approach

- (e) System Approach to Management
- (f) Continual Improvement
- (g) Factual Approach to Decision Making
- (h) Mutually Beneficial Supplier Relationships

These eight Quality Management Principles form the basis for the Quality Management System Standards within the ISO 9000 family and show the move from a Quality Management System to a Total Quality Management approach.

#### 1.5.3 The Business Excellence or Prize Approach

The concept of Business Excellence or Prize Approach originated in Japan in 1951 when JUSE (Japanese Union of Scientists and Engineers) awarded the Deming Prize, this concept spread to the USA with the Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award in 1988 and to Europe with the European Quality Awards in 1992. In addition to the above, most countries in Europe and many countries worldwide now have national quality awards.

##### (a) The Deming Prize – Japan

This began in 1951 when JUSE (Japanese Union of Scientists and Engineers) first awarded the Deming Prize. There are three categories:-

- Individuals who have made distinguished contributions to research and education in Total Quality Control (TQC)
- Organisations who have adopted or championed the concept of quality
- Business units of an organisation

Amongst individual winners are Taguchi and Ishikawa, two of the prominent Japanese writers or gurus in the field of quality. Ishikawa developed the concept of Quality Circles and the Cause and Effect or Fishbone diagram. Some organisation winners include Nissan Motor Corporation and Mitsubishi.

The criteria for the organisational prize are as follows:

- 1) Policy
- 2) Organisation and its management
- 3) Education and dissemination
- 4) Collection, dissemination and use of information of quality
- 5) Analysis
- 6) Standardisation
- 7) Control
- 8) Quality Assurance
- 9) Results
- 10) Planning for the future

Since its inception there have been over 400 winners of the Deming Prize including two winners of the “Overseas Award” – won by Florida Power and Light and Philips Taiwan.

(b) The Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award (MBNQA) – USA

This evolved from the Deming Prize and was named after a former US Secretary for Commerce, it resulted from the Improvement Act approved by President Ronald Reagan in August 1987, and was first awarded in 1988. It is administered by the National Institute of Standards and Technology in the USA and recognises achievements in TQM by organisations based in the US.

Awards 1 or more winners in manufacturing organisations

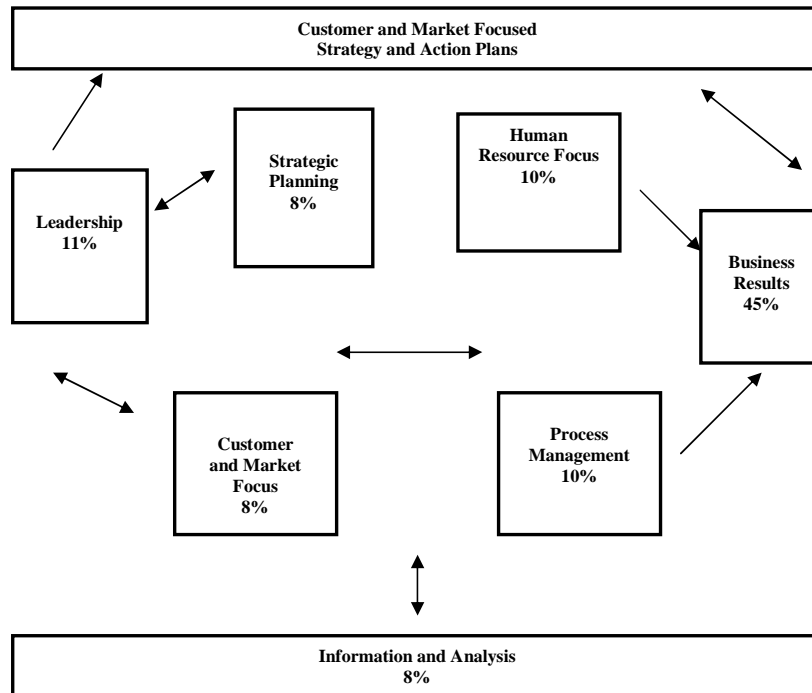
1 or more winners in service organisations

1 or more winners in the small organisation sector

Some winners of the Baldrige Award include, Motorola, Xerox Corporation, Westinghouse and IBM.

The Criteria for the Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award (1998) is as follows:

Figure 1.2 Criteria for the Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award



(c) European Quality Awards (EQA)

The European Foundation for Quality Management (EFQM) was founded in 1988 with the purpose of improving quality throughout Europe. It saw recognition through a European Quality Award as particularly important whereby role models would be identified for others to follow.

The European Quality Award evolved from both the Deming Prize and the Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award and was first awarded in 1992. There are four categories:

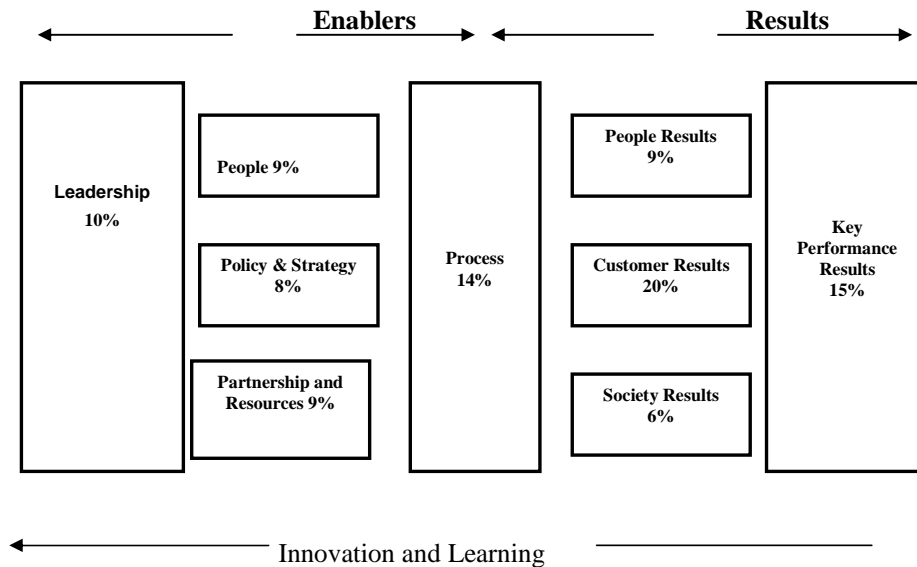
1) Large organisations, 2) operational units of large organisations, 3) small and medium enterprises (SME) and 4) public sector organisations.

Some winners of the EQA are Rank Xerox, Texas Instruments, Nokia Mobile Phones, and Inland Revenue (UK).



The criteria for the European Quality Awards is the EFQM Business Excellence Model which is as follows:

Figure 1.3 Criteria for the EFQM Business Excellence Model)



The criteria are divided into two groups. The Enabler criteria cover what an organisation does, the Results criteria cover what an organisation achieves.

There are a number of fundamental concepts which underpin the EFQM Model, these are as follows:-

- 1) Results Orientation
- 2) Customer Focus
- 3) Leadership and Constancy of Purpose
- 4) Management by Processes and Facts
- 5) People Development and Involvement
- 6) Continuous Learning, Innovation and Improvement
- 7) Partnership Development
- 8) Public Responsibility

Here also we see the move from a quality management approach to a total quality management approach which is similar to the change which has taken place with the ISO 9000 series of standards.

In summary the Business Excellence or Prize approach broadens the quality concept into a business concept and uses an assessment approach rather than an audit approach in that to achieve excellence it is required to build on strengths in addition to addressing weaknesses or areas for improvements.

#### 1.5.4 The Japanese Approach

The exports from Japan to the USA and Europe increased significantly from the late 1960's, due to its cheaper and higher quality products, compared to their western counterparts. Many western organisations visited Japanese companies to establish the source of their success in order to translate this success to their own organisation. It was primarily factories in those days as the concept of Quality Management was being applied in very few service organisations at that time. According to Leonard and Thanopoulos (1982) the reasons for the success of Japanese management are as follows:

- 1) Employees; creativity, labour unions, lifetime employment, training and development.
- 2) Management ; communications, concern for employees, creativity, decision-making process, financials, inventory controls, planning, quality control.
- 3) Cultural and Environmental; adaptability, business government relationships, godfather i.e. guidance and mentoring, group loyalty, harmonious homogenous people, shared purpose.

In the initial stages, learning from the Japanese was carried out on an individual company or group of companies basis. In time it became more structured with the Malcolm Baldrige Award evolving from the Deming Prize, and the European Quality Award evolving from both the Baldrige Award and Deming Prize. The concept of Total Quality Management also developed from the concepts and practices followed in many Japanese organisations. The Guru approach was also influenced by the Japanese approach and there were three waves of gurus as follows ([www.dti.gov.uk](http://www.dti.gov.uk)).

- (1) Early 1950's-The American Gurus who went to Japan with their concepts and approaches e.g. Deming and Juran.
- (2) Late 1950's-The Japanese Gurus who learned from Deming and Juran and developed their own approaches e.g. Isikawa and Taguchi.
- (3) 1970's/ 1980's-The gurus from the USA and other western countries who learned from the Japanese how they had both applied and developed the work of the original gurus, and who therefore further developed the concept of quality. For example Feigenbaum and Crosby.

Researchers have identified some unique aspects regarding Japanese management in their relationships both with employees and with other managers, these include individual responsibility, control systems that are less formal and consensus decision making (Ishihara, Ishihara, Nagamachi and Pinochet, 1996). Following a study of Japanese owned firms in the USA, Johnson (1988) concluded that the success of Japanese firms was due to the introduction of particular management techniques and their development.

In Japan most of those “unique Japanese” practices that have recently achieved such worldwide fame are grouped together under an umbrella concept called Kaizan. Imai (1986) describes Kaizan as improvement. Moreover it means continuing improvement in personal life, home life, social life, and working life. When applied to the workplace Kaizan indicates continuing improvement in valuing everyone – managers and workers alike.

The 16 practices which comprise the Kaizan concept are as follows:

Customer Orientation	Kamban (signboard)
TQC (Total Quality Control)	Quality Improvement
Robotics	Just in Time
QC Circles	Zero Defects
Suggestion Scheme	Small- Group activities
Automation	Corporate labour-management relations
Discipline in the workplace improvement	Productivity
TPM (total productive maintenance)	New-product development

Imai (1986)

Kaora Ishikawa, president of Musashi Institute of Technology and professor emeritus at Tokyo University, has played a crucial role in developing an approach called QC circles in Japan. QC circles, also called quality control circles or quality circles, is an approach whereby groups of employees are trained in problem solving and teambuilding and work to identify and solve problems. Total Quality Control in Japan is similar to Total Quality Management as operated in the USA and Europe. Imai (1986) has listed the features as characterising the Total Quality Control movement in Japan as follows; employee participation, education and training, QC circles, audits, use of statistics and nationwide TQC promotion. This is obviously strongly influenced by the 14 points of Deming.

Total quality control as a corporate strategy inevitably involves such areas as improving communications and labour - management relations as well as revitalising organisational structures. Most importantly, total quality control as a corporate strategy must deal with people. Its net results are more productive workers, more efficient managers, improved communication, and more effective organisation. Better and competitive products are the result of better people and better management, and not vice versa (Imai, 1986). Creating a corporate atmosphere and corporate culture has been an inseparable part of Kaizan programmes. All the Kaizan programmes

implemented in Japan have had one key prerequisite in common, getting workers' acceptance and overcoming their resistance to change.

TQC is described by Imai (1986: xxx) *as organised Kaizan activities involving everyone in a company – managers and workers – in a totally integrated effort towards improving performance at every level. This improved performance is directed toward satisfying such cross-functional goals as quality, cost, scheduling, manpower development and new product development.* It is assumed that these activities ultimately lead to increased customer satisfaction.

According to Imai (1986) the three building blocks of business are hardware, software and human ware. TQC starts with human ware. Only after human ware is squarely in place should the hardware and software aspects of business be considered. Imai (1986) proposes process-orientated management that is also people orientated.

Some western organisations went so far in replicating Japanese organisations that they even served Japanese food in the canteen. However there are dangers in replicating approaches and transferring them into another culture. Maruyama (1982) states that the Japanese way of management has an epistemological basis different from what is called participatory management in the USA. He proposes that the future principles of USA management should be neither an imitation of the Japanese way nor the traditional American way.

In summary the Japanese approach has been very successful in Japanese industry and many aspects of it are being used very successfully in Western organisations. However organisations should be cautious and select specific approaches which relate to their specific needs rather than try to impose a foreign culture which took many years to evolve.

#### 1.5.5 The Exemplary Organisation Approach

Whereas this approach was partly included in the last section, however the concept of learning from exemplary organisations has always been utilised

by organisations. This approach has been further developed in recent years, with the term “Benchmarking” which came from work carried out by the Xerox Corporation in the USA becoming part of best business practice. *Benchmarking is the continuous process of measuring products against the toughest competitors or those companies recognised as industry leaders* (David T Kearns, Chief Executive Officer Xerox Corporation cited in Camp, 1989:10) According to Robert Camp who helped develop the concept in the Xerox Corporation, *benchmarking is the search for industry best practices that lead to superior performance* (Camp,1989:12).

The process of identifying, understanding and adapting superior practices from organisations locally and world-wide to help your organisation improve its performance and achieve priority business results (Camp, 1989). The Business Excellence or Prize Approach as described in section (3) above, also uses this approach in that prize winners agree to share information on their practices, both by publishing their application for the prize and by making presentations to groups of companies. In the case of the European Quality Awards the winners make presentations at conferences in each of the member states of the European Foundation for Quality Management (EFQM).

#### Review of the Different Approaches

##### (1) The Guru Approach

###### Advantages

By using Deming’s 14 points or the approach of one of the other gurus, organisations have a framework which can be applied to the total organisation rather than addressing quality problems in an isolated and un co-ordinated manner throughout the organisation. These approaches have worked and if applied to organisations would be of benefit in addressing the area of quality.

###### Disadvantages

The model of the guru is applied to the organisation either using their own resources or through the assistance of external consultants. However there is

no independent external assessment for example ISO 9001 and no independent view of the organisation to determine if it is making progress.

(2) The Certification Approach

Advantages

The organisation benchmarks itself against a standard, for example ISO 9001 to which over 900,000 organisations have been accredited worldwide. The organisation must be externally assessed to obtain the accreditation and must be reassessed on a regular basis, for example annually, to retain the accreditation. Having an accredited quality management system can be of benefit and in some cases a requirement to obtain new customers and retain existing customers

Disadvantages

Some organisations regard quality management systems as being very bureaucratic and paper based and can cause inflexibility in an organisation. Many quality management systems have focused completely on compliance and whereas compliance is a key element of a quality management system there also needs to be an emphasis on improvement. The new ISO 9001:2000 standard includes an emphasis on improvement.

(3) The Business Excellence or Prize Approach

Advantages

The different models i.e. Deming, Baldrige and EFQM each give a framework which organisations can work with and they can carry out a self assessment against the criteria of the model. They can also be externally assessed against the criteria of the model and are awarded a score which they can benchmark against other organisations. Organisations can also enter the competitions for the different awards or prizes either on a regional or national basis or in the case of European organisations they can enter for a European award.

Disadvantages

Whereas many organisations use the different models, very few organisations actually apply for the actual awards or prizes. For example there are only 4 European Quality Awards each year and approximately 50 organisations from throughout Europe apply for these awards each year.

Whereas other organisations apply for national quality awards the numbers are relatively small.

(4) The Japanese Approach

Advantages

The application of practices conducted by Japanese organisations have proved very beneficial to non Japanese organisations. These include the emphasis on quality, team working, problem solving, continuous improvement etc.

Disadvantages

There can be cultural difficulties in applying Japanese practices into non Japanese organisations. For example many western organisations focus on individuals and reward individuals rather than the team based approach which is part of Japanese culture and has developed over generations. Many western organisations focus on short term needs and expect short term results for example quarterly financial results, whereas many Japanese organisations have a longer framework of between 5 and 10 years.

(5) The Exemplary Organisation Approach

Advantages

As with the Japanese Approach it is beneficial for organisations to identify exemplary organisations and benchmark themselves against them.

Disadvantages

It can be difficult to identify organisations from which other organisations can learn and even more difficult to gain access to such organisations because of confidentiality issues and because many other organisations may also wish to have access to exemplary organisations.

The following table compares the different approaches under 4 criteria



Table 1.7 Comparison of the Different Approaches to Quality.

Criteria	Guru	Certification	Business Excellence	Japanese	Exemplary Organisation
External Accreditation	No	Yes	Yes	No	No
Organisation Wide Approach	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes/No	Yes/No
Emphasis on Improvement	Yes	Yes/No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Benchmarking	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes

### Combination of Approaches

A number of organisations use a combination of the above approaches. For example organisations with Quality Management System accreditation, may also use the business excellence model, they may benchmark against best in class organisations, may use some Japanese practices and may use some of the approaches used by one or more of the quality gurus. Quality Management theory does not prescribe any single best practice and firms are encouraged to tailor the application of the principles to their individual circumstances (Hill, 1991).

### 1.6 Measurement of Quality

Quality has always been regarded as an intangible item, difficult to define and with the comment that, what gets measured gets done, the need to measure quality becomes increasingly important. Good quality to one person can be poor quality to another. Deming (1982) said that quality can only be assessed by considering the interaction among three factors, the product (or service) itself, the customer and their experience with the product and other aspects of the relationship between product and customer.

According to Feigenbaum (1983) timely measurement and reporting of quality level data are used in assessing quality performance, setting quality goals, and evaluating corrective-action efforts. Such information becomes the basis for establishing improvement goals, priority schedules etc. Crosby (1979) stressed that it is essential that managers and employees alike are

familiar with the organisational goals and functional management systems employed within the company, together with a willingness to assist others in measuring and controlling all aspects of the process. Juran (1979) said that good quality planning requires precise communication among customers and suppliers and when a system of measurement has been established there is a common language.

This need to measure quality is being addressed by organisations using a number of approaches as follows:

1) ISO 9001 – This is the most common measure of quality with in excess of 900,000 organisations worldwide with this accreditation across a wide range of both manufacturing and service organisations. The ISO 9001 audit investigates whether a satisfactory quality management system is in operation in the organisation and by accrediting the organisation with the ISO 9001 accreditation it acknowledges the existence of the quality system which in turn should ensure that a product or service of consistent quality is produced or provided by the organisation. A limitation with this approach may be that it is an analogue system in which an organisation either achieves the accreditation or fails to achieve the accreditation and there is no mechanism for an organisation to measure improvement or benchmark against other organisations.

#### 2) Quality Costs (Cost of Non Conformance)

This concept was originally introduced in the 1950's by the General Electric Company in the USA and further developed by Crosby (1979).

This gives a measure of the cost of poor quality under four headings:

- a) Prevention Costs – the cost of ensuring quality defects do not occur by investing in training of staff, development of a quality system etc.
- b) Appraisal or Inspection Costs – the cost of inspecting products or analysing services to ensure that defects are removed and eliminated.

- c) Internal Failure Costs – the cost of defects including corrective actions like reworking or scrapping defective products.
- d) External Failure Costs – the cost of repairing or replacing defects which have reached the customer.

Employing such a framework organisations can measure the cost of poor quality either as a finite amount or as a percentage of sales revenue and in the latter situation they could benchmark against other organisations.

Crosby (1979) described the cost of quality as the cost of doing things wrong and used the cost of quality as one of the drivers of the quality programme within organisations, by measuring it at the beginning of a quality programme and then showing success in a financial sense as the programme progressed. Crosby (1979) states that the cost of quality (poor quality) in organisations as a percentage of sales ranges from 2.5% to 20%. Atkinson (1990) states that the cost of quality varies between 20% and 25% of sales for manufacturing companies and 40% to 50% of sales for service organisations. He also states that the figure for the public sector is even higher.

The quality cost approach addresses some of the limitations of an ISO 9001 quality management system in that there is a numerical measure, which can be continuously reviewed and compared to other organisations. However the concept of quality costs has not been widely applied within manufacturing industry and even less within service industry. Many organisations believe it to be a very time consuming and costly exercise to effectively measure the cost of poor quality.

Zain (1993) believed that the above approaches and indeed other approaches did not adequately measure the “quality position” or “quality status” of an organisation and designed a Quality Measurement System (QMS), which covers the following areas:

General Quality Orientation, Quality Costing, Operations, Customers, Research and Development, Human Resources and Suppliers.

This is intended to be used in conjunction with other measures, and is believed to be a very valuable indicator of the state of quality of the organisation. The measuring instrument is a questionnaire that is completed by an organisation and then scored. The Quality Measurement System is hoped to provide the Industry with a benchmarking yardstick against which any manufacturing – based organisation can gauge its quality performance and ultimately, economic health (Zain,1993).

### **1.7 Conclusions**

This chapter covers developments in the area of quality. The literature reviews the work of the initial quality gurus i.e. Deming and Juran and also covers the other gurus, primarily US and Japanese who have evolved over the years in addition to current literature. It is concluded that whereas the quality gurus have made a significant contribution to the identification and development of the quality concept there are a number of limitations primarily with regard to the lack of empirical evidence for their development, the fact that they do not cover the human dimension of organisations and that they do not cover public sector organisations.

There is little consensus in the literature with regard to a common definition of quality and many writers consider quality from different perspectives. It is concluded that the quality concept has now evolved to include continuous improvement, customer focus, both internal and external, and the participation of employees. It is now being referred to as total quality management and now extends to service industry and the public sector.

It is concluded that the approaches adopted by organisations can be divided into five main groupings and that most organisations addressing quality utilize one or more of these approaches.

Most of the original literature regarding quality relates to manufacturing industry although the volume of research and writing regarding the service sector has increased substantially in recent years as has the literature from outside the USA and Europe. The research on quality in the public sector has also increased substantially in recent times.

A common view in the literature is that a predominant cause for the failure of quality programmes is the lack of attention to the human side of quality programmes i.e. people issues.

## **2.1 Introduction**

This chapter considers the origins of Total Quality Management, formal definitions of Total Quality Management, and its benefits and limitations. It attempts to compare Total Quality Management with the classical theories of management and considers the peer reviewed research in the area of Total Quality Management.

## **2.2 Origins of Total Quality Management**

Total Quality Management (TQM) has its origins in the United States of America and was the USA response to Japanese quality management practice which was described more fully in Chapter 1. In comparison to the USA the ways in which the Japanese differed were higher levels of inter departmental co-operation and a greater level of influence for employees in direct contact with the product. Most importantly there was a different “mindset” guiding behaviour to which people were encouraged to continuously improve, and focus first and foremost on the customer (Ciampa, 1991).

## **2.3 Definitions of Total Quality Management**

There are a broad range of definitions of TQM, some examples are as follows:

- *TQM is an integrated, corporately led programme of organisational change designed to engender and sustain a culture of continuous improvement based on customer oriented definitions of quality (Joss and Kogan, 1995:13).*
- *TQM is a management approach of an organisation, centred on quality, based on the participation of all its members and aiming at long-term success through customer satisfaction, and benefits to all members of the organisation and to society (ISO 8402,1994:17).*

- *TQM is a way of managing the effectiveness, flexibility and competitiveness of business as a whole* (British Department of Trade and Industry, 1991).
- TQM represents the management of quality as a strategic issue rather than an operational issue for lower levels of the hierarchy (Hill, 1991).
- TQM is a concept, the principles on which to develop a total quality culture, a journey that has no end, and quality improvement is the enabling mechanism which must be continuous and company wide (Newell and Dale, 1991).
- TQM is a systematic approach to the practice of management, requiring changes in organisational processes, strategic priorities, individual beliefs, individual attitudes and individual behaviours (Olean and Reynes, 1991).

Wilkinson et al (1991) cite three categories of definitions of TQM identified by the British Quality Association (BQA):-

- a) Soft qualitative definitions - TQM is consistent with open management styles, delegated responsibility and increased autonomy to staff.
- b) Hard production /operations definitions – these emphasise the use of systematic measurement and statistical procedures to assess quality in terms of conformance to specifications.
- c) Integration of hard and soft definitions – These combine an obsession with quality, the need for a scientific approach and the view that all employees are part of the one team.

The successful management of quality requires the combination and integration of both hard and soft approaches (Wilkinson and Witcher, 1991).

In considering the above definitions there are 4 significant areas which are as follows: the strategic approach, system of management, customer, innovation and continuous improvement. The strategic approach is included in the definition of Hill. The system of management is included in the definitions of Olean and Reynes, and Hill. The customer is included in the definition of Joss and Kogan. Innovation and continuous improvement is included in the definition of Olean and Reynes.

A suggested definition of TQM is as follows:

Total Quality Management is a strategic approach to the development and implementation of a management system which incorporates innovation and continuous change through the involvement of all employees in the provision of quality products and/or services to its customers.

## **2.4 The Main Components of Total Quality Management**

In order to understand the concept of Total Quality Management it is beneficial to consider its different components and as with the various definitions of quality and TQM there are also differing views among authors regarding the different components of TQM.

Following a review of the literature, Saraph, Benson and Schroeder (1989) identified a set of key components, which make up the concept of TQM. They referred to these key components as the critical factors of quality management and listed them as follows:

- 1) The role of management leadership and quality policy.
- 2) The role of the quality department
- 3) Training.
- 4) Product and service design
- 5) Supplier quality management
- 6) Process management
- 7) Quality data and reporting
- 8) Employee relations

(Saraph et al. 1989)

Following a review of the literature Mann (1992) identified the critical factors of quality management as follows:

- 1) Quality leadership
- 2) Company wide quality commitment
- 3) Measurement and reporting system
- 4) Customer and supplier focus
- 5) Education and training

(Mann 1992)



Black (1993) divided TQM into its soft elements and hard elements which he outlined as follows: soft elements included commitment to quality, leadership, quality policy, training and education, organisation for quality, teamwork, quality culture, and hard elements included process management, quality planning, quality systems, design, quality costs, customer feedback, TQM programme assessment.

Black (1993) identified the following 10 critical factors of Total Quality Management extracted from the responses of 201 TQM Experts, which were:

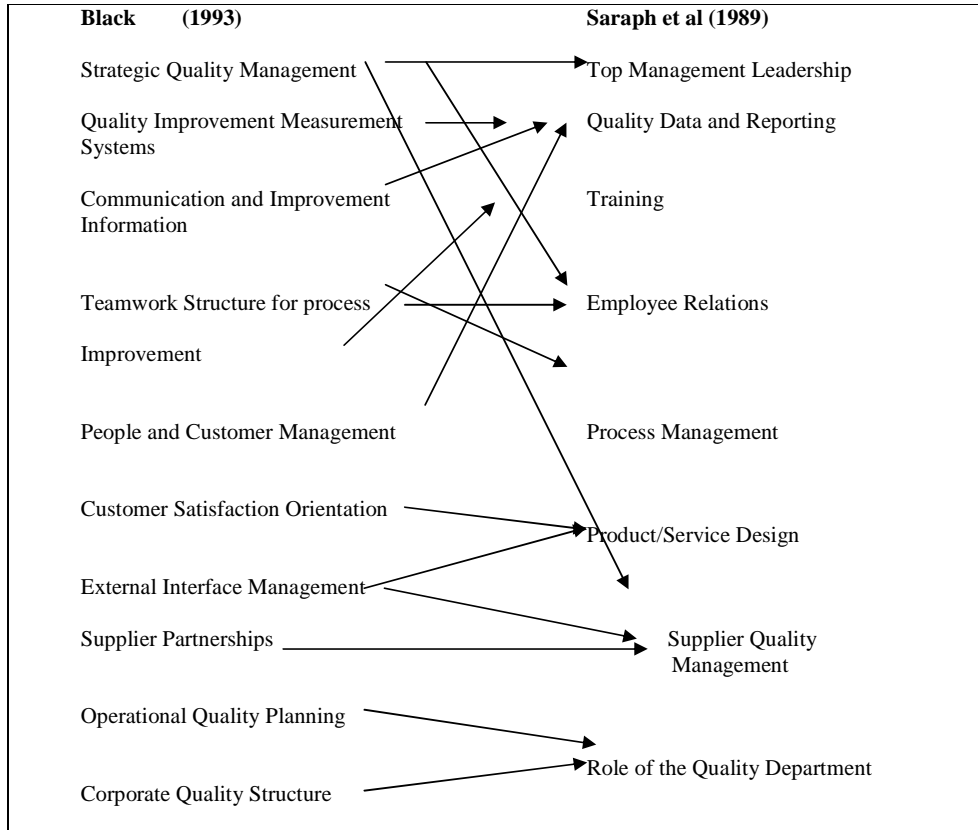
- 1) Strategic Quality Management.
- 2) Customer Satisfaction Orientation
- 3) People and Customer Management
- 4) Communication of Improvement Information
- 5) External Interface management
- 6) Quality Improvement Measurement Systems
- 7) Corporate Quality Structure
- 8) Supplier Partnerships
- 9) Operational Quality Planning
- 10) Teamwork Structures for Process Improvement

Black (1993) stated that frameworks for the application and measurement of TQM, notably the Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Awards and the European Quality Award Criteria had no empirical research basis. Black (1993) therefore developed an empirically derived conceptual model and scoring system that covered the above 10 critical factors of TQM

The following is a comparison of the 10 factors outlined by Black (1993) with the factors of Saraph et al (1989)

Figure 2.1 Comparison of the Factor Models of Black (1993) and Saraph et al. (1989)

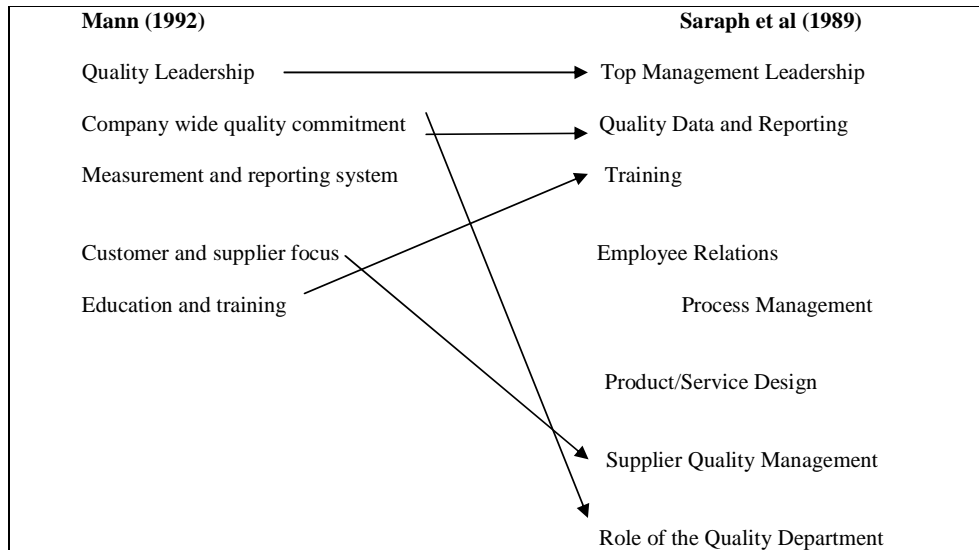
Comment [j1]: Fix FIGURE



The following compares the Mann (1992) Model with the Saraph et al. Model.

Figure 2.2 Comparison of the Factor Models of Mann (1992) and Saraph et al. (1989)

Comment [j2]: FIGURE

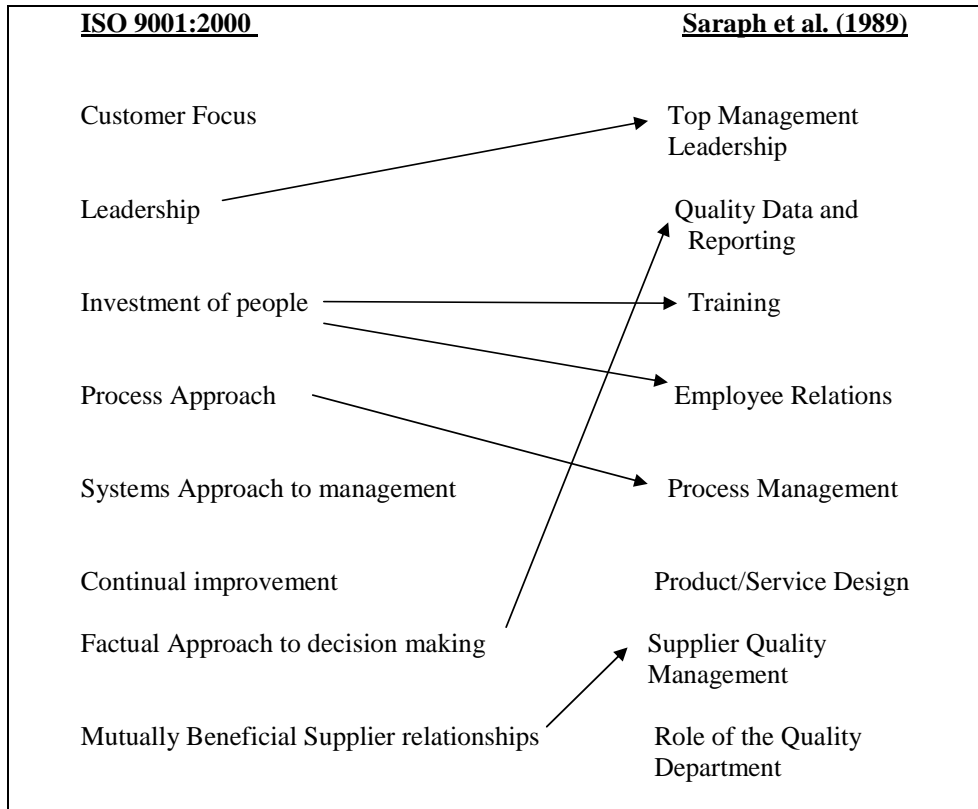


The five factors in the Mann model are included in the Saraph et al. Model although Saraph et al. does not list the customer as a factor. However the Mann Model does not explicitly refer to three factors contained in the Saraph et al Model which are as follows; employee relations, process management and product/service design. The factors could however be covered by other factors in the Mann Model notably company wide quality commitment

Figure 2.3 takes the Saraph et al. Model and juxtaposes it with the internationally recognised ISO 9001:2000 Model as follows

Figure 2.3 Comparison of the Factor Models of Saraph et al. (1989) and ISO 9001:2000.

Comment [j3]: FIGURE



This comparison also highlights the exclusion of the customer in the Saraph et al. Model and also the areas of continual improvement and the systems approach to management. Factors in the Saraph et al. Model not included in the ISO 9001:2000 Model are product /service design and role of the quality department.

Dale, Wu, Zairi, Williams and Van der Wiele, (2001) reviewed the work of the American quality gurus plus a number of Japanese gurus and compares them under a list of TQM variables and TQM dimensions. The TQM variables used in the comparison are from success factors identified by Saraph et al. (1989) and Powell (1995) and the criteria of the Baldrige and EFQM Excellence Models.

The ten TQM dimensions used in the comparison are from Martinez – Larente et al. (1998) cited in Dale et al (2001:444) and are as follows: Top management support, Customer relationship, Supplier relationship, Workforce management, Employee attitudes and behaviour, Product design process, Process flow management, Quality data and Reporting, Role of the quality department and Benchmarking.

Dale et al. (2001) compares the work of the quality gurus by TQM variables and TQM dimensions in the following tables.

Table 2.1 Comparison of the work of quality gurus by TQM Variables (Dale et al., 2001: 445)

**TQM variables**

**Comment [j4]:** Need help

Variables	Crosby	Deming	Feigenbaum	Juran	Ishikawa	Shingo	Taguchi
Definition quality	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Explanation of the quality phenomenon	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Leadership and commitment issues	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No
People management	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
Resource management	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes
Problem-solving methods	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

The above shows a high level of consistency between all the gurus with an even higher level of consistency between the American gurus, i.e. Crosby, Deming, Juran and Feigenbaum. Only one of the Japanese gurus includes Resource Management which is included by all the American gurus with the exception of Deming.

Table 2.2 Comparison of the work of the quality gurus by TQM Dimensions (Dale et al., 2001: 445)

**TQM dimensions**

Dimensions	Crosby	Deming	Feigenbaum	Juran	Isikawa	Shingo	Taguchi
Top management support	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No
Customer relationship	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
Supplier relationship	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No
Workforce management/employee attitudes and behaviour	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
Product design process/process flow management	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
Quality data and reporting/ Role of the Quality Dept.	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
Benchmarking	No	No	No	No	No	No	No

The work of Dale et al (2001) also shows some interesting differences between the American and Japanese experts. The work of the four Americans covered all the dimensions of TQM apart from Benchmarking and embraces not only technological but also people issues. By contrast, the Japanese focus mainly on process and product management, with the softer issues appearing to be given less attention (Dale et al., 2001). This may be due to the fact that team working is a part of the Japanese culture as is top management commitment to quality therefore the Japanese gurus may have believed that these areas did not need additional attention.

Based on a review of the Saraph et al. (1989) Model and the other Models the following ten dimensions are suggested as a comprehensive model of TQM.

- 1) Customer Focus
- 2) Top Management Leadership
- 3) Quality Data and Reporting
- 4) Education and Training

- 5) Employee involvement
- 6) Continuous Improvement
- 7) Product/Service Design
- 8) Supplier Quality Management
- 9) Role of the quality function
- 10) Process Management

The following relates the work of the four main American gurus against the ten dimensions of TQM suggested above.

Table 2.3 Comparison of the work of the four main American quality gurus against ten dimensions of TQM

Dimensions	Crosby	Deming	Feigenbaum	Juran
Customer focus	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Top management leadership	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Quality data and reporting	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Education and training	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Employee involvement	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Continuous improvement	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Product/service design	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Supplier quality management	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Role of the quality function	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Process Management	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

This shows that all the dimensions are addressed by each of the four gurus. The areas where the gurus differ is in their approach.

As previously stated almost all of the original literature, including the work of the quality gurus focussed on manufacturing organisation. Although in recent years the majority of literature now focuses on service organisations. It is often said that quality is different in service rather than manufacturing organisations and a study was carried out in Ireland on the human resource implications of quality initiatives by comparing the

two sectors by Monks, Buckley and Sinnott (1999). This found that there was a high degree of similarity between the sectors with only minor differences. For example in the area of Communication and Involvement Measures which is a key dimension of Total Quality Management, manufacturing scores higher in team briefing, teamworking, and communication programmes, whereas service scored higher in quality teams, suggestion schemes, special newsletters and attitude surveys. It should be noted that most of the service organisations surveyed were in the private sector so there is not a direct comparison to the current research.

### **2.5 Motivation for Total Quality Management**

TQM has developed in many countries into enabling frameworks aimed at helping organisations achieve excellent performance particularly in customer and business results. Zain (1993: 28) quotes the European Foundation for Quality Management (EFQM), the sponsors of the European Quality Award as follows *In the 1980's companies began to realise that their only way of surviving in business was to pay much more attention to quality. In many markets, quality has already become the competitive edge.* Kanji and Barker (1990) noted about 85% of the common problems of organisations are related to the management and systems and only 15% are specific to the operation and connected with technology. It is therefore believed that the best way of overcoming these problems is through the principles and practice of TQM. Newell and Dale (1991) also noted from the literature that authors agree that customer's needs can be fully met only if improvements in quality are achieved in the following five areas: people, equipment, materials, methods, and environment.

### **2.6 Benefits of Total Quality Management**

TQM is significant because it represents western industry's first attempt at a systems approach to strategy (Bennett and Kerr, 1996). Unfortunately there is little research on the quantification of the benefits of TQM (Zain, 1993). There are problems in this regard in that the quality improvement process is



seen by many companies as only one element in their overall business improvement policy. Consequently, this has led to difficulties in isolating and identifying its effects (Newell and Dale, 1991). Gale and Klavans (1985) outlined some of the benefits of TQM in that profit margins are driven by both relative quality and relative market share. The experience of over 2000 businesses in the PIMS (Profit Impact of Market Strategy) database enables one to quantify the relationships between strategic position and profitability. In the long run, improved quality will also help to capture a larger share of the market. Mann (1990), in a survey of 43 'TQM companies', found that 66% of them believed that TQM had increased their market share, while 37% believed that it had helped them establish a new customer base. 43% believed that it had increased their export market, and more than 50% believed that as a result of the TQM policy, on the average, a turnover increase of 8% a year had been achieved. Ironically, 15% believed that TQM had no effect on their business performance.

In 1992 the Arthur D Little Corporation produced an in-house report based on a survey of 500 large US organisations which reported that 35% of respondents said that they significant performance impacts following the implementation of TQM (cited in Powell,1995).

The US Government General Accounting Office (GAO) following a survey of the 20 highest scoring applicants for the 1988 and 1989 Baldrige Awards, in response to a request from the U. S. Congress, reported in 1991 that these firms had achieved better employee relations, improved product quality, lower costs and improved customer satisfaction (cited in Powell 1995). In a study of the quality practices of large U.S. corporations carried out in 1989 by The Conference Board, a New York business research group (cited in Powell, 1995) over 30% of organisations said that TQM had improved their performance, with less than 1% reporting performance decline as a result of TQM.

Examples of improvements as a result of implementing TQM in the UK computer organisation ICL are as follows:

- 1) Reduced customer complaints resulting in annual savings of £ 500,000

sterling.

- 2) Annual savings on training courses of £580,000 sterling.
- 3) Annual savings regarding the work of secretaries, by providing frequently used information, of £1,000,000 sterling.
- 4) Reduction in time to repair client equipment resulting in annual saving of £4,000,000 sterling.

(Munro-Faure and Munro-Faure, 1992).

McAdam and Bannister (2001) emphasis the need for performance management within TQM frameworks and state that measures must include the hard and soft elements of TQM.

Research carried out by Powell (1995) supported the conclusion that TQM can produce economic value to an organisation but that it has not been successful in all organisations which have implemented TQM. According to Powell (1995) TQM success appears to depend critically on executive commitment, open organisation, and employee empowerment and less upon such TQM staples as benchmarking, training, flexible manufacturing, process improvement and improved measurement.

Research carried out by Terziovski and Samson (1999) suggests that TQM has a significantly positive effect on operational and business performance, employee relations and customer satisfaction. However there were significant differences between TQM and business performance across industry sectors and different sized companies.

A study carried out by Chung et al (2008) which focused on the business value of TQM across fifteen enterprises in seven industries using eighteen indices of five perspectives to value them, concluded that the business value in all fifteen organisations was greater than the average for their industry.

Research carried out by McAdam et al (2002) on 163 public sector organisations found that TQM plays a key role in improving organisational performance over time as measured by a comprehensive range of performance measures and that this is sustained over time.

The International Study of Quality conducted by the American Quality Foundation (1991) showed that improvements in quality have a positive relationship with increases in productivity, performance and profits and found quality to be a crucial factor in the strategic performance of virtually every organisation in the study which covered four countries.

A study by Bardoel and Sohal (1999) also indicated a positive link between TQM and organisational performance and also stated a major benefit identified of TQM programmes as the increased awareness and focus of all employees on satisfying internal and external customers.

Research carried out by Neergaard (1999) in 270 organisations indicated the main benefits of TQM as decline in errors, decline in complaints, process improvement, improved image and increased motivation of employees.

To summarise, a range of studies on TQM covering a wide range of countries and industrial sectors show improvements in operational and business performance and in people aspects.

### **2.7 Problems in Achieving a Successful Total Quality Management System**

The outcomes of successful TQM systems, as outlined in the previous section, provides benefits for organisations, their employees and their customers. However not all organisations are attracted to adopting TQM processes. The following outlines some of the problems in achieving a successful TQM system within an organisation

Develin and Partners (1989) identified problems encountered at the early stages of TQM implementation, and during and after the programme. In the early stages, finding the time and middle management resistance were the most acute problems. The former was thought to be attributed to people

being too busy correcting errors and fire fighting, while the latter was due to middle managers feeling threatened and displaying cynicism. During and after the programme, a series of problems were encountered; in descending severity, they are cultural change, management behaviour, finding the time, wrong service levels, cannot measure results, poor communications, no tangible benefits, poor inter-departmental relationships, lost momentum, timescale too long, and quality culture seen as separate from business as usual.

Research carried out by Leonard, McAdam and Reid (2001) found little evidence of organisations developing TQM into a strategic formulation role which was due mainly to the lack of senior management involvement in TQM hence ensuring that TQM stayed mainly at the operational level rather than progressing to the tactical or strategic levels.

Many of the above problems are closely related to one another. Zain (1993) suggests that by addressing the culture of the organisation, at least 80% of the problems can, to a large extent, be resolved. An examination of the literature suggests that only one third to one half of organisations have observed significant improvements through TQM programmes (Bardett, 1994; Garvin, 1986; Grant et al., 1994 cited in Tata and Prasad (1998). This lack of significant success is often not a failure of the TQM concept but a failure to pay sufficient attention to the cultural and structural variables that influence TQM (Tata and Prasad, 1998).

Many organisations adopt TQM as a system of management. In order to achieve this transition there must be changes in attitudes, communications, employee involvement and commitment. One of the reasons suggested for failure of quality programmes in organisations is the “soft” or “human” side of quality management (Wilkinson and Witcher, 1991). A frequent observation is that early quality improvements from technical improvements are not supported in the longer term by development in the “softer” attitudinal aspects of quality (Seddon, 1989).

Atkinson (1990) outlines the resistances to Total Quality Management as follows; 1) fear, 2) flavour of the month, 3) personal loss of control, 4) TQM will be dead by 1993, 5) personal uncertainty, 6) unwilling to take ownership and be committed, 7) it may mean more work, 8) it may go away if I ignore it, 9) past resentments. Atkinson (1990) states that 80% of TQM initiatives will fail because they do not have the backing of the senior management team and that the rate of training, development and education is probably the most critical aspect of any TQM drive. The implementation of a TQM culture with its implicit orientation towards the customer is a complex topic that requires a long-term approach.

Tata and Prasad (1998) suggest that organic structures and flexibility oriented cultures are more conducive to the success of TQM implementation, compared to control-orientated cultures and mechanistic structures. Since TQM de-emphasizes status distinctions and empowers employees to make decisions and use their intelligence, it is less likely to succeed in companies with cultures and mechanistic structures that centralise decision making authority in managerial hands. Companies with flexibility orientated cultures and organic structures, in contrast, show a better fit with TQM practices such as employee involvement, empowerment, teamwork and co-ordination across functional areas. Such companies should find it easier to implement TQM (Crosby, 1979; Deming, 1986; Pulat, 1994).

Hofstede (1994) also states that power distance and uncertainty avoidance in particular affect our thinking about organisations which always demands the answering of two questions (1) who has the power to decide what? and (2) what rules or procedures will be followed to attain the desired ends? The answer to the first question is influenced by cultural norms of power distance; the answer to the second question, is by cultural norms of uncertainty avoidance.

Hofstede (1980) found that different countries accept varied distribution of power in their hierarchies. Companies in high power distance countries such as Hong Kong, the Philippines, Singapore, Mexico, Venezuela and Brazil (Hofstede, 1980; 1994 cited in Tata and Prasad, 1998) are more likely to

have centralised control over decision making and have control-orientated cultures and mechanistic structures. Such firms may have difficulty in implementing TQM. In contrast, firms in low power distance countries such as Austria, Denmark, Sweden, Norway, Finland, the UK and the US (Hofstede, 1980; 1994 cited in Tata and Prasad, 1998) are more likely to decentralise decision-making and empower employees. Such firms have flexibility-orientated cultures and organic structures and are more likely to succeed in TQM implementation (Tata and Prasad, 1998). The uncertainty avoidance dimension of national culture deals with the extent to which people feel the need to avoid ambiguous situations, and the extent to which they try to manage such situations by providing explicit rules and regulations and by rejecting novel ideas (Tata and Prasad, 1998). In high uncertainty avoidance countries such as Greece, Portugal, Belgium, Japan, Chile, Argentina and Mexico (Hofstede, 1980; 1994 cited in Tata and Prasad, 1998) people feel uncomfortable without the structure of policies and procedures and employees do not desire a great deal of discretion. This results in companies with control-orientated value systems and mechanistic structures that are less likely to implement TQM effectively (Tata and Prasad, 1998). In low uncertainty avoidance countries such as Singapore, Hong Kong, the Philippines, Denmark, Sweden, the UK and the US (Hofstede, 1980; 1994 cited in Tata and Prasad, 1998) people feel uncomfortable with a system of rigid policies, and employees desire empowerment and the flexibility to make decisions on their own. Companies in such countries are more likely to have flexibility-orientated cultures and organic structures, and are likely to implement TQM effectively (Tata and Prasad, 1998).

The connection between national culture and organisational culture/structure is more complex for multinational corporations and depends on headquarters' orientations towards subsidiaries (ethnocentric, polycentric or geocentric (Alder, 1991; Heenan and Perlmutter, 1979 cited in Tata and Prasad, 1998). In ethnocentric companies, the culture of the home country will have a greater influence on organisational culture/structure than the culture of the host country. In polycentric companies, the culture of the host country will have a greater influence on organisational culture/structure than the culture of the home country. In geocentric companies, both host and

home country values are likely to influence culture and structure in such companies (Tata and Prasad, 1988).

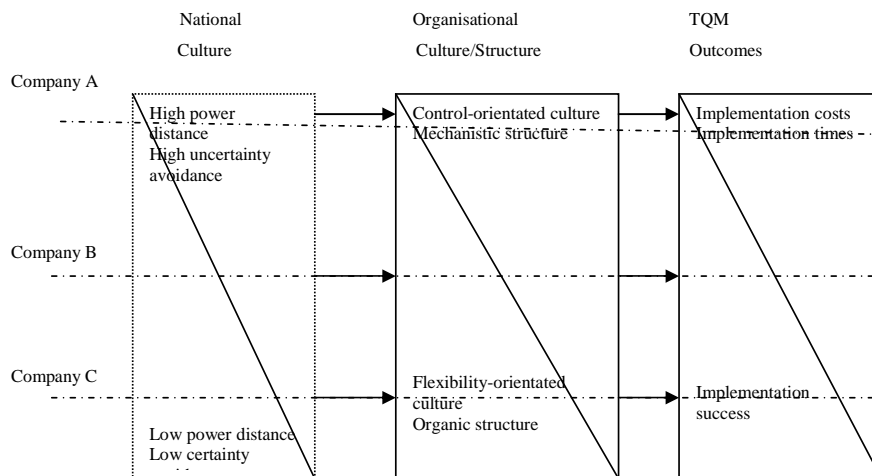
Tata and Prasad (1998:708) show how variations in national culture and organisational culture/structure influence the success of TQM implementation. Figure 2.1 shows variations in culture and organisational culture/structure. The first continuum in the figure indicates the range of national cultures from high power distance/high uncertainty avoidance cultures at one end to low power distance/low uncertainty at the other end. The second continuum represents organisational cultures/structures ranging from control-orientated, mechanistic companies at one end to flexibility-orientated companies at the other end. The third continuum indicates the range of potential outcomes associated with TQM implementation.

Companies at different points on the continuum are likely to have different outcomes. For example, company 'A' has a control-orientated culture and mechanistic structure influenced by a high power distance/high uncertainty avoidance national culture. The outcomes for this company are more likely to include high implementation costs, and less likely to include TQM success. Company 'C', in contrast, has a flexibility-orientated culture and organic structure influenced by a low power distance/low uncertainty avoidance national culture. TQM implementation in this company is more likely to result in success and involve fewer costs. Company 'B' is an intermediate example in which a combination of control and flexibility-orientated values manifest itself in the structure with both mechanistic and organic characteristics. For this company, TQM implementation success is less likely than for company 'C', but more likely for company 'A'.

In practice, this means that TQM implementation will be easier, less expensive and less time consuming for a company at point 'C' than for a company at point 'A', since developing a culture and structure to support TQM is much more difficult than implementing TQM in an already receptive environment. Company 'C' already has a supportive culture and structure that would make it easier to implement employee involvement, teamwork, benchmarking, customer focus and other aspects of TQM.

Company 'A', in contrast, has first to re socialise employees and management to the values and beliefs of a flexible culture. It also has to train the workforce in the knowledge and skills essential for the new decentralised structure (Tata and Prasad 1998).

Figure 2.4 A model of relationships between national culture, organisational culture/structure, and TQM implementation. (Tata and Prasad, 1998:708)



A common theme in the literature relates to the fact that the people aspects of TQM must be addressed before TQM in its totality can be successfully implemented i.e. the soft aspects of TQM must be addressed before the hard aspects can be successfully implemented. This point is reinforced by the following examples from the literature.

Salegna and Fazel (1995) and Shani et al (1994) state that the success of TQM depends on the congruency which exists between the quality plan and the organisation's goals and culture and that successful implementation of TQM requires the building of the organizational culture around quality issues.

Research carried out by Van der Wiele and Brown (2002) over a decade states that in order to achieve the sustainability of TQM, emphasis must be placed on fundamental principles like continuous improvement, customer satisfaction and teamworking, all of which are linked to organizational culture.



According to research carried out by Dwyer (2002) he concludes that many quality programmes do not reach their potential because the people aspects or cultural aspects are not well managed and he also concludes that the main dimensions of quality management programmes are people related. This point is also made by Ciampa (1992) who states that quality programmes fail or achieve mediocre results because of lack of teamwork, insufficient employee involvement, inadequate motivation, people feeling that they cannot change current practices or the wrong people being involved.

Monks, Buckley and Sinnott (1996) state that the successful utilization of human resource (HR) initiatives in a quality programme may be critical to its success. Atkinson (1990) goes further by stating that effective cultural change is the secret to implementing TQM successfully and Klein et al. (1995) further develop this point by proposing that in order to implement quality management programmes effectively either the organisation's culture needs to be moulded to the quality programme or the quality programme needs to be moulded to the organisation's culture. The behaviour of individuals and groups is highlighted by Bardoel and Sohal (1999) who suggests that TQM programmes demand new behaviours by individuals and groups and also suggest that an important part of the successful implementation of TQM is to review the current practices, behaviour and attitudes in the organization and assess the fit with the TQM philosophy. This can be achieved by carrying out an audit to assess the organizational culture.

### **2.8 Advantages and Disadvantages of Total Quality Management**

To its advocates, TQM is unequivocally good and leads to the empowerment of employees. Alternatively it represents an intensification of work, shifting the frontier of control firmly in management's favour. Reality is more dependent on local circumstances and motives (Wilkinson et al., 1997). Wilkinson et al. (1997) also outline contrasting perspectives of TQM labelling them as a bouquet (i.e. an advantage) or a brickbat (i.e. a disadvantage).

Table 2.4 Total Quality Management- Bouquet or Brickbat (Wilkinson et al., 1997)

<b>Bouquets</b>	<b>Brickbats</b>
Education	Indoctrination
Empowerment	Emasculation
Liberating	Controlling
Delaying	Intensification
Team-Work	Peer Group Pressure
Responsibility	Surveillance
Blame free culture	Identification of Errors
Commitment	Compliance

In the above what some see as education others see as indoctrination, the positive concepts of empowerment, liberating, delaying, responsibility and commitment are viewed as emasculation, controlling, intensification, surveillance and compliance, and what some people view as team-work and blame free culture others view in a negative sense as peer group pressure and identification of errors.

### **2.9 Limitations of Total Quality Management**

TQM has been advocated as universally applicable to organisations and organisational activities (Crosby, 1979; Deming, 1986; Juran, 1988) with virtually no attention to the nature of the uncertainty faced by the organisation. The singular emphasis on control that has characterised traditional approaches to TQM implementation are not well suited to conditions of high task uncertainty, a limitation that has not been recognised in the popular TQM movement (Sitkin et al., 1994). They also state that a broader more theory driven perspective on TQM is proposed to clearly distinguish control from learning goals and thus to begin to address limitations in the way TQM has been conceptualised and applied in the past.

### **2.10 Relationship Between TQM and the Classical Theories of Management**

As TQM is regarded as an approach to managing an organisation it is appropriate to compare it to the classical theories of management. Dean and Bowen (1994) have undertaken a comparative analysis of TQM and management theory and identified the areas showing good agreement which include top management leadership and human resource practice. Dale et al. (2001) have compared the classical theories of possibly the eleven most influential figures in modern management and have compared them to TQM. The comparison is as follows:

Table 2.5 Comparison of TQM to the classical theories of management

(Dale et al., 2001:447)

**Comment [j5]:** Is the below too big?

**Comment [j6]:**

Theory originator	Description	TQM Contribution
Frederick Taylor	Scientific Management	Management by facts, tool and techniques of TQM and problem solving
Henry Fayol	Planning and organisation	Business process management
Max Weber	Theory of social and economic organisation	Leadership, empowerment and performance management
Alfred Sloan	Decentralised multi-divisional organisation	Business process management and business process reengineering
Elton Mayo	The Hawthorne Experiments	Motivation and employee satisfaction
Douglas McGregor	The human side of enterprise	Employee motivation, empowerment, involvement and participation
Peter Drucker	Decentralisation management leading, focus on results	Leadership, goal deployment and process focus
Meridith Belbin	Team characteristics	Team dynamics and team work
Charles Handy	Internal culture	Culture, values and communication
John Adair	Leadership	Leadership and commitment
Henry Mintzberg	Leadership, strategic planning and management	Leadership, vision, mission and policy deployment

Despite the apparent effect that the Deming method has had on the practice of management around the world there is little empirical research support for its effectiveness beyond anecdotal evidence. This is in part because no theory describing, explaining and predicting the impact of the Deming

management method has been presented to guide the progress of the empirical researcher, neither its theoretical contribution nor its theoretical base has yet been articulated (Anderson et al., 1994).

Anderson et al. (1994) have analyzed Deming's 14 Points and identify 7 concepts which are the building blocks of theory. These are as follows, visionary leadership, internal and external co-operation, learning, process management, continuous improvement, employee fulfilment and customer satisfaction. These are described as follows:

**Visionary Leadership**-The ability of management to establish and lead a long-term vision for the organisation, driven by changing customer requirements, as opposed to an internal management control role. This is exemplified by clarity of vision, long-range orientation, coaching management style, participative change, employee empowerment, and planning and implementing organisational change.

**Internal and External Co-operation**-The propensity of the organisation to engage in non-competitive activities internally among employees and externally with respect to suppliers. This is exemplified by firm-supplier partnership, single supplier orientation, collaborative organisation, teamwork, organisation-wide involvement, systems view of the organisation, trust and elimination of fear.

**Learning**-The organisational capability to recognise and nurture the development of its skills, abilities and knowledge base. This is exemplified by company-wide training, foundational knowledge, process knowledge, educational development, continuous self-improvement, and managerial learning.

**Process Management**-The set of methodological and behavioural practices emphasising the management of process, or means of actions, rather than results. This is exemplified by management of processes, prevention orientation, reduction of mass inspection, design quality, statistical process control, understanding of variation, elimination of numerical quotas, elimination of management by objectives, elimination of merit-rating reward systems, understanding motivation, total cost accounting, and stable employment.

Continuous Improvement-The propensity of the organisation to pursue incremental and innovative improvements of its processes, products and services. This is exemplified by continuous improvement.

Employee Fulfilment-The degree to which employees of an organisation feel that the organisation continually satisfies their needs. This is exemplified by job satisfaction, job commitment and pride of workmanship.

Customer Satisfaction-The degree to which an organisation's customers continually perceive that their needs are being met by the organisation's products and services. This is exemplified by customer-driven focus.

They then proceed to juxtapose the proposed theory against Taylor's principles of scientific management which they summarise as follows:-

- 1) Develop a science for each element of (a person's) work, which replaces the old rule-of-thumb method.
- 2) Scientifically select and then train, teach and develop the work(ers), whereas in the past (they) chose (their) own work and trained (themselves) as best they could.
- 3) Heartily co-operate with the (workers) so as to insure all of the work being done (is) in accordance with the principles of science which have been developed.
- 4) There is an almost equal division of work and responsibility between management and the worker. The management takes over all work (for) which they are better fitted than the workers, while in the past almost all of the work and the greater part of the responsibility were thrown upon the (employees) (Taylor, 1911:36-37)

Advocates of both Scientific Management and the proposed theory recognise the influence and the potential for learning and knowledge in the context of organisational improvement. Training is important to both theories, but the content of training differs. To Taylor, training is necessary for task execution. The concept of learning to Deming and in the context of the proposed theory, in contrast, concerns the provision of both process task knowledge and what Deming called "profound knowledge". Both place emphasis on a scientific approach to work and organisation improvement.

Deming's prescriptive study of process variation of the entire organisation system helps to overcome the blind spot (Drucker, 1979) of Scientific Management's more deterministic and linear view of organisations. Both theories recognise the influence and the potential of learning and knowledge in the context of organisational improvement. Taylor however, would position management and staff as the keepers of organisational knowledge. Deming, in contrast, preferred the learning process to be an ongoing, organisation-wide activity in which all organisational members engage.

Anderson et al. (1994) also compared the proposed theory of Deming to Laurence and Dyer's Theory of Re-adaptive Organisations (1983) which is an empirically based prescription for the renewal of industry (i.e. organisation improvement). According to this theory the environment provides both the opportunity and the need for re-adaptation. Laurence and Dyer (1983) viewed organisations as learning, production and social systems which, together with the environment in which they are embedded function as a larger system. Deming likewise considered systems theory and learning, both integral to his notion of profound knowledge, to be fundamental elements for understanding the structure and purpose of organisational existence. Another similarity between the two theories is the suggestion of an organisational evolutionary journey marked by a continual state of adaptation and improvement. Both theories place importance on the management and reduction of uncertainty. The theories differ with Laurence and Dyer's (1983) recognition of the need for organisational differentiation by employing knowledge specialists to manage the information completely, and Deming's strong position regarding the organisation-wide process of learning and developing the skills and capabilities necessary to engage in personal learning and development of knowledge. Both theories propose strong organisational leadership, however Laurence and Dyer (1983) advocate competition in contrast to Deming's emphasis on co-operation.

Dean and Bowen (1994) state that management practice could be improved by incorporating insights from management theory into total quality efforts, and that in fact total quality has already incorporated many such insights. They state that because of the interdisciplinary nature of total quality it often transcends the boundaries of existing theories and state that existing theories

will not be sufficiently broad based to support research on total quality. They see total quality as a philosophy or an approach to management that can be characterised by its principles, practices and techniques. Its principles are customer focus, continuous improvement and teamwork. Each principle is implanted through a set of practices which are simply activities such as collecting customer information or analysing processes. The practices are in turn supported by a wide array of techniques. (i.e. specific step-by-step methods.). This is illustrated as follows:

Table 2.6 Principles, Practices and Techniques of Total Quality

(Dean and Bowen 1994:395).

	Customer focus	Continuous improvement	Teamwork
Principles	Paramount importance of providing products and services that fulfil customer needs; requires organisation-wide focus on customers	Consistent customer satisfaction can be attained only through relentless improvement of processes that create products and services	Customer focus and continuous improvement are best achieved by collaboration throughout an organisation as well as with customers and suppliers
Practices	Direct customer contact. Collecting information about customer needs. Using information to design and deliver products and services	Process analysis, re-engineering, problem solving, plan/do/check/act	Search for arrangements that benefit all units involved in a process. Formation of various types of teams. Group skill training.
Techniques	Customer surveys and focus groups. Quality function deployment (translates customer information into product specifications)	Flow charts. Pareto analysis. Statistical process control. Fishbone diagrams.	Organisational development methods such as the nominal group techniques. Team/building methods (e.g. role clarification and group feedback)

Sitken et al. (1994) separate Total Quality Management into two conceptually distinct approaches that they label Total Quality Control (TQC) and Total Quality Learning (TQL) The following relates some management practices to these two approaches:

Table 2.7 Management Practices Associated with Total Quality Control and Total Quality Learning (Sitkin et al., 1994:548)

Management Practices	Total Quality Control	Total Quality Learning
Capability Enhancement	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Enhances exploitation of existing skills</li> <li>2. Increased efficiency in use of existing resources</li> <li>3. Increased effectiveness in control over processes, products and services</li> <li>4. Increased performance reliability</li> <li>5. Doing things right first time</li> <li>6. Training for specific skills improvement</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Enhances exploration of new skills</li> <li>2. Increased availability of slack resources</li> <li>3. Increased effectiveness in learning and capacity enhancement</li> <li>4. Increased resilience in the face of new and/or unexpected changes or requirements</li> <li>5. Doing things that are likely to provide insight, but only have a moderate probability of succeeding</li> <li>6. General training and exposure</li> </ol>
Information collection, analysis & dissemination	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Ongoing assessment of customer/supplier perceptions of needs and concerns</li> <li>2. Fulfil known needs</li> <li>3. Benchmarking against satisfaction standards and practices by competitors and in other industries</li> <li>4. Use of standardised statistical control information</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Address previously unrecognised customer groups</li> <li>2. Identify new needs for current customers</li> <li>3. Test (rather than accept) customer definitions of needs and constraints</li> <li>4. Self-designed, changing, non-standardised diagnostic information.</li> </ol>
Incentives for Implementation	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Incentives for error reduction</li> <li>2. Role models, mentoring, and emphasis on constructive conformity</li> <li>3. Performance feedback</li> <li>4. Participation/teamwork emphasis</li> <li>5. Evaluation through precise standards</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Incentives for innovation</li> <li>2. Leadership support for independent thinking and calculated risks</li> <li>3. Learning related feedback</li> <li>4. Autonomy</li> <li>5. Evaluation through general values and judgement</li> </ol>

Spencer (1994) compares TQM to three models of organisations, the Mechanistic Model, the Organismic Model and the Cultural Model. The Mechanistic Model is that described by classical management theorists. From this view the organisation is a tool or machine designed solely to create profits for its owners. Organisational life is



rationalised with the precision demands of clockwork by reducing work into elementary tasks with little opportunity for interaction. Efficiency, conformity and compliance are dominant values (Gharajedaghi and Ackoff 1984). In the Organismic Model the organisation is conceptualised as an organism whose purpose and survival can only be ensured by growth. Contraction is believed to be synonymous with deterioration, decay and eventual death. Like living organisms, organisational systems are dependent on their environments for resources, and they can adjust the behaviour of their parts to maintain the properties of the whole within acceptable limits (Gharajedaghi and Ackhoff, 1984). According to the Cultural Model, the organisation is viewed as a collection of co-operative agreements entered into by individuals with free will (Chaffee, 1985). A rationale for choosing the Cultural Model as a vehicle for understanding organisations is that human beings are distinguished from all other living species by their ability to create and use symbols both as a basis of discourse and as a means of forging their individual lives (Pondy, Frost, Morgan and Dandridge, 1983). TQM advocates recommend the use of symbols ranging from language and artefacts to ceremonies and celebrations in order to build a quality culture.

TQM practice does not abandon the Mechanistic Model and adopt the Organic Model; instead, it contains elements of both. One apperception that emerges from comparing TQM to the Organic Model is that TQM experts, specifically Deming and Juran, have been more successful than academics at generating precise ways of putting systems think to use.

Spencer (1994) describes 7 dimensions of TQM as follows, and compares the different organisational models to it.

- 1) Organisation goal: TQM establishes quality enhancement as a dominant priority and one that is vital for long-term effectiveness and survival.
- 2) Definition of quality: Quality is satisfying or delighting the customer.
- 3) Role/nature of environment: TQM blurs the boundaries between the organisation and the environment.
- 4) Role of management: Management's role is to create constancy of purpose for improvement of product and service (Deming, 1982), and to create a system that can produce quality outcomes.

5) Role of employees: Employees are empowered to make decisions, build relationships, and take steps needed to improve quality within the system designed by management.

6) Structural rationality: The organisation is reconfigured as a set of horizontal processes that begin with the supplier and end with the customer.

7) Philosophy towards change: Change, continuous improvement, and learning are encouraged.

Table 2.8 Comparison of Organisational Models (Spencer, 1994:459 )

Dimensions	Mechanistic Model	Organismic Model	Cultural Model
Organisation Goal	Organisational efficiency/performance goals	Organisational survival (requires performance)	Meet individual needs/human development (requires system survival)
Definition of Quality	Conformance to Standards	Customer satisfaction (requires conformance standards)	Constitutional satisfaction (requires customer satisfaction/conformance to standards)
Role/Nature of environment	Objective/Outside boundary	Objective/inside boundary	Enacted/boundaries defined through relationships
Role of Management	Co-ordinate and provide visible control	Co-ordinate and provide invisible control by creating vision/system	Co-ordinate and mediate negotiations regarding vision, system, rewards: lead by sharing control demonstrating values
Role of Employees	Passive/follow orders	Reactive/self-control within system parameters	Active self-control; participate in creation of vision, system
Structural Rationality	1. Chain of command (vertical communication) 2. Technical Rationality	1. Process flow (horizontal & vertical communication) 2. Organisational Rationality	1. Mutual adjustment in any direction 2. Political Rationality
Philosophy Towards Change	Stability is valued but learning arises from specialisation	Change and learning assist in adaptation	Change and learning are valued in themselves

### 2.11 Approaches to TOM Research

Early quality research is characterised by a focus on the manufacturing sector, the internal operation of the organisation and the “hard” aspects of quality such as systems, tools and techniques (Wilkinson and Witcher, 1993). From the mid 1980’s a separate body of writing has been developed by marketing academics in relation to services (Bright, 1994).

A review of Doctoral TQM research in the UK carried out over the past decade by Zain et al (2001) showed two categories of TQM-related research as follows:

- 1) Researchers have examined gaps in the body of knowledge and rationalise the complexities of numerous quality ideas, concepts and theories. This is the “how” of TQM implementation.
- 2) Researchers have examined gaps in the body of knowledge and attempted to fill these gaps by developing new guidelines and procedures. This is the “what” of TQM, development of new areas of study.

Zain et al (2001) also state a lack of willingness to build upon previously undertaken research. They also state that the systems dimension of TQM is the most favoured research area and that there is comparatively less research into such areas as quality culture because it is more intangible and requires a longer period of time to monitor effects and changes. The paucity of doctoral research in quality management as an integrated subject may well reflect the absence of any well-established theory which can be related to the discipline as a whole (Black, 1993).

There is a growing body of work on the impact of TQM on organisational effectiveness. According to many of these studies, TQM can add value to an organisation’s competitive strategy. The majority of the studies’ respondents attribute a wide range of business performance improvements to the adoption of TQM. However there are problems with many of these studies. First many were carried out by consultants or quality associations and sponsored by bodies with a vested interest in positive findings on TQM. Second there are methodological weaknesses in many of them, such as the use of very small samples, a concentration on large organisations, ignoring evidence on the performance of non-TQM companies and not controlling industry factors. Third, the evaluations of TQM’s contribution to organisational success, although sometimes based on relatively sophisticated techniques of analysis, have generally neglected to establish the extent to which TQM was actually installed (Powell, 1995). Leonard and McAdam

(2002) propose the linking of TQM and corporate culture and the need to take a Strategic Quality Management (SQM) approach in organisations.

## **2.12 Conclusions**

This chapter covers developments in the area of TQM and how TQM has evolved from the concept of quality in recent years.

Whereas there is no agreed definition of TQM in the literature there is a greater degree of consensus than exists regarding the definition of quality. Whereas definitions of TQM can be divided into hard and soft it is concluded that the most appropriate definitions and most successful approaches to managing quality require a combination of both hard, i.e. systematic scientific approach to planning and measurement, and soft, i.e. human resource issues. A definition of TQM which builds on the literature is suggested.

It is also concluded that that the literature contains a degree of consensus regarding the elements of TQM and all of the views reviewed regard the human resource area as being critical elements. However a model of TQM is suggested which builds on the literature.

Much of the current literature in the area of quality focuses on TQM and a common view in the literature states that a predominant cause for the failure of quality programmes is the lack of attention to the human side of quality programmes i.e. people issues. It is concluded that most of the areas of resistance to the implementation of TQM relate to human resource issues and that by addressing the culture of an organisation that most of these problems can, to a large extent, be resolved.

There is a lack of research in the literature with regard to areas like quality culture possibly because it is more intangible and requires a longer period of time to monitor effects and change.

### **3.1 Introduction**

This chapter reviews the public sector, focussing on the background to current developments in the sector, theoretical underpinnings of public sector reforms, differences between the public and private sectors, public sector developments in different countries, the public sector in Ireland, and difficulties in applying TQM in the public sector.

### **3.2 Background to current developments of the Public Sector**

In recent years the high level of public expenditure in many countries and the need to provide high quality public services at minimum cost has resulted in a need to evaluate how the public sector operates and the implementation of change programmes which are regularly called modernisation programmes. This has been influenced by external factors primarily the rising cost of oil since the 1970s, but also the increase in the need for public services and the related costs. Globalization, the impact of the information society, demographic change and persistency high levels of unemployment are putting unprecedented pressures on governments and their organisations (Sotirakou and Zeppou, 2004). The idea that government needs fixing is not new and the 1990's has been a period of intense reanalysis of what government does and how it does it (Durst and Newell, 1999). Prior to this the USA last reinvented their governments during the early part of the twentieth century (Osborne and Gaebler, 1992). There is also a view that it has been political self interest not public concern for providing a range of community services to citizens which has caused the growth of government since the second world war (Cole, 1988 cited in Brown and Waterhouse, 2003).

During the late twentieth century governments have been faced with an emerging public viewpoint that public sectors are too large and inefficient. In response to such pressures and faced with a more complex operating environment, public sectors have been reformed by adopting managerial principles grouped under the term New Public Management (NPM) ( Hood, 1991). Dean (2006) outlines the key drivers of modern government as 1) raising citizen expectations, 2) rapid technological advances causing a service gap, 3) fiscal challenges for government and a willingness from citizens to pay, 4) willingness of different levels of government to collaborate and 5)

government's focus on results: outcome based budgeting. A variety of reforms and projects under the mantle of public sector modernization were developed in order to achieve efficiency, effectiveness, economy and quality in service delivery. Despite the overwhelming consensus that public organisations must transform there is little evidence on how to pursue modernization successful (Sotirakou and Zeppou, 2004).

The Organisation for Economic Co-Operation and Development (OECD) which is committed to a view of international convergence on a "common reform agenda" aims to foster NPM in all member countries and the European Union (EU) advocates the adoption of such management approaches for countries seeking entry to the EU (Soyen and Shaw, 2002). The adoption of NPM by increasing numbers of countries worldwide has been described as one of the most striking international trends in public administration (Hood, 1991:3). Aucoin (1990) points to the internationalisation of public management and argues that in almost every government with developed political systems and highly institutionalised administration there is a new emphasis on organisational designs for public management.

### **3.3 Theoretical underpinnings of Public Sector reforms**

Based on a study of public sector reforms in New Zealand and Australia, McNamara (1995) outlines the theoretical underpinnings of public sector reforms as public choice theory, agency theory, transactional cost analysis and managerialism and new public management.

These are outlined as follows:

Public Choice Theory- proposes a minimal role for the state, with the discretionary powers of politicians and agencies limited, and with citizens having maximum freedom from state coercion.

Agency Theory- based on one party, the principal, entering into a contract with another, the agent, for the performance of certain tasks

Transactional Cost Analysis- suggests that the maximisation of value is achieved by the reduction of transaction costs and is a useful basis for evaluating whether the government should provide services directly or contract work out to the private sector.

Managerialism and new public management: refers to the extension of the scientific management work of FW Taylor in the private sector in the late nineteenth century, into the public sector and postulates that there is one generic set of theories, which can be

applied to the public as well as the private sector. Managerialism has been transformed into what is now referred to as “ New Public Management” (NPM).

Boyle (1995) states that public sector reforms in many OECD countries are influenced by theoretical developments in both economics and organisation and management. He suggests public choice theory and agency theory on the economic side and inter organisational analysis and developments in management theory on the management/organisational side. Public choice theory and agency theory have already been proposed by McNamara (1995) and are described above. The other two areas, inter organisational analysis and developments in management theory are as follows:

Inter organisational analysis- this proposes that organisations can only be understood within the context of the network of organisations of which they are a part. In practice many organisations form inter organisational systems to achieve common purposes. This has always occurred both in the private sector and also in the public sector where inter organisational working e.g. between central government departments and local authorities has been common. Public sector organisations often operate together in dynamic networks, suited to complex and turbulent environments. Lawless and Moore (1989) cited in Boyle (1995) have identified the key components of successful dynamic networks in a public sector setting as follows:

Vertical desegregation: the network recognises that complexity is best handled by desegregating tasks.

Governance mechanisms: as the organisations operating in the network are independent entities, hierarchical control is not feasible. Therefore contractual agreements among the member organisations determine the nature of their relationship.

A strategy maker with a brokerage role: in order to guide the network, one organisation acts as the strategy co coordinator or broker for the network.

Broad-access information systems: in order to share information within the network, information systems are required.

Developments in management theory: the development of a “managerialist” school of thought is one of the major influences on the design of governance and management in

the public sector. The aim is to improve productivity and enhance effectiveness by focussing on the organisation's mission, personnel and customers and by developing new processes and systems (Aucoin, 1990). He identified three principles underlying the managerial school of thought; decentralisation, deregulation and delegation which are described as follows.

**Decentralisation:** the establishment of decentralised structures, which require managers to actively manage the resources at their disposal rather than administer set processes to pre-determined rules and regulations

**Deregulation:** the removal of the central rules and regulations that constrain line managers' decision making powers in the management of human and other resources.

**Delegation:** where tasks are clearly identified and are delegated to identified sections or are contracted to external agencies.

In comparing the views of McNamara (1995) and Boyle (1995) as outlined above, they both agree on the economic areas i.e. Public Choice Theory and Agency Theory. On the management/organisational side, McNamara (1995) proposes Transactional Cost Analysis and Managerialism and New Public Management whereas Boyle (1995) proposes Inter Organisational Analysis and Developments in Management Theory. The Managerialism and New Public Management as proposed by McNamara (1995) is similar in content to the Developments in Management Theory as proposed by Boyle (1995). The Transactional Analysis proposed by McNamara (1995) could be considered within the broad area of Managerialism and New Public Management as indeed to some extent could Inter Organisational Analysis as proposed by Boyle (1995).

The views of both Boyle and McNamara could be combined into three common areas, Public Choice Theory, Agency Theory and Managerialism and New Public Management. The area of Inter Organisational Analysis could be broadened to highlight the areas of both Inter Organisation Analysis and Organisation Analysis which could include organisational culture which is not highlighted in the proposals of either McNamara and Boyle and whereas the human factor will be considered in the area of Managerialism and New Public Management, possibly it deserves to be considered on its own as it is the key area in successful public sector reform. As



McNamara (1995) states the Strategic Management Initiative, which is the Irish Public Sector reform programme, requires a culture change and time to implement.

### **3.4 Structure of the Public Sector**

Barrington (1980) divides the public sector into three main areas;

1) Central Government: The Civil Service which is that branch of public administration carried out by civil servants under the direct or general supervision of government ministers.

2) Geographical Government: Local government, which is responsible for the provision of services at local level.

3) Functional Government: State sponsored organisations which were developed to deal with specific functions of government in areas like the provision of electricity, telecommunications, transport etc and are also referred to as public service organisations.

Talbot (1993) divides Public Service Organisations into three main types, Public Human Services, Public Physical Services and Public Enterprises; examples of each are As follows

Table 3.1 Public Service Organisation Types (Talbot, 1993: 10)

<b>Public Human Services</b>	<b>Public Physical Services</b>	<b>Public Enterprises</b>
Health	Coal	Steel
Roads	Water and Sewage	Automobiles
Education	Telecommunication	
Social Services	Power	
Employment	Postal Services	
Law Enforcement		

Talbot (1993) goes on to analyse these organisation types under six headings, Organisation, Management, Staffing, Revenue Sources, Principal Products, Success Measures. This is as follows

Table 3.2 Analysis of Public Service Organisation Types (Talbot, 1993 :10)

	<b>Public Human Services</b>	<b>Public Physical Services</b>	<b>Public Enterprises</b>
<b>Organisation</b>	Professional Bureaucracy	Machine Bureaucracy	Divisionalised Form
<b>Management</b>	Service Professionals	Technical Professionals	General
<b>Staffing</b>	Professional and Clerical	Technical and Manual	Manual
<b>Revenue Sources</b>	Grant	Fees, charges and subsidy	Sales and Subsidy
<b>Principal Products</b>	Human services	Public goods and physical	Commodities and physical services
<b>Success measures</b>	Service delivery	Service and product	Profit and economic

Whereas the public sector is often considered as a homogenous entity and is often criticised as a single entity, however the above analysis by Talbot (1993) shows not only that it be divided into very distinct types, but that each of these types are completely different with respect to each of the six headings. In fact the only area which the organisations have in common is public ownership and that is changing in many areas with the privatising primarily of public enterprises and the establishing of partnerships between the public and private sectors.

### **3.5 Approaches to Managing the Public Sector**

The approach to managing the public sector varies from the high level of state involvement which has existed in communist countries to the minimal state approach which exists in a number of western countries. Since the early 1990's most of the former communist countries have been reducing the level of state involvement and are privatising many of their state industries and in most non communist countries also the level of state involvement has been decreasing.

A key feature is the defining of the role of government and the public sector. The word government is from a Greek word *gover* which means to steer. The role of government and the public sector has moved from being a provider of services to that of steering or directing and ensuring that services are provided. The job of government is to steer, not to row the boat. Delivering services is rowing and government is not very good at rowing (Savas, 1982). *Its not government's obligation to provide services but to see they're provided* (Governor Mario Cuomo-New York Times in Osborne and Gaebler (1992:30). Services can be contracted out or turned over to the private sector, but governance cannot. Discrete steering functions can be privatised but not the overall process of governance (Osborne and Gaebler, 1992). Dean (2006) states that there are many features of modern government but believes the common features to be, accessibility, responsiveness, efficiency, outcomes based and transparency.

Changing the role of government and the public sector has meant significant changes in most countries. The extent of these organisational changes varies with the organisation, as does the vocabulary that describes it. Terms such as reinvention, reorganisation and re-engineering are often used interchangeably to refer to goals and tasks. Their common frame of reference is the desire to improve the level, or quality, of services clients receive from government and/or to achieve cost management in government (Durst and Newell, 1999). Transition is required from a rigid and conventional mode of thinking toward a creative and strategic one, and this is the challenge in the current knowledge-based economy. Based on the results of a pilot case study undertaken within the Greek public sector Sotirakou and Zeppou (2004) argue that the modernization's success depends on how knowledgeable an organisation is in the strategic running of three core systems: the management (MA) system, the training (T) system and the evaluation (E) system.

Most organisations trying to modernize and reinvent themselves fail in their attempt and despite the overwhelming consensus that public organisations must transform there is little evidence as to how to pursue modernisation successfully. How best to navigate the change from old to new i.e. how to attain core commitment to the enduring value of effectiveness and productivity, while retaining core commitment to democratic citizenship and to the public interest remains the challenge for public administration today (Ingraham , Selden and Moynihan, 2000; Denhardt and Denhardt, 2000) .

In changing the public sector, care must be taken to retain the very good aspects of the existing service and ensure that the needs of users are not ignored in the quest for change. Walsh (1994) states that consumerism has been at the centre of the changing management of the public services in recent years and he argues that the way forward is to recognise that the users of public services are customers, with rights, and should be treated as such. Running government like an enterprise has been an imperative. But in the rush to modernize, policy makers must not forget that government belongs to its citizens. Thus protecting the core public administration values of justice, transparency, openness, accessibility and non discrimination is equally important as satisfying the new public management demands of results orientation, cost efficiency, productivity and quality in service delivery (Sotirakou and Zeppou, 2004 ).

Traditionally government has been based on legislation and regulation and the hierarchy to ensure that these are implemented and are adhered to. The public sector as the implementation arm of government has adopted similar approaches and a similar culture. In changing the public sector these areas need to be addressed. According to Maor (1999) the principles guiding the changes sought in the organisation of government operations and personnel were

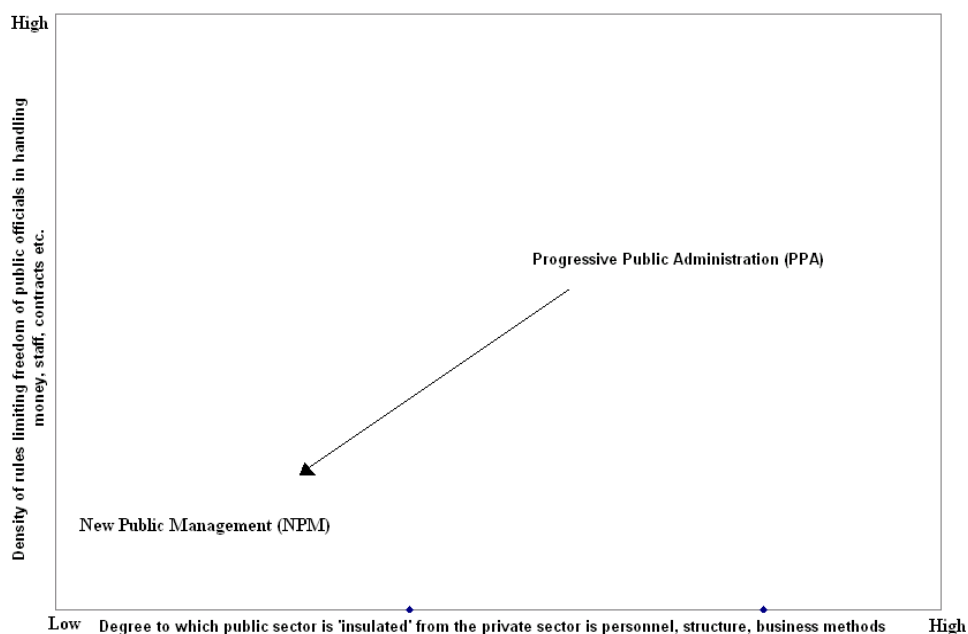
- 1) from hierarchical to economically based structures
- 2) from regulative to economically based structures
- 3) from legally based to economically based values

The approach adopted to changing or modernising the public sector in some countries is referred to as New Public Management (NPM) which is a summary description of a way of re organising public sector organisations to bring their management, reporting and accounting approaches closer to the private sector. Generally it involves a shift in the two basic design co ordinates of public sector organisations, moving it “down-grid” and “down-group” in social science terminology ( Douglas, 1982 cited in Dunleavy and Hood, 1994). Going “down-group” means making the public sector less distinctive as a unit from the private sector in personnel, reward structure etc, going “down-grid” means reducing the extent to which discretionary power i.e. over staff, contracts and money is limited by uniform and general rules and procedures. By contrast, traditional public administration of the “progressive era” was built on the idea of a highly distinct “group” and of a dense “grid” of general rules governing the conduct of business.

Figure 3.1 summaries the direction of change from traditional or progressive public administration to new public management (Dunleavy and Hood, 1994). In this figure the vertical axis covers the density of rules limiting freedom of public officials in handling money, staff, contracts etc. A high score on this axis indicates low levels of freedom for employees.

The horizontal axis outlines the degree to which the public sector is “insulated” from the private sector in personnel, structure and business methods. A high score on this axis indicates large differences between the private and public sectors.

Figure 3.1 From traditional or progressive public administration to new public management (Dunleavy and Hood, 1994:10)



The above figure shows that in Progressive Public Administration (PPA) there are bigger differences between the private and public sectors and lower levels of freedom for employees than exist in New Public Management (NPM).

Hood (1991) describes New Public Management as comprising seven main principles as follows

- 1) hands-on professional management
- 2) explicit standards and measures of performance
- 3) a greater emphasis on output controls
- 4) a shift to disaggregation of units in the public sector
- 5) a shift to greater competition in the public sector
- 6) a stress on private sector styles of management practice
- 7) a stress on greater discipline and parsimony in resource use.

Comparing the traditional public sector to the 7 main principles of New Public Management outlined by Hood (1991) is as follows;

- 1) public sector management was not regarded as professional, most managers had not received professional management training or education, most managers did not have university degrees and had joined the public sector on leaving school and had not worked in the private sector,
- 2) there were no standards or measures of performance in many public sectors, e.g. in Ireland performance management was not introduced until 2000.
- 3) there was very little emphasis on output controls, most of the emphasis was on input controls i.e. what was the financial budget and how much was actually spent, rather than what was the output and outcome from the spending of the budget,
- 4) many public sector organisations were large covering a broad range of very distinct activities which were difficult to control and it was felt that it would be more effective to divide organisations into more manageable units e.g. separation of postal service and telephone service, separation of bus and train services etc,
- 5) there had been no competition either within the public sector or between the public sector and private sector organisations, this was replaced with competition in areas like transport, hospitals, electricity and resulted in the public sector getting out of particular activities by privatisation,

6) the management practice and style was very hierarchical and autocratic and was not customer focussed or focussed on results or key performance indicators,

7) whereas there was not substantial financial resources available in the public sector the emphasis was on the acquiring and the spending of financial budgets without an emphasis on value for money, outputs and outcomes.

The New Public Management has championed a vision of public managers as the entrepreneurs of a new leaner and increasingly privatized government, emulating not only the practices but also the values of business. Proponents of the New Public Management have developed their arguments largely through contrasts with the old public administration. In this comparison the New Public Management will always win (Denhardt and Denhardt, 2000).

There are other approaches to public management and Denhardt and Denhardt (2000) argue that a better contrast is with what they call the “New Public Service” a movement built on work in democratic citizenship, commentary and civil society, and organization humanism and discourse theory. They suggest seven principles of the New Public Service, most notably that the primary role of the public servant is to help citizens articulate and meet their shared interests rather to attempt to control or steer, the public interest is the aim not the by-product, think strategically, act democratically, serve citizens not customers, accountability isn’t simple, value people not just productivity, and value citizenship and public service above entrepreneurship.

The following table compares the three perspectives:

Old Public Administration, New Public Management and New Public Service.

Table 3.3 Comparing Perspectives: Old Public Administration, New Public Administration and New Public Service (Denhardt and Denhardt 2000)

	<b>Old Public Administration</b>	<b>New Public Management</b>	<b>New Public Service</b>
Primary theoretical and epistemological foundations	Political theory, social and political commentary augmented by naïve social science	Economic theory, more sophisticated dialogue based on positivist social science	Democratic theory, varied approaches to knowledge including positive, interpretive, critical, and post-modern
Prevailing rationality and associate models of human behaviour	Synoptic rationality, “administrative man”	Technical and economic rationality, “economic man”, or the self-interested decision maker	Strategic rationality multiple tests of rationality (political, economic, organisational)
Conception of the public interest	Politically defined and expressed in law	Represents the aggregation of individual interests	Result of a dialogue about shared values
To whom are public servants responsive?	Clients and constituents	Customers	Citizens
Role of government	Rowing (designing and implementing policies focusing on a single, politically defined objective)	Steering (acting as a catalyst to unleash market forces)	Serving (negotiating and brokering interests among citizens and community groups, creating shared values)
Mechanisms for achieving policy objectives	Administering programs through existing government agencies	Creating mechanisms and incentive structures to achieve policy objectives through private and non-profit agencies	Building coalitions of public, non-profit, and private agencies to meet mutually agreed upon needs
Approach to accountability	Hierarchical- administrators are responsible to democratically elected political leaders	Market-driven- the accumulation of self-interests will result in outcomes desired by broad groups of citizen (or customers)	Multifaceted-public servants must meet political norms, professional standards, and citizen interests
Administrative discretion	Limited discretion allowed administrative officials	Wide latitude to meet entrepreneurial goals	Discretion needed but constrained and accountable
Assumed organisational structure	Bureaucratic organisations marked by top-down authority within agencies and control or regulation of clients	Decentralised public organisations with primary control remaining within primary control remaining within the agency	Collaborative structures with leadership shared internally and externally
Assumed motivational basis of public servants and administrators	Pay and benefits, civil-service protections	Entrepreneurial spirit, ideological desire to reduce size of government	Public service, desire to contribute to society.



In reviewing Table 3.3 above there is almost no degree of commonality between the three perspectives in that each perspective is approaching the task of public sector from a completely different viewpoint. Effective private sector organisations are in a state of continuous change and improvement as they respond to changing customer needs and demands and the competitive environment in which they operate. In contrast the lack of customer focus and the absence of competition in most public sector organisations meant that the need for change did not exist and rather than change in an evolutionary manner, as did the good private sector organisations, public sector organisations are now required to introduce revolutionary change i.e. a high degree of change in a short period of time. In Table 3.3 above there is a significant difference between the three perspectives in each of the 10 aspects considered. The perspectives are based on different theories i.e. political theory, economic theory or democratic theory, they have a very different view of the role of government i.e. rowing, steering or serving, and have significant contrast as to whom public servants are responsible i.e. clients and constituents, customers or citizens. They also differ in each of the other 7 aspects selected.

Frederickson (1996) compares the re-inventing government movement with the new public administration along six dimensions of public administration as follows concepts of change; concepts of relevance and empowerment; theories of rationality; organisational structure and design; theories of management and leadership; and epistemology, methodology and the issue of values. Frederickson (1996) outlines the following conclusions. In terms of management and organisation, reinventing government resembles new public administration. Both movements have as their impetus the need for change. Both are committed to responsiveness but in different ways. In new public administration it is a professional public service dedicated to both efficiency and social equity. In reinventing government, it is the empowerment of individual customers to make their own choices. The two movements differ in that new public administration is more institutional and political whereas reinvention is less concerned with capable institutions and seeks to sidestep political issues. Issues of rationality, epistemology and methodology are not especially important to reinventing government and are more important to new public administration. Finally the two diverge sharply over the issue of values. Reinventing government elevates the values of individual choice, the provision of incentives, the use of competition and the market as

a model for government, whereas public administration is concerned more with harmonistic and democratic administration, concerned more with institution building and professional competence, concerned more directly with issues of politics and with matters of justice and fairness--broadly under the label of social equity.

According to Frederickson (1996) part of the difference between the two can probably be explained by the background and experience of the people who developed the two approaches in that the new public administration was largely developed by scholars, theorists and researchers although many practitioners were also involved. Reinventing government is largely the work of commentator- journalist- government specialist David Osborne and former city manager now lecturer and trainer Ted Gaebler.

The reinventing government perspective avoids the policy-administration dichotomy issue and the rationality issue by using the word-concept "governance". At the critical points at which questions of whether a policy ought properly to be the province of the executive or legislative branches of government the word "governance" is used (Frederickson, 1996).

An underlying and fundamental aim of the new public management reform programme is to transform the organisational identity of public organisations into a business-like identity. Skalen (2004) analyses the construction of organisation identity as an effect of New Public Management (NPM) initiatives from a sense making perspective. The study draws on data from a two-and-a-half year study of the introduction of NPM at the public health care authority in the region of Varmland in Sweden. It is concluded that NPM creates heterogeneous, conflicting and fluid organisational identities rather than the uniform and stable business identity it is supposed to create. Durst and Newell (1999) from their research concluded that re invention is having a positive effect on government activities, that there has not been a common approach to its implementation but that it has been implemented in a number of different ways in different organisations.

Osborne and Gaebler (1992) have analysed and explained governments' new postures towards strategy and management under the title of Reinventing Government. What they have written argues that public sector provisions and their managements are

becoming further characterised by the following ten features which reflect the TQM beliefs.

- 1) Catalytic Government: Steering Rather than Rowing.
- 2) Community-Owned Government: Empowering Rather than Serving.
- 3) Competitive Government: Injecting Competition into Service Delivery.
- 4) Mission- Driven Government: Transforming Rule- Driven Organisations.
- 5) Results- Orientated Government: Funding Outcomes, not Inputs.
- 6) Customer- Drive Government: Meeting the needs of the Customer, not the bureaucracy.
- 7) Enterprising Government: Earning Rather than Spending.
- 8) Anticipating Government: Prevention Rather than Cure.
- 9) Decentralised Government: From Hierarchy to Participation and Teamwork.
- 10) Market-Orientated Government: Leveraging Change through the Market.

Ingraham, Selden and Moynihan (2000: 661) also compare a Traditional Public Sector System with a Public Service System required for the 21<sup>st</sup> century

Table 3.4 Shifting from a traditional Public Sector System to a Public Service System for the 21<sup>st</sup> century (Ingraham, Selden and Moynihan, 2000: 661)

<b>I Public Sector System</b>	<b>Public Service-system for the 21<sup>st</sup> century</b>
1) Single system in Theory; in reality, multiple systems not developed strategically	1) Recognise multiple systems, strategic about system development, define and inculcate core values
2) Merit definition that had the outcome of protecting people and equated fairness as sameness	2) Merit definition that has the outcome of encouraging better performance and allows differentiation between different talent
3) Emphasis on process and rules	3) Emphasis on performance and results
4) Hiring/Promotion of talent based on technical expertise	4) Hire, nurture and promote talent to the right places
5) Treating personnel as a cost	5) Treating humans resources as an asset and investment
6) Job for life/lifelong commitment	6) Inners and outers that share core values
7) Protection justifies tenure	7) Employee performance and employment need justifies retention
8) Performance appraisal based on individual activities	8) Performance appraisal based on demonstrated individual contribution to organisational goals
9) Labour management relationship	9) Labour-management partnership

based on conflicting goals, antagonistic relationship and ex post disputes and arbitration on individual cases	based on mutual goals of successful organization and employee satisfaction, ex ante involvement in work design
10) Central agency that fulfilled personnel function for agencies	10) central agency, that enables agencies especially managers to fulfil the personnel function for themselves

### Review of approaches to managing the public sector

The common view is that the traditional public sector approach is not suitable to meet the current and future needs of stakeholders. However whereas some authors including Osborne and Gaebler (1992), and Durst and Newell (1999) believe that it should be replaced by New Public Management (NPM), it is the view of other authors including Denhardt and Denhardt (2000), Ingraham, Selden and Moynihan (2000), and Frederickson (1996) that New Public Management is not the only alternative and that a more suitable alternative lies between the Traditional Public Service and the New Public Management. This alternative is called New Public Service by Denhardt and Denhardt (2000), Public Service System for the 21<sup>st</sup> Century by Ingraham, Selden and Moynihan (2000) and New Public Administration by Frederickson (1996).

This alternative combines some of the benefits of the traditional public service i.e. justice, transparency, openness, commitment to democratic citizenship and to the public interest while also addressing the new public management demands of results orientation, cost efficiency and quality in service delivery. This alternative sees the role of government as serving rather than the NPM view of steering and views public servants as being responsive to citizens rather than the NPM view of customers and those institutions and their staff should be developed to provide services rather than the sub contracting or privatizing of core services to the private sector.

The literature indicates that the public sector and their management are becoming further characterised by features which reflect TQM beliefs.

### **3.6 Criticisms of New Public Management**

Like all management systems NPM attracts a mixture of praise and criticisms and according to Dunleavy and Hood (1994) they fall into 4 groups, fatalist, individualist, hierarchist and egalitarian. These labels are from cultural theory, where they are used

to capture a wide range of people's attitudes, for example their underlying view of nature or attitude to risk (Schwarz and Thompson, 1990 cited in Dunleavy and Hood, 1994).

A description of each critique is as follows

#### The Fatalistic Critique

In cultural theory, people who hold a fatalistic view do not believe in the controllability of nature or of human interactions with it. Applied to public administration reform, a fatalistic position holds that the basic problems of public management—namely human error, system failures, misdirected programmes, fraud or corruption and bad intentions are omnipresent. No system of management whether it be NPM, conventional public administration or anything else can eliminate these problems.

#### The Individualistic Critique

In cultural theory, individualistic attitudes are connected with very optimistic readings of human/ nature interactions. The individualist critique holds that NPM is an unsatisfactory half way house between the traditional structure of public administration and a system which is fully based on enforceable contracts and individual legal rights.

#### The Hierarchist Critique

In cultural theory, the hierarchist label stands for a cluster of views associated with central management, planning systems, professionalisation or technology. The hierarchist view believes in human capacities to manage nature, as long as that management remains tightly defined and human/nature systems do not swing radically off limits. Applied to NPM, a hierarchist view is that NPM reformers must be careful not to let the process of change get out of hand, irreversibly damaging the overall manageability of the public sector.

#### The Egalitarian Critique

In cultural theory, the egalitarian position is the most pessimistic about human/nature relationships. It holds that large –scale miscalculations can follow from elitist decision making and large concentrations of organisational power. Applied to NPM an

egalitarian critique holds that large scale “marketizing” reforms increase the risks of corruption in the public service.

#### Remedies to the four critiques

There is no remedy to the fatalistic critique but caution should be applied so as not to over sell the benefits of management systems and hence raise expectations.

The remedy to the individual critique is to have more “real” contracts rather than quasi-contracts and to have privatisation rather than corporatization.

The remedy to the hierarchist critique is to strengthen the central steering capacity of the change process.

The remedy to the egalitarian critique is to have more citizen empowerment and more anti corruption machinery (Dunleavy and Hood, 1994).

In summary it is important that in planning a change programme in the public sector, and indeed in the private sector, that a risk analysis is carried out and that the particular remedies are considered. It is particularly important in the public sector because if a modernisation programme fails it may be some considerable time before there is an opportunity for another opportunity for a modernisation programme.

### **3.7 Looking to the Future**

Because of the slow rate of change within the public sector in the past and because of the many diverse external pressures which currently exist on the public sector, it is important that models are developed to enable the public sector to operate effectively in the future and to respond quickly to changing demands. Dunleavy and Hood (1994) argue that public management reforms raise issues which go beyond short-term considerations of cost and quality issues, which are ultimately constitutional in nature and they propose four alternative future models for public management which they classify as follows, headless chicken, gridlock model, public bureaucracy state, minimal purchasing state.

A brief description of each is as follows.

Headless Chicken- in this case public services are both over-managed and under-managed. They are over-managed at the level of individual organisations, but under-managed overall because there is no system guidance. General rules applying across the

public sector are released or abandoned. People are unsure of their roles, authority and responsibilities.

Gridlock Model- there is no sharp distinction between public and private sector providers and many public services may be provided by private sector organisations. However strong and comprehensive procedural rules have developed so that service delivery is heavily rule bound.

Public Bureaucracy State- this implies a distinct public sector with entrenched core competencies and methods of operation.

Minimum Purchasing State- this is where government consists of issuing contracts and public service provision becomes dominated by large private corporations.

A problem with sub contracting core competencies is that the organisation 'hollows out' and loses direct contact with its customers, e.g. US Personal Computer manufactures in the 1980's. Harland, Knight, Lamming and Walker (2005) state that whereas it appears prudent for organisations, corporations, government departments and central government to think about outsourcing strategically, understanding the current situation and taking a considered approach to the future however their research shows the continuation of unchecked and fragmented short term outsource decisions to have been taken. To date the public management reform debate has not succeeded in what should be its central task: delineating the essential functions of government. The danger is that an overall judgement about government's core competencies may be arrived at only incrementally, though a residualizing process of sub contracting solutions being applied piecemeal to different bodies of work (Dunleavy and Hood, 1994).

### **3.8 Differences between the Public and Private Sectors**

There are a number of key differences between the public and private sectors in that the private sector is more customer focussed, has implemented greater levels of change and has more effective operational and human resource systems. Another difference between the public and private sector is that the public sector has more community and political control (interference) and whereas some public sector managers have an awareness of TQM, it is often superficial (Morgan and Murgatrogds, 1994).

A key element of New Public Management is that public organisations should import management practices and behaviours from the private sector particularly the

techniques of management by objectives, total quality management, performance related pay etc (Boyne 2002). In the area of human resource management policies and practices Boyne, Jenkins and Poole (1999) suggest that there are differences between the public and private sectors and that the traditional style of paternal, standardised and collectivised human resource management is more prevalent in public rather than private organisations.

Stewart and Rason (1994) highlight the dangers of adopting models from the private sector and implementing them within the public sector, whilst accepting that management in the public sector can learn from management in the private sector and *vice versa*. Whereas specific management ideas are transferable, what is not transferable is the model of management; its purposes, conditions and tasks. The private sector model outlines the nature of management in relation to the purposes, conditions and tasks of the private sector. This needs to be modified in its application to the public sector. The public domain is constituted not to replicate behaviour in the private sector but to support behaviour, which is different. There is need for innovation rather than imitation whereby the strengths of both traditions can be merged to develop an effective model for the public sector (Stewart and Ranson, 1994; Kooiman, 1996). Management in the public domain expresses values determined through the political process in response to changes in the environment and therefore requires its own model.

Business does some things better than government, but government does some things better than business. The public sector tends to be better for instance at policy management, regulation, ensuring equity, preventing discrimination or exploitation, ensuring continuity and stability of service and ensuring social cohesion. Likewise the private sector handles many tasks better than public administration- but not all tasks (Osborne and Gaebler, 1992).

Osborne and Gaebler (1992:347-348) attempts to summarise the strengths and weaknesses of the public, private and third sector (the not for profit or voluntary sector) and the tasks best suited to each sector as follows



Table 3.5 Qualities Desired in Service Producers (Osborne and Gaebler, 1992: 347)

<b>Qualities Desired in Service Producers</b>			
(H=high; L=low; M= moderate level)			
	<b>Public</b>	<b>Private</b>	<b>Third</b>
<b>Public Sector Strengths</b>			
Stability	H	L	M
Ability to handle issues outside central mission (e.g. affirmative action)	H	L	M
Immunity to favouritism	H	M	L
<b>Private Sector Strengths</b>			
Ability to respond to rapidly changing circumstances	L	H	M
Ability to innovate	M	H	M
Tendency to replicate success	L	H	M
Tendency to abandon the obsolete or failed	L	H	M
Willingness to take risks	L	H	M
Ability to generate capital	M	H	L
Professional Expertise	M	H	M
Ability to capture economies of scale	M	H	L
<b>Third Sector Strengths</b>			
Ability to reach diverse populations	L	M	H
Compassion and commitment	M	L	H
Holistic treatment of problems	L	L	H
Ability to generate trust	M	L	H

The above analysis is important in that it focuses on the strengths and weaknesses of the different sectors before tasks are allocated. In the case of the public sector, its strengths are stability and ability to handle issues outside central mission which are regarded as the weaknesses of the private sector, and immunity to favouritism which is a weakness of the third sector. The strengths of the private sector are concerned with

ability to respond rapidly, willingness to take risks and tendency to replicate success, which is the complete opposite of the public sector. The strengths of the third sector include the ability to reach diverse populations, compassion and commitment, and the ability to generate trust which is the opposite of the private sector and is also at variance with the public sector although many would argue that the public sector should have the ability to reach diverse populations, have compassion and commitment and be able to generate trust. In addition many people employed in the public sector would argue that the above areas are in fact strengths of the public sector and would not agree with the above classifications by Osborne and Gaebler (1992).

In order to build on the above analysis Osborne and Gaebler (1992) focus on the tasks as outlined in the following table.

Table 3.6 Tasks Best Suited to each Sector (Osborne and Gaebler, 1992:348)

<b>Tasks Best Suited To Each Sector</b>			
(E=effective, I=ineffective, D=depends on context)			
	<b>Public</b>	<b>Private</b>	<b>Third</b>
<b>Best Suited to Public Sector</b>			
Policy management	E	I	D
Regulation	E	I	D
Enforcement of equity	E	I	D
Prevention of discrimination	E	D	D
Prevention of exploitation	E	I	E
Promotion of social cohesion	E	I	E
<b>Best Suited to Private Sector</b>			
Economic Tasks	I	E	D
Investment Tasks	I	E	D
Profit Generation	I	E	I
Promotion of self-sufficiency	I	E	D
<b>Best Suited to Third Sector</b>			
Social Tasks	D	I	E
Tasks that require volunteer labour	D	I	E
Tasks that generate little profit	D	I	E
Promotion of individual responsibility	I	D	E
Promotion of community	D	I	E
Promotion of commitment	D	I	E

There is a perception that the private sector is better than the public sector in all respects and that all private sector activities should be privatised. However the analysis

by Osbourne and Gaebler (1992) outlines the areas where the public sector is better than the private sector and vice versa and also indicates what areas could be privatised or sub contracted if necessary.

### **3.9 Approaches to Public Sector Reform in different countries**

The United Kingdom, Australia, New Zealand and Canada are located within the Anglo tradition; public service in these countries operates on the principle of anonymity, secrecy and political neutrality. Their very institutional structures work on the principles of elected political executives who are advised by the permanent civil servants and are responsible for policy implementation (Maor, 1999).

#### **3.9.1 United Kingdom**

The crisis within the UK public sector is pervasive and deep and was induced by the way in which the post war democratic settlement severed the organic settlement between public and service (Corrigan and Joyce, 1997). Most of the current reforming of the United Kingdom Public Sector commenced during the Conservative Government headed by Margaret Thatcher, which held office from 1979 to 1990. The international reputation of the Thatcher Government was one of radical tax cuts, tight monetary policy, reductions in state intervention in the economy, public spending reductions, privatisations and strong defence and law and order policies. However the reality is somewhat more complex. Some of the policies most closely associated with the Thatcher experiment evolved only slowly, while others have been severely misrepresented by supporters and detractors alike (Talbot, 1993).

According to Walsh (1994) the public service is going through a management revolution, every service from health to waste management and from the courts to housing management is being subjected to radical re organisation, based on the application of market principles. A key approach was to introduce “market forces” into the public sector and four major avenues of change were used in this regard, which were as follows, privatisation, agencies, compulsory competitive tendering (CCT) and the introduction of quasi-market relationships between public agencies.

### Privatisation

The major area of privatisation has been in “natural monopoly” utility industries such as telecommunications, gas, electricity water, together with nationalized manufacturing concerns such as cars and steel.

### Compulsory Competitive Tendering

Compulsory Competitive Tendering is the compelling by central government of public organisations to subcontract a wide variety of subsidiary or ancillary operations. While CCT was initially applied mainly to manual occupations it has now been widened to include professional services such as legal advice, surveying etc.

### Agencies

A third approach has been to turn an entire service into an “agency” with a contractual relationship with a “purchaser” (such as the new Social Security Benefits Agency and the Department of Social Security). Here the government department retains the policy function while the operational management of service delivery is given to the agency. The relationship between the department and the agency is managed through a quasi-contract system. In the previous section CCT, the aim has been to ensure that the majority of providers were from the private sector. In this section, the initial aim has been to contract to a single, public sector supplier.

### Quasi-Markets

The fourth approach is within an area of service provision to a “mixed-economy” or “quasi-market”. As with the “agency” approach, the quasi-market involves making a split between the “purchaser” and the “provider” of a service. Unlike the agency approach it involves competition for contracts from a variety of providers. However, unlike the “compulsory competitive tendering” approach, which specifically aims to transfer provision to the private sector, the competition is mainly confined to public (or voluntary) providers.

The largest examples of this are the reforms of the health service and education, but the new arrangements for ‘community care’ of the sick, disabled and mentally ill also incorporate the same principles. .

According to Kirkpatrick and Lucio (1995) in the early 1980s the attempts to increase efficiency had been justified using a language of accountability to the taxpayer. From

1983 a more explicit reference was beginning to be made to the consumption interests and to improving “customer satisfaction”. However it was only in the late 1980s did references to the customer become mainstream in the UK government’s state reform project. At the very heart of the project of change were competing objectives. Not only did the government hope to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of public services but it wished to achieve greater economy and resource containment (Reed, 1995).

### 3.9.2 New Zealand

During the 1980’s and 1990’s, the New Zealand economy moved from being one of the most regulated outside the former Communist block to become one of the most liberal in the OECD. The justification for these changes was that the country was facing economic crisis and the changes included the floating of the exchange rate, extensive liberalization of financial, capital and other markets, lowering of trade protection, fiscal restraint and monetary disinflation, changes to the machinery of government, corporatization and the sale of state assets, and changes to industrial relations frameworks (Goldfinch, 1998).

These economic policies were referred to as Rogernomics after the Minister of Finance Roger Douglas. There was a push towards corporatization and then privatisation of state owned enterprises that included banks, insurance, telecommunications, hotels, oil based and other heavy industries.

With regard to the broader public sector there were seven key elements in the reforms which were as follows:

- 1) Political determination.
- 2) Clear objectives.
- 3) Agreed basic principles.
- 4) Sound legal architecture.
- 5) Demanding but realistic time tables.
- 6) A unified and motivated core of senior public servants.
- 7) An effective information and public relations system.

In the area of Human Resource Management a key change was that chief executives are liberated from central control and have greater freedom how they manage their staff resources. Human Resource Departments have been raised to a level of strategic importance within each department and strategic human resource development has been espoused.

Overall the changes in New Zealand have been intensive, persuasive and for some at least very painful. They seem to have been driven from the political centre without much advance consultation. There is generally a confidence in the longer-term success of the reforms (Mc Namara, 1995).

### 3.9.3 Australia

Reform commenced in the 1970's when the Australian Public Service (APS) was confronted with a major review process and with a set of administrative law reforms. When the Hawke Labour Government (1983-1991) took office they introduced radical administrative reforms under the influence of economic rationalists who advocated managerialism, commercialism, deregulation, corporatization and privatisation. This was aimed at achieving cost efficiency, budget accountability and an improved customer focus in service delivery (Dixon, 1996; Parker and Bradley, 2000).

The Australian attempt to achieve a more efficient and responsible public service was driven and sustained by two critical reorientations i.e. (1) the transformed roles of central departments and (2) devolution and decentralisation.

In this case also Human Resource Management was seen as a key component. Direct responsibility for Human Resource Management now resides with departments; the broad parameters are set by the Public Service Commission. In 1992 the Commission launched an integrated approach to Human Resource Management covering elements such as resource planning, staffing practice, performance management, working conditions, human resource development, staff relations and how these interrelate. It underlined the concept of professionalism in Human Resource Management encompassing (1) the best parts of improved management practices with the best parts of the more traditional Australian Public Sector and (2) the upgrading of people management to a higher standard and its linkage with other streams of management into a broader management culture, including leadership, the learning organisation concept and total system approaches. The result is that departments are clearer about their own roles and responsibilities. The government manoeuvred towards change by way of

political and social consensus rather than imposing, critical in this process was the co-operation secured from the trade unions. But at a price, a paralysis in public sector labour market reforms. A key feature in this regard was the area of management development. The traditional approach to developing managers was based on two principles, (1) that the APS could be administered by the application of common tasks by reasonably educated people and (2) that any administrative and policy advising techniques, concepts, paradigms and information required were best learned on the job, with experience as the teacher (Dixon, 1996) The Joint Public Accounts Committee investigating the selection and development of senior civil servants in the early 1980's considered that the reign of the amateur-type manager must end and that a managerialist approach should be adopted. Management core competencies were developed for all levels of management and structured programmes of training and education were implemented.

#### 3.9.4 European Commission

In common with the other member governments of the European Union (EU), the European Commission has embarked on an ambitious programme of reform and modernisation. In March 2000 the European Commission published a White Paper on management reform as a means of implementing New Public Management throughout the European Commission. The White Paper outlined a critique of the present, a vision for the future and a 98 point action plan to get there. A progress report in 2003 claims that after 3 years, 87 of the 98 actions have been implemented and the other 11 are imminent. However Levy (2004) claims that whereas some progress has been made, most of what are claimed as successes are preliminary or intermediate actions rather than final actions. He states that further action plans are required in order to fully implement the proposals.

#### 3.9.5 Ireland

In contrast to many other OECD countries, no major changes had been made in the basic structures and operating principles of the Irish civil service since the Irish state was formed in 1922 and the civil service system then was the British system (Devlin, 1969; McNamara, 1995). The Public Services Organisation Review Group was

established by the Irish Government in 1966 to undertake a review of the Irish Public Service and published their final report in 1969. This report concentrated mainly on operational structures and its main recommendation was the separation of policy making from policy execution functions within departments. In general the proposals were too technical and not widely understood by the target population. Politicians and civil servants alike saw the proposals as threats to their best interests and were not convinced of the merits of full separation of policy and executive functions. Little progress was made in implementing the major recommendations although many of the subsidiary proposals have been put into effect, admittedly after many years consideration (Devlin, 1969; McNamara, 1995).

In 1985 the Irish Government published a white paper, i.e. discussion paper, titled "Serving the Country Better". This concentrated on improving management in the public service in terms of

- clear statements of aims and objectives of departments
- specific results to be achieved and identified in advance

McNamara (1995) claims that whereas some progress has been made, most of what are claimed as successes are preliminary or intermediate actions rather than final actions. He states that further action plans are required in order to fully implement the proposals.

- decentralisation from central to line departments and within line departments
- greater responsiveness to citizens needs with a more efficient, courteous and prompt service to the public.

Again these recommendations were not fully implemented as there was very little political support and little change accrued. This lack of implementation was partly due to a change of government and partly due to a concentration of efforts on resolving a budgeting crisis at that time. Again however some of the changes were implemented and there is no doubt that the initiative did serve to bring about a cultural adjustment in the civil service, particularly in focussing on the need to serve the public better as clients or customers (McNamara, 1995).

An example of success was in the Department of Social Welfare where in order to divide the policy making aspects of the Department from the operational aspects, the Social Welfare Services Office was set up within the Department in order to handle operational issues and reported directly to the Deputy Secretary, i.e. Deputy Chief Executive, of the Department. In the Social Welfare Services Office the client was



paramount which was a major change in thinking for a government Department in Ireland at that time.

The next major attempt at public service reform came in 1994 when the Irish Government introduced the Strategic Management Initiative in order to enhance the strategic capabilities of the Irish Civil Service.

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A review of strategic management in the Irish Civil Service (McNamara, 1995) outlined the following:

- The doctrine of overriding ministerial responsibility increases the possibility of difficult decisions being avoided and provided the rationale for not delegating decisions to lower levels.
- Training and development not seen as a strategic issue within government departments.
- The performance appraisal system is not effective.
- Promotion is a major incentive and promotion or the lack of it is very important to staff.
- Local staff is willing to become involved in negotiations on multi-skilling and demarcation but the main delays are caused centrally by the Department of Finance.
- There is a need for teamwork in delivering services and outputs, which demand a high level of co-ordination between parts of an organisation.
- The human resource system is very centralised.
- The Strategic Management Initiative needs a considerable commitment within the department, requires a culture change and takes time to develop.
- Many departmental secretaries and managers did not implement changes because they felt they were incapable of successfully implementing them because of either staff resistance or operational priorities.

The objective of the Strategic Management Initiative was to introduce strategic management throughout the public service and thereby provide an excellence service to the public, contribute to national development and make the most efficient and effective use of resources (Boyle, 1997 C).

As a result of the Strategic Management Initiative the government introduced a programme of change for the Irish Civil Service in 1996 titled Delivering Better Government which was based on the Second Report to Government of the Co-ordinating Group of Secretaries, and the Public Service Management Act was introduced in 1997. There were six main components to Delivering Better Government

which were as follows; financial management, customer service, information technology, human resource management, regulatory reform and value for money. In addition to taking action within individual Departments it was also recognised that there was a need to tackle cross Department issues areas i.e. the needs of children where a Minister of State i.e. junior minister was given responsibility. In order to assist the areas of openness and transparency three key pieces of legislation were enacted in 1997, these were as follows, The Freedom of Information Act 1997, The Compellability of Witness Act 1997 and The Prompt Payments Act 1997. Other pieces of legislation which assisted the public service modernisation programme included the Public Service Management (Recruitment and Appointments) Act 2004 which covered the areas of recruitment and selection, including recruitment from outside the public sector, and the Civil Service Regulation Act 2005 which gave civil service management the power to terminate the employment of staff up to the level of assistant principal officer, previously this required government approval. An all party committee was set up in the Dail, i.e. Irish Parliament, to review progress on the Strategic Management Initiative.

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Quality of service delivery was seen as a central aim of the change programme and the Quality Customer Service Initiative was introduced in 1997. Performance management was stressed as a key HRM issue and is a central feature of the reforms. The development of a performance management culture was seen as crucial to the success of the programme and the Performance Management Development System (PMDS) was introduced in 2000 which covered role clarification, target setting, staff development, individual pay increases based on performance and was linked to promotion to higher grades. Delivering Better Government also put significant emphasis on reflecting the core civil service values of equity and integrity.

The Irish experience is different from Britain and New Zealand. There is little evidence, for example, of any great theoretical underpinning to the Irish reform programme. It does not draw heavily from public choice or agency theories which have been used particularly in the case of New Zealand. Neither is there any significant ideological drive e.g. New Public Management (NPM) on the part of the Government to recast the public sector (Boyle, 1997 C). However in recent years there have been attempts to reduce the size of the public sector, to sub-contract core services and to privatise public enterprises. The change in the Irish public sector has been driven by senior public servants rather than politicians.

## Review of the Irish Approach

Since the introduction of the Strategic Management Initiative in 1994 both the pace and range of reforms has increased. Other initiatives like the Public Services Organisation Review Group (1969) and Serving the Country Better (1985), whereas not successful in themselves, because of economic and political reasons, did provide a foundation on which the Strategic Management Initiative was able to build. A key component in the progress of the SMI/DBG has been the emphasis on the Human Resource area and the partnership approach of management and employees working together. Areas like the development of business planning and the introduction of performance management is in operation throughout both the civil service and the broader public sector. The linking of pay increases to the modernisation programme has obviously proved to be beneficial in the implementation of many of these changes. In order to ensure that changes are implemented and that pay is linked to the modernisation programme, an independent verification mechanism has been established. The Civil Service Verification Group, which is comprised of representative of the private sector, trade unions and academics, was set up and their function is to approve or not approve pay increases to individual government departments or public sector organisations based on the degree of progress on their modernisation programme. There are however variations in the quality of the initiatives and the extent to which they are implemented in the various parts of the public sector.

An evaluation of the progress of the Strategic Management Initiative (SMI) and the Delivering Better Government (DBG) modernisation programme was carried out by the PA Consulting Group in 2002 and the overall finding was that the civil service was a more effective organisation than it was a decade previously and that much of this change could be attributed to the SMI/DBG. However it was felt that the implementation of the modernisation programme was not yet complete. At the end of 2006 the government requested the OECD to carry out a comprehensive study on the processes and systems which are in place in terms of the modernisation of the Irish public sector and to submit their report within one year. This is the first overall study of a public sector modernisation programme carried out by the OECD and compares the Irish public sector modernisation programme with best practice in both the private and public sectors world wide. In addition to identifying strengths and areas for improvement within the Irish public sector modernisation programme which can be

addressed, it was also envisaged that this study will also provide a benchmark for other public sector modernisation programmes worldwide. The OECD report concluded that the changes made were not only significant but necessary and it recognised the value of the reforms made particularly since the development of the Strategic Management Initiative and the publication of *Delivering Better Government* in the mid 1990's and it believed that Ireland is on a sound trajectory of modernisation. However further action needs to be taken in the area of human resources and in changing the behaviour of employees.

### **3.10 Total Quality Management Developments in the Public Sector**

The reason for changing the way people are managed in the public sector was very similar across OECD countries; economic strain on the public sector has increased the demand for greater efficiency and better quality in delivering public sector programmes and services, often with a smaller public sector workforce (OECD, 1996). In recent years change programmes have taken place in government services in many countries. Some have been labelled quality or TQM programmes; others have incorporated some or all of the elements of quality programmes but have not used the title quality. Kirkpatrick and Lucio (1995) argue that the language of quality played a pivotal role in terms of legitimising government efforts to reorganise the public sector. The principles of TQM are becoming increasingly important in the public sector due to the demands for increased stakeholder satisfaction and government performance programmes (McAdam, Reid and Saulters, 2002). Whereas some public sector managers have an awareness of TQM it is often superficial (Morgan and Murgatroyd, 1994). Within the concept of best value and wider public sector performance improvement, quality frameworks are seen as crucial to implementing and sustaining improvement, (Lewis, 1998; Halachmi and Bovaird, 1997 cited in McAdam, Reid and Saulters, 2002).

Analysis carried out by Dewhurst, Martinez- Lorente and Dale (1999) found that some aspects of TQM such as customer focus are treated with less importance than in a competitive situation, however other aspects of TQM such as the availability of information, the use of improvement tools and techniques, training, empowerment and teamwork can have similar positive effects as in the private sector. Research carried out by Wimalasiri (1993) compared public and private sector organisations under a number of headings some of which were similar to the nine dimensions used in the current

research. In comparing Attachment (which has similar component to Commitment Culture) in private and public sector organisations shows higher scores for private sector organisations than public service organisations with 47% of private sector employees expressing neutral or negative attitudes compared to 67% of public sector employees. In comparing Reward for Performance (which has similar components to Fairness Culture) in private and public sector organisations again shows private sector scoring higher with 62% of private sector employees expressing neutral or negative attitude compared to 73% of public sector employees. In comparing Structure (which has similar components to Development Culture) in private and public sector organisations again private sector scores highest with 70% of private sector employees expressing neutral or negative attitude compared to 81% of public sector employees. In comparing Supporting Environment (which has similar components to Commitment Culture) in private and public sector organisations again private sector scored highest with 30% of private sector employees expressing neutral or negative attitude compared to 50% of public sector employees.

Quality management is becoming regarded by many within the public sector as the answer to the principal criticism of public services, i.e. their alleged inefficiency, wastefulness and remoteness from whom they are supposed to serve (Walsh, 1994 cited in Redman, Mathews, Wilkinson and Snape 1995). A study by McAdam, Reid & Salters (2002) demonstrated improved levels of performance when quality frameworks were applied within public sector organisations. In general this improvement was more noticeable after one year. Thus the principles of TQM as embodied in the quality frameworks can be sustained in public sector organisations hence leading to improved performance over time as measured by a comprehensive range of performance indicators. Some examples of TQM within the public sector are as follows:

### 3.10.1 United Kingdom

A Government White Paper, Modernising Government (1999), in addition to continued commitment to improving public services has explicitly highlighted the importance of service quality as a key success factor in relation to government thinking in regard to the public sector. The white paper makes it clear that this all embracing concept provides a framework for all management change within a total quality philosophy,

involving people, process, structures and culture. In many respects quality is an “umbrella” programme for improving public sector performance (McAdam, Reid and Saulter, 2002).

Horton (2000) states that the most comprehensive approach to identifying excellent performance throughout the civil service through a benchmarking exercise is being carried out in government departments, governmental agencies as well as many other public organisations. This benchmarking is based on the criteria of the European Foundation for Quality Management (EFQM) Business Excellence Model. The Modernising Government Programme (1999) which is a 10 year programme designed to radically change the way government operates has 61 milestones against which it can be assessed annually (Horton, 2000).

A study by McAdam and Salters (2000) found a broad range of quality measurement frameworks in the Northern Ireland public sector including Investors in People, the National Standard for the training and development of people, The Charter Mark Scheme, a government award scheme for encouraging and rewarding improvement in public services, the EFQM Excellence Model, and ISO 9000.

Many pressures on the public sector now make quality management appear more attractive than in the past. These include:

- Legislation – giving more choice to customers
- Compulsory public tendering
- Increasing pressures for cost restraint
- The demand for value for money reforms
- More demanding customer requirements
- The Citizens Charter programme

(Redman, Mathews, Wilkinson and Snape 1995)

### 3.10.2 Canada

Ten provinces in Canada set out to develop TQM as part of its response to the challenges they faced in terms of a growing government service, a significant level of debt, the need to rethink some aspects of government service in the light of changing circumstances and the decline of traditional sources of funding (Morgan and Murgatroyd, 1994). One of these states, Alberta, commenced a TQM programme in 1991 by arranging a TQM Conference for agency heads and key managers. They then proceeded to develop a TQM methodology. The results showed solid beginnings in the

development of empowered work teams, customer-focused strategic planning and resourcing), process redesign based on customer requirements, vision linked to policy deployment and some large scale attempts to make TQM a cornerstone strategy (Morgan and Murtagroyd, 1994).

Another state, Ontario adopted 5 key strategies and levers to achieve their objective which were as follows, 1) accepted that the public service was a professional service organisation, 2) developed a new approach to transactional or back office services, 3) developed a comprehensive and robust human resource strategy for recruitment and learning to support modernisation, 4) accepted that an essential foundation is a business-driven, enterprise-wide information and information technology strategy (Dean, 2006).

### 3.10.3 USA

In 1988 the U.S President Ronald Reagan issued an order to increase the Federal Government's efficiency and quality which included the creation of the Federal Quality Institute whose main task was to improve the management of the government's executive branch through total quality management. This included the President's Quality Award Programme for public sector organisation. The functions of the Federal Quality Institute, including the Presidents Quality Award Programme were transferred to the United States Office of Personnel Management in 1995.

The methodologies used to develop TQM have varied widely from one state to another as might be expected. Thirty-one states said that they had embarked on a systematic approach to TQM. Only four states have adopted the distinctive TQM emphasis of a particular guru with the Deming Method being adopted by three states (Arkansas, Iowa, and Massachusetts). Almost all the states have a piecemeal approach to implementation, with Colorado being the only state with a mandate for agency or system-wide implementation of TQM according to an agreed schedule (Morgan and Murtagroyd, 1994)

The U.S. Department of Defence has made major gains in performance through the empowerment of staff (Morgan and Murtagroyd, 1994). During his terms as Mayor of Madison, Wisconsin in 1991 Joseph Sensenbrenner 1991 set out to empower key parts of the municipality. The Equal Opportunities Commission (EOC) has been engaged in a

quality journey since 1984. The Inland Revenue Service (IRS) responsible for the collection of taxes in the U.S.A., has trained some 10,000 of its staff in basic quality principles and skills and formed some 500 teams with the intention of making specific gains in cycle time and the reduction of errors.

In each of these cases, public sector employees working in an empowered team have been able to produce economics in the operation of services while increasing service quality to their customers. In doing so they are following the description of TQM advanced by the US Federal Quality Institute namely a strategic integrated management system for achieving customer satisfaction which involves all managers and employees and uses qualitative methods to continually improve an organisation's process.

#### 3.10.4 Ireland

Humphreys (1998) concluded that with some notable and noteworthy exceptions, there is still a long way to go before it can be asserted that Irish Public Sector Organisations have taken on board wholeheartedly the need to be customer-focussed. Whereas the term Total Quality Management (TQM) is seldom used within the Irish Public Sector some of the elements of TQM are beginning to be used and some elements have been the subject of research carried out by the Institute of Public Administration, at the request of the Committee for Public Management Research which carries out a programme of research to solve the needs of future development in the Irish Public Service. These include the areas of team working (Boyle 1997 B) performance management (Boyle, 1989; 1997 A), use of rewards (Boyle, 1989) quality customer service (Humphreys, 1998; Humphreys, Butler and O'Donnell 2001; Boyle 1989; Blennerhassett, 1992) and strategic management McNamara (1995).

The report of the National Economic and Social Forum Report (1995) outlines a number of different approaches, which could provide a policy framework for improvements in the quality of service delivery. These are as follows:

- Social rights approach –whereby individuals have the right to participate in the development of systems, which affect their lives and must be consulted at all stages of policy formation and implementation
- Classic liberalism- at the opposite end of the political spectrum to the social rights approach. Individuals have the right and responsibility to determine their own destiny. The state's role is limited to that of protecting individuals in their lawful activities.



- Consumer rights- this draws on the principle of consumer rights, which operates in the private sector and suggests they should operate in the public sector
- Citizens charter- this operates in the UK as a mechanism for addressing consumer rights
- Total Quality Approach- outlines approaches like Total Quality Management, ISO 9001 etc. rather than recommend one approach the report suggests a strategic mix of the different approaches.

Since the Humphreys Report (1998) and National Economic and Social Forum Report (1995) there has been considerable progress in the public sector in the area of quality customer service. The Quality Customer Service Initiative was introduced in 1997. This resulted in a Quality Customer Services Group comprising all government departments being set up in 2001. All government departments now have a Customer Charter and publish customer service standards and many have customer panels. The Department of the Taoiseach carried out customer surveys of government departments in 2002 and 2006 which were very positive. Every two years Quality Service Awards are presented by the Department of the Taoiseach based on quality customer service initiatives within departments and the top three award winners go forward to the European Quality Customer Service Conference.

### **3.11 Difficulties in Applying Total Quality Management in the Public Sector**

Some of the areas outlined previously where the public sector differs from the private sector i.e. lack of customer focus, lack of implementation of change and inadequate operational and human resource systems will cause difficulty in applying TQM in the public sector. The nature of TQM itself inhibits its application to the public sector because TQM started in manufacturing and because many public sectors are related to individual needs rather than standardised products or services. Dewhurst, Martinez-Lorente and Dale (1999) found that TQM is of benefit to public sector organisations but particular characteristics of their operation, in particular the lack of understanding of customer satisfaction issues, the contentment of managers and staff to work to rules and regulations and observe precedent, and the lack of internal drive and motivation to improve processes make the TQM process more difficult.

Feigenbaum (1991) questions whether there is the same desire to apply TQM in a situation when competitors do not exist or if the organisation is content with its current

situation. Within the public sector employees are usually content to work to a standard with considerable commitment to rules, regulations and precedent. There is also a tendency to play it safe and a lack of urgency to make improvements to key business processes (Dewhurst, Martinez-Lorente and Dale, 1999). Indeed in the public sector there is a practice of promoting people who have not made mistakes rather than people who have tried or indeed succeeded in making improvements. The internal characteristics of public agencies are viewed as being distinctive in three main ways, more bureaucracy, more red tape and lower management autonomy (Boyne, 2002).

In comparing the public to the private sector it was found that the public sector was better than the private sector in some areas, i.e. mission statements, but in areas that required resources such as rewarding quality improvement and/or technical skills such as competitive benchmarking, there was evidence of a considerable shortfall (Redman, Mathews, Wilkinson and Snape, 1995).

Consultants often talk about the 30-30-30 rule, 30 percent of any group favour the change being proposed, 30 percent resist the change and the 30 percent wait to see which of the other groups obtain the dominant position in the organisation. A key barrier to the effective introduction of TQM in the public sector is contrapreneurship that is the active resistance to change in all organisations (Morgan and Murtagroyd 1994). They describe contrapreneurship as the effective and creative use of skills and competencies to prevent change from occurring.

Some of the resistance components of contrapreneurship are as follows:

- Fear that the number of jobs will reduce
- Fear that own sphere of influence and control will reduce
- Fear that risks will not be compensated for
- Fear of skill inadequacy
- Fear of data decision making
- Concerns about teamwork because of work structure in the public sector

Some of the reluctance components are as follows:

- Another management fad
- Teams remove promotional opportunities

Some of the technical objectives to contrapreneurship are as follows:

- Scepticism about the scope and work of teams
- TQM requires giving up professional independence to the team
- The view that only senior managers can determine strategy

Morgan and Murtagroyd (1994) identified the following six problems in applying TQM to the public sector:

1) Management commitment

Managers feel that TQM should happen without realising that they should be very visibly involved and committed. The most common problem is that they do not have a common understanding of the implications.

2) The auditor problem

Because of the need for accountability in the public sector it is believed that auditors often put extra steps into the process rather than taking steps out and also requesting higher levels of approval rather than empowering people at lower levels. To avoid these difficulties auditors should be involved in the TQM process.

3) Political support

There is a view that politicians will support TQM until something goes wrong. Then they will over react back to the previous system including extra checks and audits. Because politicians want quick results within their term of office, TQM may not suit because of its long time-scale.

4) New structures

When new structures are put in place sometimes the old are kept in place leading to duplication and comparison. Some managers regard the new structures as a threat.

5) Turf wars

These occur in most organisations, in the public sector it can be between nurses/doctors, professional/administration, and managers/auditors. Growth of specialisation within the public sector can work against teamwork.

6) Definition of customer

It can be difficult to gain consensus on the identity of the customer for a public service organisation. In many cases the hierarchical structure is the customer rather than the

citizen seeking support and service from the public agency. Other “customers” include politicians, funding organisations etc.

Morgan and Murgatroyd (1994) outlined some additional areas which must be addressed before TQM can be successfully applied within the public sector as follows

1) The nature of the public sector itself is inimical to the reception of TQM applications. Because there is more resistance to change from managers in the public sector than the private sector. They feel that TQM could lead to loss of jobs, or could go elsewhere because of budget. Public sector managers are credited for their skills in budget acquisition rather than performance or utilization. Public sector managers are not rewarded for performance.

2) The work cultures of the professionals in the public sector are inimical to TQM. Because of the multiplicity of professional specialisms, the primacy of the individual professional transaction and the authority and autocracy of seniority and status hierarchies.

3) In the public sector the customer is a more problematic concept. Because government agencies must serve a wide variety of customers who have widely divergent and even contradictory demands.

4) Public sector provisions are more complicated than manufacturing. It is asserted that improving service quality without increasing costs is more difficult in the public sector, and hence constitutes an objection to TQM.

According to Morgan and Murtagroyd (1994), not all TQM concepts, tools and previous applications can be used in public sector organisations.

Kirkpatrick and Lucio (1995) argue the fact that whereas a feature of new public management was the decentralisation of responsibilities to staff lower down the hierarchy of state bureaucracies however in their view decentralisation was less about empowering people and more geared towards budgetary control and enforced accountability. This obviously means that employees will resist the decentralising of responsibilities which would be an important element of a TQM programme because they would regard it as a threat. Many of the cultural, structural and organisational

reforms introduced in the public sector in the 1980s and 1990s can be interpreted as a general strategy of regaining managerial control over powerful provider groups. The velvet hand of public sector quality initiatives, promising cultural re-engineering and behavioural restructuring simply mask the iron fist of intensified organisational control and the marketisation of service standards and employment conditions (Reed, 1998). Research carried out by Scharitzer and Korunka (2000) on redesigning a public sector organisation showed a decrease in job satisfaction and an increase in strain and fatigue amongst employees and they concluded that the contextual factors of TQM related change have to be carefully analysed to avoid any negative outcomes. A similar point is made by McAdam and Donaghy (1999) with regard to the implementation of Business Process Re-engineering (BPR) in the public sector when they state that proper attention must be paid to many of the soft issues of people management which underpin the success of BPR.

To be successful TQM programmes must be focussed on business needs and make the best use of scarce resources which makes them very appropriate for the public sector at the present however success is unlikely to be achieved by a fragmented approach which is present in many public sector organisation (McAdam, 1996).

Whereas it is possible to achieve one-off savings in the public sector by the exercise of political influence, the more fundamental changes that are necessary can only come from change of a more radical nature relating to cultural change concerned with the revision of attitudes and the transformation of practices (Medcalfe and Richards, 1987).

### **3.12 Key Principles for Total Quality Management in the Public sector**

Morgan and Murgatroyd (1994) outline ten key principles for TQM in the public sector. These are as follows, customer driven, strategically focussed on outcomes and processes, driven by goals and values not regulations, empowering for communities, workers and customers, effective and efficient, evaluated as successful by customers in comparison to comparative providers of service, valued by staff and customers alike, enterprising not simply spending oriented, proactive rather than reactive and benchmarked against the best in the world.

Morgan and Margatroyd (1994) suggest twelve key drivers for the introduction of TQM in the public sector. These are adopted from the Madison Police Department in the USA and are as follows.

- 1) Believe in, foster and support teamwork.
- 2) Be committed to the problem-solving process: use it and let data drive decisions
- 3) Seek employee input before you make decisions
- 4) Believe that the best way to improve the quality of work or service is to ask and to listen to employees who are doing the work.
- 5) Strive to develop respect and trust among employees
- 6) Have a customer orientation and focus towards employees and citizens
- 7) Manage the behaviour of 95% of the employees not the 5% who cause problems
- 8) Improve systems and economic processes before blaming people.
- 9) Avoid top-down, power oriented decision making wherever possible
- 10) Encourage creativity through risk taking and be tolerant of honest mistakes
- 11) Be a facilitator and coach. Develop an open atmosphere that encourages the provision and acceptance of feedback
- 12) With team work, develop with employees agreed goals and a plan to achieve them

The above twelve points are very much in line with the principles of TQM outlined in Chapter 2 and with the views of Deming and the other quality gurus. There is also a high emphasis on people with ten of the twelve drivers focussing on people. However one area which is not explicitly referred to in the twelve drivers is the training and development of people. Whereas training and development may be implied in some of the twelve drivers, its omission is not consistent with the view that quality starts and ends with training. In fact two of Deming's fourteen points cover this area, one with education and one with training.

### **3.13 A suggested 8 step model for implementing Total Quality Management in the Public Sector**

Based on the literature review in the areas of Organisational Culture, Quality and Public Sector and the research programme carried out it is agreed that attention to the soft aspects of TQM is a prerequisite to the successful implementation of TQM. To assist in this regard the following eight step model for implementing Total Quality Management in the Public Sector is suggested

- 1) Commitment : Obtain commitment to TQM from senior management
- 2) Briefings: Carry out initial briefings for staff representatives and all staff to outline the proposed action plan, the benefits to customers, both internal and external, and to staff and to seek out any concern that staff may have and address these fears. An outcome of this step should be to obtain the commitment of staff to TQM.
- 3) Steering Group : Form a steering group representing management and staff, because of the wide variety of disciplines and interest groups within public sector organisations such groups may be large and in some instances the organisation may need to be divided and a number of groups may need to be formed. If this is so the terms of reference of the difference groups should be drawn up. Such groups should be chaired by a senior manager to demonstrate management commitment to the process.
- 4) Training: Training should be provided for the quality steering group and for all staff covering quality, problem identification and problem solving, and team working.
- 5) Action Plan: The quality steering group should draw up an action plan for the implementing of TQM and should seek staff input in its preparation and acceptance. The plan should have specific job related goals and timescales and should have an external assessment and certification as one of the goals. Examples of such certification include ISO 9001:2000, Excellence Through People, European Foundation for Quality Management Certification or some sector specific certification.
- 6) Implementation: In order to implement the action plan both internal and external customers and their requirements should be identified and a series of projects should be identified to address specific problems. Quality implementation groups or teams may need to be set up either on a temporary or permanent basis to address specific issues.
- 7) Measurement: Progress against the action plan should be measured and the external assessment and certification should be achieved.

8) Review and Evaluation: The organisation should carry out a review and evaluation of the process to determine how improvements could be implemented.

### **3.14 Conclusions**

This chapter covers developments in the area of public sector management both in a general sense and related to the situation in Ireland and other countries.

The literature describes very different and indeed opposing views regarding the area of public sector management. At one extreme is the traditional public sector management and at the other extreme is what is called new public management (NPM). The literature also describes a number of approaches between the two extremes which combine the best features of both extremes. It is concluded that such approaches are the best approaches for the public sector to adopt for the future. It is concluded that the human factor is a key area in public sector reform which requires a culture change and time to implement. It is also concluded that there are dangers in adopting models from the private sector and implementing them in the public sector, and that private sector approaches should be customised before adopting them in the public sector. It is also concluded that the human resource aspects of TQM related change have to be carefully analysed to avoid any negative outcomes.

The literature also describes the different approaches adopted in different countries from the extreme approach of the low level of state involvement in the USA and the actions taken by countries like the UK and New Zealand to reduce their level of state involvement to countries like Ireland where although change is being implemented it is of a smaller scale, is at a slower pace and has a larger level of employee involvement and ownership. It is concluded that the approach to public sector reform in most countries comprises one or more of the main components of TQM which are as follows, focus on the customer, continuous improvement and employee involvement.

This chapter also reviews the literature regarding quality in the public sector and concludes that the concept of quality management is less developed in the public sector than in the private sector but that a number of change programmes in the public sector incorporate a number of the elements of total quality management. It is concluded that some of the key differences between the public and private sector include customer focus, greater levels of change and more effective operational and human resource



systems. The literature also states that public sector organisations and their management are becoming further characterised by features which reflect TQM beliefs. As previously outlined, attention to the soft aspects of TQM i.e. the people issues, is a prerequisite to the successful implementation of TQM. Therefore an 8 step model for implementing TQM in the public sector by initially focussing on the people issues is suggested.

#### **4.1 Introduction**

Organisations can be considered as being an amalgam of tangible and intangible features. Tangible features, what can be seen, include equipment, machinery, buildings, products, computer systems etc, and intangible features, what cannot be seen, are the people aspects. Sometimes these are referred to as the hard and soft aspects of an organisation. Considering the soft and more intangible aspects of an organisation two of the areas which involve employees are organisational culture and organisational climate.

This chapter will consider the history of organisational culture and its development up to the present time particularly as it relates to implementing and sustaining total quality management. It considers a number of different definitions of culture and a number of different perspectives on culture which exist in the literature and outlines the differences between organisational culture and organisational climate.

There is an emphasis on the culture of organisations primarily to improve organisation performance but also to address human resource or industrial relations issues which, when addressed, should also lead to improved organisational performance (Schein, 1992). A key issue is the valid measurement of culture and this chapter reviews the measurement of the concept of organisational culture, the managing of culture in a planned manner, and the relationship between organisational culture and organisational performance.

## **4.2 History and Origins of Organisational Culture**

The origin of the term “culture” derives from Latin referring primarily to the cultivation of soil and literally means to grow and to produce. In recent years the concept of culture has broadened from the cultivation of soil to the cultivation of the human mind and most significantly, to cultivate the mind through learning. In essence, *a culture is the way people grow and develop through learning and mutual association in a systematic and orderly manner* (Cartwright, 1999:4).

The concept of culture was described by anthropologists more than 100 years ago as a result of anthropological studies aimed at understanding societies as a whole. The anthropologist Edward B. Tylor in 1871 (cited in Brown 1998:4) described culture *as that complex whole which includes knowledge, beliefs, art, morals, law, custom and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society.*

In the 1970’s it was considered that the approaches used to study societies as a whole could also be used to understand smaller social groups including individual organisations, which might be viewed as societies of employees (Frost, Louis, Lundberg and Martin,1985). The current interest in organisational culture developed in part from work on organisational climate primarily in the USA during the 1970’s. A new field of management enquiry cannot develop in a vacuum but builds on what has gone before and the concept of organisational culture has been derived principally from two intellectual traditions, anthropology and organisational sociology (Brown, 1998). According to Xenikon and Furnham (1996) the idea of an organisational culture first appeared in the literature in the 1970’s as an Americanisation of the Japanese Total Quality Control concept. The term corporate culture was also coined in the 1970’s and entered popular management thinking in 1982 as a result of the book Corporate Cultures by Deal and Kennedy (1982).

The organisational culture concept started as a framework for thinking and analysis, not as a framework for action or control and was soon employed in an

organisational development (OD) setting as a concept for action (Bate, 1994). This is outlined in Table 4.1 below.

Table 4.1 Three Concepts of Culture (Adapted from Bate, 1994: 55)

	Anthropologists	OD Practitioners	Managers
Culture as	A framework for thinking	A framework for improvement	A framework for control
Underlying Objective	Discovery	Improvement	Control
Measurement	Different aspects of individuals	Extent of improvement	Extent of control

Table 4.1 considers the way in which culture is considered in line with the underlying objective of each of the above fields of study. The underlying objective of the anthropologist is discovery of aspects regarding people and society and hence culture is a framework for thinking in this regard. The underlying objective of the OD practitioner is improvement within organisations and hence considers culture as a framework within which actions must be taken in order to achieve this improvement. According to Bate (1994) the underlying objective of managers is control and thus culture can be regarded as a framework to achieve this control. However, although some managers focus totally on control, many managers have an objective of improvement and hence they would align more with the view of the OD practitioner rather than the manager. The original table from Bate (1994) has been expanded by adding in measurement whereby anthropologist focuses on measuring different aspects of individuals and building this up into a measure of society, the measurement of the OD practitioner focuses on measuring the extent of improvement, and the manager focuses on measuring the extent to which control was exercised. As previously stated some managers would align more with OD practitioners than with the view of managers as described by Bate (1994) above.

Smircich and Calas (1987) suggest three reasons for the current interest in culture :

- 1) Shifts in the perspective of business managers, realising that national and corporate culture may be more important than strategy in determining organisational efficiency.
- 2) Shifts in organisational and communication theory to a softer more radical approach that conceptualises organisations as socially constructed.
- 3) Shifts in the human sciences from positivistic exploration to constructivist understanding which emphasises the importance of subjective perception of employees.

The emphasis on culture has evolved hand in hand with the emphasis on Human Resource Management (HRM). Together the development of the culture and HRM literature are evidence of an intellectual refocusing on people in organisations whereby people are no longer considered like machines or commodities but are considered a major asset and a source of competitive advantage. The current interest in organisational culture stems from the fact that it offers an alternative non-mechanistic, flexible and imaginative approach to understanding how organisations work (Brown, 1998).

#### **4.3 Definitions of Organisational Culture**

There are many definitions of organisational culture and while great differences exist among writers some common elements emerge as follows;

- a) Holistic – it does not relate to an individual but to a group of people, referring to a whole, which is more than the sum of its parts.
- b) Historically determined – reflecting the history of the organisation, related to the things anthropologists study – like rituals and symbols.

c) Socially constructed – created and preserved by the group of people who together form the organisation

(Furnham and Gunter, 1993).

The following is a number of examples of organisational culture definitions from a broad range of authors in the field.

Hofstede (1991:262) defines *organisational culture as the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one organisation from another*. Hofstede also refers to organisational culture as the shared mental software of an organisation.

Schein (1984: 237) defines organisational culture as: *the pattern of basic assumptions, that a given group has invented, discovered or developed in learning to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, and that has worked well enough to be considered valid and therefore is to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think and feel in relation to those problems*. Schein (1990) also describes the three dimensions of visible organisational structures and processes, goals and philosophies and basic underlying assumptions.

Cartwright (1999:11) defines organisational culture quite simply as an *organised body of people who share the same goals, beliefs, and values and it can be measured in terms of the effect it has on motivation*. One of the best known definitions of organisational culture is from Bower (cited in Deal and Kennedy 1982:4) which is *Culture is the way we do things around here*.

A very different definition is from Pacanowsky and O'Donnell-Trujillo (1982:126) which is *A culture is not something an organisation has, it is something an organisation is*. This definition is very different from most other definitions including the above definitions and the definitions which follow, in that it regards the organisation as being the culture rather than the assumptions, values, behaviours and practices of groups of employees. This definition is also at variance with the common elements of culture definitions of Furnham and Gunter (1993) as outlined above.

The definition of organisational culture outlined by Schein (1984:237) is consistent with the definitions of Cartwright (1999), Hopstede (1991) and also contains the three elements outlined by Furnham and Gunter (1993) and is the definition adopted for this thesis,

Schein (1984:237) defines organisational culture as: *the pattern of basic assumptions, that a given group has invented, discovered or developed in learning to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, and that has worked well enough to be considered valid and therefore is to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think and feel in relation to those problems.*

#### **4.4 Antecedents and Development of Organisational Culture**

As organisational culture refers to the patterns of beliefs, values and learned ways of coping with experience that have developed during the course of an organisation's history, it tends to be manifested in its material arrangements and in the behaviour of its members. A culture is influenced primarily by an organisation's leader(s) and/or founder(s) who can also influence, imprint or change this culture (Brown, 1998). Fombrun, Tichy and Devanna (1984) state that cultures cannot be designed, however the various control systems of organisation's can work to shape through reinforcement and feedback the desired attitudes and behaviours that are consistent with a particular culture.

Cultures are influenced by unique historical circumstances, expressive of the personalities of particular individuals, internally diverse and constantly evolving as members select new elements from a vast range of possible cultural forms (Pettigrew, 1979; Schein, 1983; Siehl, 1985). Culture is created through two main factors, firstly norm formation around critical incidents particularly where mistakes have occurred and secondly identification with leaders, what leaders pay attention to resource and control, how leaders react to critical incidents (Schein, 1999). Case evidence suggests that organisations develop powerful cultures that guide the thinking and behaviour of their employees.

Culture matters in different ways according to the stages of organisation evolution. In young and growing organisations the personal behaviour of the leader is the most important determinant of how the culture is shaped. A young and growing

company attempts to stabilise and proliferate the culture that it views as the basis of its success. A midlife organisation has most likely evolved into multiple units based on functions, products, locations etc. and these units are likely to develop sub-cultures of their own. When an organisation matures, the culture, which it acquires during its early years is now taken for granted. Whereas leaders created culture in the early stages, culture now creates leaders – i.e. only people who fit the mould become leaders. One of the most dangerous aspects of culture at this stage is that it is an unconscious determinant of most of what goes on in the organisation, including even the mission and strategy of the organisation. As an organisation gets older, rather than being the glue and source of identity, culture become part of the tradition of success – the assumptions that brought the organisation to where it is today. Culture is now more differentiated and embedded. If elements of the culture are potentially dysfunctional then change mechanisms have to be more transformative than evolutionary. As companies age, if they do not evolve, adapt and change elements of their culture, they grow increasingly maladapted and the culture can become a serious constraint on learning and change. The organisation can cling to what made it a success and culture can become a constraint to the development of strategy. The culture issue in the older company is how to engage in massive transformations often under great time pressure to avoid serious economic damage (Schein, 1999). Culture acts as a force for cohesion in organisations and because of this, current cultural forms can act as a bulwark against the changes required in the implementation of TQM (Sinclair and Collins, 1993). Culture may serve different functions in subsequent phases of development, therefore, a dynamic theory on the development of organisational cultures is indispensable (Schein, 1999; Van den Berg and Wilderom, 2004).

The natural development of culture therefore, tends to be one of evolution from less order to more order, stabilizing (cooling and crystallizing ) and becoming more embellished and cluttered all the time – but always within the same fixed frame (Bate, 1994).

Willmott (1993) highlights the dark side of culture by drawing attention to what he regards as the subjugating and totalitarian implications of culture and suggests



that the success in ensuring commitment is at best partial and that employees can become trapped in a vicious cycle of cynicism and dependence.

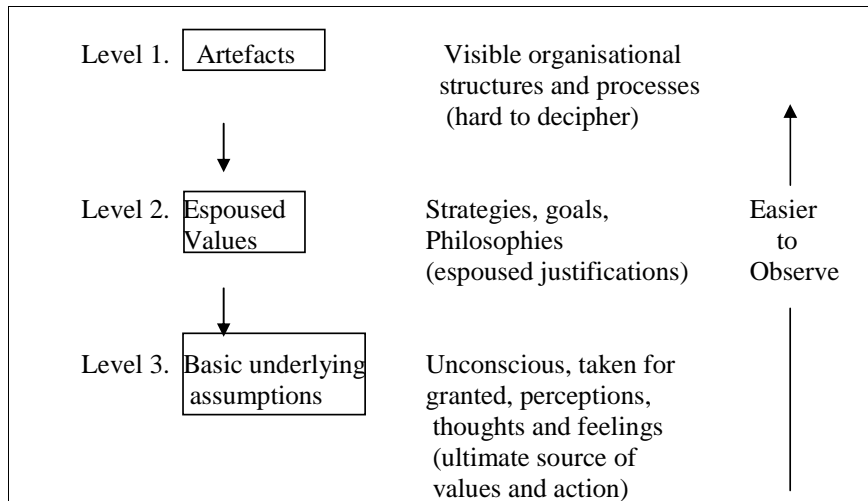
#### **4.5 Components of Culture**

In order to gain a better understanding of culture it is useful to divide it into a number of main components. Elements of culture are unconscious (values, behavioural norms) or observable (artefacts). Culture has a number of layers, behavioural norms (the way people should behave) and organisational values (the things that are highly valued). Culture is comprised of sub-products such as artefacts, symbols, and collective verbal and non-verbal behaviour (Xenikou and Furnham, 1996; Schein, 1985).

Practices are the visible part of cultures, while values represent the invisible part. Organisational cultural differences reside less in practices than in values. Practices are distinguished into symbols, heroes and rituals specific to one culture as opposed to others. They are more superficial than values and therefore amenable to planned change. Values do change but according to their own logic – not according to any particular plans (Hofstede, 1998). The shared assumptions of management employees differ from non management employees particularly if the organisation is unionised. Different departments and levels have their own sub-cultures. Hofstede (1998) showed three distinct sub-cultures in an organisation i.e. a professional sub-culture, an administrative sub-culture and a customer interface sub-culture. Culture appears to determine the identity of a human group in the same way as personality determines the identity of an individual. (Martin and Siehl, 1983; Schein, 1985).

*Schein* (1985) identifies 3 levels of culture from the very visible to the very tacit and invisible.

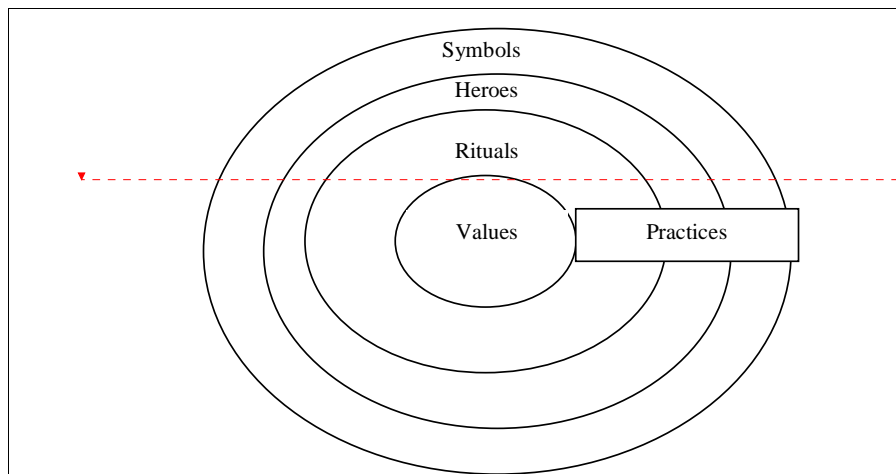
Figure 4.1 Levels of Culture (Schein, 1992:17)



The approach of Schein (1992) above is very important in that not only does it divide organisational culture into different components but the concept of the different levels is very beneficial not just in understanding organisational culture but also in the measurement and management of organisational culture.

Some aspects of culture are more observable than others and some are more embedded throughout an organisation than others. Hofstede et al., (1990) outlined the manifestations of culture from shallow to deep as follows:

Figure 4.2 Manifestations of Culture (Hofstede et al., 1990: 291)



- 1) Symbols-objects which typify or represent something
  - 2) Heroes- dead or alive, real or imaginary who possess characteristics which are highly prized
  - 3) Rituals – collective activities that are technically superfluous in achieving objectives but within a culture are considered socially essential.
- (1 to 3 can be grouped together as practices; these are visible to an outsider)
- 4) Values – these form the core of culture – values are broad tendencies to prefer certain states of affairs over others.

Similar to Schein (1985) above, the approach taken by Hofstede et al, (1990) is very important to the study of organisational culture and the listing of the components combined with whether they are shallow or deep, helps not only with the understanding but also the measurement and management of organisational culture.

#### **4.6 Classifications of Culture**

There have been many different classifications of organisational culture and the following outlines and reviews a number of these classifications.

Deal and Kennedy (1982) developed a classification of culture applied to organisations which is as follows:

- 1) Tough guy, macho culture- Organisations where individuals regularly take high risks and get quick feedback on whether their actions were right or wrong.

- 2) Work Hard / play hard culture- Activity is everything. As long as employees can keep up, the work will get done. Success comes with persistence.
- 3) Bet your company culture- Life in this culture means a diet of high risk, but slow feedback. It means investing millions – sometimes billions – in a project that takes years to develop before you find out whether it will go or not.
- 4) Process Culture-This low - risk, slow feedback culture is found in banks, insurance companies, large parts of government and regulated industries like pharmaceuticals. Employees focus on how they do their work not what they do. People in these cultures tend to develop an attitude of covering themselves by documenting even trivial items.

This is very consistent with the definition of culture by Bowen which is cited in Deal and Kennedy (1982:4) which is *the way things are done around here* and has little emphasis on the people within the organisation.

The approach taken by Schein (1985) is very different and has isolated four rather different corporate cultures with a greater emphasis on people within organisations these are as follows:

- 1) Power Culture - Leadership resides in a few and rests on their ability
- 2) Role Culture-Roles and rules are clearly defined.
- 3) Achievement Culture-Stresses personal, intrusive, motivation and commitment here people can “do their own thing”
- 4) Support Culture-Support is voluntary and relationships are characterised mutually.

Trompenaars (1993) follows the approach adopted by in that he also highlights the Power and Role Cultures and uses terms like Family and Eiffel Tower to graphically describe these cultures. He also proposes Project Culture which is oriented to tasks and Fulfilment Culture which focuses on the individual rather than the organisation. The four types of cultures are as follows.

- 1) Power Oriented Culture – similar to Schein (1985) where the leader (or father) knows better than his subordinates. He calls this the “Family”.

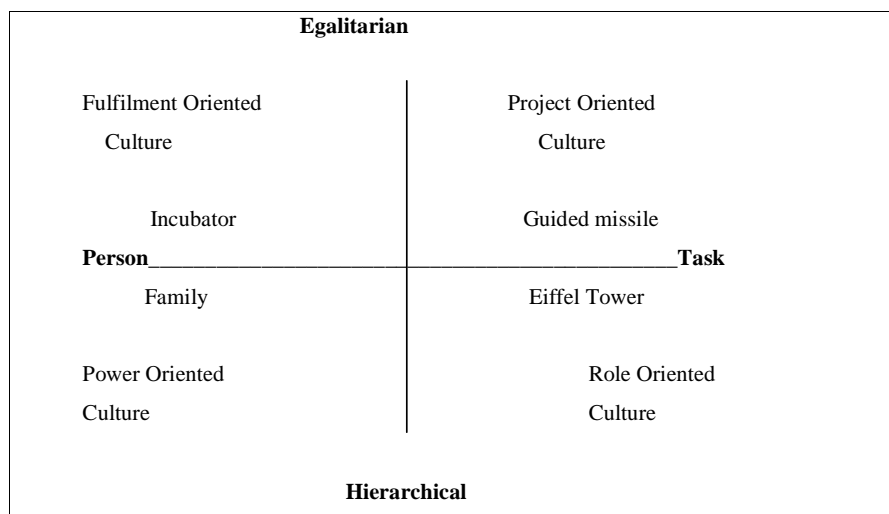
2) Role Oriented Culture – similar to Schein (1985) which is a depersonalised, rational system in which everyone is subordinate to rules and these rules prescribe a hierarchy to uphold and enforce them. He calls this the “Eiffel Tower”.

3) Project Oriented culture – which is oriented to tasks usually undertaken by teams or project groups. He calls this the “Guided Missile”.

4) Fulfilment Oriented Culture –in which organisations are secondary to the fulfilment of individuals. He calls this the “Incubator”.

Trompenaars (1993) shows the four cultures as illustrated in figure 4.3 in relation to Person/Task and Hierarchical /Egalitarian.

Figure 4.3 Comparison of Cultures by Person/Task and Hierarchical/Egalitarian (Trompenaars, 1993:140)



Trompenaars (1993) also considers national patterns of organisational cultures and gives examples of countries where the different types of culture are common:

- Power Oriented Culture – Japan, France, India, Belgium.
- Role Oriented Culture – Germany, The Netherlands, Denmark.
- Project Oriented Culture – USA, UK, Canada
- Fulfilment Oriented Culture- Sweden.

There is no obvious geographical pattern to the above distribution of countries aside from the fact that the Project Oriented Culture operates in two English speaking countries, the USA and UK and one which is mainly English speaking,

i.e. Canada. The Power Cultures are in both Asia and Europe whereas the Role Culture is in European countries but European countries are also listed in the other three classifications.

In considering each of the above classifications, the following provides a summary of the main points:

- Deal and Kennedy (1982) - 1) Tough guy, macho culture, 2) Work hard , play hard culture, 3) Bet your company culture , 4) Process culture
- Schein (1985) - 1) Power culture, 2) Role culture, 3) Achievement culture, 4) Support culture
- Trompenaars (1993) - 1) Power oriented culture, 2) Role oriented culture, 3) Project oriented culture, 4) Fulfilment oriented culture

In comparing the above classifications there are a number of common elements and also some elements which are highlighted by one or two authors. The most common elements are;

Power Culture--as identified by Schein and Trompenaars,

Role Culture-- as identified by Schein and Trompenaars,

Task or Project Culture--as identified by Trompenaars

Overall the perspectives of Schein (1985) and are similar to the perspectives of Trompenaars (1993) and are considered the most appropriate perspectives on culture. These are 1) Power Culture, 2) Role Culture, 3) Task Culture and 4) Person Culture. However, it must be realised that most authors in this area offer no research evidence for the development of these categories. In addition, aside from dividing culture into the different categories, few of the theorists have attempted the more interesting and more difficult questions of how these cultures arise, how they are maintained or how they are changed.

Hofstede (1983) identified six clear and naturally independent dimensions of (perceived) practices distinguishing organisation units from each other. They were as follows:

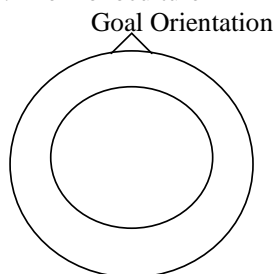
• Process Oriented	v	Results Oriented
• Employee Oriented	v	Job Oriented
• Parochial	v	Professional
• Open System	v	Closed System
• Loose Control	v	Tight Control
• Normative	v	Pragmatic

Whereas some people may look for an ideal culture which can be transplanted into an organisation, in practice there is no right or wrong culture, no better or worse culture except in relation to what the organisation is trying to do and what the environment in which it is operating allows. In some markets and some technologies, teamwork, empowerment etc. In others tight discipline and structured relationships . This is covered by the Loose Control v Tight Control practices outlined above by Hofstede (1983) There is now a greater recognition that different sorts of organisations require different structures and rules and even ostensibly similar organisations can be successful using radically different methods. Most organisations have two sub cultures (managers and workers) which supervisors are expected to bridge (Schein, 1999; Brown, 1998; Silversweig and Allen, 1976).

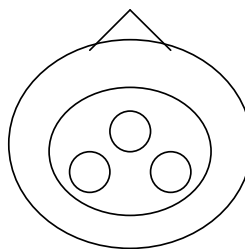
Cartwright (1999) suggests an additional viewpoint on cultural which is complementary to the different perspectives previously discussed. He suggests that the basic cultural model can be developed into four different cultural types that can also be thought of as a cultural lifecycle which is presented as follows:

Figure 4.4 Different Cultural Types (Cartwright, 1999: 12)

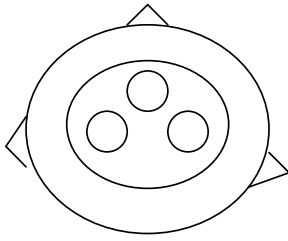
1. The monoculture



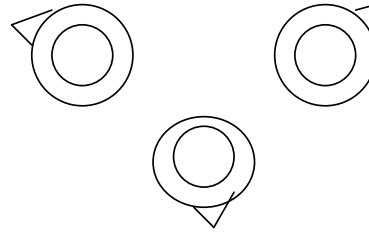
2. The subordinate culture



### 3. The divisive culture



### 4. The disjunctive culture



1) A monoculture consists of a single mental programme – its people think alike and conform to the same cultural norms. As in the above diagram there is one culture, i.e. one core and the one goal orientation. This is often present in new organisations or in small organisations although it is sometimes present in some large organisations which have a monoculture worldwide.

2) A subordinate culture consists of coordinated subcultures each with its own different beliefs and values, ideas and points of view but all working within the one organisation and all motivated towards achieving the organisation's objectives. As the above diagram shows there are a number of sub cultures or cores and the one goal orientation. This is the ideal type of organisational culture.

3) A divisive culture is where the individual sub-cultures within the organisation have their own agenda and objectives. As the above diagram shows there are a number of sub-cultures or cores and a number of goal orientations.

4.) A disjunctive culture is where the organisation is being pulled in different directions. The divisive culture is the most common in society and at work. As the above diagram shows there are independent cultures rather than sub cultures and a number of goal orientations. This is signified by the often-explosive break up of an organisation or even nation into its individual cultural units.

A strong culture is a system of informal rules that spell out how people are to behave most of the time. By knowing exactly what is expected of them,



employees will waste little time in deciding how to act in a given situation (Deal and Kennedy, 1982).

There is a profound difference between cultural harmony and cultural conformity. Cultural harmony exists within and between different cultures and the different ethnic groups whereas cultural conformity is an attempt to create one mono-cultural style. This can be oppressive and repressive and can meet strong resistance. Cultural conformity therefore, is neither desirable nor is it necessary for cultural comparability (Hofstede, 1991).

#### **4.7 Perspectives on Organisational Culture Research**

Three disparate yet interrelated paradigms or perspectives of thought about organisational culture are identified by Megerson and Martin (1987) namely the integration, definition and fragmentation paradigms. There are parallels with Burrell and Morgan's (1979) unitarist, pluralist and radical organisational frames of reference.

The Integration Paradigm – this positions culture in terms of clear and consistent values and assumptions, which are shared on an organisation – wide basis. Three central characteristics define the integration paradigm.

- 1) Consistency across different levels of culture.
- 2) Consensus of understandings held by cultural members.
- 3) A focus on leaders as creators of organisational culture.

The Definition Paradigm – recognises that different groups in organisations may have different and even incompatible, beliefs, values and assumptions. Meanings are shared primarily within sub-cultural boundaries. Ambiguities of meanings and values appear in the intersections between subcultures. Researchers operating in this paradigm tend to look for inconsistencies, lack of consensus and the existence of various sub-units in the organisation (Megerson and Martin, 1987). Sub-culture is defined by hierarchical level and departmental function and by geographical separation (Cooke and Rousseau, 1988).

Fragmentation (or ambiguity) Paradigm – This has three defining characteristics, lack of clarity, lack of consensus and acknowledgment of ambiguity (Megerson and Martin, 1987; Siehl and Martin, 1990). It requires that organisational situations exist in which it is inappropriate to identify consistency of values and basic assumptions. In other words the fragmentation perspective acknowledges that ambiguity is an inevitable aspect of organisation life (Frost et al., 1991). Studies within this perspective look for and examine inconsistencies between cultural manifestations.

Erez and Gati (2004) call for a shift in the research focus on culture as a dynamic entity and for a greater focus on the interplay between different levels of culture. The writing on organisational culture in the quality literature is underpinned by assumptions associated with the integrationist paradigm. It therefore, presents a partial and simplistic view of organisational culture.

Adebanjo (1997) suggests that culture can be viewed from three major perspectives as follows:

- Behavioural Sciences.
- Organisational Theory and Design.
- Quality Management.

#### Behavioural Sciences Model of Culture

Extensive study by Williams, Dobson and Walters (1993) led them to conclude that very few commentators have approached the subject of organisational culture from a specifically human resource point of view. Adebanjo (1997) asserts that behavioural science theorists are more likely to examine the nature of individual beliefs, attitudes and values and how these are formed. They also view roles and relationships and how these affect culture development in organisations. After considering culture from a behavioural sciences point of view, the subject was not considered as a suitable representation or model of a culture that facilitates the implementation of Total Quality Management.

In examining culture, work psychologists often mention the concept of organisational commitment, which is defined by Mowday, Steers, Porter

(1979:27) *the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in an organisation.*

Griffin and Bateman (1986) stated that this concept has three components:

- A desire to maintain membership of an organisation.
- Belief in and acceptance of the values and goals of the organisation.
- A willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organisation.

This concept is one of the 9 dimensions in the Cartwright (1993) model which was selected for the research programme.

#### Organisational Theory and Design Model of Culture

Culture is one of the prominent elements of organisational theory and design. A strong culture can be a positive force when used to support the strategy of a company and is the reason why senior executives often try to influence culture to be consistent with corporate objectives (Draft 1989). Pheysey (1993) presented a framework based on the work of Hofstede (1980) and Skinner and Winkler (1980), which suggested that a culture is developed based on the goals (economic, ideological etc) of the society or group concerned.

Williams, Dobson, and Walters (1993) suggested observation, interaction and communication as the processes underlying the formation of culture and lists the major determinants of organisational culture as:

- impact of external environment
- impact of organisational structures, systems and technology
- impact of the founder
- impact of the manager
- impact of the work group

The organisational design literature on culture provides a clear insight into the nature of culture, how it is formed and how it can be managed and changed. Equally important, it states that culture must be harmonious with the goals and aspirations of the organisation. However, the information is of a general nature and the literature makes no mention of the factors that would be relevant to an organisation that wishes to develop a culture that complements quality improvement (Adebanjo, 1997).

## Quality Management Model of Culture

The failure of Total Quality Management in many organisations led quality practitioners to examine the cultural aspects of quality. What makes the culture perspective distinctive in relation to other organisational perspectives is the stress it places on the multifaceted (structure, strategy, process) and multidisciplinary (designers, strategists, developers) nature of organisational change (Bate, 1994). Elements of quality culture were identified, from TQM literature, as senior management leadership, employee involvement and empowerment, teamwork, effect of chief executive, customer focus, supplier partnership, and an open corporate culture (Adebanjo, 1997). There has been an increasing recognition and acceptance of the importance of the culture of an organisation in sustaining any quality effort and quality practitioners and many companies implementing Total Quality agree that there is a gap to be filled in the development of the appropriate culture for quality (Juran and Gryna, 1988; Dean and Evans 1994).

Adebanjo (1997) said that there was a need to research present and desired approaches to culture development and create a framework to assist in the attainment and the retention of the much-postulated Total Quality Culture. Develin and Partners (1989) cited culture change and change in management behaviour as the key factors in obtaining a successful implementation of total quality. Kehoe (1996) declared that motivating individuals and creating culture change are possibly the most significant management challenges on the road to quality. An organisation's cultural values determines its quality and performance (Cartwright, 1999).

According to Woods (1996) a quality culture starts with managers who understand and believe the implications of the systems view and the necessity of serving customers to succeed. An organisation can develop and maintain a true quality improvement programme only when it has a value system that promotes quality and many quality experts stress the importance of building a quality culture as a prerequisite to major quality improvement needs (Seraph and Sebastian, 1993).

A study carried out by Adebanjo and Kehoe (1999) showed that companies that had developed a quality culture had noticed significant levels of improvement in their quality programme whereas companies that had experienced difficulties with

quality culture change were unable to generate ideas that resulted in continuous improvement and long term development.

Woods (1996) outlines the values of a quality culture and the opposite of each of these values.

Table 4.2 Comparison of Values and Opposites (Adapted from Woods, 1996: 5-6)

<b>Value</b>	<b>Opposite</b>
1) We're all in this together: company, suppliers, customers.	1) Everyone for 'him' or 'herself'.
2) No subordinates or superiors allowed.	2) The boss knows best.
3) Open, honest communication is vital.	3) Keep communication limited and secretive.
4) Everyone has access to all the information they need.	4) Keep most information at the top, and share it only when necessary.
5) Focus on processes.	5) Focus on individual work.
6) There are no successes or failures just learning experiences	6) Success is everything: no tolerance for failure.

Value 1 considers team working both inside and outside the organisation as against individuals working alone.

Value 2 considers loose control and empowerment rather than tight control.

Value 3 considers open communication rather than restricting communication

Value 4 considers sharing information rather than restricting information.

Value 5 this complement Value 1 which focuses on people, whereas this focuses on the design of the tasks that people undertake i.e. the design or redesign of a number of individual into a process.

Value 6 considers learning and innovation leading to continued success rather than short term successes.

There are similarities between TQM and organisational learning, both need an appropriate atmosphere in which the employee is not afraid of suggesting improvements or putting them into practice, as well as active leadership. Some of the dimensions and practices of TQM e.g. continual improvement , team sessions for problem solving using quality tools, could act as drivers for organisational learning (Martinez-Costa and Jimenez-Jimenez, 2008). It is only through the application of both knowledge

management and knowledge dissemination, through a quality culture, that true Quality Management can exist (Stewart and Waddell, 2008).

#### **4.8 Differences between Organisational Climate and Organisational Culture**

There is a perception that organisational climate is the same as organisational culture, whereas in fact they are very different. Denison (1996) states that culture refers to the deep structure of organisations, which is rooted in the values, beliefs and assumptions held by members of organisations. In contrast, climate portrays organisational environment as being rooted in the organisation's value system but tends to present these social environments in relatively static terms, describing them in terms of a fixed set of dimensions. Taguiri and Litwin (1968 : 25), cited in Dennison (1996), defined climate as *the relatively enduring quality of the total (organisational) environment that a) is experienced by the occupants, b) influences their behaviour and c) can be described in terms of the values of a particular set of characteristics ( or attributes ) of the environment*. Rousseau (1990) says that organisational climate can be construed as a descriptor of organisational attributes in terms characterizing individual experiences with the organisation. Litwin and Stringer (1968) cited in Denison (1996) identified nine climate dimensions as follows, structure, responsibility, reward, risk, warmth, support, standards, conflict and identity. According to Brown (1998) organisational climate refers to the beliefs and attitudes held by individuals about their organisation. Results of climate research seems to suggest that there is little agreement between employees concerning what it is like to work for their organisation, however the real finding of climate surveys was that a more sophisticated approach to understanding this aspect of organisations was required (Brown 1998).

At many points it is unclear whether culture and climate represent two entirely separate phenomena or whether they represent closely related phenomena that are examined from different perspectives (Denison, 1996).

The following table from Denison (1996: 625) contrasts organisational culture and organisational climate research perspectives.

Table 4.3 Contrasting Organisational Culture and Organisational Climate  
Research Perspectives (Denison, 1996: 625)

<b>Perspectives</b>	<b>Culture Literature</b>	<b>Climate Literature</b>
Epistemology	Contextualised and ideographic	Comparative and nomothetic
Point of view	Emic (native point of view)	Etic (researcher's viewpoint)
Methodology	Qualitative field observations	Quantitative survey data
Level of analysis	Underlying values and assumptions	Surface-level manifestations
Temporal Orientations	Historical evolution	A historical snapshot
Theoretical Foundations	Social construction; critical theory	Lewinian field theory
Discipline	Sociology and anthropology	Psychology

It is concluded that culture is a much deeper concept than climate, it forms over a period of time and is embedded in an organisation. Climate is different in that it is at a more surface level dealing with the perceptions of individual employees on a range of work related topics. Culture takes longer to form and to change than is the situation with climate.

In each of the research perspectives outlined above there are very significant differences between culture and climate. Climate research pays more attention to actual practices and behaviours which are rooted in the deeply held assumptions which are addressed by culture research.

#### **4.9 Measuring Culture**

Organisational culture could be regarded as an intangible concept and therefore is difficult to measure. However, if an organisation wishes to change its culture, it is important to obtain a measure which will identify the areas which need to be addressed and the priorities for action. A measure would also be important in

order to compare culture both before and after an intervention in order to evaluate its effectiveness and also to benchmark against other organisations.

Most early studies of organisational culture have relied almost exclusively on qualitative methods (Hofstede, 1998). There are good reasons for using qualitative methods but advantages may be at a cost as the data may not readily lend itself to systematic comparisons. Although qualitative studies must not be judged by the criteria applied to quantitative investigations some qualitative studies neglect appropriate validation procedures (Xenikou and Furnham, 1996; Martin and Siehl, 1983).

In many culture studies, assumptions frequently are made that needlessly compromise the integrity of the conclusions (Martin and Siehl, 1983). The cultural phenomena chosen for emphasis sometimes appear to be randomly selected or biased to top management's perspectives, apparently on the assumption that these are the cultural data that count the most. Gregory (1983) concluded that it is sometimes possible to learn more about the culture of the researchers than the researched simply by observing which aspects of the culture most attracted the investigators. The lack of contributing comparison groups is another serious flaw in many qualitative studies. In order to sustain the conclusion that a particular cultural profile contributes to enhance organisational performance, it is necessary to show that the profile generally is characteristic of highly productive organisations, but not less productive ones. Unfortunately, few studies provide this critical information as they often are based on a simplistic model of the link between culture and organisational outcomes, which have insufficient theoretical sensitivity to eliminate the complex, mutually causal interactions of cultural phenomena as they affect an organisation's outcomes (Martin and Siehl, 1983). However, in the study by Kanter (1983) of culture and change exemplifies a sounder approach because she takes care to contrast the cultural patterns found in highly creative companies with those characteristic of less innovative organisations.

As previously outlined culture is the property of a group. Wherever a group, for example levels of staff, departments, regions etc, has enough common experience, a culture begins to form (Schein, 1990; Hofstede, 1991; Cartwright, 1999). To



find culture the investigator must look for common experiences and backgrounds. Cultural analysis is intrinsically incomplete. Culture is a complex concept that must be analysed at every level before it can be understood, culture is deep, culture is broad, culture is stable in that it provides meaning and makes life predictable (Geertz, 1973).

Many cultural instruments and questionnaires only unearth some of the artefacts, some espoused values and maybe one or two underlying assumptions. They do not reach all of the tacit shared assumptions that may be of importance in an organisation. Van den Berg and Wilderom (2004) found that organisational culture can better be measured with organisational practices rather than values. Geertz (1973) suggest that studies of culture should focus on the natives' point of view, that is what the people living in the culture consider to be significant about the way they live. This approach is called semiotic because it concentrates on language and symbols in order to understand a given social situation.

Bowden (2002) states that established employee/people satisfaction surveys are of little use in measuring culture because they tend to be reactive, extrinsically focussed and prescriptive in approach. They pay little or no attention to the intrinsic or psychologically held values that motivate people. The result is a misaligned and one-dimensional perception of employee-held values.

The culture strength variable (i.e. measuring consistency of culture throughout the organisation), is regarded as being too limited in itself to measure or understand a phenomenon as complex as organisational culture (Schein, 1985, 1992; Van den Berg and Wilderom, 2004). On the basis of empirical studies Van den Berg and Wilderom (2004), identify 5 dimensions which can be used both to measure and compare organisational cultures. These dimensions are as follows:

- 1) Autonomy- pertains to the degree to which employees have decision latitude at the job level.
- 2) External orientation-is included because all organisations operate in an external environment
- 3) Interdepartmental co- ordination- since horizontal differentiation may raise barriers to productive inter-group communication.
- 4) Human resource orientation-as an explicit part of the organisational culture construct.

5) Improvement orientation-was chosen in order to include the degree of proactivity that is intended to achieve ever better organisational results.

The Van den Berg et al (2004) approach covers the individual carrying out their job, their relationship with other department and the relationship with the external environment and also includes the operation of the human resource department and the emphasis the organisation places on improvement. It is considered that all of these dimensions are important with regard to the concept of culture.

Cameron and Quinn (1999) have identified 6 key dimensions of organisational culture which are as follows; Dominant Characteristics, Organisational Leadership, Management of Employees, Organisational Glue, Strategic Emphasis and Criteria for (judging) Success. Again it is accepted that these dimensions are key to the concept of culture but as with the Van den Berg et al (2004) dimensions these are considering areas that are influenced by management rather than being intrinsic to individual employees.

Cartwright (1993) carried out a study to address the area of how TQM works and indeed why it works, by exploring the question of what implicit psychology underlines TQM. The study suggests that nine key psychological processes underline TQM, these are, identification, equity, equality, consensus, instrumentality, rationality, development, group dynamics and internalisation. Further research by Webley and Cartwright (1996) revealed some of the gaps between TQM theory and practice, the major areas being equality, rationality and internalisation. Cartwright (1993) regards identification, internalisation and instrumentality as the primary motivators which play a key role in culture formation. The remaining six processes support and reinforce the three main drivers.

It was decided to explore this approach in more depth because of its links to TQM and because it is focusing more on intrinsic aspects than the other approaches.

A description of these processes is as follows:

**1) Identification** – An organisation must project an ethical image that is underpinned by its stated values and is then reinforced by its policies and management practices. This considers whether employees believe that their

organisation projects a clear corporate image, the use of slogans and a clear mission statement, and is reinforced with consistent management practice, especially a management that is friendly, open and highly visible.

**2) Equity** – Is a balance between expectations and rewards, inputs and outputs, perception and reality. Equity is what we think is fair and considers whether employees believe that they are treated fairly by the organisation and management, that their pay and conditions compare favourably with other organisations, that they obtain satisfaction by voicing criticisms and grievances and that they get recognition for efforts made.

**3) Equality** - Is respect for the other person according to values and behaviours irrespective of status.

**4) Consensus** – Is the arrival at a mutual understanding that is much deeper and more inclusive than compromise. This considers mutual trust between managers and employees, managers' willingness to listen and be questioned, communications and freedom of information and feedback from requests and suggestions.

**5) Instrumentality** – Is the agency or means to achieve an objective and considers relationships of work to goals and objectives, pride and satisfaction in work, fulfilling personal expectations from work and encouragement given to meet customer requirements.

**6) Rationality** – Introduces the idea of a scientific approach to management and problem solving which is highly motivating. This considers information regarding future policies and plans, getting to the real causes of problems, managers' attitude to mistakes and a friendly open style of management.

**7) Development** – Is the incorporation into the organisational culture of the essential elements of growth, learning, adaptability, flexibility and progressive change. This considers the attitude of the organisation to employees and their development, the provision of education and training facilities, whether employees

are responsible for their own work quality and performance and whether encouragement is given to employees to work on their own initiative.

**8) Group Dynamics** - Positive group motivations are created through individual loyalty to the group, consensus and mutual sharing of and commitment towards achieving group goals. This considers team spirit within the department, working relationships between departments, effectiveness and value of meetings and whether a caring and motivating management style exists.

**9) Internalization** - This determines attitudes, convictions and behaviours. The internalisation of cultural beliefs and values is the most powerful and permanent motivating dimension of the Nine Dimensions. This considers attitude and loyalty towards the organisation, giving employees a sense of belonging and being part of the organisation, whether employees consider the job to be worthwhile and the dedication of the organisation to high quality standards.

The questionnaire designed by Cartwright, Andrews and Webley (1999) to capture these 9 dimensions is comprised of four questions for each dimension and the thirty six questions are also grouped into four distinct groups as follows:

**1) Personal Dimensions** include, a sense of pride in the organisation, a degree of confidence in organisation and management, working atmosphere in the department, pride and satisfaction in work, responsible for own work quality and performance, team spirit within the department, attitude and loyalty towards the organisation, and whether the employee considers their job to be worthwhile.

**2) Organisational Dimensions** include, the comparison of reality with external image, fair treatment by company and management, comparison of pay and benefits, removal of “us and them” differentials, communication and freedom of information, feedback from requests and suggestions, relationship of work to goals and objectives, information regarding future policies and plans, getting to the real cause of problems, provision of education and training facilities, working relationship between departments, effectiveness and value of meetings, dedication of company to high standards.

**3) Management Style Dimensions** include consistency between decisions, actions and promises, satisfaction by voicing criticisms and grievances, recognition and rewards for efforts made, consideration and respect given to employees, respect given by employees to managers, mutual trust between managers and employees, manager's willingness to listen and be questioned, encouragement given to meet customer requirements, manager's attitude towards employees and their development, encouragement given to work on own initiative, caring and motivating management style, giving employees a sense of belonging.

**4) Communication Dimensions** include consistency between decisions, actions and promises, ability to voice criticisms and get satisfaction, listening to and respect for managers, level of trust between managers and employees, manager's willingness to be questioned, communications and freedom of information, feedback from requests and suggestions, clear relationships between work and objectives, encouragement to meet customer's requirements, information regarding future plans and policies, manner in which managers deal with mistakes, friendly open two-way conversation, encouragement to work on own initiative, working relationships between departments, effectiveness and value of meetings, caring and motivating management style, a sense of belonging and being part of organisation, dedication of organisation to high quality standards.

Cartwright's (1999) approach is to reflect the measure of culture indirectly by its influence on motivation. Motivation has force and direction and both are measurable properties. Whereas psychology is the study of human behaviour generally, motivation psychology is the study of those aspects of human experience that cause us to think and act in certain ways.

The Nine Dimensions cover all the issues affecting motivation relating to a given work culture. An organisational culture is measured in terms of its motivational effect on the organisation's employees. A measure of motivation is subjective rather than objective. But the goal of culture measurement is to measure the subjective response of individuals towards those issues that affect their motivation. Cartwright (1999) uses a ten box scale for each question and respondents are required to shade 5 boxes. This bar scale is a measure of motivational intensity and direction.

Cultural identification connects culture measures directly to business performance in order to promote sustainable business improvement. Culture management is essential to

the achievement of sustainable Business Excellence and the Nine Factor Maturity Index in Table 4.4 provides a benchmark standard against which the management of culture change can be measured and monitored Cartwright (1999).

Table 4.4 Nine Factors Cultural Maturity Index (Cartwright, 1999: 86)

Level	Factors
0.0 - 2.0	Indicates negative motivation, poor morale and cultural immaturity
2.5	Indicates some cultural strengths as a basis for improvement.
3	Reasonable level of commitment to improve by the majority of employees
3.5	Good general level of morale and motivation.
4	High level of trust and mutual cooperation enable further improvements
4.5	Very high morale and motivation with commitment to excellence.
5	The perfect peoples' organisation.

The Cartwright et al. (1999) Model measures culture by seeking the views of individual employees on 36 questions and then combining the individual views into a composite result, which becomes the measure of the total organisation.

Another widely used approach to measuring organisational culture is called the Organisational Culture Inventory (OCI) and is outlined by Cooke and Szumal (2000). This is a quantitative instrument which measures 12 sets of behavioural norms associated with three general types of organisational cultures; constructive, passive/defensive and aggressive/defence.

The 12 behavioural norms relate to the types of organisational cultures as follows:

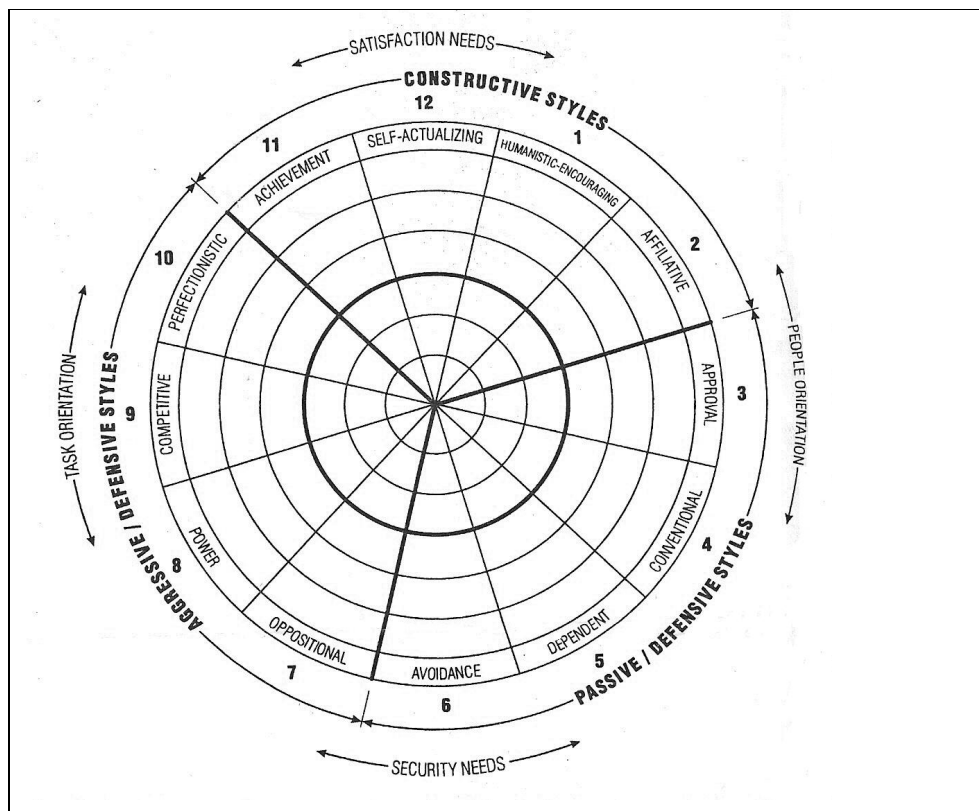
Constructive cultures-achievement, self-actualizing, humanistic-encouraging, and affiliate behaviours.

Passive/Defensive cultures-approval, conventional, dependant and avoidance behaviours.

Aggressive/Defensive cultures-oppositional, power, competitive and perfectionist behaviours.

The OCI Circumplex is shown in figure 4.6

Figure 4.5 The OCI Circumplex (Cooke and Smuzal, 2000: 147)



Respondents' OCI scores are plotted on the circumplex which is a circular diagram on which the distances between the behavioural norms reflect their degree of similarity and correlation. Behavioural norms on the right-hand side of the OCI circumplex reflect expectations for behaviours that are people oriented; those on the left-hand side reflect expectations for behaviours that are relatively task oriented; behavioural norms toward the top of the circumplex promote behaviours that are directed toward the fulfilment of higher-order satisfaction needs; those near the bottom promote behaviours directed toward the fulfilment of lower-order security (Cooke and Szumal, 2000).

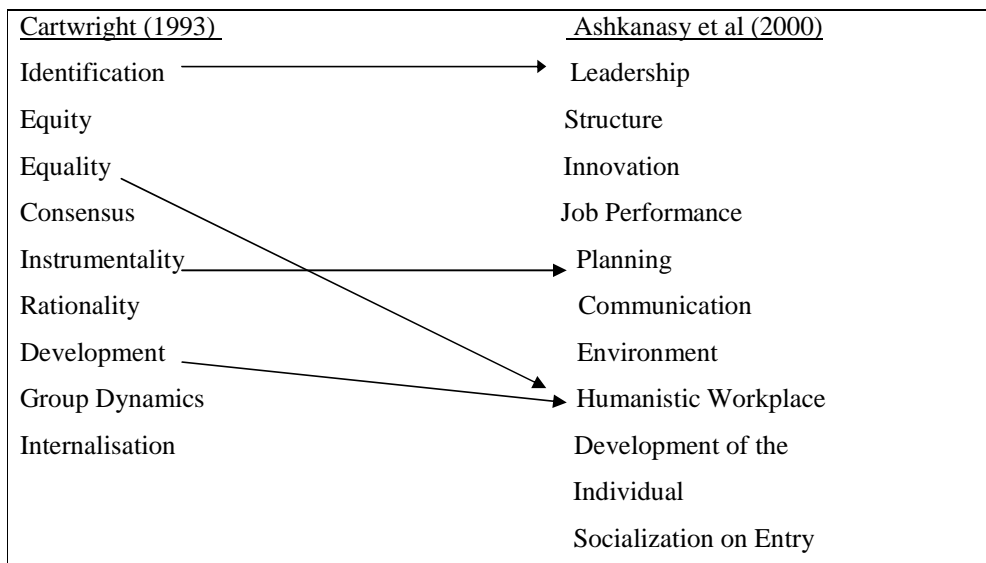
The 6 dimensions of organisational culture proposed by Cameron and Quinn (1999) and outlined earlier comprise the Organisational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI)

whereby respondents to a questionnaire state to which degree each of four statements is true regarding each of the six dimensions and they also are required to assess the degree to which each of the four statements would describe the ideal approach to each of the six dimensions.

In another approach to a quantitative measure of organisational culture, Ashkanasy, Broadfoot and Falkus (2000) have identified 10 dimensions of organisational culture which they call the Organisational Culture Profile (OCP). These dimensions are as follows, 1) Leadership, 2) Structure, 3) Innovation, 4) Job Performance, 5) Planning, 6) Communication, 7) Environment, 8) Humanistic Workplace, 9) Development of the Individual, and 10) Socialization on Entry.

A comparison of the Cartwright (1993) and Ashkanasy et al. (2000) models shows the following:

Table 4.5 Comparison of Cartwright (1993) and Ashkanasy et al. (2000) Models



There is a degree of commonality between the dimensions of Cartwright (1993) and Ashkanasy et al. (2000) as shown above. The differences are that Cartwright (1993) includes dimensions such as Equity, Consensus, Rationality, Group Dynamics and



Internalisation as against the dimensions of Structure, Innovation, Job Performance, Communication, Environment and Socialisation on Entry which are included in the Model of Ashkanasy et al. (2000). The dimensions included in the Cartwright (1993) model and not in the Ashkanasy et al. (2000) model are primarily of an intrinsic nature and the dimensions which are included in the Ashkanasy et al. (2000) model are primarily of an extrinsic nature.

#### 4.9.1 Comparison of the Measurement Methodologies

Each of the measurement approaches described are widely used and have a number of advantages.

The Organisational Culture Inventory (OCI) measures 12 sets of behavioural norms and relates them to three general types of organisational cultures i.e. constructive, passive/defensive or aggressive/defensive. This has the advantage of being able to put a label on the type of culture which exists in the organisation, compare it to other organisations and taken actions to change it if necessary.

The Organisational Culture Profile (OCP) measures 12 dimensions which relate to organisational practice and behaviour. This has the advantage of having a score for each of the 12 dimensions, compare them to other organisations and take actions to change them if necessary.

The Van den Berg et al Model (2004) measures 5 dimensions which also relate to organisational practice and behaviour. This also has the advantage of having a score for each of the 5 dimensions, compare them to other organisations and take actions to change them if necessary.

The Organisational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) is useful in determining how an organisation's culture supports its mission and goals and is very useful when an organisation is deliberately seeking to re-define itself and its culture.

The Cartwright (1993) measures 9 dimensions which cover the key intrinsic motivational processes which underline TQM. This also has the advantage of having a score for each of the 9 dimensions, compare them to other organisations and take actions to change them if necessary. In addition to individual dimension scores, it is also possible to calculate an overall score which can be compared to other organisations using the Nine Factor Cultural Maturity Index.

In comparing the above 5 options, any one could have been considered in that they are all quantitative measures which meant that the requirement of comparing to other organisations and of measuring both before and after an intervention would be met. In comparing the Cartwright (1993) to the OCI model and the Van den Berg et al (2004) there are a number of common areas and a number of areas which are specific to one model as outlined above.

However, it was decided that the Cartwright (1993) Model had the advantage over the Organisational Culture Inventory (OCI), the Organisational Culture Profile (OCP), the Organisational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) or the 5 dimensions outlined by Van den Berg and Wilderom (2004) because it focuses on intrinsic features and the key psychological processes which underline TQM, and the aim of cultural management is the harmonisation of systems and processes through the motivation of its people. It is possible to make comparisons with other organisations based on the individual dimensions and overall using the Nine Factor Cultural Maturity Index. In addition, and importantly, the Cartwright (1993) Model is used by some UK organisations in the achievement and retention of the UK Investors in People standard which is the UK equivalent of the Irish Excellence Through People Standard.

#### 4.9.2 National Standard Measurement

Another method of measuring the culture of an organisation is by assessing the organisation against the criteria of a national standard. As previously mentioned two such national standards exist, the UK Standard, Investors in People (IiP) and the Irish Standard, Excellence Through People (ETP) and whereas their titles are the National Standard for Human Resource Development and their core is training and development, their scope is such to include many people aspects of an organisation with a strong linkage to the business planning aspect of an organisation.

The Irish Excellence Through People (ETP) Standard was set up in 1995, at the end of 2002 over 230 organisations employing in excess of 65,000 people had been accredited to the standard. (Source FÁS 2003)

The standard is comprised of 47 questions divided into six sections. The standard is based on a points system with each question having a set number of points.

#### **The sections of the ETP Standard are as follows:**

- 1) Organisation Plans & Objectives

- 2) Organisational Training Plan
- 3) Review of training
- 4) Implementation of training
- 5) Training Records
- 6) Employee Communication and Involvement

The total standard is included in Appendix B.

The UK Investors in People (IiP) Standard was developed in 1989, at the end of 2002 there were in excess of 30,000 organisations employing more than six million people had been accredited. (Source IiP UK 2003)

The IiP Standard is divided into four sections as follows:

Commitment

Planning

Action

Evaluation

The total standard is included in appendix C.

#### **4.10 Managing Culture**

A work culture is an environment in which to work and an optimum culture by definition provides optimum conditions for work and growth, so that we arrive at a description of culture management as the management of a culture medium to obtain maximum yield (Cartwright, 1999). Siehl (1985) advises that we change the question from, can culture be managed, to when and what aspects of culture can be managed? Tichy (1983) states that there are two critical issues regarding culture, a) the content of the culture and subcultures of an organisation and b) the means by which cultural processes are managed, that is what vehicles are used for moulding and shaping culture and for incorporating sub cultures into the organisation.

Organisational culture is conceptualised as a set of variables, which can be influenced by management (Smircich, 1983). Whilst the (popular) management literature is relatively optimistic about the possibility of organisational culture change, the social-anthropological literature sees culture as being resistant to conscious change (Bright, 1994). The proposition that organisational culture can be managed is associated with definitions of culture as being something an organisation “has”. Those researchers who

see organisational culture as being something that an organisation “is” (i.e. a socially constructed system of shared beliefs and values) consider it improbable that organisational culture can be managed by any particular individual or group (Martin, 1985; Siehl, 1985; Meek, 1988; Ackroyd and Crowdy, 1991). They argue that leaders do not create culture rather that it emerges from the collective social interaction of groups and communities (Bright, 1994; Martin, 1985).

Cultural evolution is the successful adaptation of the organisation and its people to continuous external and internal change. An organisation is essentially self organising and while the need for change is usually due to external forces, the motivation to change and the change process must come from within the organisation. The aim of culture management is the harmonisation of systems and processes through the motivation of its people (Cartwright, 1999).

Change occurs in organisations by altering the norms and cognitive schemes of the members of the organisation (Tichy, 1983) and he calls this the cultural view. From this perspective cultural change is essentially cultural engineering, a rational, physical and scientific activity directed towards the control and manipulation of this “thing” we call culture (Bate, 1994). A strong culture is a powerful lever for guiding behaviour (Deal and Kennedy, 1982).

Advocates of cultural change as a management intervention, tend to focus on the surface levels of culture. Those who argue that cultural change is extremely difficult if not impossible, concentrate on the deeper levels of culture such as shared values and basic assumptions (Huse and Cummings, 1989). Tichy (1983) advocates three major components of a cultural change strategy within an organisation, 1) the content of the culture, 2) methods for shaping the culture, and 3) ways of managing cultural uncertainty. Despite the growing awareness of cultural issues, comparatively little attention has been paid to the practical day to day processes involved in creating, managing and changing organisational culture (Williams, Dobson and Walters, 1993).

From their review of the culture management literature Hassard and Sharifi (1989) suggest a number general principles and guidelines for cultural change (Brown, 1998). These can be summarised as follows;

- Successful culture change may be difficult to achieve if the prevailing values and behaviour are incompatible with strategy. If an organisation is contemplating change it first needs to check to see whether the strategy demands a shift in values and assumptions or whether change can be achieved using other means.
- Culture is inevitable in principle, manageable in practice and crucial in its importance to our future.
- Senior management must understand the implications of the new culture for their own behaviour and be involved in all the main change phases. Change programmes must also take an organisation's culture transmission mechanisms (such as management style, work systems and employment policies) into account.
- The deeper the level of culture change required (artefacts being the most superficial and assumptions being the deepest), then the more difficult and time consuming the culture change programme is likely to be.
- If there are multiple cultures and subcultures then this will make the change programme still more difficult and time consuming.
- Some of the easiest changes to effect are alterations in behavioural norms. Managing the deepest layers of an organisational culture requires a participative approach. Participative approaches are most likely to be successful and are the only option if assumptions are to be altered. However, they are difficult to implement and extremely time consuming to enact.
- A top-down approach may work when there is only a single culture or when the focus is on changing behavioural norms rather than assumptions. Top-down approaches yield changes which may be difficult to sustain in the long term, because they produce overt compliance but not acceptance.

(Hassard and Sharifi, 1989, cited in Brown, 1998 )

In the process of changing culture, according to Schein (1999), three issues exist:

1) How to maintain the elements of culture, which are beneficial, 2) how to integrate, blend or at least align the various sub-cultures and 3) how to identify and change those cultural elements that are not beneficial.

Organisations require insight and skills to produce managed change of some cultural elements while maintaining the core cultural elements. Cultural change becomes transformational because old cultural elements have to be unlearned (Schein, 1999).

People do not have ownership of the culture in a mature organisation as they do in a young and growing one but the mature company is harder to change because the culture has become more embedded in its structures and routines. It is more effective to commence slowly and make sure that the new ways of thinking are accepted before major new initiatives are launched. Since culture is very difficult to change, most energy should be focused in identifying the assumptions that can be helpful. Culture can be seen as a positive force to be used rather than a constraint to be overcome. If specific assumptions are seen as real constraints then a plan must be made to change these elements of the culture. These changes can best be made by taking advantage of the positive supportive elements of the culture.

Schein (1999) suggests that before culture can be changed in organisational mid-life there must first be an understanding about transformational change in general. He proposes a Three Stage Model of Transformational change as follows:

- Stage 1        Unfreezing: Creating the motivation to change.
- Stage 2        Learning: New concepts and new meanings for old concepts.
- Stage 3        Internalizing: New concepts and meanings.

If the new way of working necessitates teamwork, then formal training on team building and maintenance must be provided.

Schein (1999) outlines eight conditions for transformational change at mid life of organisations as follows:

- 1) A compelling positive vision.
- 2) Formal training.
- 3) Involvement of the learner.
- 4) Informal training of relevant family groups and teams.
- 5) Practice fields, coaches and feedback.
- 6) Practice role models.
- 7) Support groups
- 8) Consistent systems and structures.

This views a change programme as commencing with a vision which is the overall objective and this is achieved through training, involvement, practice, support groups and consistent systems and structures.

In order to be successful, change programmes must be planned to ensure that all the elements are included. Successful leaders need three characteristics: 1) credibility, 2) clarity of vision, and 3) ability to articulate the vision.

The ability to manage culture implies not just a capacity to change and maintain it but to create, abandon and destroy it as well. Cultures are highly dynamic entities, which are prone to change as a result of a variety of internal and external prompts. Culture specialists range along a continuum, at one end of which are those who emphasise the ease of culture management and at the other are those who stress the difficulties. The management of culture is constrained by diverse factors ranging from the multiplicity and complexity of embedded sub-cultures to conflicting political interests, bad timing and communication failures (Ogbonna, 1993; Brown, 1998; Nord, 1985; Trice and Beyer, 1990). Bright (1994) found little evidence to indicate that organisational culture had been changed by quality management activities over a fifteen-month period other than at a surface level. *What we notice and experience as cultural change depends directly on how we conceptualise culture* (Meyerson and Martin, 1987: 623).

#### **4.11 Resistance to Culture Change**

In order to implement successful programmes of cultural change it is important that potential areas of resistance are identified at an early stage so that the appropriate preventative or corrective action is taken. Brown (1998) outlines the most common sources of individual resistance to culture change as follows:-

- Selective Perception – Every individual has a unique view of how their organisation works and their role within it. Plans for change which seem to threaten some cherished element of this world - view or which appear misguided or unfair are likely to be met with resistance.
- Habit - Everyone has habits which allow them to deal quickly and easily with routine situations which therefore provide a degree of comfort and security. Proposed changes to employees habits, especially where these are ingrained and appear reasonable and rational to people themselves, may well be resisted.
- Security – Current working practices are often more familiar and thus less threatening to the psychological security of individuals than new methods and procedures. In extreme cases some individuals may even forgo promotions because their need for security is so great and fear of the unknown so intense.

- Economic – Any change which might threaten an individual's basic pay, bonuses, pension, company car or other element in an employee's reward package may be resisted by that person.
- Status and Esteem – Changes which an employee interprets as likely to lead to a reduction in his or her esteem and status may often be the cause of that individual's resistance to the proposed alterations.

Harris and Ogbanna (1992) classified employee responses to cultural change as follows, active acceptance, selective reinvention, reinvention, general acceptance, dissonance, general rejection, reinterpretation, selective reinterpretation and active rejection. It is important to understand the midpoint and range of employee views as this will determine the success or failure of a change programme. Cinite, Duxbury and Higgins (2008) identified that perceived readiness for change could be conceptualised with three sub-constructs: commitment of senior managers to the change, competence of change agents, and support of the immediate manager. They also identified that unreadiness for change had two sub-constructs: poor communication of change and adverse impact of change on work.

Oakland and Tanner (2007) highlight practices which hinder change as lack of communication, silo thinking, delays and too little involvement from top management. Garside (1998) researching the health sector, revealed that most people do not want to change and not only will they not engage in the plans for change, they will actively resist the change. The degree of flexibility which exists in an organisation is a key area with regard to resistance to change and Hatum and Pettigrew (2006) have identified five determinants of organisational flexibility as a set of organisational and managerial capabilities that enabled companies to adapt quickly in a highly competitive environment which are as follows, heterogeneity of the dominant coalition ie which individuals determine the overall direction of the organisation, centralisation and formalisation of the decision making, low macroculture embeddedness, environmental scanning and a strong organisational identity. With the exception of environmental scanning organisational culture is strongly linked to each of the determinants

In order to overcome resistance to change it is important to analyze how the change will affect employees in a positive or negative manner. The potentially hostile or negative reactions of people should be identified and the fears and feelings of those affected



should be addressed as much as possible. Involvement, ownership and communication are three components of successful change programmes (Armstrong 2006).

Perhaps the most pervasive force for resistance in organisations is their culture, prevailing dominant patterns of beliefs and values cannot generally be altered swiftly, while some have questioned whether basic assumptions can be changed at all. An established organisation culture can then be a powerful block on the initiation of new cultural patterns. An approach to identifying the level of resistance to cultural change is as follows; Resistance to Culture Change = Magnitude of the Change in Culture x Strength of the Prevailing Culture (Sathe, 1985). A culture has the power and authority not only to determine lifestyle but to form individual personality traits, behaviours and attitudes (Atkinson, 1997).

Research carried out by Welikala and Sohal (2008) found that whereas employee involvement was a major focus of the company when TQM was first implemented, however the lack of ongoing employee involvement at the lower levels was identified as a major reason for the non sustainability of TQM in an organisation. Holistic concepts rather than single aspects, such as process design, are needed to realise a sustainable success with regard to organisational excellence and TQM, among others demands for the development of organisational culture are crucial (Zink, 2008).

#### **4.12 Leadership as a Shaper of Organisational Culture**

Organisational leaders play an important role in the nurturing disseminating and shaping of organisational culture. Indeed the manipulation of culture has been described by some authors as being the unique and essential function of leadership (Smircich and Morgan, 1982.). Schein (1985) outlines the process through which leaders influence culture in growing organisations. He states that the leadership externalises its own assumptions and embeds them gradually and consistently in the mission, goals, structure, and working procedures of the group. Once the organisation develops a substantial shared history amongst its members, culture now defines what is to be thought of as 'leadership. Schein (1985:322) argues that *the leader must therefore be a skilled change manager who first learns what the present state of the culture is, unfreezes it, refines and changes it, and then refreezes the new assumptions.*

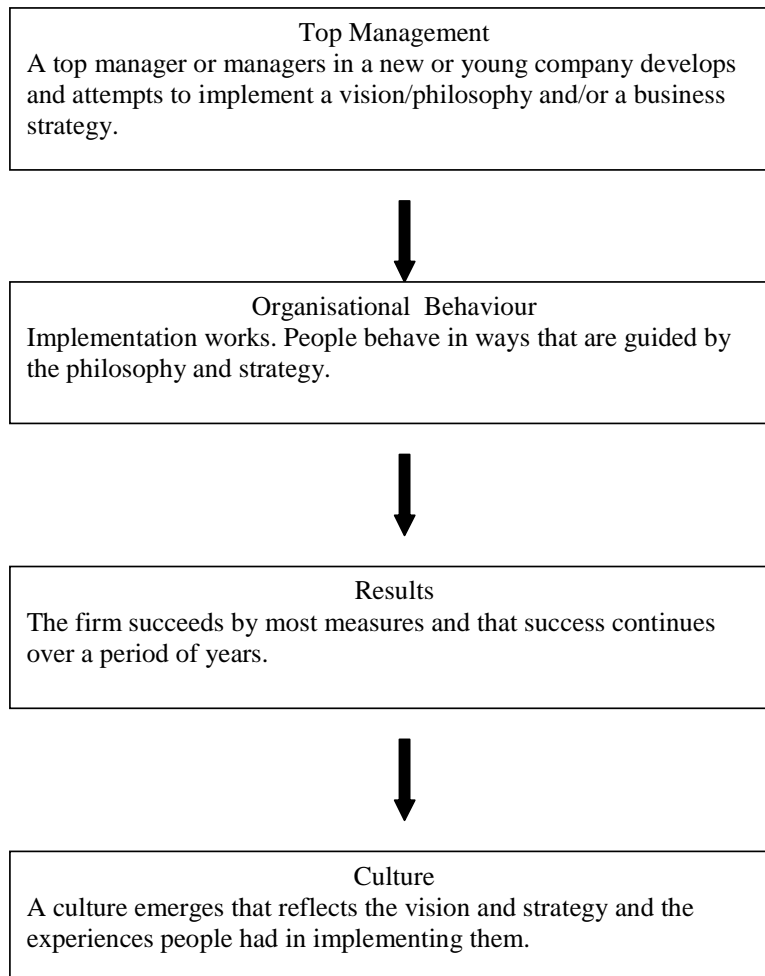
According to Bate (1994:245) there are five dimensions of cultural leadership:

- 1) The Aesthetic Leaders who focus on ideas
- 2) The Political Leaders who focus on meanings
- 3) The Ethical Leaders who focus on standards
- 4) The Action Leaders who focus on practices
- 5) The Formative Leaders who focus on structures

The benefit of such an approach is that an organisation can measure the extent of each of the five dimensions which operate within their organisation, decide on the extent the different dimensions it requires and take appropriate action required to achieve the objective. Where there is conflict between the different types of leaders it is important that these issues are resolved if the change programme is to be successful.

Martin (2002) outlines the contribution of top management in the emergence of corporate cultures as follows.

Figure 4.6 The emergence of corporate cultures (Martin, 2002: 8)



However it is important to realize that culture management is an ongoing process and that organizations measure the culture which emerges, as outlined above, and they need to take action to maintain and develop the aspects of culture which are beneficial and address those aspects which are not beneficial.

#### **4.13 Role of Managers in Culture Change**

Managers have a key role to play in the changing of organisational culture either in a positive or negative sense. Allen and Kraft (1987) stated that the very definition of

successful leadership is the ability to bring about sustained culture change. Peters (1978) has argued that the manager can manipulate through symbols while Beyer and Trice (1988) have outlined the potential power of managing through rites. According to Peters (1978), symbols are the means by which managers achieve their goals. He identifies a number of different means by which executives may impose on the culture of their organisation. Among the most interesting of these are how top executives spend their time, their use of language, their use of meetings agendas and minutes. The key to effective management is for managers to internalise and practice a system of cultural values that carry authority and have the power to influence others (Cartwright, 1999).

According to Tichy (1983) one of the most important and difficult tasks of top management is to decide the content of the organisation's culture, that is to determine what values should be shared, what objectives are worth striving for, what beliefs the employees should be committed to, and what interpretation of past events and current pronouncements would be most beneficial for the organisation.

Bate (1994) has identified four basic strategies for changing organisational culture. These are as follows:

- 1) Conforming strategies – designed to adapt, improve and perpetuate existing social constructions.
- 2) Deforming strategies – designed to pervert or subvert existing social constructions.
- 3) Reforming strategies – designed to abandon or remove existing social constructions.
- 4) Transforming strategies – which imply a “frame breaking” transition from one set of constructs to another.

Silverweig and Allen (1976) suggest the following Normative Systems Model for Organisational Culture Change:

Step 1: Analysing the Existing Culture – establishing a norm gap. During this phase the existing culture must be analysed and the desired culture agreed on and expressed in the form of a set of specific objectives that can be measured on a regular basis.

Step 2: Experiencing the desired culture – systems, introduction and involvement. The second phase of the model suggests that all members of an organisation should be provided with opportunities to participate in discussions that determine the preferred organisational culture.

Step 3: Modifying the existing culture – systems installation.

Step 4: Sustaining the desired culture – ongoing evaluation and renewal.

However whereas the Silverweig and Allen (1976) Model and indeed other change models outline what needs to be done, many organisations fail because they do not sufficiently analyze how the change programme should be implemented or they select the incorrect strategy for their organisation. In this regard the approach of Bate (1994) is of benefit and could be used to implement, one of the change models. Bate (1994) outlines four generic strategies for implementing cultural change which are as follows: 1) an aggressive strategy which is a deliberate attack on the culture of an organisation and is extremely forceful and overtly insensitive, 2) a consultative strategy where the emphasis is on reason rather than emotion and a new culture is grafted onto the other without confrontation, 3) a corrosive strategy which is essentially a political strategy in which individuals attempt to shape change by exercising influence through networks and 4) an indoctrinate strategy which emphasises the possibility of inducing culture change through various learning or training programmes. Mostly accomplished through a professionally planned and managed process, this strategy assumes a quite high degree of involvement and willing participation on the part of those whose cultures is to be altered.

In planning cultural change, organisations need to consider not only how to change the culture of the organisation but also how to link the proposed changes with organisational goals and effectiveness. Research carried out by Williams, Dobson and Walters (1993) showed that the change which occurred in the organisations surveyed were ultimately driven by business demands not by the need to change culture. Williams et al (1993) proposed that in order to change the culture of an organisation there is a need to change the common beliefs, attitudes and values that exist within the organisation and the organisations surveyed attempted to do this in six main ways; by changing the people in the organisation, by changing the peoples' positions in the organisation, by changing beliefs, attitudes and values directly, by changing behaviour, by changing the systems and structures, and by changing the corporate image.

Culture change is difficult to realise because most employees in an organisation have a high emotional stake in the current culture. It is clear that organisational cultures are neither static nor permanent. Subtle attempts to modify a culture rather than direct and overt attacks on it may have more chance of success. It is apparent that if culture change has to be introduced then it can be most effectively accomplished by means which rely

on intrinsic motivation (i.e. the internalised commitment of employees) rather than by means which involve extrinsic motivation (i.e. rules, regulations and the threat of sanctions). According to Williams, Dobson and Walters (1993) most commentators suggest that it takes years rather than months to change a culture.

An analysis carried out by Brown (1998) on the cultural change models of Lundberg (1985), Dyer (1985), Schein (1985), Gagliardi (1986), Lewin (1952), Schein (1964), Beyer and Trice (1988) and Isabella (1990) concludes that they all either explicitly or implicitly, make reference to the notion of a crisis, emphasise the importance of leadership, comment on the role of perceived success and present change as a form of organisational learning.

Bate (1994) divides cultural change strategies into development strategies and transformational strategies as follows:

Table 4.6 Characteristics of the requisite strategy (Bate, 1994:156)

<b>Development Strategies</b>	<b>Transformational Strategies</b>
Frame-making	Frame Breaking
Change 'in' (form is fixed)	Change 'of' (form changes)
First order, stability-orientated	Second order, change orientated
Continuous, incremental	Discontinuous, step change
Quantitative change/more of the same	Qualitative change/something different
Intracultural variation	Intercultural variation
Opportunity- centred	Problem- centred
Intention to take the organisation further along the same track	Intention to take the organisation off on a new track

The development strategies focus on building on the strengths of the current organisation with a minimal amount of change and as the above table states the intention is to move further along the same track. Whereas the Transformational Strategies focus on major changes to the organisation i.e. transforming it into a very different organisation and as the above table states the intention is to take the organisation off on a new track.

A successful TQM organisation is one where innovation is highly valued and status is secondary to performance and contribution (Morgan and Murgatroyd, 1994).

Adebanjo (1997) identified factors, which may influence culture change from behavioural sciences, organisational theory and total quality literature. These factors were classified into five groups of “change agents” – motivation, reward organisational policy and values, environment and organisational structure.

Culture change is very difficult, takes several years to complete, often fails and resistance and reward systems are major impediments to change (Dean and Evans, 1994; Crosby, 1984). Muthler and Lytle (1992) stated that individuals and organisations alike are resistant to change while Lascelles and Dale (1992) attributed the difficulty to the fact that organisations, by their nature are not meant to change. Crosby (1984) further stated that changing a culture is not about teaching people new techniques or replacing their behaviour patterns. It is about changing values and providing role models and this is done by changing attitudes. Whereas there is a view in the literature that prior change increases the probability of further change in that repetitive momentum governs change processes, however research carried out by Beck, Bruderl and Woywode (2008) concludes the opposite i.e. that deceleration, not repetitive momentum, governs change processes.

A substantial number of change agents are not usually associated with quality but more with organisational theory and work psychology. The identification and use of change agents is the vital missing link that has stopped many total quality implementing organisations from developing the kind of quality culture they truly desire (Adabanjo, 1997).

For culture change programmes to be successful there needs to be the acceptance from managers that they are change agents i.e. making the change happen rather than just being affected by the change, and managers need to be involved in the development of the change strategy and also being a key part of the communication process both downward, upward and horizontally so as to remove silos which are detrimental to any change process.

In reviewing a number of recent papers in the area of organisational change, Schwartz and Huber (2008) state that Marshak and Grant (2008) disagree with the view that OD work has not paid enough attention to newer approaches and emerging approaches and they argue that a new OD has arisen, one that draws heavily from postmodern thought and is based on epistemological and ontological assumptions that are different from

those presumably underlying the OD envisaged by the founders of the field. Schwartz and Huber (2008) also state that Palmer and Dunford (2008) intentionally violates the widely accepted boundaries of change research and denies the attractiveness of change theories that rely on these boundaries. They do this by articulating different images of managing change and illustrating how these interpretations can reshape theory building about organisational change. In reviewing the same two articles Woodman (2008) concludes that the field of organisational change could benefit from recognising the value of the old and the new approaches and recognising how to leverage both.

#### **4.14 Relationship between Organisational Culture and Organisational Performance**

There is abundant evidence that corporate culture makes a difference to corporate performance. According to Hansen and Wernerfelt (1989) cited in Van den Berg and Wilderom (2004), organisational factors explain about twice as much variance in profit rates as economic factors. Schein (1999) suggests that culture is the intangible asset of an organisation which could be used to predict what will happen to its tangible assets in the future. The hypothesis that the contribution of culture to superior performance in an organisation is more a consequence of what makes it culturally rare or deviant should be taken more seriously by researchers (Barney, 1986).

Organisational performance is more likely related to cultural phenomena, organisational processes and human personality unique to each organisation rather than to common cultural traits across many organisations. A weakness of many trait-strength studies is that they are based on overly simplistic concepts of the relationship between culture and performance. The following two important issues are often over looked:

- 1) The relationship between culture and performance is not necessarily monotonic. As cultural values are more fully elaborated, a greater range of organisational behaviours are brought under cultural control. However, if cultural controls multiply too greatly, resistance is likely to develop causing performance to decrease.
- 2) It is also possible that a particular cultural trait or feature may not affect all performance-related organisational processes in the same direction. For example, development of shared meanings may have a positive impact on organisational control processes by fundamentally shaping members' perceptions of the work and its value. The same shared meanings may simultaneously reduce the organisation's capacity to learn and adapt (Saffold, 1988; Barney, 1986).



It is cultural values as well as their opposing disvalues, that are the determinants of behaviour and business performance in the organisation. An organisation delivers business results through the internalisation of its values by employees (Cartwright, 1999). Shrivastava (1985) pointed out that culture shapes organisational strategy but also it may prematurely restrict decision alternatives producing severe negative effects on performance.

Cartwright (1999) suggests that a culture adds value to an organisation by adding value to its people, products and processes in three ways: 1) increasing intrinsic worth through extrinsic values, 2) increasing the morale and motivation of employees, and 3) creating a synergy of organisational value and workforce motivation to increase the value of the organisation to customers and suppliers

Bright (1994) linked the values and behavioural norms associated with the espoused philosophy of Total Quality with higher levels of customer satisfaction and a perception of higher quality. Some researchers are beginning to develop more sophisticated frameworks. Weick (1985) speculated that the contribution of culture to performance is conditioned by the nature of the industry, organisation size and the effect of the environment. Kilman, Saxton and Serpa (1986) pointed out the need for researchers to take into account the direction, pervasiveness and strength of culture when predicting its impact on outcomes.

Schneider and Bowen (1993) found that positive experiences of customers are associated with quality work environments for employees and employee's well-being. They stated that sound human resource practices in organisations for example, goal-setting, good communications are crucial to the delivery of superior customer service. The quality culture part of annual employee surveys measures the extent to which employees perceive that quality improvement principles and practices are implemented in the organisation for which they work (Johnson and McIntyre, 1998).

Research carried out by Wang et al (2008) found that human capital was the most basic and important factor in organisational performance and proposed that organisations should cultivate high quality human capital rather than treating employees as costs

#### **4.15 Organisational Culture, Strategy and Performance**

In recent decades the concepts of strategy and strategic management have received increasing attention from scholars and practitioners. The supposed importance of strategy has been increased because of the suggestion that it is related to both the culture and success of organisations (Kotter and Heskett, 1992). According to Brown (1998) there are difference views on what strategy is, which are as follows:

- Strategy is a plan.
- Strategy is a system of management.
- Strategy is a craft process.

An organisation's culture may well exert an influence over the strategies it pursues. If the culture is not fully synchronized and consistent with the favoured strategy, then cultural resistance to change has to be eliminated (Green, 1988; Beach, 1993).

If we could only understand how to evaluate culture we would then be in a position to manage organisations through periods of strategic change. Culture then is both the means to effective organisation performance through the medium of strategy and a potential barrier inhibiting required strategic realignment which can adversely affect strategic implementation (Larsch, 1986).

Some options available to the strategist are as follows:

- Ignoring the culture
- Managing around the culture by changing the implementation plans.
- Modifying the culture to fit the strategy
- Adapting the strategy to fit the culture.

Miles and Snow (1978) suggested that the strategy of an organisation tended to reflect the dominant managerial ideology or strategy. They identified three basic types of organisations distinguished according to prevailing culture and strategic patterns, 1) defenders, 2) prospectors, and 3) analysers. The Miles and Snow typology is summarised as follows:

Table 4.7 Organisational Culture and Strategy: The Miles and Snow Typology Culture  
/Strategic Type (Miles and Snow, 1978)

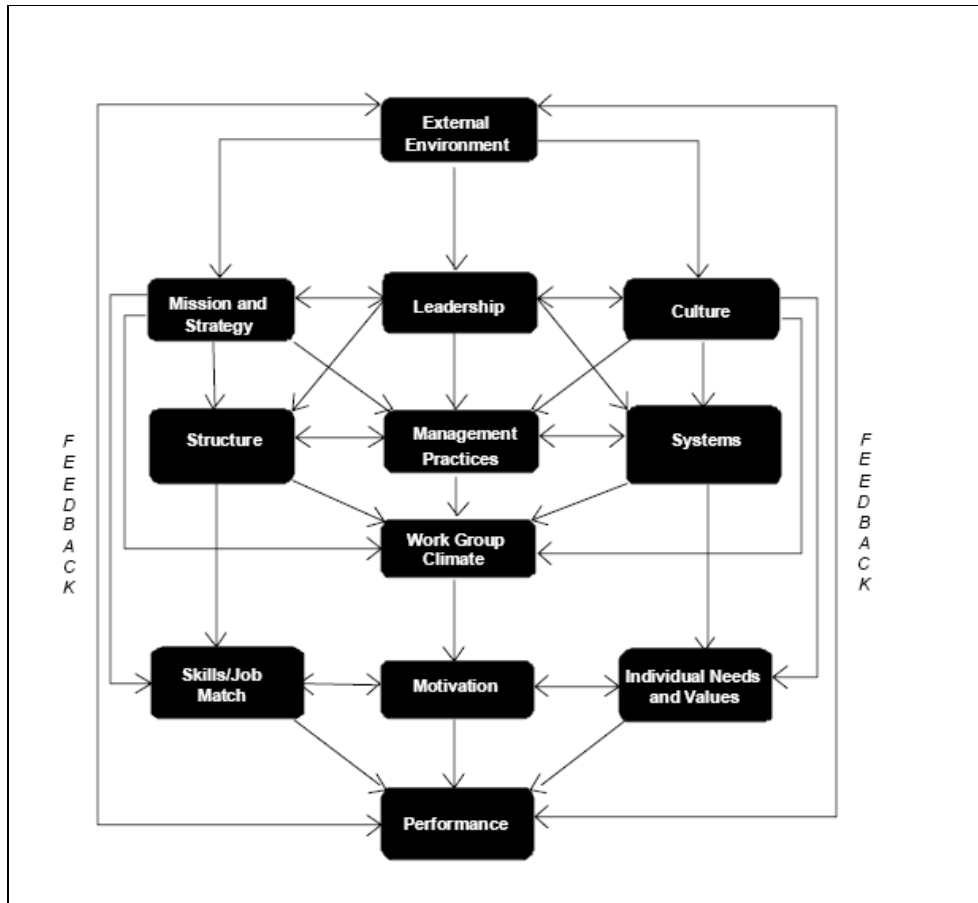
	<b>Defender</b>	<b>Prospector</b>	<b>Analyser</b>
Environment Changing	Stable	Dynamic growing	Moderately
Strategy	Specialisation growth cost efficiency	Growth	Steady
Objectives	Secure the market	Seek new opportunities	Expand and Protect
Systems	Centralised, emphasises efficiency	Decentralised flexible, ad hoc	Mixed, co-ordinates loose-tight

The managerial culture of an organisation is likely *to be the product of past strategy, a moderator of current strategy and a determinant of future strategy*, Williams, Dobson and Walters (1993:34-5). Organisational culture matters because cultural elements determine strategy, goals and modes of operating.

A well known model of organisational performance and change is the Burke-Litwin Model (Burke and Litwin, 1992) which is comprised of 12 dimensions. Each of the dimensions interact and a change in one can eventually impact on the others. Therefore not only is the model useful in outlining how organisations perform, but also how they can be changed. Both Organisational Culture and Organisational Climate are included in the 12 dimensions, Organisational Culture addressing what are the overt and covert rules, values, customs and principles that guide organisational behaviour and Organisational Climate (titled Work Unit Climate) addressing what are the collective impressions, expectations and feelings of staff and what is the nature of relationships with work unit colleagues and those in other work units.

The Burke-Litwin Model is outlined in Figure 4.7 which also shows the interactions between the various dimensions.

Figure 4.7 A Model of Organisational Performance and Change (Burke-Litwin, 1992: 528)



#### **4.16 Conclusions**

This chapter considers developments in the area of organisational culture both in an overall sense and specifically as it relates to total quality management.

The literature in this area has developed mainly since the early 1980's and is quite substantial and very diverse. In the literature there are very different views as to what organisational culture is, and what are the components of organisational. It is concluded that there is no accepted single definition of organisational culture.

In the literature, organisational culture is divided into a number of different classifications as described by different authors. Whereas there is a degree of consensus regarding the different classifications there are other views including that of Pacanowsky and O'Donnell-Trujillo (1982) who suggests that an organisation does not have a culture but that an organisation is fact a culture. A number of authors outline the fact that different cultures exist in different industrial sectors. The concept of organisational culture has become more relevant and important in recent years and is now regarded as a framework for organisational change. The literature also describes the different levels of organisational culture as outlined by Schein (1992) and the manifestations of organisational culture as outlined by Hofstede (1990) and it is concluded that organisational culture is easier to observe at the level of behaviour and artefacts and more difficult to observe at the level of values and basic underlying assumptions. The literature compares the concepts of organisational culture and organisational climate and it is concluded that they are very different concepts in their content, in their formation and in the research perspectives for each concept.

In conclusion, this review of the literature reveals that culture can be measured but there is not an universally accepted method for measuring it.

Most early studies of organisational culture have focused exclusively on qualitative methods but these do not lend themselves to systematic comparisons, either to other organisations or to comparing the same organisation before and after a planned intervention. The lack of comparison groups is a serious flaw in many studies and it is necessary that comparison groups are representative of highly effective organisations rather than less effective organisations. This chapter reviews a number of widely used quantitative methods of measuring organisational culture. These included the Organisational Culture Inventory (OCI) (Cooke and Szumal, 2000) which measures twelve sets of behavioural norms

associated with three general types of organisational culture; constructive, passive/defensive and aggressive/defence, the Organisational Culture Profile (OCP) (Ashkanasy et al., 2000) which measures ten dimensions which relate to organisational practice and behaviour, the Van den Berg et al. (2004) Model which measures 5 dimensions which also relate to organisational practice and behaviour and the Cartwright (1993) Model which measures 9 dimensions which cover the key intrinsic motivational processes which underline TQM. Whereas each of the methods reviewed were widely used and had advantages it was decided to adopt the Cartwright (1993) Model which focused on intrinsic motivation and comprises 9 dimensions whereby culture can be measured based on the views of employees. As the literature also states that it is beneficial to use multiple methods to measure organizational culture it was decided to use a second approach, i.e. the FAS Excellence Through People Model, to complement the Cartwright (1993) 9 dimension approach.

There are different views as to whether organisation can be managed. Those who advocate cultural change tend to focus on the surface levels of organisational culture and those who say that it is extremely difficult to change tend to focus on the deep levels of organisational culture i.e. shared values and underlying assumptions.

The involvement of employees is needed for any successful change in organisational culture and is essential for any change at the deepest levels of culture. It is also concluded that organisational culture change can be most effectively accomplished by means which focus on intrinsic motivation.

Leaders and managers play a very important role in the management of culture and it is concluded that a participative management style is more likely to be successful in the management of culture. Organisational culture makes a difference to organisational performance and organisations should consider the impact of organisational culture when predicting organisational performance. It is also concluded that organisational culture does not exist in isolation and that changes in organisational culture can affect other organisational dimensions and similarly changes in other organisational dimensions can affect organisational culture. Most of the literature focuses on organisational culture in the private sector and the amount of literature on the public sector is a more recent phenomenon and is relatively small. Even smaller is the amount of literature comparing organisational culture in the public and private sectors.



## **5.1 Introduction**

The normal process under a positivist paradigm is to study the literature to establish an appropriate theory and construct a hypothesis (Hussey and Hussey, 1997). In constructing the hypotheses the following aspects from the literature reviewed were considered. Different cultures exist in different industrial sectors. It was decided to compare the culture in the public sector with a number of effective private sector organisations to determine if they were different and if so in what particular aspects.

As organisational culture is now regarded as a framework for organisational change it was decided to investigate how this operates in practice. There are conflicting views as to whether organisational culture can be measured, it was therefore decided to construct hypotheses which focus on the measurement of organisational culture. There are also conflicting views as to whether organisational culture can be changed or managed and it was decided to study whether organisational culture can be changed or managed.

Research indicates that most of the areas of resistance to the implementation of TQM relate to human resource issues and that TQM cannot be successfully implemented until these issues are addressed. It was decided to study these issues and see how they can be addressed.

In the literature, the human factor is a key area in public sector reform which requires a culture change and time to implement. It was therefore decided to study culture in the public sector and how it can be changed.

There are dangers in adopting models from the private sector and implementing them in the public sector and it was decided to pilot an approach and to measure organisational culture both before and after its implementation to determine its impact.

As organisational culture can be divided into a number of component dimensions it was decided to measure each of the individual dimensions both before and after the intervention which would provide a more focussed approach to measuring and managing organisational culture.



As organisational culture change can be most effectively accomplished by means which focus on intrinsic motivation it was decided it was decided to develop hypotheses to address this area.

The research question is concerned with whether the organisational culture in the public sector is a barrier to the implementation of Total Quality Management. This involves the measurement of organisational culture in a number of public sector organisations and comparing this to the organisational culture in a number of private sector organisations.

## **5.2 Description of selected hypotheses**

A total of six hypotheses were considered as part of this process that were as follows;

Hypothesis 1.

The implementation of the Excellence Through People Framework, which is comprised of the human aspects of Total Quality Management, has a significantly positive effect on the culture of organisations in the public and private sectors.

Hypothesis 2.

Implementation of Total Quality Management is easier in the private sector than the public sector because the culture is more positive..

Hypothesis 3.

Sector is the key driver in Fairness Culture at time 1 and time 2.

This is a sub hypothesis of hypothesis 2.

Hypothesis 4.

Sector is the key driver in Commitment Culture at time 1 and time 2.

This is a sub hypothesis of hypothesis 2.

Hypothesis 5.

Sector is the key driver in Development Culture at time 1 and time 2.

This is a sub hypothesis of hypothesis 2.

Hypothesis 6.

Sector is the key driver in Empowerment Culture at time 1 and time 2.

This is a sub hypothesis of hypothesis 2.

## **6.1 Introduction**

This chapter describes the area of research methodology and the methodology that was chosen to investigate the selected hypotheses. The first section describes the principles of research and identifies the dimensions that influenced the choice of research design. The second section outlines how the research methodology was selected. The third section describes the design of the research. This includes the sample chosen, the questionnaire employed, the reliability and validity of the research and the process for the organisational assessments. The statistical analysis employed to test the research hypotheses is also described.

## **6.2 Principles of research**

The purpose of science concerns the expansion of knowledge and the discovery of truth and theory building is the means by which basic researchers hope to achieve this purpose (Zikmund, 2003). In considering what theory is, it is useful to describe what theory is not. According to Sutton and Staw (1995) references are not theory, data are not theory, lists of variables or constructs are not theory, diagrams are not theory, hypotheses (or predictions) are not theory. A theory is a set of interrelated constructs (variables), definitions and propositions that presents a systematic view of phenomena by specifying relationships among variables with the purpose of explaining natural phenomena (Kerringer, 1973). Theory is *a coherent set of general propositions used as principles of explanation of the observed phenomena* (Zikmund, 2003:41).

To be a theory a statement needs to take the form of a universal statement, provide an explanation and be testable (Denscombe, 2002). There are two purposes of theory, prediction and understanding. The former allow us to predict behaviours or outcomes, the latter enables us to explain why behaviours or outcomes occur. In most situations, predictions and outcomes go hand in hand. Zikmund (2003) compares theories to nets which are used to catch what we call the “world”, to rationalize it, to explain it and to master it.

A theory is a network of hypotheses advanced as to conceptualise and explain a particular social or natural phenomenon. A hypothesis is a tentative proposal that explains and predicts the variation in a particular phenomenon (Gill and Johnson, 1991).

Sutton and Staw (1995) go further and suggest that theory is about the connections among phenomena, a story about why acts, events, structure and thoughts occur. Theory emphasizes the nature of causal relationships, identifying what comes first as well as the timing of such events. Strong theory delves into underlying processes so as to understand the systematic reasons for a particular occurrence or non-occurrence and is usually laced with a set of convincing and logically interconnected arguments. In good theory, concepts are clear and well defined, the relationships between concepts are specified and explained, the theory is capable of being tested and the theory is a good representation of the world we observe. Good theories facilitate an understanding of the conditions under which the major proposition is most or least likely to hold true.

Research is typically engaged in order to find things out in a systematic way thereby increasing knowledge. Research operates at two levels, the abstract level of concepts and propositions and the empirical level of variables and hypotheses (Zikmund, 2003). Over the past one hundred years, knowledge has come to be defined largely as the product of organized and often large-scale research often disseminated to schools and universities through textbooks and stored in libraries (Barrett, 1997; Janowinz, 1995). According to Hurst (1974) cited in Barrett (1997:17) knowledge only becomes “knowledge” when it is public, captured in the form of propositions or theories which depending on the knowledge field have their own tests of truth and which in turn can be publicly examined and evaluated, preferably in writing.

The elements of a research process can be described as follows:

Table 6.1 The Elements of a Research Process (Brannick, 1997:3)

Theoretical Perspective
Research Question
Research Category
Methodological Strategy
Data Collection Approach
Data Analysis
Writing a Research Report/Thesis

The benefit of such an approach is that the researcher follows a logical step by step process which is widely accepted. Failure to follow such a process made cast doubts on the research findings and conclusions.

Epistemology, the grounds for knowledge, and ontology, the nature of the world, can be assessed along a fairly arbitrary continuum moving from an objectivist, realist, to a subjectivist, relativist perspective (Coghlan and Brannick, 2005). Business and management research needs to engage with both the world of theory and the world of practice. Consequently the problems addressed should grow out of interaction between these two worlds rather than either on their own (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2000).

### 6.2.1 Types of Research

There are many different types of research which can be classified according to the purpose of the research, the process of the research, the logic of the research and the outcome of the research. Table 6.2 outlines the main types of research related to the above classifications.

Table 6.2 Types of research by classification (Hussey and Hussey, 1997: 2)

Types of Research	Basis of Classification
Exploratory, descriptive, analytical or predictive research	Purpose of the research
Quantitative or qualitative research	Process of the research
Deductive or inductive research	Logic of the research
Applied or basic research	Outcome of the research

A description of each of the types of research listed above is as follows:

#### Exploratory, descriptive, analytical or predictive research:

Exploratory research: This is carried out when there is very little information available about an issue or problem. Its purpose is to look for ideas, patterns or hypotheses rather than testing or confirming a hypothesis. Descriptive research: This describes phenomena as they exist and is used to identify and obtain information on a particular issue or problem. Analytical or explanatory research: This is an extension of descriptive research and goes on to analyze and explain why and how something is happening. Predictive research: This is a further extension of descriptive research which aims to predict certain phenomena on the basis of hypothesized general relationships.

## Quantitative and Qualitative Research

The approach to the research will be influenced by the paradigm within which the research question is being addressed (McGuckian, 2000). The term paradigm refers to the process of scientific practice based on people's philosophies and assumptions about the world and the nature of knowledge, in this case about how research should be conducted (Hussey and Hussey, 1997). Sarantakos (1993) describes a paradigm as a set of propositions which explain how the world is perceived. Kuhn (1970) describes a paradigm as a set of interrelated assumptions about the social world that provides a philosophical and conceptual framework for the organized study of the world. According to Creswell (1994) a paradigm influences the assumptions about any given subject and consequently the type of questions which will be asked about that subject, the preferred method of collecting data and the way in which that data will be interpreted.

A paradigm is the world view of a researcher and the literature contains a number of world views (Creswell, 1994). There are two principal perspectives underlying the difference between the paradigms- objectivity and subjectivity (Andersen 1995). The concept of objectivity is supported by the school which subscribes to positivism, which argues that empirically measurable and verifiable data, which tends to be quantifiable data, is necessary to understand events. The concept of subjectivity is supported by the school which subscribes to the interpretive paradigm who argue that qualitative data is more valuable to the researcher (Guba and Lincoln, 1994).

A paradigm encompasses three elements: epistemology, ontology and methodology. Epistemology asks how do we find the world? What is the relationship between the inquirer and the known? Ontology raises basic questions about the nature of reality. Methodology focuses on how we gain knowledge about the world (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994).

The research philosophy depends on the way one thinks about the development of knowledge. Two views in this regard dominate the literature, positivism and phenomenology (Saunders et al, 2000). Positivism is an approach to social research that seeks to apply the social science model of research to investigations of social phenomena and explanations of the social world (Denscombe, 2002). If an individual's research philosophy reflects the principles of positivism then they will probably adopt the philosophical stance of the natural scientist. They will prefer working with an

observable social reality and the end product of such research can be law-like generalizations similar to those produced by the physical and natural scientist (Remenyi et al. 1998).

Phenomenology or interpretivism has come to provide an umbrella term for a range of approaches that reject some of the basic premises of positivism. This includes that social reality is subjective, that humans react to the knowledge that they are being studied, and that it is not possible to gain objective knowledge about social phenomena (Denscombe, 2002). Researchers who are critical of positivism argue that rich insights into this complex world will be lost if such complexity is reduced entirely to a series of law-like generalizations. The terms most commonly used to differentiate these paradigms with regard to their associated methods and techniques are quantitative and qualitative respectively (Creswell, 1994), however the phrases quantitative and qualitative methods mean far more than specific data collecting techniques and are more appropriately conceptualised as paradigms.

The quantitative or positivist approach is objective in nature and concentrates on measuring phenomenon. This involves collecting and analyzing numerical data and applying statistical tests. The qualitative, phenomenological or interpretivist approach is more subjective in nature and involves examining and reflecting on perceptions in order to gain an understanding of social and human activities.

By quantitative methods, researchers mean the techniques of randomised experiments, quasi-experiments, paper and pencil “objective” tests, multivariate statistical analysis, sample surveys and the like. In contrast, qualitative methods include ethnography, case studies, in depth interviews and participant observation (Thomas, Cook and Reichardt, 1979). Quantitative research determines the quantity or extent of an outcome in numbers and hence provides an exact approach to measurement. Qualitative research is subjective in nature and leaves much of the measurement process to the discretion of the researcher. This approach does not use rigorous mathematical analysis (Zikmund, 2003).

Consistent with a positivist paradigm, research in human resource management in both the UK and Ireland has tended to rely quite extensively on the survey method and the questionnaire design (Conway, 2003:143).

Hussey and Hussey (1997) compares the features of the two main research paradigms as follows.

Table 6.3 Features of the two main research paradigms (Hussey and Hussey, 1997: 54)

Positivism paradigm	Phenomenological paradigm
Tends to produce quantitative data	Tends to produce qualitative data
Uses large samples	Uses small samples
Concerned with hypothesis testing	Concerned with generating theories
Data is highly specific and precise	Data is rich and subjective
The location is artificial	The location is natural
Reliability is high	Reliability is low
Validity is low	Validity is high
Generalises from sample to population	Generalises from one setting to another

Creswell's (1994) analysis of the two paradigms based on five assumptions shows fundamental differences between the two paradigms for each of the assumptions, see Table 6.4.



Table 6.4 Assumptions of the two main paradigms (Hussey and Hussey, 1997: 48 adapted from Creswell, 1994: 5).

Assumption	Question	Quantitative	Qualitative
Ontological	What is the nature of reality?	Reality is objective and singular, apart from the researcher	Reality is subjective and multiple as seen by participants in a study
Epistemological	What is the relationship of the researcher to that researched?	Researcher is independent from that being researched	Researcher interacts with that being researched
Axiological	What is the role of values?	Value-free and unbiased	Value-laden and biased
Rhetorical	What is the language of research	Formal, based on set definitions Impersonal voice Use of accepted quantitative words	Personal voice Use of accepted qualitative words
Methodological	What is the process of research?	Deductive process Cause and effect  Static design-categories isolated before study  Context-free Generalisations leading to prediction, explanation and understanding Accurate and reliable through validity and reliability	Inductive process Mutual simultaneous shaping of factors Emerging design-categories identified during research process Context-bound Patterns, theories developed for understanding  Accurate and reliable through verification

Most of the early studies on culture were qualitative studies which do not lend themselves to systematic comparisons. In recent studies, quantitative, qualitative or hybrid i.e. combined quantitative and qualitative approaches are normally used (Martin, 2002).

#### Potential benefits of using qualitative and quantitative methods together.

First, evaluation research usually has multiple purposes that must be carried out under the most demanding of conditions. This variety of needs often requires a variety of

methods. Second, when used together for the same purpose, the two method-types can build upon each other to offer insights that neither one alone could provide. And third, because all methods have biases, only by using multiple techniques can the researcher triangulate on the truth. Since quantitative and qualitative methods often have different biases, each can be used to check on and learn from the other (Reichardt and Cook, 1979).

#### Obstacles to using qualitative and quantitative methods together.

Though logically desirable, a number of practical obstacles can stand in the way of combining qualitative and quantitative methods. First, they can be very expensive. Second, using qualitative and quantitative methods together may take too much time. Third, researchers may not have sufficient training in both method-types to do so (Reichardt and Cook 1979). For these reasons, it is not envisaged that the joint use of qualitative and quantitative methods will become commonplace.

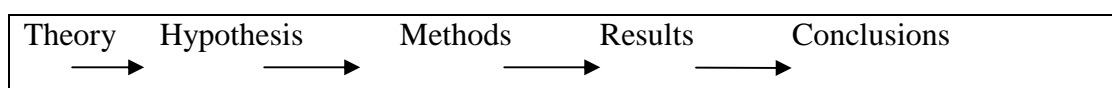
The qualitative paradigm approach to social life employs the mechanistic and static assumptions of the natural science positivist model. On the other hand, the qualitative paradigm has the decidedly humanistic approach to understanding social reality of the idealistic position which stresses an evolving, negotiated view of the social order. The qualitative paradigm perceives social life as the shared creativity of individuals (Filstead, 1979).

In the case of the current research it was decided to utilise both qualitative and quantitative approaches.

#### Deductive and inductive research

There are two approaches or logics to research, the deductive approach and the inductive approach. Deductive research is an approach in which a conceptual and theoretical structure is developed and then tested by empirical observation, thus particular instances are deducted from general inferences. The deductive method is referred to as moving from the general to the particular (Hussey and Hussey 1997).

The traditional scientific style is as follows:



Martin (2002:270)

Inductive research is an approach in which theory is developed from the observation of empirical reality, thus general inferences are induced from the particular instances, which is referred to as moving from the specific to the general. (Hussey and Hussey, 1997)

According to Martin (2002) many ethnographic studies begin with an emic focus on what is in the minds of the people being studied rather than an epic focus that begins with hypothesis derives from theories in a researchers' mind. Therefore for emic research, often grounded theory is preferred i.e. hypotheses that emerge from data rather than hypotheses that are derived from theory (Glaser and Strauss, 1967).

### Applied and basic research

A standard classification of research divides projects into either applied or basic research. Applied research has been designed to apply its findings to solving a specific, existing problem. Basic research, also called fundamental or pure research, has the aim of making a contribution to knowledge usually for the general good rather than to solve a specific problem.

### Research Strategies

The main research strategies include the following;

Experiment, Survey, Case study, Grounded theory, Action research, Cross section and longitudinal studies, Exploratory, descriptive and explanatory studies (Saunders et al, 2000).

This research combined the survey and case study strategies and was carried out as a longitudinal study with an interval of 15 months between stage one and stage two.

## **6.3 Selection of Research Methodology**

In deciding on the research methodology a number of areas were considered as follows.

### 6.3.1 Purpose of the research-exploratory, descriptive, analytical or predictive research

The purpose of the current research was both analytical and explanatory research; in that it set out to analyze and explain why and how something is happening and predictive research in that it aims to predict certain phenomena on the basis of hypothesized general relationships.

### 6.3.2 Process of the research-choice of paradigm, positivism or phenomenological

Whereas most early cultural studies adopted a phenomenological paradigm, however in this research programme quantitative data was required in order to compare the public sector and private sector both before and after an intervention. It was also necessary to test the selected hypotheses and to generalise from the sample to the overall population in the public sector. Therefore the process of this research was primarily positivist or quantitative in that questionnaires were used for the individual research, however in the case of the organisational research it was phenomenological or qualitative.

### 6.3.3 Logic of the research- deductive or inductive

The logic of the research was that a number of hypotheses were derived from the theory and then tested through a study of a number of organisations in the private and public sectors and conclusions were developed which could be applied in the overall population in the public sector. This is moving from the general to the particular and is deductive research.

### 6.3.4 Outcome of the research –applied or basic research

The outcome of this research was applied and action research in that a planned intervention i.e. the implementation of the Excellence Through People Framework was to be implemented in order to affect changes in the organisations involved in the research programme.

## **6.4 Design of Research**

Meek (1988) cited in Ashkanasy et al (2000) argues that organisational culture is an all encompassing concept that needs to be broken into manageable proportions for study. If one considers the 3 levels of culture as outlined by Schein (1992) i.e. level 1 Artefacts, level 2 Espoused Values and level 3 Basic Underlying Assumptions, each of these is amenable to a different research method and therefore the appropriate method depends on the cultural level to be measured (Rousseau 1990). As the elements of culture become more observable to participants in a study they are more accessible to standardised assessment and it is generally agreed that surveys represent an efficient and standardised means of assessing the shallower levels of Schein (1992) i.e. level 1 Artefacts, the deeper levels i.e. level 2 Espoused Values and level 3 Basic Underlying

Assumptions can only be investigated through more intensive observations and focused interviews (Rosseau, 1990; Schein, 1990).

Ashkanasy et al. (2000) outlines the alternative view that the usefulness of quantitative measurement may not be completely restricted to the shallower levels of organisational culture and Deal and Kennedy (1982) have argued that the three levels of culture are unified, especially when a culture is strong and that quantitative measurement of organisational culture may have the potential to tap deeper levels of culture.

A numbers of writers have recommended multiple methods in the study of organisational culture (Martin, 1992; Rousseau, 1990), this approach enables the researcher to benefit from the advantages of quantitative methods while also gaining a view of the organisation which is not achieved by quantitative methods.

This research was carried out in two stages (a) by individual employees completing a questionnaire designed to measure their perception of their organisational culture i.e. quantitative research in which there were 9 dependent variables i.e. the cultural dimensions which were Identification, Equity, Equality, Consensus, Instrumentality, Rationality, Development, Group Dynamics and Internalisation and 6 independent variables i.e. gender, age , length of service, education, work position and sector and (b) through an organisational analysis by an assessment on the organisation against the Excellence Through People (ETP) Standard i.e. qualitative research.

#### 6.4.1 Individual Employee Questionnaires

It is borne out by the literature that questionnaires can play an important role in the quantitative analysis of organisational culture (Rousseau 1990). They allow replication and cross sectional comparative studies, providing an accepted frame of reference for interpreting data, helping the evaluation and initiation of cultural change efforts in organisation and providing data that can be analysed by statistical techniques (Cooke and Rousseau, 1988; Xenikou and Furnham, 1996 cited in Ashkanasy et al, 2000).

The questionnaire method is one of the most widely used survey data collection techniques. It can be used for descriptive or explanatory research. Descriptive research i.e. attitude and opinion questionnaires and questionnaires of organisational practices enables the researcher to identify and describe the variability in different phenomena. Whereas, explanatory or analytical research enables the researcher to examine and

explain relationships between variables in particular cause and effect relationships. Some of the benefits of using questionnaires include, costs are relatively low, respondents have time to think about their answers, they promote anonymity and the potential for interviewer bias is minimised. Questionnaires are best linked with other research methods in a multi method approach (Conway, 2002).

In the current research employees were requested to complete an individual questionnaire. The purpose of this questionnaire is to obtain individuals' perception of the culture of the organisation and thereby describe the organisation in the view of the employees. As stated in chapter 4 the Cartwright (1993) model was identified as possessing specific advantages over the other measurement approaches which were reviewed. Therefore it was decided to adopt the Cartwright (1993) model for the purpose of the current research. The questionnaire developed was based on a questionnaire developed by Cartwright, Andrews and Webley (1999) following their research into the psychology of Total Quality Management in the early 1990's which revealed nine key motivating dimensions (Cartwright, 1993). The research study which included interviews with forty one managers across a range of UK industries clearly identified nine motivating dimensions which together constitute the motivational psychology of a Total Quality Culture. These nine dimensions were proposed by Webley and Cartwright (1996) as the core psychological processes which underlined TQM and were consistent with the views of consultants, practitioners and academics in the field of TQM. They are categorised under the following distinctive headings:

- 1) Identification—an organisation must project an ethical image that is underpinned by its stated values and is then reinforced by its policies and management practices.
- 2) Equity—is a balance between expectations and rewards, inputs and outputs, perception and reality.
- 3) Equality—is respect for the other person according to values and behaviours irrespective of status
- 4) Consensus—is the arrival at a mutual understanding that is much deeper and more inclusive than compromise.
- 5) Instrumentality—is the agency or means to achieve an objective.
- 6) Rationality—introduces the idea of a scientific approach to management and problem solving which is highly motivating.

- 7) Development—is the incorporation into the organisational culture of the essential elements of growth, learning, adaptability, flexibility and progressive change.
- 8) Group Dynamics—positive group motivations are created through individual loyalty to the group, consensus and mutual sharing of and commitment towards achieving group goals.
- 9) Internalisation—this determines attitudes, convictions and behaviours.

Each of the above 9 dimensions were chosen as dependent variables for the research. In addition 6 independent variables were chosen as follows, sector, age, education, work position, years of experience and gender.

The 9 dimensions are addressed using a questionnaire comprising 36 questions, 4 for each dimension, in which aspects of culture are considered on a point scale. It was decided to modify the scoring mechanism from the original questionnaire used by Cartwright, Andrews and Webley (1999) which used a scale from – 3 to + 3 and required respondents to mark a three point band for example – 2 to + 1, and to substitute a Likert type scale with the more typical 7 point scale. It was believed that respondents would have found it easier to mark one point rather than a three point band. The questionnaire is included in Appendix F.

A further section requested respondents to provide the following demographic information, i.e.; age, gender, position in organisation, length of service and education level. In order to triangulate the responses it was decided to add a number of additional, mainly open questions to the questionnaire to seek comments from individuals on a number of topics. This added an inductive element to the primarily deductive approach of the survey.

These questions were as follows:

- Where are most decisions affecting your work taken?
- To what extent is improvement part of you work
- Have much flexibility do you have in carrying out your work?
- What do employees like to see happening within the organisation?
- What is the biggest mistake an employee can make?
- Which work problems (if any) can keep you awake at night?
- What special terms or phrases are used here that only employees would understand?

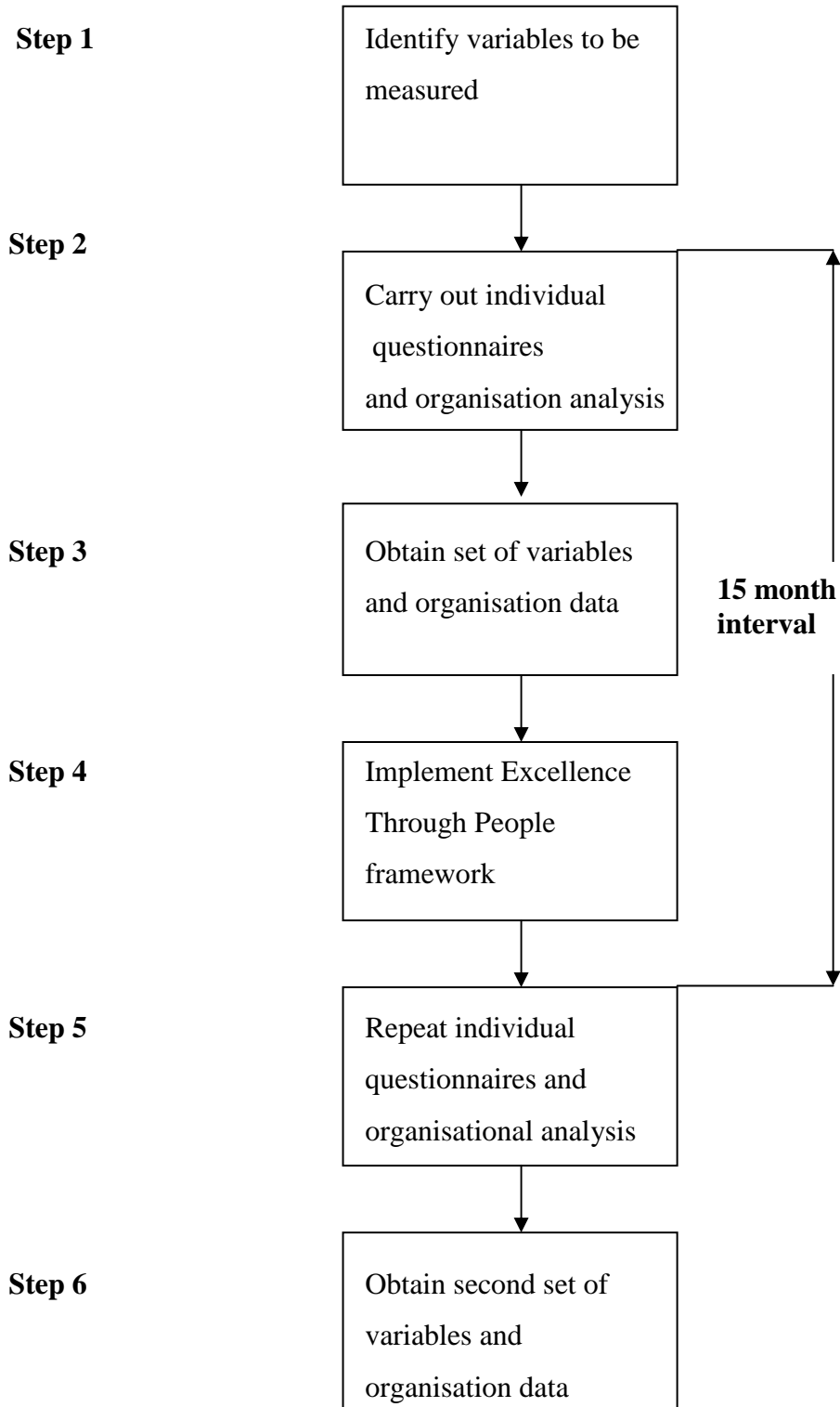
- What kind of people are likely to advance quickly in their career here?
- What occasions or events are celebrated in this organisation?
- What aspects of your work give you most satisfaction?



### 6.4.2 Procedure for carrying out the research

The research was carried out in the following 6 steps.

Figure 6.1 Research steps



#### 6.4.3 Reliability and validity

In order to reduce the possibility of getting inaccurate data attention must be paid to two particular aspects of research design, i.e. reliability and validity.

Reliability: Reliability is concerned with the findings of the research and is one aspect of the credibility of the findings; the other is validity (Hussey and Hussey, 1997). Reliability as it applies to tests has two distinct meanings. One refers to stability over time, the second to internal consistency (Kline, 2000). Reliability relates to the methods of data collection and the concern that they should be consistent and not distort the findings. Generally it entails an evaluation of the methods and techniques used to collect the data. It refers to the ability of a research process to provide results that do not vary from occasion to occasion and do not vary according to the particular people undertaking the research (Denscombe, 2002)

In order to check reliability Cronbach Alpha tests were carried out on the data for each of the 9 dimensions and the 4 Groupings at both time 1 and time 2 (Cronbach,1984). The results were as follows

Table 6.5 Results of Cronbach Alpha Tests

Dimension	Time 1	Time 2
Dimension 1	0.84	0.85
Dimension 2	0.84	0.86
Dimension 3	0.85	0.87
Dimension 4	0.89	0.90
Dimension 5	0.80	0.79
Dimension 6	0.82	0.86
Dimension 7	0.78	0.77
Dimension 8	0.84	0.86
Dimension 9	0.88	0.89
Personal Grouping	0.91	0.90
Organisational Grouping	0.91	0.91
Communication Grouping	0.94	0.95
Management Style Grouping	0.95	0.95

As all of the Cronbach Alpha scores exceed the acceptable level of 0.70 and indeed 90% of scores exceed 0.80, the data is considered to be reliable.

Validity: Validity is concerned with whether the findings represent what is really happening. (Saunders e al, 2000; Hussey and Hussey, 1997). A test is said to be valid if it measures what it claims to measure (Kline, 2000:17). In a very general sense, a measuring instrument is valid if it does what it is intended to do (Nunnally, 1985:87).

Validity concerns the accuracy of the questions asked, the data collected and the explanations offered. Generally it relates to the data and the analysis used in the research. It refers to the quality of data and explanations and the confidence we might have that they accord with what is true or what is real (Denscombe, 2002).

Gill and Johnson (1991) refer to internal and external validity and further divide validity into population validity and ecological validity. Internal validity is the extent to which the conclusions regarding cause and effect are warranted. Population validity is the extent to which conclusions might be generalised to other people. Ecological validity is the extent to which conclusions might be generalised to social contexts other than those in which data has been collected. As there was no validation available on the 9 dimensions of Cartwright (1993) it was decided to do a factor analysis as part of this

research. The extraction method used was a principal component analysis using a rotation method, varimax with Kaiser normalisation.

The results by question were as follows.

Table 6.6 Principal Components Analysis on Cartwright questionnaire

Question	Components				Principal Component
	1	2	3	4	
1(a)	<b>0.475</b>	0.336	0.163	0.162	1
1(b)	0.428	<b>0.682</b>	0.186	0.299	2
1(c)	<b>0.632</b>	0.408	0.398	0.102	1
1(d)	<b>0.598</b>	<b>0.546</b>	0.316	0.122	1 and 2
2(a)	<b>0.650</b>	0.230	0.281	0.327	1
2(b)	<b>0.663</b>	0.383	0.084	0.059	1
2(c)	<b>0.619</b>	0.301	<b>0.512</b>	0.157	1 and 3
2(d)	<b>0.661</b>	0.258	0.274	0.168	1
3(a)	<b>0.716</b>	0.291	0.248	0.119	1
3(b)	<b>0.573</b>	0.072	0.437	0.433	1
3(c)	<b>0.544</b>	0.308	0.403	0.287	1
3(d)	0.408	0.328	0.205	<b>0.580</b>	4
4(a)	<b>0.534</b>	0.301	0.416	0.323	1
4(b)	0.492	0.207	<b>0.562</b>	0.290	3
4(c)	<b>0.547</b>	0.148	<b>0.521</b>	0.288	1 and 3
4(d)	0.463	0.117	<b>0.604</b>	0.301	3
5(a)	0.373	0.384	0.180	0.484	none
5(b)	0.350	<b>0.604</b>	0.162	0.365	2
5(c)	0.297	<b>0.665</b>	0.306	0.222	2
5(d)	-0.30	0.206	0.307	<b>0.677</b>	4
6(a)	0.115	0.204	<b>0.711</b>	-0.036	3
6(b)	0.335	0.449	<b>0.607</b>	0.179	3
6(c)	0.304	0.076	<b>0.684</b>	0.453	3
6(d)	0.468	0.152	<b>0.626</b>	0.362	3
7(a)	0.345	0.265	<b>0.624</b>	0.289	3
7(b)	0.241	0.309	<b>0.627</b>	0.206	3
7(c)	0.170	0.176	0.006	<b>0.765</b>	4
7(d)	0.262	0.415	0.252	<b>0.523</b>	4
8(a)	0.277	<b>0.561</b>	0.390	0.325	2
8(b)	0.180	<b>0.524</b>	0.552	0.139	2
8(c)	0.346	0.237	0.394	<b>0.512</b>	4
8(d)	<b>0.507</b>	0.425	0.456	0.361	1
9(a)	0.181	<b>0.818</b>	0.102	0.218	2
9(b)	0.341	<b>0.734</b>	0.282	0.194	2
9(c)	0.261	<b>0.778</b>	0.236	0.252	2
9(d)	0.195	0.499	0.252	<b>0.598</b>	4

The following are the Cronbach Alpha test scores for the dependent variables for time 1 and time 2.

Table 6.7 Results of Cronbach Alpha Tests

	Time 1	Time 2
1 Fairness Culture	0.93	0.96
2 Commitment Culture	0.93	0.89
3 Development Culture	0.92	0.93
4 Empowerment Culture	0.74	0.79

As all of the Cronbach Alpha test scores exceed the acceptable level of 0.70 and 75% of the scores exceed 0.80, the data is considered to be reliable.

The results had significant implications in that rather than being nine factors as outlined by Cartwright (1993) there were in fact only four factors. In addition rather than utilizing 36 questions, as three of the questions related to two different factors they were eliminated as was the one question that did not relate to any factor. There were therefore 32 questions which related to the four factors as follows;

**Table 6.8 List of questions for Factor 1**

- 1 (a) The reality of your organisation compares accurately with its external image
- 1 (c) There is consistency between decisions, actions and promises of management
- 2 (a) Employees get fair treatment from the organisation and the management?
- 2 (b) Pay and benefits compare favourably with other organisations
- 2 (d) Employees get recognition and rewards for efforts made?
- 3 (a) "Them and us" attitudes do not exist between management and non-management?
- 3 (b) Consideration and respect are given to employees by managers?
- 3 (c) Employees regard the working atmosphere in the organisation as very good?
- 4 (a) Mutual trust exists between managers and employees?
- 8 (d) A caring and innovating style of management exists?

**Table 6.9 List of questions for Factor 2**

- 1 (b) Employees have a sense of pride in working for the organisation
- 5 (b) Employees get pride and satisfaction from their work?
- 5 (c) Employees' personal expectations are fulfilled from their work?
- 8 (a) A good team spirit exists within the department?
- 8 (b) Good working relationships exist between different parts of the organisation
- 9 (a) Employees are very loyal to the organisation?
- 9 (b) There is a sense of belonging and being part of the organisation?
- 9 (c) Employees consider their jobs to be worth-while?

**Table 6.10 List of questions for Factor 3**

- 4 (b) Managers are willing to listen and be questioned?
- 4 (d) Employees get feedback from requests and suggestions?
- 6 (a) Information is provided to employees regarding the organisation's future plans and policies?
- 6 (b) Employees believe that the organisation is addressing the real cause of problems?

- 6 (c) Managers deal with mistakes in a fair manner?
- 6 (d) A friendly open-style of management exists?
- 7 (a) A positive attitude exists towards the development of employees?
- 7 (b) Good education and training facilities are provided?

**Table 6.11 List of questions for Factor 4**

- 3 (d) Employees listen to and have respect for managers?
- 5 (d) Employees are encouraged to meet customer requirements?
- 7 (c) Employees are responsible for their own work quality and performance?
- 7 (d) Employees are encouraged to work on their own initiative?
- 8 (c) Meetings are effective and of value to the organisation?
- 9 (d) The organisation is dedicated to high quality standards?

Factor 1 includes three of the four questions from the Equity dimension of Cartwright (1993), three from Equality, two from Identification, one from Consensus, one from Group Dynamics, none from Instrumentality, Rationality, Development, or Internalisation. This factor will be called Fairness Culture.

Factor 2 includes three questions from Internalisation, two from Instrumentality, two from Group Dynamics, one from Identification, none from Equity, Equality, Consensus, Rationality or Development. This factor will be called Commitment Culture.

Factor 3 includes four questions from Rationality, two from Consensus, and two from Development, none from Equity, Identification, Equality, Instrumentality, Group Dynamics or Internalisation, This factor will be called Development Culture.

Factor 4 includes two questions from Development, one from Equality, one from Instrumentality, one from Group Dynamics, one from Internalisation and none from Identification, Equity, Consensus, or Rationality. This factor will be called Empowerment Culture.

Although no factor analysis was carried out by Cartwright (1993) as part of his research however a principal components analysis was in fact carried out on his data by one of his co authors Webley (1997) which found one dominant factor, which accounted for



45% of the variation in scores, and which was concerned with the overall evaluation of the organisation and a second main factor, accounting for 5% of the variation, which was concerned with the more personal items e.g. pride, satisfaction etc. In this research the dominant factor focuses mainly on fairness issues although there is also a focus on some organisational issues whereas according to Webley (1997) the dominant factor was concerned with the overall evaluation of the organisation. The second main factor identified by Webley (1997) is similar to the Commitment Culture factor identified in this research. As a result of the result of the principal component analysis the number of hypotheses was reduced from the original plan of eleven hypotheses to six hypotheses. Two of the original hypotheses, hypothesis 1 which is the implementation of the Excellence Through People Programme, which is comprised of the human aspects of Total Quality Management, has a significantly positive effect on the culture of organisations in the private and public sectors is retained as is hypothesis 2 which is that implementation of Total Quality Management is easier in the private sector than the public sector because the culture is more positive. These take an overview of the two sectors and were still valid after the principal component analysis. The remaining nine of the original hypotheses were based on the nine dimensions of Cartwright (1993) and were no longer valid after the principal component analysis was carried out and hence were replaced by the four factors which resulted from the analysis, i.e. Fairness Culture, Commitment Culture, Development Culture and Empowerment Culture. Therefore hypotheses 3,4,5 and 6 focus whether sector is the key driver in each of these factors at time 1 and time 2.

In this research because it was a longitudinal study a paired sample was used at both stage 1 and stage 2. A random sample methodology was considered for the questionnaire distribution at each stage but it was felt that any changes, whether they were positive or negative, could have been attributed to differences in the individuals in stage 1 or stage 2, rather than the anticipated change in organisation culture as a result of the implementation of the Excellence Through People framework. This caused some difficulties in the research as individual names were not written on the questionnaire however, a code was allocated to each individual who completed the survey so it was known who to survey at stage 2. This caused a small problem in the selection of organisations in that one potential participating organisation withdrew because it was against their policy of total anonymity in surveys and had to be replaced. There was also an issue at stage 2 when some individuals who had participated at stage 1 did not participate at stage 2. Some of these individuals had left the organisation; others did not

return the second survey form. With regard to the Excellence Through People assessments it was decided to use the same trained assessor for the same organisation at stage 1 and stage 2 to avoid any variation of scoring. This was achieved in 6 of the 7 organisations. It could not be arranged for the seventh organisation and another trained ETP assessor was substituted. The increase in score for this organisation was consistent with the other organisations in the same sector and does not appear to have been affected by the change in assessor.

#### 6.4.4 Statistical Analysis

All data from the questionnaires was coded into SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) and the general distributions were reviewed. A t-test was used to test significance in the data collected for both the public sector and private sectors organisations for each of the following independent variables; age, sector, gender, education level, work position and length of service. Further detailed reviews of distributions and particularly the cultural factors revealed no significant differences in the cultural factors by most independent variables. An exception to this was gender which indicated a significant difference. However when the gender area was investigated further through regression analysis it was found that gender was not the significant variable. By comparing males in the public sector with males in the private sector and by comparing females in the public sector with females in the private sector, sector rather than gender was the significant variable. A difference in the gender breakdown between the two sectors had indicated gender to be the significant difference whereas sector was the real difference.

For hypothesis 1 and 2, t-tests were carried out. Hypothesis 1 considers the difference between time 1 and 2 for both private and public sectors, hypothesis 2 considers the difference between private and public sector at time 1 under the four factors. For hypotheses 3 to 6, regression analyses were carried out in which each factor was the dependent variable and the independent variables were age, years of service, sector, gender, work position and educational level. For example for hypothesis 3, factor 1 Fairness Culture was the dependent variable

#### 6.4.5 Organisational Analysis

In order to complement the quantitative research which was based on the on the employee questionnaires the research also included qualitative research which was carried out on the organizations by a trained assessor using a nationally or internationally recognized framework. Three options were considered for the organisational analysis as follows; (a) European Foundation for Quality Management (EFQM) Business Excellence Model (b) the United Kingdom (UK) National Standard for Human Resource Development, Investors in People (IiP) and (c) the Irish National Standard for Human Resource Development, Excellence Through People (ETP).

(a) The EFQM Business Excellence Model is comprised of 9 sections as follows, Leadership, Policy and Strategy, People, Partnership and Resources, Processes, People Results, Customer Results, Society Results and Key Performance Results. Having considered this option it was decided that the scope of this model was too broad for the area of research being carried out which is focusing on cultural dimensions which in effect are the people aspects of organisations.

(b) and (c), the UK and Ireland are the only countries within the European Union, and to our knowledge worldwide, which have developed a National Standard for Human Resource Development, although the UK Standard Investors in People is currently being introduced into approximately 20 countries worldwide. Investors in People has 4 sections and 12 indicators. The 4 sections are as follows; Commitment, Preparation, Action and Evaluation. A copy of the Investors in People Standard is in Appendix D. Excellence Through People has 6 sections and 47 questions. The 6 sections are as follows, Organisation Plans and Objectives, Organisation Training Plans, Review of Training, Implementation of Training, Training Records and Employee Communication and Involvement. A copy of the Excellence Through People Standard is in Appendix B. Although the two standards have a slightly different approach they are very similar in content. It was decided to use the Excellence Through People Standard in this research for 2 main reasons;

It is the Irish Standard for Human Resource Development and it is more widely utilised in Ireland than the equivalent UK Standard Investors in People. It has a quantitative outcome in that each of the 47 questions has an allocated number of marks which build up to a score for each of the 6 sections and to an overall score. This means that a score

at time 2 could be compared to time 1 to see if any improvements had been achieved. The Investors in People Standard does not have a scoring mechanism and hence the comparison cannot be made.

The organisations were assessed against the criteria of the ETP Standard at both time 1 and time 2. Initially the organisation completed a self-assessment against the standard using the ETP Self Assessment Guidelines which was then given to an independent FÁS accredited ETP assessor who carried out an assessment within the organisation against the six areas of the standard which are as follows:

- 1) Organisational plans and objectives.
- 2) Organisational training plan.
- 3) Review of training.
- 4) Implementation of training.
- 5) Training and development records.
- 6) Employee communication and involvement.

The ETP assessment is carried out by a trained ETP assessor and commences with an opening meeting with the organisation's chief executive and senior management team to discuss the organisation's strategy and business operations and the involvement of people in the planning process. This is followed by discussions with human resource management regarding the organisation's policies and procedures regarding training and development, and communication and involvement. In order to assess compliance with the organisation's policies and procedures regarding planning and human resource development the assessor then carries out a series of interviews with employees at all levels within the organisation to ascertain their views and to identify both strengths and areas for improvement regarding the organisation's systems on planning, training and development, and communication and involvement. The number of employees selected for interview depends on the size of the organisation and ranges from 5% of large organisations to 40% of small organisations. The average number of employees interviewed across all sizes of organisations is approximately 20% of employees. The content of interviews covers the review of organisational and individual plans and objectives, organisational and individual training plans, training programmes, policies and procedures on training, development, internal communication and staff involvement, and the minutes of meetings.

The interview with the chief executive focuses on organisational strategies with regard to employees e.g. training, development, communication and involvement and how

these contribute to the success of the organisation. The way in these strategies are deployed throughout the organisation is reviewed through interviews with staff at all levels, discussing what training they have received, what meetings they attend, how aware they are of organisation plans, what communications they receive and what opportunities they have to make suggestions and recommendations and other methods of involvement within the organisation. In effect the assessor is discussing and evaluating the culture of the organisation. At the end of the assessment the assessor attends a closing meeting with the chief executive and the senior management team at which the assessor informs them of the main findings of the assessment regarding strengths and areas for improvement and gives the organisation an opportunity to respond. In this research the organisational assessments took either one or two days depending on the size of the organisation.

Based on the assessment, the organisations are marked against the criteria of the ETP Standard and a score is awarded against each of the 47 questions which builds up to a score for each of the six areas and overall. A feedback report was given to each of the organisations outlining strengths and areas of improvements in each of the six categories. This enabled each organisation to address the areas for improvement and build on the strengths before the second assessment was carried out fifteen months later. Since the research was carried out both the Excellence Through People and Investors in People Standards have been revised and the revised standards are included in Appendices C and E respectively.

The research was carried out in three public sector organisations and in four private sector organisations. The use of comparison groups enables researchers to control for and rule out the influence of extraneous variables (Gill and Johnson, 1991).

There are currently in excess of 300,000 people employed in the public sector in Ireland out of a total workforce of approximately 2 million people. The public sector covers a very wide range of activities including the civil service, health sector, local authorities, education sector, non commercial state agencies in areas like training, health and safety, enterprise development, environmental protection etc., and commercial state agencies in areas like power generation, airport management, transport etc. For this research 3

organisations were chosen to give a broad representation of the public sector, these represented the civil service, a local authority and a non commercial state agency.

None of these organisations had received Excellence Through People accreditation prior to the commencement of the study. All of the organisations had achieved Excellence Through People accreditation by the end of the study. The organisations, or sections of organisations selected ranged in size from 42 to 444 employees.

A description of the participating public sector organisations is as follows:-

1) Civil Service Department

The department was set up in 1922 and provides administration services. It employs 440 staff in four locations in Dublin and Galway. The main job functions are: civil service staff involved primarily in administrative activities.

2) Local Authority - division

The local authority was set up in 1898 and provides a range of services for the population. The chosen division is responsible for the purchase, lease hire and maintenance of the local authority's fleet of mechanical vehicles and the provision of heating and air-conditioning services to local authority housing schemes, offices etc.

The division employs 79 staff that is based in one location but carry out work throughout the local authority catchment area. The main job categories are: managers, engineers, craft-persons, administration and other grades.

3) Semi State Organisation – division This organisation was set up in 1988 as the result of the merging of three semi state organisations, the oldest of which was established in 1969. The division provides services to individuals, both employed and unemployed and to organisations throughout a region. This service is carried out at six locations and employs 42 staff. The main job categories are: services officers and administrative staff.

Four organisations were selected in order to give a broad spread of private sector organisations. Three organisations were in the manufacturing sector, one in engineering, one in healthcare and one in chemicals. One organisation was in the services sector, in the distribution of products. The organisations ranged in size from 20 to 300 employees. All of the organisations had received Excellence Through People accreditation prior to the commencement of the study.

A description of the participating private sector organisations is as follows:-

1) A chemical processing industry –

Is among the most modern of its kind in the world commenced production in 1983, and is part of a multinational. The company operates a continuous process for three hundred and sixty five days a year and employs approx. 300 people. The main employment categories are: Process operating, technical and administrative skills, engineers and managers

2) The marketing division of a pharmaceutical company –

This company commenced operations in 1961 and is involved in the marketing and sales of pharmaceutical products throughout Ireland. The organisation employs 20 people and is a subsidiary of a multinational organisation. The main job categories are: - marketing/sales personnel and administrative staff.

3) An engineering company –

The company was set up in 1976 and produces engineering products. It is a subsidiary of a multinational organisation and employs 180 people. The main job categories are:- engineering technicians and crafts-persons, administrative staff and managers.

4) A healthcare company-

This organisation was set up in 1995 and services health care devices. It is a subsidiary of a multinational organisation and employs 55 people. The main job categories are:- process operators, technicians, engineers, managers

## **7.1 Introduction**

The results chapter is divided into two sections, the initial and largest section relates to the data acquired through the employee questionnaires and the statistical analysis of the 6 hypotheses which are as follows:

### Hypothesis 1

The implementation of the Excellence Through People Framework, which is comprised of the human aspects of Total Quality Management, has a significantly positive affect on the culture of organisations in the private and public sectors.

### Hypothesis 2

Implementation of Total Quality Management is easier in the private sector than in the public sector because the culture is more positive.

### Hypothesis 3

Sector is the key driver in Fairness Culture at time 1 and time 2.

### Hypothesis 4

Sector is the key driver in Commitment Culture at time 1 and time 2.

### Hypothesis 5

Sector is the key driver in Development Culture at time 1 and time 2.

### Hypothesis 6

Sector is the key driver in Empowerment Culture at time 1 and time 2.

The first two hypotheses are considered through a Paired Sample t-test and the remaining four hypotheses i.e. 3 to 6 are considered through Regression Analysis.

The second section of the results chapter relates to the Organisational Analysis where the organisations are assessed against the criteria of the Excellence Through People Standard at time 1 and time 2 and the results of these assessments are compared.



## 7.2 Employee Questionnaires

The following shows the breakdown of respondents to the questionnaires, i.e. the population on which the data and analysis are based. This is broken down by gender, age, years of service, work position and education level.

With regard to gender the public sector sample was comprised of 52 males and 61, females totaling 113 people and the private sector sample was comprised of 58 males and 17 females, totaling 75 people.

The other breakdowns are as follows:

Table 7.1 Employee profile of Private and Public sector samples

Age (Years)	Under 25	26-35	36-45	46-55	56-65
Public sector	1	32	42	25	13
Private sector	25	20	20	10	0

<u>Years of service</u>	under 2	2-5	5-10	10-15	15-20	over 20 years
Public sector	7	5	16	12	22	51
Private sector	21	16	5	7	23	1

<u>Work position*</u>	M	P	S	T	C	A	Ss	Ad	CL	O	Ns
Public sector	20	4	5	4	25	11	26	8	1	8	1
Private sector	2	13	3	5	3	20	3	15	3	8	0

\*M (Manager), P (Professional), S (Supervisor), T (Technical), C (Craft), A (Apprentice), SS (Semi-Skilled), Ad (Administration), C (Clerical), O (Other), NS (Not stated).

<u>Education Level</u>	PG	D	DI	C	LC	JC	O	NR
Public Sector	8	7	15	15	47	5	13	3
Private sector	6	11	11	13	31	3	0	0

\* PG (Post graduate), D (Degree), DI (Diploma), C (Certificate), LC (Leaving Certificate), JC (Junior Certificate), O (Other), NR (No reply).

The following tables i.e. Table 7.2 and Table 7.3 show Mean, Standard Deviation and Correlation Co-efficients for each of the variables, both independent and dependent, at both time 1 and time 2.

Table 7.2. Mean, Standard Deviation and Correlation Table for variables at time 1

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1 Fairness	4.42	1.45								
2 Commitment	4.84	1.36	0.80**							
3 Development	5.04	1.32	0.85**	0.73**						
4 Empowerment	5.54	1.05	0.73**	0.74**	0.72**					
5 Sector	N/A	N/A	0.46**	0.44**	0.26**	0.27**				
6 Length of service	4.01	1.82	-0.25**	-0.20**	-0.21**	-0.32**	-0.46**			
7 Gender	N/A	N/A	-0.20**	-0.1	-0.08	-0.04	-0.31**	-0.05		
8 Educational level	N/A	N/A	-0.25**	-0.12	-0.21**	-0.05	-0.18*	0.1	0.04	
Significance			*p<.05	**p<.01						

Table 7.2 above indicates that there is a high level of intercorrelation between the four dependent variables at time 1 all of which are significant. With regard to the independent variables, sector is positively significantly correlated with each of the four dependent variables and indeed the other three independent variables, length of service is negatively significant correlated with each of the four dependent variables i.e. the longer the service the lower the scores on each of the culture factors and to sector. Gender is negatively significantly correlated with only one of the four dependent variables i.e. Fairness Culture and with sector and this was addressed in the regression analysis because there appeared to be a gender issue in that males were scoring higher than females however it was in fact a sector issue in that there were more females than males in the public sector sample, educational level is significant to all of the dependent variables and like length of service in a negative manner i.e. the scores decrease with lower levels of education in that the highest level of education score highest and also with sector.

Table 7.3. Mean, Standard Deviation and Correlation Table for variables at time 2

Variable	Standard		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	Mean	Deviation								
1 Fairness	4.80	1.41								
2 Commitment	5.60	1.01	0.80**							
3 Development	5.22	1.21	0.77**	0.71**						
4 Empowerment	5.81	1.17	0.63**	0.59**	0.61**					
5 Sector	N/A	N/A	0.18*	0.04	0.18*	0.22**				
6 Length of service	4.01	1.82	-0.08	-0.11	-0.09	-0.1	-0.46**			
7 Gender	N/A	N/A	-0.02	0.07	-0.01	-0.01	-0.31**	-0.05		
8 Educational Level	N/A	N/A	0.14	-0.12	-0.03	0.03	-0.18*	0.1	0.04	

Significance \*p<.05 \*\*p<.01

Table 7.3 above indicates that there is a high level of intercorrelation between the four dependent variables at time 2 all of which are significant. With regard to the independent variables, sector is positively significantly correlated with three of the dependent variables i.e. Fairness, Development and Empowerment Cultures. This is in contrast with time 1 where sector was positively significantly correlated with all four dependent variables, and to each of the independent variables similar to time1, Length of service is not significant correlated to any of the dependent variables which is in contrast to time 1 where it was negatively significantly correlated to all four independent variables but it is positively significant correlated with the other three independent variables. Gender is not significantly correlated with any of the dependent variables but is negatively significantly correlated with one of the independent variables i.e. sector, and educational level is not significant with any of the dependent variables but is negatively significantly correlated with one of the independent variables i.e. sector.

It was demonstrated that all Four Factors i.e. Fairness Culture, Commitment Culture, Development Culture and Empowerment Culture had Cronbach Alpha scores exceeding 0.75.

## Hypothesis 1

**The implementation of the Excellence Through People Framework, which is comprised of the human aspects of Total Quality Management, has a significantly positive effect on the culture of organisations in the private and public sectors.**

The hypothesis was tested by a Paired Sample t-test on the mean score of the private and public sectors at time 1 and time 2 for each of the 4 Culture Factors.

The following table is a Paired Sample t-test for the 4 Culture Factors at time 1 and time 2 for the public sector organisations.

Table 7.4 Paired Sample t-test of Four Culture Factors for public sector at time 1 and time 2

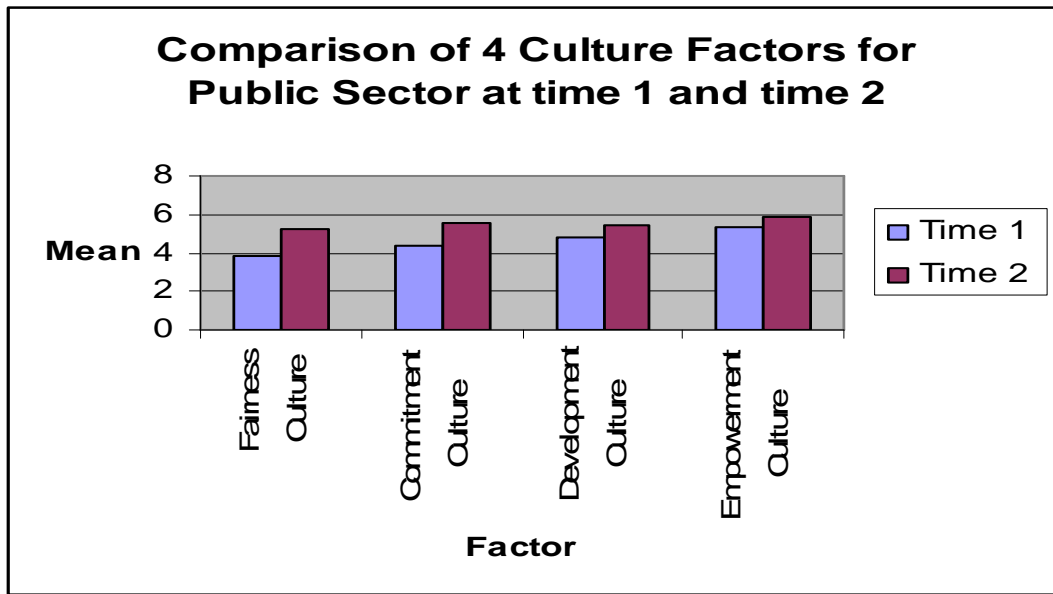
	Time 1	Time 2	
Factor	Mean	Mean	t-statistic
1 Fairness Culture	3.78	4.54	-5.33**
2 Commitment Culture	4.34	5.56	-8.86**
3 Development Culture	4.74	5.04	-2.09*
4 Empowerment Culture	5.34	5.59	-1.87

\*p<.05 \*\*p<.01

All of the four factors show an increase in score between time 1 and time 2 and hence a positive effect as a result of the implementation of the Excellence Through People framework. Three of the four factors show changes which are statistically significant therefore the hypothesis is accepted for public sector organisations. With regard to the factor which does not show a significant change i.e. Empowerment Culture, this was further investigated by carrying out an ANOVA Test on the scores of the individual organisations. This revealed that whereas two of the three organisations increased their score in Empowerment Culture between time 1 and time 2, the third organisation actually reduced its score (from 5.96 to 5.63 ) This result may account for the change in the overall score for the public sector organisations not being significant.

The following figure shows the comparison in a graphical format.

Figure 7.1 Comparison of Four Culture Factors for Public Sector at time 1 and time 2



The following table presents a Paired Sample t-test for the Four Culture Factors at time 1 and time 2 for the private sector organisations.

Table 7.5 Paired Sample t-test of Four Culture Factors for private sector at time 1 and time 2

	Time 1	Time 2	
Factor	Mean	Mean	t-statistic
1 Fairness Culture	5.22	5.16	0.41
2 Commitment Culture	5.56	5.67	-0.90
3 Development Culture	5.46	5.47	-0.10
4 Empowerment Culture	5.88	6.13	-2.88**

\*p<.05 \*\*p<.01

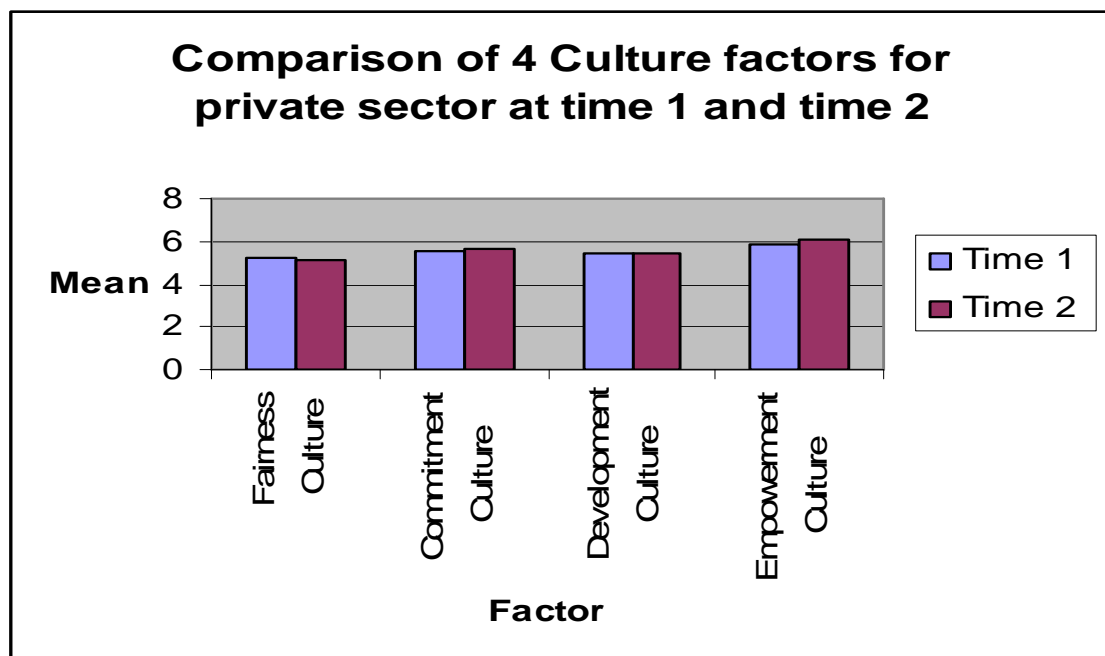
All of the factors show a slight difference in score between time 1 and time 2, one of a negative nature. However the differences are not statistically significant except for the Empowerment Culture factor and hence the hypothesis, that the implementation of the

Excellence Through People Framework has a significantly positive effect on the culture of organisations in the private and public sectors is not accepted for private sector organisations.

There is a complete contrast between the public and private sector organisations in that there was a significant difference in the scores for factors 1,2,3 but not for factor 4 for the public sector organisations and the complete reverse for private sector organisation i.e. a significant difference for factor 4 but not for factor 1,2,3. More detailed analysis shows that all private sector organisations increased their scores in the Empowerment Culture factor.

The following figure shows the comparison in a graphical format.

Figure 7.2 Comparison of Four Culture Factors for private sector at time 1 and time 2.



### Hypothesis 2

**Implementation of Total Quality Management is easier in the private sector than the public sector because the culture is more positive. This hypothesis was tested by a Paired Sample t--test on the mean scores of the private and public sector at time 1.**

The following table presents a Paired Sample t-test for the Four Culture Factors comparing the private sector and public sector at time 1 and time 2.



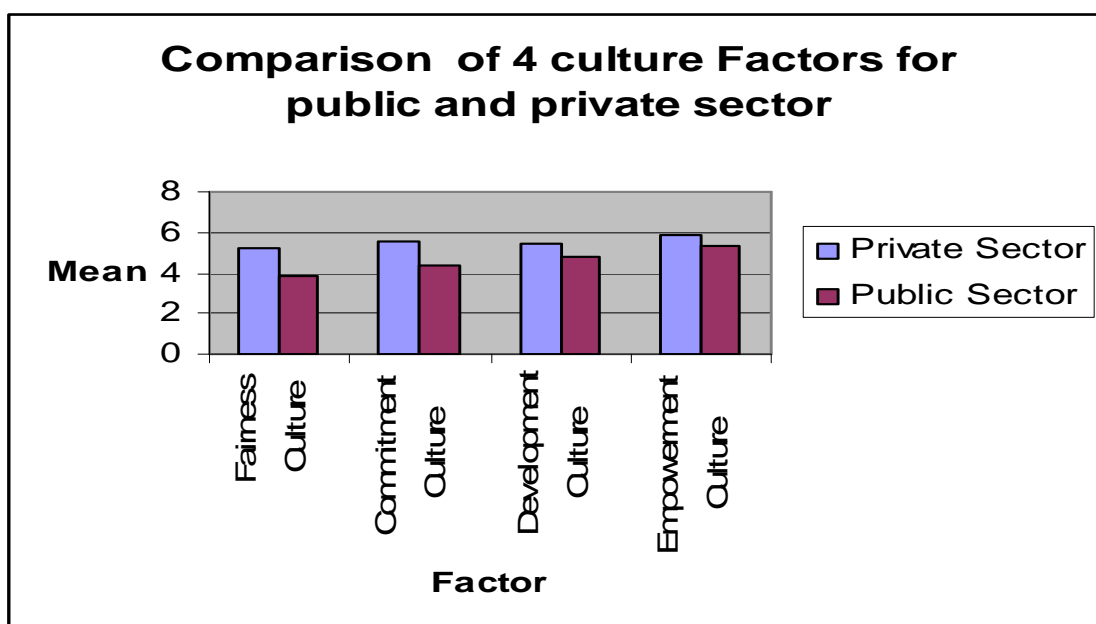
Table 7.6. Paired Sample t-test of 4 Culture Factors for Private and Public Sectors at time 1.

	Time 1	Time 2	
Factor	Mean	Mean	t-statistic
1 Fairness Culture	3.85	5.20	-6.77**
2 Commitment Culture	4.36	5.55	-6.48**
3 Development Culture	4.76	5.45	-3.55**
4 Empowerment Culture	5.31	5.87	-3.69**

\*p<.05      \*\*p<.01

In each of the 4 factors at time 1, before the implementation of the Excellence Through People Framework, the public sector has less positive scores than the private sector. At time 1 all of the dimensions are statistically significant hence the hypothesis is accepted. The following figure shows the comparison in a graphical format.

Figure 7.3 Comparison of Four Culture Factors for private and public sectors at time 1



### Hypothesis 3 Factor 1-Fairness Culture

#### Sector is the key driver in Fairness Culture at time 1 and time 2.

This hypothesis was tested by carrying out a multiple regression analysis on the Fairness Culture results at time 1 and time 2 in order to identify if sector was the primary predictor. The factor in this case Fairness Culture was the dependent variable and the independent variables were years of service, sector, gender, and educational level.

The results were as follows:

Table 7.7 Regression Analysis with Fairness Culture as the dependent Variable.

<u>Time 1</u>	Beta
Years of Service	-0.05
Gender	-0.09
Educational level	-0.19**
Sector	0.40**
R <sup>2</sup>	0.27
Adj. R <sup>2</sup>	0.25
F- value	14.67**
*p<.05	**p<.01

Time 2	Beta
Years of Service	0.03
Gender	0.03
Educational Level	-0.12
Sector	0.20*
R <sup>2</sup>	0.05
Adj. R <sup>2</sup>	0.03
F-value	2.27
*P<.05	**P<.01

At time 1, Sector and Educational Level are the significant predictors of Fairness Culture. At time 2, Sector is the sole significant predictor of Fairness Culture. Therefore the hypothesis, that sector is the key driver in **Fairness Culture** is accepted at time 1 and at time 1.

**Hypothesis 4 Factor 2-Commitment Culture**

**Sector is the key driver in Commitment Culture at time 1 and time 2.**

The hypothesis was tested by regressing the independent variables on Commitment Culture as the dependent variable.

The results were as follows:

Table 7.8 Regression Analysis with Commitment Culture as the dependent variable

<u>Time 1</u>	Beta
Years of Service	0.00
Gender	0.01
Educational Level	-0.06
Sector	0.44**
R <sup>2</sup>	0.20
Adj. R <sup>2</sup>	0.18
F-value	10.85**
*p<.05	**p<.01

<u>Time 2</u>	Beta
Years of Service	-0.11
Gender	0.06
Educational Level	-0.13
Sector	-0.02
R <sup>2</sup>	0.03
Adj. R <sup>2</sup>	0.009
F-value	1.42
*p<.05	**p<.01

The results for time 1 reveal that sector is a significant independent predictor of **Commitment Culture** and hence the hypothesis that sector is the key driver in Commitment Culture is accepted at time 1. There is no significant independent predictor at time 2 and hence the hypothesis is not accepted.

#### **Hypothesis 5 Factor 3- Development Culture**

**Sector is the key driver in Development Culture at time 1 and time 2.**

This hypothesis was tested by carrying out regression analysis with Development Culture as the dependent variable.

Table 7.9 Regression Analysis with Development Culture as the dependent variable

The results were as follows:

<u>Time 1</u>	Beta
Years of Service	-0.12
Gender	-0.04
Educational Level	-0.18*
Sector	0.18*
R <sup>2</sup>	0.11
Adj.R <sup>2</sup>	0.09
F-value	5.36**
*p<.05	**p<.01

<u>Time 2</u>	Beta
Years of Service	0.00
Gender	0.04
Educational Level	-0.01
Sector	0.20*
R <sup>2</sup>	0.04
Adj.R <sup>2</sup>	0.016
F-value	1.73
*p<.05	**p<.01

At time 1 both Sector and Educational Level are the significant indicators of Development Culture hence the hypothesis, that sector is the key driver in **Development Culture** at time 1 and time 2 is accepted at time 1. At time 2, Sector is the significant predictor of Development Culture and hence the hypothesis is accepted at time 2.

#### **Hypothesis 6 Factor 4- Empowerment Culture**

##### **Sector is the key driver in Empowerment Culture at time 1 and time 2.**

This hypothesis is tested carrying out regression analysis with Empowerment Culture as the dependent variable.

The results are as follows:

Table 7.10 Regression Analysis with Empowerment Culture as the dependent variable.

<u>Time 1</u>	Beta
Years of Service	-0.25**
Gender	-0.02
Educational Level	0.00
Sector	0.16
R <sup>2</sup>	0.13
Adj. R <sup>2</sup>	0.10
F-value	6.12**
*p<.05	**p<.01

<u>Time 2</u>	Beta
Years of Service	0.00
Gender	0.06
Educational Level	0.07
Sector	0.27**
R <sup>2</sup>	0.06
Adj. R <sup>2</sup>	0.04
F- value	2.89*
*P<.05	**P<.01

In this case Years of Service is the significant indicator of Empowerment Culture at time 1 and Sector is the significant indicator of Empowerment Culture at time 2. Therefore the Hypothesis, which is that Sector is the key driver in the change in **Empowerment Culture** at time 1 and time 2 was accepted at time 2 and was not accepted at time 1.

### Summary

In summary quantitative analysis reveals the following:

**Hypothesis 1** which is that the implementation of the Excellence Through People Framework, which is comprised of the human aspects of Total Quality Management, has a significantly positive effect on the culture of organisations in the private and public sectors is accepted for the public sector and is not accepted for the private sector.

**Hypothesis 2** which is that the implementation of Total Quality Management is easier in the private sector than the public sector because the culture is more positive is accepted.

**Hypothesis 3** which is that sector is the key driver in Fairness Culture at time 1 and time 2 is accepted at time 1 and time 1.

**Hypothesis 4** which is that sector is the key driver in Commitment Culture at time 1 and time 2 is accepted at time 1 but not at time 2.

**Hypothesis 5** which is that sector is the key driver in Development Culture at time 1 and time 2 is accepted at time 1 and time 2.

**Hypothesis 6** which is that sector is the key driver in Empowerment Culture at time 1 and time 2 is accepted at time 2 but not at time 1.

### **Additional Questions**

Ten additional questions were included in the questionnaire, three of a closed nature where a choice of answers are provided and 7 of an open nature where the respondent must provide their own answer.

In the closed questions i.e. questions 10 (a), (b), (c) respondents were given a choice of four answers which were allocated 4,3,2, or 1 marks.

In the other questions i.e. questions 10 (d), (e), (f), (g), (h), (i), (j) there were no possible answers provided and hence respondents provided their own answers. The answers were collated and the most frequent answers were selected for analysis. Only answers which were provided by 10% or higher of the respondents are included in the results.

#### Question 10 (a) “are most decisions affecting your work taken by”

For this question there are four possible answers, answer (a) is allocated 4 marks, (b) 3 marks and (c) 2 marks and (d) 1 mark.

The scores are similar for both sectors with the public sector actually scoring slightly higher than the private sector, 1.89 as against 1.78 in survey 1 and 1.79 as against 1.77 at time 1. Neither of these changes are statistically significant. There was also no significant change in either sector’s scores between time 1 and time 2. The public sector scores were 1.89 and 1.79 for time I and time 2 respectively. The private sector scores were 1.78 and 1.77 for time 1 and time 2 respectively.

#### Question 10 (b) “to what extent is improvement part of your work“.

For this question there are four possible answers, answer (a) allocates 4 marks, (b) 3, (c) 2 and (d) 1 mark.

There is a significant difference between the public and private sector scores at both time 1 and time 2. At time 1 the public sector mean score is 2.99 as against 3.36 for the private sector, ( $t = -3.14$ ,  $df$  181,  $p < .05$ ) and at time 2, the public sector mean score of 3.13 as against 3.45 for the private sector ( $t = -3.3$ ,  $df$  184,  $p < .05$ ). It is also of note that

there was an increase in the scores of both sectors between time 1 and time 2 but this was not significant. The public sector scores were 3.00 and 3.13 at time 1 and time 2 respectively. The private sector scores were 3.36 and 3.45 for time 1 and time 2 respectively.

Question 10 (c) “how much flexibility do you have in carrying out your work”

There were four possible answers to this question, answer (a) allocates 4 marks, (b) 3, (c) 2, and (d) 1 mark.

In survey 1 the scores are similar with 2.32 for the public sector and 2.44 for the private sector, in survey 2 the scores are also similar with 2.39 for the public sector and 2.33 for the private sector neither of the differences are statistically significant. The public sector shows a slight increase from time 1 to time 2 from 2.32 to 2.39 which is not statistically significant and the private sector shows a decrease between time 1 and time 2 from 2.44 to 2.33 which is statistically significant ( $t= 2.44, df 71, p<.05$ ).

Overall with regard to question 10 (a), (b) and (c) covering the areas of decision-making, improvement and flexibility. There were no significant differences between the public and private sectors in the areas of decision making and flexibility nor was there any significant difference in the sector scores at time 1 and time 2.

However there was a significant difference between the public and private sectors in whether improvement was part of the work, and the private sector scored significant higher than the public sector. In addition both public and private sector scores both increased between the time 1 and time 2. It is also of note that whereas the emphasis on improvement is lower in the public sector than in the private sector it is significantly higher than the scores for both the private and public in the areas of decision-making and flexibility.

Seven open questions were also included where no suggested answers were provided. The responses were grouped into common answers and as there were a large range of answers for some questions and in some cases some questions were not answered, the following analysis only focuses on responses which were made by ten percent or more of the respondents



A comparison of the open questions at time 1 and time 2 for the private and public sectors are as follows.

Question 10 (d) What do employees like to see happening within the organization?"

At time 1, the most frequent answers were:

<u>Public Sector</u>	<u>Private Sector</u>
1 Financial Reward	1 Financial Reward
2 Job satisfaction/Sense of pride	2 Job satisfaction/Sense of pride
3 Feedback from Management	3 Training/Higher education opportunities

At time 2, the most frequent answers were:

<u>Public Sector</u>	<u>Private Sector</u>
1 Promotions/Career Advancement Opportunities	1 Promotions/Career Advancement Opportunities
1 Financial Reward	2 Financial Reward
1 Fair treatment/equal treatment	2 Training/Higher education opportunities
4 Good quality work	

In comparing private and public sector at time 1, the two most popular answers i.e. Financial Reward and Job Satisfaction/Sense of Pride are the same for both sectors. Feedback from Management is the 3<sup>rd</sup> most popular answer for the public sector and Training/Higher Education Opportunities is the joint most popular for the private sector.

In comparing private and public sector at time 2, the two most frequent answers i.e. Promotions/Career Advancement Opportunities and Financial Reward are the same for both sectors.

In comparing the two sectors, there is a high degree of conformity at both surveys. There is however a change between time 1 and time 2 for both sectors.

Promotion/Career advancement opportunities was not in the top three for either sector at time 1 but becomes the most popular answer for both sectors at time 2. Fair treatment/equal treatment becomes joint most popular for the Public Sector replacing Feedback from Management whereas Training/Higher education opportunities is in joint 2<sup>nd</sup> place for the private sector.

Question 10 (e) What is the biggest mistake an employee can make?

At survey 1, the most frequent answers were:

<u>Public Sector</u>	<u>Private Sector</u>
1 Criticizing management	1 Financial errors
	1 Not reaching targets

At time 2, the most frequent answers were:

<u>Public Sector</u>	<u>Private Sector</u>
1 Criticising management	1 Financial errors
	1 Not reaching targets

In comparing public and private sector at time 1, there is a significant difference. In the public sector the only answer with more than 10% of respondents is Criticizing Management whereas in the private sector there are two very different responses. This is the same at time 2 with the same most frequent responses.

In comparing each sector at time 1 and time 2 Criticizing Management is the most frequent answer for the public sector. Financial errors and Not reaching targets are the most frequent answers for the private sector at both time 1 and time 2.

In summary, for this question there is a significant difference between the two sectors at both surveys. However there is consistency between the two surveys for each sectors.

Question 10(f) Which work problems (if any) can keep you awake at night?

At time 1 and time 2 none of the answers for either the public or private sectors reached 10% of the respondents.

Question 10 (g) What special terms or phrases are used here that only employees would understand? There were too many types of responses to this question to carry out an analysis.

Question 10(h) What type of people are most likely to advance quickly in their careers here?  
At time 1, the most frequent answers were:

<u>Public Sector</u>	<u>Private Sector</u>
1 Confident individuals	1 Sycophants/yes men
2 People with good experience in area	2 People with good experience in area
3 Individuals with higher education qualifications	3 Outspoken/assertive people

At time 2, the most frequent answers were:

<u>Public Sector</u>	<u>Private Sector</u>
1 Confident individuals	1 Sycophants/yes men
2 Individuals with higher education qualifications	2 People with good experience in area
3 Sycophants/yes men	3 Outspoken/assertive people

In comparing the two sectors at time 1, the most frequent answer is different in both cases as is the 3<sup>rd</sup> most frequent answer. The 2<sup>nd</sup> most frequent answer i.e. people with good experience in the area is the only common answer to the two sectors.

In comparing the two sectors at time 2, there is again a high degree of variation with only one common answer i.e. Sycophants/yes men. In comparing each sector at time 1 and time 2, there is a high degree of consistency. In the public sector two of the most frequent answers are common at time 1 and time 2. In the private sector also two of the most frequent answers are common at time 1 and time 2.

Question 10 (i) What occasions or events are celebrated in this organisation.

The most frequent answers at time 1 are:

<u>Public sector</u>	<u>Private Sector</u>
1 Christmas	1 Services for deceased colleagues
2 Promotions/retirements/departures	2 Christmas
3 Charity events	3 Promotions/retirements/departures
4 Services for deceased colleagues	

The three most frequent answers at time 2 are:

<u>Public sector</u>	<u>Private Sector</u>
1 Promotions/retirements/departures	1 Services for deceased colleagues
2 Services for deceased colleagues	2 Promotions/retirements/departures
3 Christmas	3 Christmas

In comparing the two sectors at time 1, there is good degree of agreement in that two of the most frequent answers are common to both sectors.

At time 2, the most frequent responses are the same for both sectors although in a different order.

In comparing each sector at time 1 and time 2, there is again a good deal of agreement in that for the public sector two answers are the same at time 1 and time 2 and for the private sector, the three answers are the same at time 1 and time 2.

Question 10 (j) What aspects of your work give you most satisfaction

The most frequent answers at time 1 were:

<u>Public sector</u>	<u>Private Sector</u>
1 Seeing tasks through from start to finish	1 Seeing tasks through from start to finish
2 Doing a good job/completing tasks efficiently	2 Dealing with the public/clients
3 Dealing with the public/clients	3 None of it/very little

The most frequent answers at time 2 were.

<u>Public sector</u>	<u>Private Sector</u>
1 Seeing tasks through from start to finish	1 Seeing tasks through from start to finish
2 Dealing with the public/clients	2 None of it/very little

In comparing the two sectors at time 1 there is a good deal of agreement in that the most frequent answer is common to both sectors and two of the top three answers are common to both sectors.

In comparing the two sectors at time 2 there is a similar degree of agreement in that the most frequent answer is common to both sectors. In comparing each sector at time 1 and time 2 there is also a good deal of agreement in that each sector has the same most popular answer at time 1 and time 2 and each sector also has 2 common answers in the most frequent answers at time 1 and time 2.

#### Overall conclusions on additional questions

With regard to the open questions there is a good deal of agreement between the two sectors at both time 1 and time 2. The only significant difference is that for question 10 e, “ what is the biggest mistake an employee can make” where Criticising Management is the most popular answer for the public sector at time 1 and time 2, yet not only is it not in the top three 3 most popular answers for the private sector at either time 1 or time 2 .

### **7.3 Organisation Analysis**

Each of the organisations, both private and public sector, were assessed against the criteria of the FAS Excellence Through People (ETP) Standard at the same time as the employee questionnaires were completed i.e. at time 1 and time 2.

Using the Excellence Through People scoring criteria, the organisations were scored by the Excellence Through People Assessors on a percentage basis. The requirement to attain ETP Accreditation is that an organisation will score 80% or more in each of the 6 sections. At time 1 all of the private sector organisations achieved ETP accreditation, the overall scores being 91%, 92%, 93% and 95% with the average score of 93%.

At time 1 only one of the three participating Public Sector organisations achieved ETP accreditation having an overall score of 87%, the other Public Sector organisations

scored 76% and 81%, the latter organisation scored 60% in one of the sections and did not meet the required score of 80% in that section. Two of the three public sector organisations did not meet the required standard in this section i.e. Section 3 Review of training. One of the organisations also failed to meet the required standard in Section 2 Organisation Training Plan at 68% and in Section 4 Implementation of Training at 77%. The average public sector score was 81% at time 1.

The following are the results of the organization assessments against the criteria of the Excellence Through People Standard.

Table 7.11 Summary of ETP Assessment Scores Public Sector

	Criteria	Organisation	Organisation	Organisation	Mean	Public
		1	2	3	Sector	
		1 <sup>st</sup> 2 <sup>nd</sup>	1 <sup>st</sup> 2 <sup>nd</sup>	1 <sup>st</sup> 2 <sup>nd</sup>	1 <sup>st</sup> 2 <sup>nd</sup>	
1	Organisation plans and objectives	87 92	83 82	87 90	86	88
2	Organisation Training Plan	68 87	84 83	89 90	80	87
3	Review of Training	55 84	60 83	84 84	66	84
4	Implementation of Training	77 86	85 82	84 88	82	85
5	Training Records	90 95	80 86	83 88	84	90
6	Employee Communication and Involvement	84 88	82 88	92 94	86	90
	Total Score	76 87	81 84	87 90	81	87

Table 7.12 Summary of ETP Assessment Scores Private Sector

	Criteria	Organisation 1		Organisation 2		Organisation 3		Organisation 4		Mean Private Sector	
		1st	2nd	1st	2 <sup>nd</sup>	1st	2nd	1st	2nd	1st	2nd
1	Organisation plans and objectives	95	100	96	97	95	96	91	94	94	97
2	Organisation Training Plan	98	98	97	98	92	94	91	95	95	96
3	Review of Training	83	91	92	92	88	92	85	92	87	92
4	Implementation of Training	89	92	94	93	92	94	93	95	92	94
5	Training Records	100	100	98	100	100	95	85	100	96	99
6	Employee Communication and Involvement	90	97	97	98	95	97	92	94	94	97
	Total Score	92	97	95	96	93	95	91	94	93	96

Table 7.13 Comparison of Mean ETP assessment Scores for Private and Public Sectors

Criteria	First Assessment			Second Assessment		
	Public Sector	Private Sector	Variance	Public Sector	Private Sector	Variance
Organisation plans and objectives	86	94	8	88	97	9
Organisation Training Plan	80	95	15	87	96	9
Review of Training	66	87	21	84	92	8
Implementation of Training	82	92	10	85	94	9
Training Records	84	96	12	90	99	9
Employee Communication and Involvement	86	94	8	90	97	7
Total	81	93	12	87	96	9

In the first assessments the highest variation is in the Review of Training Section, which had a private sector score of 87% against a public sector score of 66% and variance of 21%. This section measures the effectiveness of training and how it contributes to organisation performance i.e. the value training adds to the organisation. In the second assessments the variance reduced to 8%, an increase of 5% to 92% for the private sector and an increase of 18% to 84% for the public sector.

In the first assessments the second highest variation is in the Organisational Training Plan section which had a score of 80%, a variance of 15%. This section covers the preparation of a training plan and the process that leads to the development of a training plan e.g. identification of training needs, employee performance planning and review etc.

In the second assessments this variation reduced to 9% an increase of 1% to 96% for the private sector and an increase of 6% to 87% for the public sector.



In addition to the above scoring the organisations also received a detailed report after each assessment which included a lists of strengths and areas for improvement which the organisations could address after the first assessment to enable them to prepare for the second assessment which was due to take place fifteen months later and after the second assessment so that they could monitor progress and also address any improvements for the future.

The reports for each of the seven organisations at time 1 and time 2 are included in Appendix G. The following is a sample of the strengths and areas for improvements under the six sections of the standard.

### Section 1 Organisational Plans and Objectives

#### Strengths:

The company has prepared a set of three year strategic objectives based on the requirements and strategic trends of the five year corporate strategic plan. Annual marketing and operational plans are derived from the strategic objectives which are prominently displayed. (private sector organisation 2)

Plans are reviewed tri-annually at corporate level and monthly by local management. (private sector 4)

The plan is reviewed every six months at three levels, management, supervisory and depot level. (public sector 3)

#### Areas for improvement

The unit should redraft objectives in the light of feedback from staff meetings. (public sector 2)

All employees should be given the opportunity to become involved in the review of the business plan particularly at departmental level. (public sector 3)

The potential benefits of ISO 9001 or Quality Mark should be examined as a control/improvement tool for the department's management systems. (public sector 1)

### Section 2 Organisation training plan

#### Strengths

The organisation has a comprehensive policy on training which is directly linked to its strategic plans and ongoing priorities. (private sector 3)

The unit has a standard operating procedure for training and development which covers the identification of training needs to meet the unit's objectives. (public sector 2)

The training manager reports directly to the chief executive. (private sector 2)

### Areas for improvement

Priorities are recognised but are not obvious in the training plan and the chief executive does not formally sign the plan. (private sector 1)

Collect the total costs of training to more accurately cost their true investment. (public sector 2)

The Performance Management and Development System should be fully and effectively implemented. (public sector 1)

### Section 3 Review of Training

#### Strengths

Training is evaluated on an ongoing basis through job performance, formal appraisal and regular review meetings. (private sector 3)

The company uses various methods to validate their training including performance appraisal, teamwork, job performance, evaluation sheets, written tests, pre course/post course interviews and certification. (private sector 1)

Assessments for training activities include interim and final examinations for the induction course, behavioural assessments on site visits, skills audits at six-monthly intervals, performance management reviews and third party assessments for some programmes. (private sector 2)

#### Areas for Improvement

The division should develop a review methodology based on the reaction to training, learning gain, job performance and return on investment. (public sector 3)

A standard operating procedure for reviewing training effectiveness should be documented. (public sector 2)

The training system should be reviewed regularly by the training and development unit and the training and development committee to evaluate all aspects of course design, delivery, evaluation and administration. (public sector 1)

### Section 4 Implementation of Training

The training department delivers a range of internal training programmes and documented training programmes were available for all programmes which in general conformed to the FAS QA 58/01 Standard. (private sector 2)

Written training programmes are available for all training programmes and these state training objectives, which are linked to job performance and are agreed with all participants. (private sector 1)

The company operate a FAS approved Apprentice Training Centre. (public sector 3)

Internal instructors have been developed in trainer skills and the performance of both internal and external instructors is evaluated by the training officer. (private sector 4)

#### Areas for improvement

FAS QA 58/01 be used to specify all training courses both internal and external. (public sector 1)

Internal trainers should complete a basic train the trainer programme. (public sector 3)

#### Section 5 Training Records

Records of training and development are maintained for all employees, these are computerised and all employees have free access to them. (private sector 4)

Each employee has signed the relevant course validation forms, field visit reports, individual development plans, monthly records and annual training sheets. (private sector 2)

#### Areas for Improvement

All training records should be kept up to date. (public sector 1)

It is suggested that all employees be made aware of the location and content of their training record. (public sector 3)

#### Section 6 Employee Communication and Involvement

##### Strengths

The company's philosophy is that "the key to success is its people", this is reflected in a range of facilitative measures including teamwork (everybody is actively involved in teams), a range of communication media is used e.g. one to one appraisal, meetings and team briefings.(public sector 1)

The company utilises a formal scientific anonymous values survey, which is scored by an independent external source to obtain feedback from staff. (private sector 2)

#### Areas for Improvement

Undertake a formal survey on employee attitudes to obtain objective feedback from staff. (public sector 2)

Team briefing by managers be formalised as a means of harmonising communications between branches and sections. (public sector 1)

## **7.4 Summary of results and conclusions**

### Hypothesis 1.

The implementation of the Excellence Through People Framework, which is comprised of the human aspects of Total Quality Management, has a significantly positive effect on the culture of organisations in the public and private sectors.

For the public sector organisations surveyed, three of the four factors show a significant increase in score between time 1 and time 2 and the fourth factor i.e. Empowerment Culture shows an increase which is not significant, as a result of the implementation of the Excellence Through People Framework. The hypothesis is therefore accepted for public sector organisations.

For the private sector organisations surveyed, whereas there is a slight difference in all of the dimension scores between time 1 and time 2 one of a negative nature, however only one of these is significant hence the hypothesis is not accepted for private sector organisations

### Hypothesis 2.

Implementation of Total Quality Management is easier in the private sector than the public sector because the culture is more positive.

In all of the four dimensions at time 1, before the implementation of the Excellence Through People Framework, the public sector has less positive scores than the private sector. As the soft aspects of Total Quality Management, i.e. the people issues or cultural aspects, are a pre-requisite to the implementation of the hard aspects of Total Quality Management, e.g. process management, quality planning, quality systems etc. this hypothesis is accepted.

### Hypothesis 3.

Sector is the key driver in Fairness Culture at time 1 and time 2

In the regression analysis carried out on the results at time 1 and time 2 where Fairness Culture was the dependent variable. At time 1 Sector and Educational level were the most significant independent variables and most significant independent predictors hence the hypothesis is accepted at time 1. At time 2 Sector was the most significant independent variable and most significant independent predictor. Therefore the hypothesis is accepted at time 2.

#### Hypothesis 4.

Sector is the key driver in Commitment Culture at time 1 and time 2.

In the regression analysis carried out where Commitment Culture was the dependent variable, at time 1 Sector was the most significant independent variable and most significant independent predictor. Therefore the hypothesis is accepted. At time 2 there is no significant independent variable and hence the hypothesis is not accepted.

#### Hypothesis 5.

Sector is the key driver in Development Culture at time 1 and time 2.

In the regression analysis carried out where Development Culture was the dependent variable, both Educational Level and Sector were the significant independent variables and the significant independent predictors at time 1 hence the hypothesis is accepted for time 1. At time 2, Sector is the significant independent variable and significant independent predictor and the hypothesis is accepted.

#### Hypothesis 6.

Sector is the key driver in Empowerment Culture at time 1 and time 2.

In the regression analysis carried out where Empowerment Culture was the dependent variable, Years of service was the significant independent variables and significant independent predictor at time 1 hence the hypothesis is not accepted for time 1. At time 2, Sector is the significant independent variable and significant independent predictor of Empowerment Culture and the hypothesis is accepted.

With regard to the fact that Years of Service is a significant independent variable which would correspond to age and the dimension scores are highest at the youngest level i.e. under 25 years and then decrease steadily before increasing to the second highest score at the oldest age, i.e. 56 to 65 years, whereas the reduction of scores is consistent with a literature review carried out by Colquitt, LePine and Noe (2000), the increase in this research for the oldest age category is inconsistent with Colquitt et al. (2000). A possible reason for the increase for the oldest age category may be a renewed interest in learning as retirement nears or as employees no longer have the demands of raising children.

### Conclusions

The implementation of the Excellence Through People Framework has a positive effect on the culture of organisations within the public sector.

The private sector organisations included in the survey had a better culture, based on the Four Factor Framework, than the public sector organisations in the survey.

In three of the Four Factors, i.e. Fairness Culture, Commitment Culture, and Development Culture, there was a significant difference between the private and public sector at time 1. In the fourth factor i.e. Empowerment Culture there was an increase but it was not significant.

## **8.1 Introduction**

The objective of this study was to provide a deeper understanding of how implementation of total quality management is dependent on the organisational culture which exists in the organisation and how organisational culture may manifest differently in the public and private sectors.

This chapter summarises the key findings of the research. It attempts to outline how these findings make a contribution to theory. It also states the limitations associated with this research and a number of areas which future research can address.

## **8.2 Main findings**

Hypothesis 1: The implementation of the Excellence Through People Framework, which is comprised of the human aspects of Total Quality Management, has a significantly positive effect on the culture of organizations in the private and public sectors.

It takes years rather than months to change a culture (Williams, Dobson and Walters, 1993; Dean and Evans, 1994; Crosby, 1984) hence this study which measured culture on two occasions follow divided by 15 months is not going to see the full effect of a culture change programme. The fact that the culture in the public sector changed so significantly shows the scope for change which existed within the public sector. For the public sector organisations surveyed, all of the four show an increase in score between time 1 and time 2, but only three of these increases are significant, as a result of the implementation of the Excellence Through People Framework. The hypothesis is therefore accepted for public sector organisations. Only one of the seven organisations in the study, a public sector organisation, had a decrease in the Empowerment Culture factor score at time 2, due it is believed to a situation specific to that organisation. If that score had not

reduced it is likely that the overall score would have increased significantly and hence the hypothesis would have been accepted.

For the private sector organisations surveyed, whereas there is an increase in three of the factors scores and a decrease in one of the factor scores between time 1 and time 2, however only one of these increases is significant hence the hypothesis is not accepted for private sector organisations. In the selection of the comparison group of private sector organisations it was decided to select recognised high performing organisations as suggested in the literature. These organisations scored consistently above the mid point at time 1 and hence it is more difficult for them to score to improve significantly on the high scores at time 1. Indeed it is also difficult to maintain such high scores as is shown whereby the Fairness Culture factor score for the private sector organisations shows a slight decrease which is not significant. However even with the significant increases in public sector scores and the slight changes, although insignificant, in private sector scores, between time 1 and time 2, the private sector scores are still higher than the public sector scores at time 2 even though the gap has reduced.

Hypothesis 2:

Implementation of Total Quality Management is easier in the private sector than the public sector because the culture is more positive.

In all of the four factors in time 1, before the implementation of the Excellence Through People Framework, the public sector has less positive scores than the private sector and all of the differences are statistically significant. One of the reasons for the failure of quality programmes are in the soft or human side of quality management (Wilkinson and Fazel, 1995; Ciampa, 1992). According to Ssalegna and Fazel, 1995; Shani et.al., 1994) the successful implementation of TQM requires the building of the organisational culture around quality issues As the soft aspects of Total Quality Management, i.e. the people issues or cultural aspects, are a pre-requisite to the implementation of the hard aspects of Total Quality Management, e.g. process management, quality planning, quality systems etc. this hypothesis is accepted.



Hypothesis 3: Sector is the key driver in Fairness Culture at time 1 and time 2.

In the regression analysis carried out on the results at time 1 where Fairness Culture was the dependent variable, both Sector and Educational level were significant independent predictors. Therefore the hypothesis is accepted. At time 2 Sector is the sole significant independent predictor hence the hypothesis is accepted. According to Jenkins and Poole (1999) there are differences between the private and public sector in the area of human resource policies and in the type of management style operating, a more traditional style operating in the public sector. This is linked to Fairness Culture.

Hypothesis 4: Sector is the key driver in Commitment Culture at time 1 and time 2.

In the regression analysis carried out where Commitment Culture was the dependent variable, Sector was the significant independent predictor at time 1, but there is no significant independent variable at time 2. Therefore the hypothesis is accepted at time 1 but not at time 2.

Hypothesis 5: Sector is the key driver in Development Culture at time 1 and time 2.

In this case both Sector and Educational level are the significant independent predictors at time 1. Sector is the significant independent predictor of Development Culture at time 2. Hence the hypothesis is accepted at time 1 and 2. The OECD (2008) report on the public sector in Ireland states that further actions need to be taken in the area of human resources and in changing the behaviour of employees which is linked to Development Culture.

Hypothesis 6: Sector is the key driver in Empowerment Culture at time 1 and time 2.

In the regression analysis carried out where Empowerment Culture was the dependent variable, Years of service is the significant independent predictor at time 1 hence the hypothesis is not accepted for time 1. Years of Service would correspond to age and the factor scores are highest at the youngest level i.e. under 25 years and then decrease steadily before increasing to the second highest score at the oldest age, i.e. 56 to 65 years. Whereas the reduction of scores is consistent with a literature review carried out by Colquitt, LePine and Noe (2000), the increase in this research for the oldest age category is inconsistent with Colquitt et al. (2000). A possible reason for the increase for the oldest age category may be a renewed interest in learning as retirement nears or as employees no longer have the demands of raising children. After the implementation of the Excellence Through People Framework, at time 2, Sector is the significant independent predictor of Empowerment Culture and the hypothesis is accepted. A lack of understanding within public sector organisations in addition to contentment to work and to rules and regulation and the lack of drive and motivation to improve makes the TQM process more difficult and indicates a lack of Empowerment Culture. There is a complete contrast between the public and private sector organisations in that there was a significant difference in the scores for factors 1, 2, 3 but not for factor 4 for the public sector organisations and the complete reverse for the private sector organisations i.e. a significant difference for factor 4 but not for factors 1, 2, 3. More detailed analysis shows that all private sector organisations improved their score in the Empowerment Culture factor possibly because of the emphasis placed by the Excellence Through People Standard on the development and communication and involvement of people. The fact that only one organisation of the seven surveyed had a reduced score for the Empowerment Culture Factor supports the view that there may have been a specific difficulty in that organisation.

This research has made a contribution to the understanding how the implementation of Total Quality Management is dependent on organisational culture within both private sector and public sector organisations. The development of a new Four Factor Model of Organisational Culture as outlined in Table 8.1, is a significant contribution to the literature in that it outlines four different factors of organisational culture and also provides the methodology for measuring culture in organisations against these four factors. This measurement can be used to compare organisational culture in different organisations or sectors or could be used by an organisation at the beginning of the implementation of total quality management or indeed any change programme to measure its culture under the four factors and then focus its actions to address areas which have been identified. Because of the range of organisations surveyed in both the sample of private sector organisations and public sector organisations the findings are applicable to the broader public sector and private sector populations.

Table 8.1 Four Factor Model of Organisational Culture

Factor 1 Fairness Culture

Factor 2 Commitment Culture

Factor 3 Development Culture

Factor 4 Empowerment Culture

The findings show that the implementation of the Excellence Through People Framework has a positive effect on the culture of organisations within the public sector.

The private sector organisations included in the survey had more positive scores based on the Four Factor Framework than the public sector organisations included in the survey.

In all of the Four Factors (Fairness Culture, Commitment Culture, Development Culture and Empowerment Culture) there was a significant difference between the private and public sectors at time 1.

In the hypotheses 3 to 6, which is identifying the key drivers in changing the dimensions between time 1 and time 2, Sector is either the sole key driver or

is a joint key driver in three of the four factors at time 1. Educational level is a joint key driver with Sector in two of the factors at time 1 and Years of service is a sole key driver in one factor at time 1.

At time 2 sector is the key driver in three of the factors and none of the other independent variables are key drivers for any of the factors.

The fact that Educational level is a joint key driver for two factors, i.e. Fairness Culture and Development Culture at time 1, may be influenced by the fact that as a result of their education, individuals have the confidence to consider both themselves and their contribution to be of value and managers have the confidence to seek the views of their employees without feeling threatened or undermined. The fact that Years of Service is the key driver in the change in Empowerment Culture and as previously stated the scores reduce with age, youngest employees scoring highest and then the trend reverses at the oldest aged category, indicating that people are more interested in development and involvement at a young age and then the interest resumes at the oldest age category when individuals wish to make up for lost development opportunities, are nearing retirement or are free from the demands of children

The implementation of the Excellence Through People Framework has reduced the significant difference which existed between the private and public sector organisations in each of the four culture factors.

### **8.3 Comparison with previous research**

#### **8.3.1 Research carried out in Ireland**

A National Survey was carried out in Ireland in 2003 to seek employee views on a range of topics affecting the workplace both at present and in the future and was titled The Changing Workplace: A Survey of Employees' View's and Experiences (O'Connell, Russell, Williams, and Blackwell 2003).

The key findings of this report are ;

1) there are low levels of information and consultation with employees,

2) there is evidence of an opportunities divide in the workplace linked to educational attainment and social class,

3) there is evidence of significant levels of pressure and stress and

4) the results indicate there is much that organisations can do to manage change in a positive manner

The current research is consistent with finding 1) with regard to the Development Culture Factor particularly with regard to the public sector.

The current research is also consistent with finding 2) with respect to the Fairness Culture factor particularly with regard to the public sector.

There was no emphasis on pressure and stress in the current research so there is no possible comparison with finding 3).

The current research is consistent with finding 4).

Some specific comparison are as follows:

The findings in this study showed higher scores on job satisfaction for private sector employees in both time 1 and time 2 although the gap reduced between the 2 surveys. The O'Connell et al (2003) survey showed higher scores for public sector employees. The difference may be caused by the fact that the O'Connell et al. (2003) included a wider range of private sector organisations than did the current research which had identified good private sector organisations so that the public sector organisations could be compared to organisations implementing good and best practices.

The findings in this study showed that high scores on job satisfaction had a correlation with education level and O'Connell et al (2003) survey also showed correlation with education level, the highest education level scoring highest.

### 8.3.2 Other public sector- private sector research

Wimalasiri (1993) compared public and private sector organisations under a number of heading where some were similar to the four factors used in the current research. In comparing Attachment (which has similar components to Commitment Culture) in private and public sector organisations shows higher scores for private sector organisations than public sector

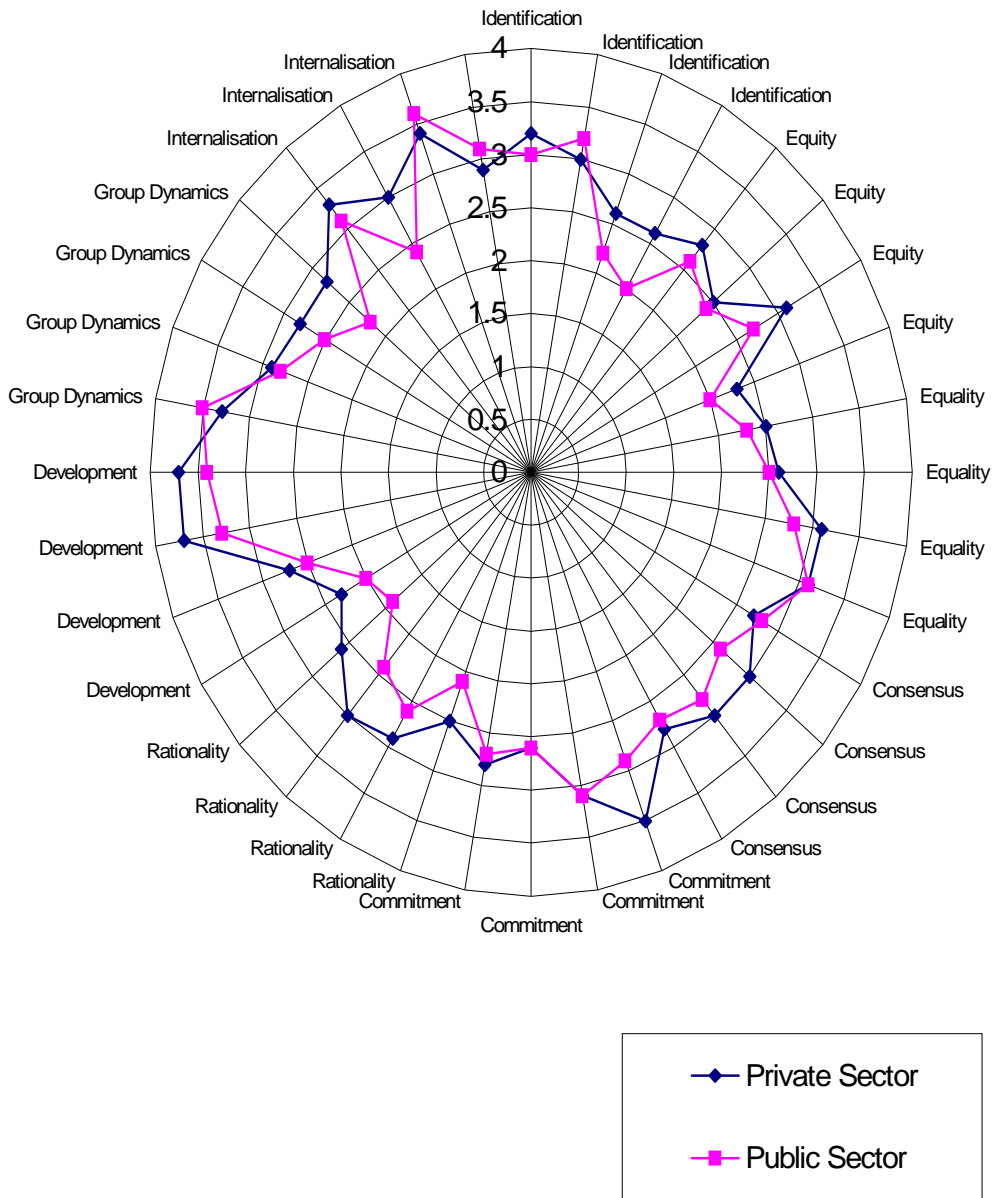
organisations, and 47% of private sector employees expressed neutral or negative attitudes compared to 67% of public sector employees. In comparing Reward for Performance (which has similar components to Fairness Culture) in private sector and public sector organisations again shows private sector organisations scoring higher, and 62% of private sector employees expressed neutral or negative attitude compared to 73% of public sector employees. In comparing Structure (which has similar components to Development Culture) in private and public sector organisations again private sector scores higher, and 70% of private sector employees expressed neutral or negative attitude compared to 81% of public sector employees. In comparing Supporting Environment (which has similar components to Commitment Culture) in private and public sector organisations again private sector scored higher, and 30% of private sector employees expressed neutral or negative attitude compared to 50% of public sector employees. In all of the above areas the private sector scores are higher than the public score which is consistent with the current research.

### 8.3.3 Research carried out using the 9 Dimension Framework

Research carried out by 9 Factors International (2003) shows higher scores for Private Sector Organisations than Public Sector Organisation (source 9 Factors International 2003) see figure 8.1. A detailed direct comparison is not possible in that some questions have been changed since the original questionnaire on which this research was based.

A summary of this research is as follows:

. Figure 8.1 Comparison of Private and Public sector scores



Average Score Public Sector = 2.7

Average Score Private Sector = 2.9

Analysis of the scores in the 9 Factors International (2003) findings revealed that the private sector consistently outperformed the public sector in the

following key areas which are linked to the dimensions of Cartwright (1993) and the factors of the current research.

- Greater confidence in business management. (Identification dimension/ no principal component of culture)
- Greater commitment to overall aims and objectives (Instrumentality/ no principal component of culture)
- Encouraged to learn from mistakes (Rationality/ Development Culture)
- Corporate loyalty (Identification/ Commitment Culture)
- Corporate belonging (Internalisation/ Commitment Culture)

The key dimensions according to Cartwright (1993) are Identification, Instrumentality, Rationality and Internalisation which with regard to the Four Factor model of this research link to Commitment Culture and Development Culture.

In the current research the areas where the private sector outperformed the public sector at time 1 were as follows:

- pay and conditions (Equity/ Fairness Culture)
- reality with external image (Identification/Fairness Culture)
- Recognition and rewards for efforts made (Equity/ Fairness Culture)
- Degree of confidence in company and management.(Identification/ no principal component of culture)

The key dimensions here according to Cartwright (1993) are Identification and Equity and which with regard to the Four Factor model of this research link to Fairness Culture.

In the current research the areas where the private sector outperformed the public sector at time 2 were as follows:

- Pay and conditions (Equity/ Fairness Culture)



- Degree of confidence in company and management (Identification/ no principal component of culture)
- Recognition and rewards for efforts made (Equity/ Fairness Culture)
- External image (Identification/ Fairness Culture)
- Satisfaction by voicing criticisms and grievances (Equity/ no principal component of culture)

The key dimensions here according to Cartwright (1993) are again Identification and Equity and with regard to the Four Factor model of this research link to Fairness Culture, as was the case at time 2.

### Areas of comparison

So in comparing the current research at both time 1 and 2 with the 9 Factors International (2003), for the 9 Factor International research which was carried out in the UK the biggest differences were in dimensions Identification, Rationality, Instrumentality and Internalisation, which link to Development Culture and Commitment Culture. Whereas the current research which was carried out in Ireland the differences were the Equity and Identification dimensions which link to Fairness Culture at both time 1 and time 2. A possible reason for the variation between the two studies is that the UK public sector is more advanced both in time and in progress regarding its modernisation programme than is the case in Ireland and that the element of the Fairness Factor culture have been addressed in the UK but not yet in Ireland alternatively possibly some of the UK employees' perceptions on the elements of Fairness Culture may have changed.

Public sector respondents in the 9 Factor International (2003) study reported significantly more positive findings than those in the private sector, in the following areas:

- Greater sense of pride in work (Instrumentality/ Commitment)
- Good team spirit within departments (Group Dynamics/Commitment)
- Work considered to be more worthwhile (Internalisation/Commitment)

In the current research the questions with the smallest difference at time 1 between public and private sector, private sector scoring highest, were as follows:

- Employees were encouraged to meet customer requirements (Instrumentality/Empowerment Culture)
- Managers deal with mistakes in a fair manner (Rationality/Development Culture)
- Meetings are effective and of value to the organisation (Group Dynamics/Empowerment Culture)
- Employees are responsible for their own quality and performance (Development/Empowerment Culture)

The questions with the smallest difference at time 2 between public and private sector, private sector again scoring highest, were as follows:

- Employee's personal expectations are fulfilled from their work (Instrumentality/Commitment Culture)
- Meetings are effective and of value to the organisation (Group Dynamics/Empowerment Culture)
- There is a clear relationship between employees' work and the organisation's goals and objectives. (Instrumentality/no principal component of culture)
- Employees are encouraged to meet customer requirements (Instrumentality/Empowerment Culture)
- Information is provided to employees regarding the organisations future plans and policies. (Rationality/Development Culture)

### Areas of comparison

The smaller differences in the current findings at time 1 and time 2 do not correspond to the 9 Factor International (2003) Research.

In the 9 Factor International research the smallest differences were in the dimensions Instrumentality, Group Dynamics which relate to the Commitment Factor. In the current research at time 1 the smallest differences were in the dimensions Instrumentality, Rationality and Group Dynamics which relate to Empowerment Culture and Development Culture and at time 2 the smallest differences were in the dimensions Instrumentality and Group Dynamics which both relate to Empowerment Culture.

So the smallest difference for the 9 Factor International is Commitment Culture and for the current research is Empowerment Culture and Development Culture at time 1 and Empowerment Culture at time 2.

In comparing the two studies the 9 Factor International Study reveals the most positive elements of the public sector compared to the private sector as being in the Commitment Culture Factor which is interesting as the biggest differences between the public and private sectors also are in the Commitment Culture Factor. In the current research the smallest difference between public and private sector at time 1 were the Empowerment Culture Factor and the Development Culture Factor and at time 2 the smallest difference was the Empowerment Culture Factor. This is consistent with the fact that there was a significant change in the Empowerment Culture for the private sector between time 1 and time 2 but not for the public sector which was in contrast to the fact that there were significant differences for the other three factors between time 1 and time 2 for the public sector. As previously stated it is believed that this was due to specific issues within one of the public sector organisations in the study.

In the additional questions used to complement the 36 dimensional questions there is a high degree of agreement between the private and public sectors. Whereas the literature indicates a higher degree of decision making at lower levels in an organisation in the private sector than the public sector and a higher level of flexibility in the private sector than the public sector, this was

not evident in the research findings. The literature also indicates a higher emphasis on improvement in the private sector than the public sector, and whereas this is borne out in the research the level of improvement in the public sector was higher than expected. It is suggested that this is an important contribution to the literature and is an indication of the degree of change that has occurred in the public sector in recent years.

#### **8.4 Contribution to theory**

This study contributes to theory under three headings, total quality management theory, organisational culture theory, and public sector theory.

Total Quality Management Theory: From the literature it is concluded that there is no accepted definition of quality or total quality management or what are the elements of total quality management. This research suggests a definition of total quality management and proposes a model of total quality management which builds on the literature in this area particularly the 10 factor model developed by Black (1993), the 10 factor model developed by Saraph et al (1989) and the 5 factor model developed by Mann (1992). The proposed model is a comprehensive model of total quality management comprising 10 dimensions which incorporate the work of the main quality gurus. The research sets out to address what the literature regards as a predominant cause for the failure of quality programmes i.e. the lack of attention to the human side of quality programmes i.e. people issues and identifies an approach to addressing these issues. The research also sets out to address a gap in the literature in the area of quality culture particularly in the public sector. The support for hypothesis 2, i.e. organisational culture in the private sector is more positive than the public sector and hence is more favourable to the introduction of total quality management, contributes to the literature which states that the soft aspects i.e. cultural issues must be addressed before the hard aspects of TQM i.e. documentation, measures and controls, can be implemented (Imai, 1986; Wilkinson et al, 1992) and the study builds on these views by the provision of a framework which addresses the people aspects in a structured and systematic manner.

Whereas there is significant literature available regarding total quality management in manufacturing industry and to a lesser extent in private service industry, the extent of the literature on total quality management in the public sector is limited and this study contributes to the literature in this area. The study also builds on the work of the quality gurus, most notably Deming by the provision of a framework which addresses the people aspects of Deming's 14 points i.e. constancy of purpose, education, training, methods of supervision, remove barriers, and drive out fear.

Public Sector Theory: From the literature it is concluded that there are very different and opposing views regarding what is the best approach to public sector management. It is concluded that approaches between the two extremes and which combine the best features of both extremes are the best approaches for the public sector to adopt. Such approaches incorporate a number of the elements of total quality management and as the research proves that cultural or people issues must be addressed before total quality management can be introduced in the public sector, the research contributes to the literature by emphasising the importance of people issues in this regard and by identifying a mechanism to address these issues. The support for hypotheses 3,4,5,6 makes a significant contribution to the literature by outlining the significant differences between the public and private sectors in From their research Sotirakou and Zeppou (2004) state that there is little evidence on how to pursue public sector modernisation successfully and this study suggests a framework to assist in this regard by focusing on the human resource area. This research describes 5 of the most common approaches to the modernisation of the public sector which are as follows; New Public Management (Hood, 1991), New Public Service (Denhardt and Denhardt, 2000), New Public Administration (Fredrickson, 1996), A Public Service System for the 21<sup>st</sup> Century (Ingraham, Selden and Moynihan, 2000), and Reinventing Government (Osborne and Gaebler, 1992). Whereas these approaches differ in many core issues e.g. the role of government, to whom are public servants responsible, the mechanisms for achieving policy objectives etc however a common feature in all of these approaches is the key aspect of the management of human resources. This study builds on

each of the 5 approaches outlined and makes a significant contribution to the literature by proposing a framework which addresses the management of human resources.

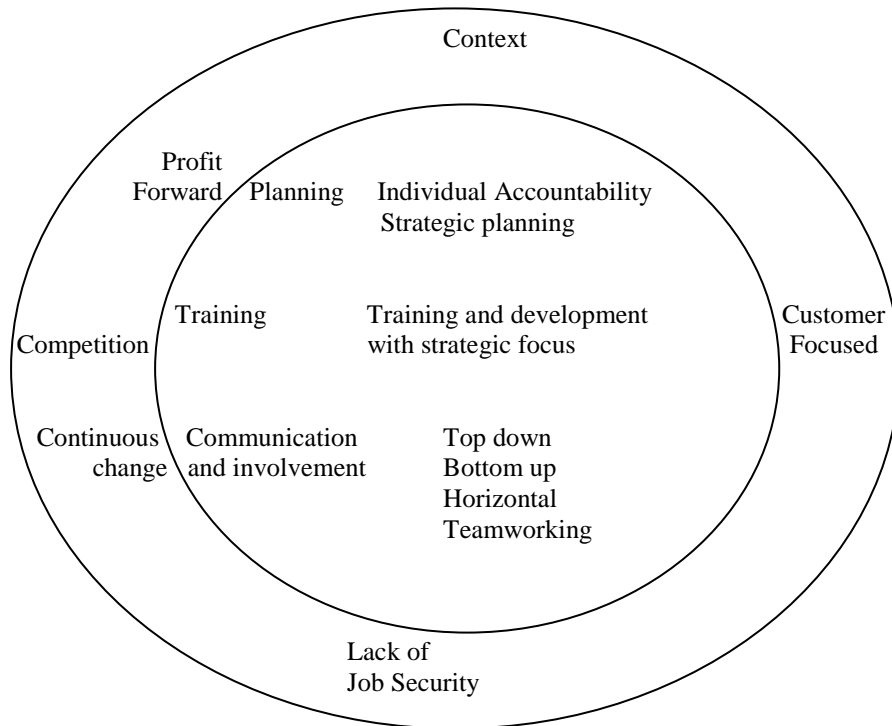
The research also builds on the study carried out by McAdam, Reid and Saulters (2004) which demonstrated improved levels of performance when quality frameworks were applied within public sector organisations by proposing a framework to address the people aspects of total quality management which are a prerequisite to the full implementation of total quality management (Imai, 1986; Wilkinson et al, 1992).

Business Excellence Models like the EFQM Excellence Model recognises the importance of the people aspects of organisations in that of the 50% of marks allocated to enablers 19 % relate to people aspects and of the 50% of marks allocated to results 9 % relate to people issues. Overall 28% of the total marks relate to people aspects and it is accepted that this level of marking is correct, to reduce it would under value the contribution of people to organisations and to increase it would under value the other functions of organisations like finance, marketing, product development etc although people make a significant contribution to the effectiveness of these functions. However the contribution which this research makes is with regard to the sequencing of the actions specifically regarding addressing the people areas early in the implementation plan. As a result of the research two models of the private and public sectors are proposed which compares the two sectors under the three main elements of the Excellence Through People Model i.e. planning, training and development, and communication and involvement and links to the context in which both sectors operate. These models are outlined in figures 8.2 and 8.3.

Figure 8.2 Model of Public Sector Activities



Figure 8.3 Model of Private Sector Activities



Organisational Culture Theory: From the literature it is concluded that there is no accepted definition of organisational culture nor is there an accepted method of measuring, changing or managing organisational culture. This research adopts an approach from the literature, which identifies 9 dimensions of culture, based on the views of employees and complements this with an organisational measure i.e. a national standard for human resource development, the Excellence Through People Framework. The study builds on the 9 dimensions identified by Cartwright (1993) and proposes a new Four Factor Model of Organisational Culture which is outlined in figure 8.1 describes how each of the Four dimensions have changed as a result of implementing the Excellence Through People Framework. The Four Factors are Fairness Culture which focuses on what employees regards as fair treatment from the organisation and includes elements such as respect, trust, fair treatment, recognition and rewards etc. Commitment Culture looks at how the employee relates to the organisation in areas like pride, satisfaction, fulfilment of personal expectations, loyalty, sense of belonging, good working relationships etc. Development Culture looks at employees getting feedback from managers, how mistakes are dealt with, management style, information provided to employees, positive attitude exists to the development of employees, and provision of good education and training.

The Development Culture is similar to the concept of the Learning Organisation as outlined by Senge (1990). Empowerment Culture includes employees being encouraged to meet customer requirements, employees being responsible for their own work quality and performance, employees are encouraged to work on own initiative, and the organisation is dedicated to high quality standards. The Empowerment Culture is similar to a total quality culture. The study also builds on the Organisational Culture Inventory developed by Cooke and Szumal (2000) and shows how the Excellence Through People Framework changes an organisational culture from what they classify as a passive defensive culture into a constructive



culture. The study also supports and builds on the eight conditions for transformational change outlined by Schein (1999).

The support found for hypothesis 1 i.e. The implementation of the Excellence Through People Framework, which is comprised of the human aspects of Total Quality Management, has a positive effect on the culture of an organisation, shows that the implementation of a national human resource standard i.e. Excellence Through People is a mechanism for changing organisational culture in a structured and quantifiable manner.

all of the four factors of culture. These hypotheses are as follows;

Hypothesis 3, Sector is the key driver in Fairness Culture at time 1 and time 2. This is consistent with the findings of Wimalasiri (1993).

Hypothesis 4, Sector is the key driver in Commitment Culture at time 1 and time 2.

Hypothesis 5, Sector is the key driver in Development Culture at time 1 and time 2. This is consistent with the findings of Wimalasiri (1993).

Hypothesis 6, Sector is the key driver in Empowerment Culture at time 1 and time 2.

Because the measurement of culture was repeated after 15 months the extent of the change in each of the Four Factors due to the implementation of the Excellence Through People framework adds to the literature.

### **10.5 Limitations of the research**

Whereas a number of key conclusions have been successfully drawn from this study however it is important to recognise at this stage that for a number of practical reasons there were a number of limitations to the research. These limitations were as follows.

8.5.1 Research methodology; The process of the research was primarily positivist with a phenomenological process with regard to the organisational analysis. This approach of using a combination of approaches is recommended in the literature and if the research was being repeated a similar approach would be used. A number of questionnaires were considered to obtain the views of individual employees and whereas the Cartwright approach was selected based on the literature it may have been beneficial to have field tested a number of questionnaires before selecting a model. Whereas the Cartwright model has been operating for a number of years primarily in the UK it may have been beneficial to have pilot tested it in a number of public and private organisations in Ireland before the research commenced particularly as the scoring system had been modified and because a number of additional, primarily open, questions had been added. The addition of the additional questions was not totally successful and in the case of one question the response were so diverse that it was not possible to include them in the analysis. For some other additional questions the response rate was very low in that many respondents did not answer the question. If the questionnaires had been piloted in a number of organisations these problem may have been identified at an early stage and corrective action could have been taken. By not addressing this issue an opportunity to have obtained possibly valuable information was lost. Although the Cartwright model was selected it may have been beneficial to have used 2 different questionnaires in the research and to observe how the 2 measures of organisational culture had changed following the introduction of the Excellence Through People framework.

8.5.2 Sample selected; The research covered 3 public sector organizations with a sample size of 113 employees and a control group of 4 private sector organizations with a sample size of 75 employees. It would have been better with a larger number of both private sector and public sector organizations and a larger sample of employees. As the public sector is so diverse it would have also been beneficial to have a broader spread of public sector organizations, for example large public sector employers like the Health Service and the Education Sector are not included in the study. Regarding the number of employees surveyed, there was a larger number of employees surveyed at

stage 1 than stage 2, this was because some employees had left the organizations between stages 1 and 2 and some employees who had participated at stage did not participate at stage 2. If the study was being repeated a larger number of employees would have been surveyed to allow for the fallout of employees and a larger number of organizations would have been sampled both to get a broader spread of organizations particularly as the public sector is so diverse and also as a precaution in the event of one of the organizations closing down. There was also an issue whereby six of the seven organisations had a significant increase in the Empowerment Culture Factor score between time 1 and time 2 and the seventh organisation actually had a reduction in the score between time 1 and time 2 which possibly resulted in the increase in the combined public sector not being and hence the hypothesis not being accepted. It is believed that specific issues in the seventh organisation may have affected the result and if a larger sample of organisations had been surveyed this problem may have been avoided. There was also a significant difference with regard to the make up of employees in both the private sector and public sector samples. The public sector sample has more females 46 % to 23% in the private sector sample, is older i.e. 70 % over 35 years to 40 %, has longer service 89 % have over 5 years service to 49 %, have a lower level of education 40 % have higher than leaving certificate to 55 %, and have slightly higher levels of employees i.e. 23 % in management or supervisory positions to 20 %. However to have tried to get similar profiles of employees would have invalidated the random nature of the sample and it would not have reflected the overall population of the different sectors. It was originally thought that the different populations may have influenced the results, particularly the large number of females in the private sector sample, however the regression analyses show that sector rather than gender, age, education, length of service or work position is the most significant independent variable. The study was a longitudinal study which took place at two stages separated by a 15 month interval and a limitation was that the study stopped at stage 2 and hence there is no data to indicate whether the improvement trend between stage 1 and stage 2 would have continued. It would have been beneficial to have had a stage 3 to see if the improvement in culture observed at stage 2 continued and if so at what rate of improvement. It

would also have been interesting to see if there would have been a disimprovement which could have meant that culture improved after implementing the Excellence through People framework but then reverted to its original level and if so what factors reduced in score.

Another limitation could be the fact that the majority of the data came from the same source i.e. from the employees in the form of questionnaires. However it is considered that this has been addressed through the Excellence Through People assessments which are carried out by independent assessors from outside the organisations and who uses a methodology of interviewing employees at all levels within the organisation and assessing a written application of the organisation against the criteria of the standard. The results of the Excellent Through People assessments were similar to the employee questionnaires in that the private sector scored higher at both time 1 and time 2 and that the difference was lower at time 2 due to the improvement of the public sector scores.

Another limitation could be that the change in organisational culture did not result from the implementation of the Excellence Through People framework but from external factors e.g. economic climate, wage negotiations, union agreements, public sector modernisation programme. Prior to the conducting of this research the economic climate in Ireland had improved quite significantly over previous years and this trend continued after the research was completed. If this improvement had only commenced during the 15 month interval between the two surveys it is accepted that the economic climate may have had an influence on the results but this was not the case and it is not believed that the economic climate influenced the results and indeed it is likely that if the economic climate were to influence the results it would be for both the private and public sector employees. With regard to wage negotiations, all public sector employees and most private sector employees are covered by national wage agreements. A comparison of public and private sector wages, referred to as public sector benchmarking, which showed that private sector pay exceeded public pay was published after the research was carried out. This is consistent with the Fairness Culture factor which had one of the largest variations between public and private sectors at both time 1 and time 2 and the question with the highest variation within the Fairness Culture factor was,

comparison of pay and conditions with other organisations. So it is unlikely that wage negotiations affected the results nor indeed did union agreements as all the 3 public sector organisations had unions and 3 of the 4 public sector organisations had unions. With regard to public sector modernisation it is accepted that a number of the aspects of the public sector modernisation programme are similar to the Excellence Through People Framework as they are both based on best human resource practice, e.g. business planning, communication and involvement of employees, training and development. However the public sector modernisation programme was in the early stages of implementation and had not been fully imbedded at the time of the research. For example two of the three public sector organisations had not commenced the introduction of performance management and the other had only commenced the initial stage i.e. the setting of targets. Another example was that only one of the three public sector organisations had commenced the partnership process which is an agreement between management and unions within the organisation. Whilst it is accepted that there are common areas between the public sector modernisation and the Excellence Through People framework it is suggested that the Excellence Through People framework is an effective mechanism for the implementation of the human resource aspects of the public sector modernisation programme. It is believed that as the public sector modernisation programme was in the early stages that it did not influence the research and indeed some of the public sector organisations involved in the research believed that the Excellence Through People framework would help them to implement the public sector modernisation programme. A further limitation of the research could be that in order to conclusively state that it was the implementation of the Excellence Through People Framework rather than the public sector modernisation programme which influenced the results would have been to implement the Excellence Through People Framework in some public sector organisations and not in other public sectors and to compare the results.

## **8.6 Areas for further research**

This research considers the question that implementation of Total Quality Management is made easier by a positive organisational culture. It proves that organisational culture in the public sector is less positive than organisational culture in the private sector and a common view in the literature states that the soft aspects i.e. people issues/culture, must be addressed before the hard aspects of total quality management i.e. procedures, specifications, measurements can be successfully implemented. This research stops with the improvement of the soft aspects i.e. culture, following the implementation of the Excellence Through People Framework, additional areas of research could be the study of organisations who have addressed cultural issues through the Excellence Through People Framework or comparable frameworks, and to compare their implementation of Total Quality Management against a control group who are introducing Total Quality Management without firstly addressing the cultural issues. Another area of research could be a comparative study of private and public sector organisations in the implementation of both the soft and hard aspects of Total Quality Management. It might also be beneficial to include the not for profit or third sector in a comparative study with the public and private sectors whereby organisational culture in the three sectors could be compared and contrasted. The International Organisation for Standardisation (ISO) has recognised the importance of the people aspects of quality management systems and a new ISO document titled Quality Management Systems-Guidelines for the Participation and Competences of People is currently in the process of being drafted and will be introduced in 2011 and will be known as ISO 10018. The purpose of this document is to provide guidance to an organisation in maximizing the involvement and contribution of people through the management of people aspects and organisational competence. This guidance leads to the effective interaction between people and processes that improves organisational performance to the mutual benefit of the organisation and its people (Source ISO, 2007). It would

be beneficial to measure the culture of an organisation both before and after these guidelines are implemented. Another area of future research could be the implementation of a Quality Management System i.e. ISO 9001:2000 or Total Quality Management in an organisation which has implemented ISO 10018 and compare that to the implementation in an organisation that has not implemented ISO 10018.

### **8.7 Conclusions of this research**

This research concludes that the people factors are key elements in the introduction of quality management systems into organisations. This is particularly so in the case of public sector organisations because they are less positive than public sector organisation in people factors including the area of organisational culture. As a result of this research a new Four Factor Model of Organisational Culture which comprises Fairness Culture, Commitment Culture, Development Culture and Empowerment Culture, has been developed which will help organisations to measure organisational culture before any change programme is implemented and will also assist in the design of change programmes to meet the specific needs of individual organisations. It will also enable organisations to measure if and how organisational culture changes during the implementation of a change programme.

The need to change or modernise the public sector is well accepted in most countries. However the success in achieving modernisation is quite varied as are the approaches used. This thesis proposes an approach either on its own or in conjunction with a cultural assessment which provides a framework for implementing change in the public sector.





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## **Appendix A**

**Descriptive Statistics for Time 1 Factors**

**SECTOR**

**Table 1.1**  
**Descriptive Statistics for Public Sector**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Maximum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
Fairness Culture1	98	1.10	7.00	3.8510	1.34542
Commitment Culture1	109	1.00	6.88	4.3555	1.40458
Development Culture1	105	1.25	7.00	4.7560	1.33310
Empowerment Culture1	109	1.00	7.00	5.3104	1.11191

**Table 1.2**  
**Descriptive Statistics for Private Sector**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Maximum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
Fairness Culture1	72	1.50	7.00	5.2056	1.20957
Commitment Culture1	73	3.13	7.00	5.5548	.88804
Development Culture1	72	2.00	7.00	5.4514	1.19446
Empowerment Culture1	73	3.67	7.00	5.8790	.86436

**GENDER**

**Table 2.1**  
**Descriptive Statistics for Males**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Maximum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
Fairness Culture1	100	1.50	7.00	4.6660	1.45694
Commitment Culture1	106	1.50	7.00	4.9811	1.32947
Development Culture1	105	1.25	7.00	5.1262	1.35513
Empowerment Culture1	107	2.00	7.00	5.5748	1.06380

**Table 2.2**  
**Descriptive Statistics for Females**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Maximum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
Fairness Culture1	70	1.10	6.90	4.0800	1.37962
Commitment Culture1	76	1.00	7.00	4.6349	1.37519
Development Culture1	72	1.25	7.00	4.9115	1.26617
Empowerment Culture1	75	1.00	7.00	5.4867	1.04722

**AGE**

**Table 3.1**  
**Descriptive Statistics for age 'under 25'**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Maximum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
Fairness Culture1	25	1.50	6.70	5.2080	1.11539
Commitment Culture1	25	2.50	7.00	5.5300	.95489
Development Culture1	26	2.00	6.88	5.6875	1.23908
Empowerment Culture1	26	4.83	7.00	6.2308	.64304

**Table 3.2**  
**Descriptive Statistics for age '26-36'**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Maximum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
Fairness Culture1	48	1.60	6.80	4.2146	1.44310
Commitment Culture1	52	2.00	6.88	4.4904	1.30817
Development Culture1	50	2.63	6.75	4.9250	1.09206
Empowerment Culture1	51	3.00	7.00	5.5458	.86736

**Table 3.3**  
**Descriptive Statistics for age '36-45'**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Maximum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
Fairness Culture1	57	1.60	7.00	4.3632	1.29857
Commitment Culture1	59	1.75	7.00	4.9025	1.28214
Development Culture1	56	1.63	7.00	4.9263	1.21398
Empowerment Culture1	59	2.33	7.00	5.4096	.96009

**Table 3.4**  
**Descriptive Statistics for age '46-55'**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Maximum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
Fairness Culture1	30	1.10	6.90	4.2267	1.63769
Commitment Culture1	34	1.00	6.88	4.6691	1.60104
Development Culture1	33	1.25	7.00	4.9242	1.65299
Empowerment Culture1	34	1.00	7.00	5.1667	1.41362

**Table 3.5**  
**Descriptive Statistics for age '56-65'**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Maximum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
Fairness Culture1	10	1.60	6.80	4.4200	2.02254
Commitment Culture1	12	1.88	6.63	5.0417	1.46680
Development Culture1	12	2.38	6.88	4.9479	1.61356
Empowerment Culture1	12	3.50	7.00	5.6944	1.19306

**Descriptive Statistics for age 'over 65'**  
*No respondents fell into this category*

**EDUCATION LEVEL**

**Table 4.1**  
**Descriptive Statistics for education 'Post Graduate'**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Maximum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
Fairness Culture1	14	2.50	7.00	5.2500	1.19984
Commitment Culture1	14	2.13	7.00	5.4554	1.27909
Development Culture1	13	4.38	7.00	5.7981	.81096
Empowerment Culture1	14	3.50	7.00	5.6429	1.01455

**Table 4.2**  
**Descriptive Statistics for education 'Degree'**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Maximum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
Fairness Culture1	15	3.30	6.80	5.3200	1.13779
Commitment Culture1	17	2.63	6.75	5.1397	1.33674
Development Culture1	17	4.13	6.75	5.6324	.79484
Empowerment Culture1	17	4.83	6.83	5.8039	.69531

**Table 4.3**  
**Descriptive Statistics for education 'Diploma'**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Maximum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
Fairness Culture1	24	1.60	6.50	4.3667	1.32687
Commitment Culture1	25	2.00	6.38	4.5800	1.16697
Development Culture1	23	3.00	6.88	4.9402	1.08703
Empowerment Culture1	25	3.00	6.67	5.4133	.86752

**Table 4.4**

**Descriptive Statistics for education ‘Certificate’**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Maximum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
Fairness Culture1	26	1.50	6.90	4.3808	1.54506
Commitment Culture1	26	1.75	7.00	4.7644	1.49094
Development Culture1	27	2.00	7.00	5.0926	1.35235
Empowerment Culture1	27	2.67	7.00	5.6543	1.01582

**Table 4.5**  
**Descriptive Statistics for education ‘Leaving Certificate’**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Maximum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
Fairness Culture1	71	1.10	6.80	4.1887	1.50205
Commitment Culture1	77	1.00	7.00	4.8458	1.34199
Development Culture1	75	1.25	6.88	4.8383	1.43728
Empowerment Culture1	76	1.00	7.00	5.4583	1.16432

**Table 4.6**  
**Descriptive Statistics for education ‘Junior Certificate’**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Maximum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
Fairness Culture1	8	2.40	5.50	4.2125	1.14821
Commitment Culture1	8	2.13	6.63	4.7344	1.45994
Development Culture1	7	3.88	6.00	4.8214	.64895
Empowerment Culture1	7	4.00	6.50	5.5000	.82776

**Table 4.7**  
**Descriptive Statistics for education ‘Others’**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Maximum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
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Fairness Culture1	9	1.60	5.80	3.9111	1.66617
Commitment Culture1	12	1.50	6.88	4.4167	1.66031
Development Culture1	12	1.25	7.00	4.7500	1.92177
Empowerment Culture1	13	2.00	7.00	5.5769	1.48076

**Length of Service**

**Table 5.1**  
**Descriptive Statistics for service 'under 2'**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Maximum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
Fairness Culture1	27	1.50	6.80	5.1815	1.26066
Commitment Culture1	27	2.50	7.00	5.5000	1.25910
Development Culture1	28	2.00	6.88	5.5536	1.22069
Empowerment Culture1	28	5.00	7.00	6.3274	.56013

**Table 5.2**  
**Descriptive Statistics for service '2 - 5'**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Maximum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
Fairness Culture1	18	2.50	6.50	5.1500	1.13669
Commitment Culture1	21	2.13	6.63	5.3988	.98791
Development Culture1	20	3.50	6.88	5.7438	.98715
Empowerment Culture1	21	3.50	6.83	5.9444	.86335



**Table 5.3**  
**Descriptive Statistics for service '5-10'**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Maximum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
Fairness Culture1	21	1.60	5.40	3.9095	1.11081
Commitment Culture1	21	2.00	6.25	4.2321	1.08850
Development Culture1	20	2.88	5.63	4.5000	.90048
Empowerment Culture1	21	3.00	6.67	5.2778	.89650

**Table 5.4**  
**Descriptive Statistics for service '10-15'**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Maximum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
Fairness Culture1	16	2.30	6.30	4.3688	1.17854
Commitment Culture1	18	2.88	6.00	4.5208	1.07208
Development Culture1	18	4.25	6.38	5.1875	.65761
Empowerment Culture1	17	4.17	6.33	5.3137	.60920

**Table 5.5**  
**Descriptive Statistics for service '15-20'**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Maximum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
Fairness Culture1	40	1.80	7.00	4.2525	1.53656
Commitment Culture1	43	1.75	7.00	4.8808	1.40072
Development Culture1	40	2.50	7.00	4.7656	1.33048
Empowerment Culture1	42	2.67	7.00	5.3452	.91539

**Table 5.6**  
**Descriptive Statistics for service 'over 20'**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Maximum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
Fairness Culture1	46	1.10	7.00	4.1065	1.61030
Commitment Culture1	50	1.00	6.88	4.5875	1.52973
Development Culture1	49	1.25	7.00	4.8495	1.62399
Empowerment Culture1	51	1.00	7.00	5.3039	1.34359

**Descriptive Statistics for Time 2 Factors**

**SECTOR**

**Table 1.1**  
**Descriptive Statistics for Public Sector**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Maximum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
Fairness Culture2	103	1.14	7.00	4.5825	1.45524
Commitment Culture2	110	2.13	7.00	5.5670	1.00781
Development Culture2	111	2.00	7.00	5.0412	1.30311
Empowerment Culture2	111	2.00	7.00	5.5946	1.30299

**Table 1.2**  
**Descriptive Statistics for Private Sector**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Maximum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
Fairness Culture2	73	1.07	7.00	5.1067	1.30595

Commitment Culture2	74	1.88	7.00	5.6385	1.02381
Development Culture2	74	1.57	7.00	5.4807	1.01611
Empowerment Culture2	74	3.50	7.00	6.1216	.86330

**GENDER**

**Table 2.1**  
**Descriptive Statistics for Males**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Maximum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
Fairness Culture2	105	1.07	7.00	4.8224	1.47407
Commitment Culture2	108	1.88	7.00	5.5382	1.07915
Development Culture2	109	1.57	7.00	5.2267	1.22817
Empowerment Culture2	108	2.00	7.00	5.8194	1.20447

**Table 2.2**  
**Descriptive Statistics for Females**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Maximum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
Fairness Culture2	71	1.50	7.00	4.7666	1.33325
Commitment Culture2	76	2.25	7.00	5.6776	.90904
Development Culture2	76	2.00	7.00	5.2030	1.19893
Empowerment Culture2	77	2.50	7.00	5.7857	1.13679

**AGE**

**Table 3.1**  
**Descriptive Statistics for age 'under 25'**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Maximum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
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Fairness Culture2	26	3.29	7.00	5.2060	1.06375
Commitment Culture2	26	4.50	7.00	5.9231	.74840
Development Culture2	26	3.57	7.00	5.7473	.78174
Empowerment Culture2	26	5.00	7.00	6.3077	.69393

**Table 3.2**  
Descriptive Statistics for age '26-36'

Variables	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Fairness Culture2	51	1.07	7.00	4.4776	1.58040
Commitment Culture2	51	1.88	7.00	5.4706	1.07109
Development Culture2	52	1.57	7.00	4.7692	1.26774
Empowerment Culture2	51	2.50	7.00	5.7255	1.18031

**Table 3.3**  
Descriptive Statistics for age '36-45'

Variables	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Fairness Culture2	58	2.14	7.00	4.8030	1.08692
Commitment Culture2	61	3.38	7.00	5.5615	.79635
Development Culture2	60	2.29	7.00	5.1738	.98943
Empowerment Culture2	60	3.00	7.00	5.6250	1.14841

**Table 3.4**  
Descriptive Statistics for age '46-55'

Variables	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Fairness Culture2	31	1.71	6.86	4.9078	1.67983

Commitment Culture2	34	2.13	7.00	5.4963	1.31119
Development Culture2	35	2.00	7.00	5.4286	1.43486
Empowerment Culture2	35	2.00	7.00	5.6714	1.36092

**Table 3.5**  
Descriptive Statistics for age '56-65'

Variables	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Fairness Culture2	10	1.14	6.93	5.0357	1.96836
Commitment Culture2	12	3.25	7.00	5.8750	1.22010
Development Culture2	12	2.29	7.00	5.6071	1.49225
Empowerment Culture2	13	2.50	7.00	6.3077	1.23387

**Descriptive Statistics for age 'over 65'**  
*No respondents fell into this category*

#### EDUCATION LEVEL

**Table 4.1**  
Descriptive Statistics for education 'Post Graduate'

Variables	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Fairness Culture2	14	3.43	7.00	5.5051	1.09819
Commitment Culture2	14	4.50	7.00	5.9375	.76547
Development Culture2	14	4.43	7.00	5.6429	.83441
Empowerment Culture2	14	4.00	7.00	5.7143	.89258

**Table 4.2**  
**Descriptive Statistics for education ‘Degree’**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Maximum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
Fairness Culture2	18	2.57	6.86	4.9325	1.38905
Commitment Culture 2	17	4.00	6.88	5.6985	.83275
Development Culture 2	18	2.71	6.86	5.1587	1.15424
Empowerment Culture 2	18	4.00	7.00	5.9444	.96846

**Table 4.3**  
**Descriptive Statistics for education ‘Diploma’**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Maximum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
Fairness Culture2	25	2.14	7.00	5.0171	1.10835
Commitment Culture2	26	3.75	7.00	5.6923	.70377
Development Culture2	25	3.00	7.00	5.1829	.93725
Empowerment Culture2	26	2.50	7.00	5.6538	1.30207

**Table 4.4**  
**Descriptive Statistics for education ‘Certificate’**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Maximum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
Fairness Culture 2	27	1.79	7.00	4.7619	1.54002
Commitment Culture2	28	3.38	7.00	5.6875	.94066
Development Culture2	27	2.43	7.00	5.1270	1.45489
Empowerment Culture2	27	3.00	7.00	5.8519	1.21540

**Table 4.5**  
**Descriptive Statistics for education ‘Leaving Certificate’**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Maximum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
Fairness Culture2	74	1.07	6.86	4.5222	1.36512
Commitment Culture2	77	1.88	7.00	5.4724	1.05241
Development Culture2	78	1.57	7.00	5.1703	1.15647

Empowerment Culture2	77	2.50	7.00	5.7792	1.14275
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**Table 4.6**  
Descriptive Statistics for education 'Junior Certificate'

Variables	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Fairness Culture2	6	4.21	6.86	5.7262	1.20663
Commitment Culture2	7	4.75	6.88	6.2321	.74452
Development Culture2	7	4.00	7.00	5.7755	.91791
Empowerment Culture2	7	5.50	7.00	6.5714	.60749

**Table 4.7**  
Descriptive Statistics for education 'Others'

Variables	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Fairness Culture2	11	1.14	6.93	4.6234	2.18695
Commitment Culture2	13	2.13	7.00	5.2308	1.71304
Development Culture2	13	2.00	7.00	5.1978	2.00131
Empowerment Culture2	13	2.00	7.00	5.7308	1.70313

**Length of Service**

**Table 5.1**  
Descriptive Statistics for service 'under 2'

Variables	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Fairness Culture2	28	2.57	7.00	5.1913	1.21826
Commitment Culture2	28	4.50	7.00	5.9420	.74495

Development Culture2	28	3.57	7.00	5.5255	.99739
Empowerment Culture2	28	3.00	7.00	6.1429	1.02611

**Table 5.2**  
**Descriptive Statistics for service '2-5'**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Maximum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
Fairness Culture2	19	3.00	6.64	4.9662	1.06755
Commitment Culture2	21	4.75	7.00	5.9286	.76298
Development Culture2	21	4.43	7.00	5.8095	.67057
Empowerment Culture2	21	4.50	7.00	6.1905	.73274

**Table 5.3**  
**Descriptive Statistics for service '5-10'**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Maximum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
Fairness Culture2	20	1.93	6.64	4.5571	1.40346
Commitment Culture2	20	3.13	6.25	5.1688	.90255
Development Culture2	21	2.43	6.57	4.8299	1.02082
Empowerment Culture2	21	2.50	7.00	5.4048	1.32871

**Table 5.4**  
**Descriptive Statistics for service '10-15'**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Maximum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
Fairness Culture2	18	1.07	6.57	4.6587	1.33351
Commitment Culture2	17	1.88	6.88	5.5074	1.09283



Development Culture2	17	1.57	6.71	4.7395	1.23845
Empowerment Culture2	17	2.50	7.00	5.5294	1.15204

**Table 5.5**  
Descriptive Statistics for service '15-20'

Variables	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Fairness Culture2	41	1.43	7.00	4.5139	1.46387
Commitment Culture2	45	2.25	7.00	5.3889	.95986
Development Culture2	45	2.00	7.00	4.9968	1.21007
Empowerment Culture2	44	3.50	7.00	5.7273	1.01989

**Table 5.6**  
Descriptive Statistics for service 'Over 20'

Variables	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Fairness Culture2	48	1.14	6.93	4.9256	1.60789
Commitment Culture2	51	2.13	7.00	5.6740	1.18587
Development Culture2	51	2.00	7.00	5.3697	1.41051
Empowerment Culture2	52	2.00	7.00	5.8077	1.36538

**Public Sector Survey 1**  
**What do employees like to see happening within the Organisation**

<u>COMMENT</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>% of respondents</u>
<u>Social Events</u>	8	7.1%
<u>Feedback from Management</u>	17	15.0%
<u>Training / Higher Education Opportunities</u>	9	8.0%
<u>Financial Reward</u>	24	21.2%
<u>Credit for work well done</u>	2	1.8%
<u>Job Satisfaction / Sense of Pride in Work</u>	23	20.4%
<u>Fair treatment / Equal treatment for staff</u>	16	14.2%
<u>Promotions / Career Advancement Opportunities</u>	16	14.2%
<u>Open Work environment / Good Communications</u>	4	3.5%
<u>Teamwork</u>	2	1.8%
<u>Personal Input / Involvement in Projects / Decision making</u>	4	3.5%
<u>Good working conditions</u>	4	3.5%
<u>Job Variety / Flexibility</u>	12	10.6%
<u>Clear Planning / Good working procedures</u>	4	3.5%
<u>Co-operation between Departments / Managers</u>	1	0.9%
<u>Keep on top of workload</u>	1	0.9%
<u>Company objectives being achieved</u>	2	1.8%
<u>Ongoing improvement in company</u>	7	6.2%
<u>Over-Time</u>	1	0.9%

**What is the biggest mistake an employee can make?**

<u>COMMENT</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>% of respondents</u>
<u>Absenteeism</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>0.9%</u>
<u>Arriving Late</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1.8%</u>
<u>Criticising Management</u>	<u>15</u>	<u>15.0%</u>
<u>Financial errors</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>5.3%</u>
<u>Careless Attitude / Laziness</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>1.8%</u>
<u>Insubordination</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>0.9%</u>
<u>Bad attitude at work</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>1.8%</u>
<u>Portraying the organisation badly to clients</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1.8%</u>
<u>Not being a team player</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>5.3%</u>
<u>Stealing / Fraud</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>5.3%</u>
<u>Concealing errors / Dishonesty</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.9%</u>
<u>Think for themselves</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>0.9%</u>
<u>Being Honest</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>0.9%</u>
<u>Setting unrealistic targets</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>0.9%</u>
<u>Disillusionment</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>8.8%</u>
<u>Making mistakes</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.9%</u>
<u>Being loyal</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>0.9%</u>
<u>Lack of pride in work</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>2.7%</u>
<u>Make enemies in company</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>4.4%</u>
<u>Not reaching Targets</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>0.9%</u>
<u>Think you are irreplaceable</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>0.9%</u>

**Which work problems can keep you awake at night?**

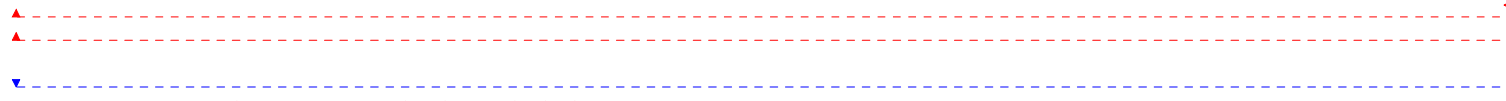
<u>COMMENT</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>% of respondents</u>
<u>Lack of guidance / support from management</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.9%</u>
<u>Customer complaints</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>6.2%</u>

<u>Discrimination / Bullying</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>2.7%</u>
<u>Mislaying Information / Personal error at work</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>5.3%</u>
<u>Confrontations with colleagues / problems with other staff</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1.8%</u>
<u>Future prospects</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.9%</u>
<u>Decentralisation</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.9%</u>
<u>General frustration with work</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.9%</u>
<u>People who breach confidentiality</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>2.7%</u>
<u>Financial anomalies</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>3.5%</u>
<u>Being unqualified for task</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1.8%</u>
<u>Technology problems</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1.8%</u>
<u>Audits</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.9%</u>
<u>Breakdown in essential services</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.9%</u>

What type of people are likely to advance quickly in their career here?

<u>COMMENT</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>% of respondents</u>
<u>Individuals with Higher Education qualifications</u>	<u>13</u>	<u>11.5%</u>
<u>People who perform well at interview</u>	<u>12</u>	<u>10.6%</u>
<u>Sycophants / "Yes Men"</u>	<u>12</u>	<u>10.6%</u>
<u>Good workers</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>3.5%</u>
<u>Staff who are easy to work with</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>7.1%</u>
<u>Confident individuals</u>	<u>28</u>	<u>24.8%</u>
<u>People in certain departments / in the know</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>7.1%</u>
<u>Good communicators</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>0.0%</u>
<u>Efficient staff</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>6.2%</u>
<u>People with good experience in area</u>	<u>17</u>	<u>15.0%</u>
<u>Ambitious / self motivated people</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>2.7%</u>
<u>Males</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1.8%</u>
<u>People who deal well with pressure</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>2.7%</u>

<u>Intelligent people</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>3.5%</u>
<u>People with a good overall knowledge of department / organisation</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.9%</u>
<u>Adept / capable / competent people</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1.8%</u>
<u>Outspoken / Assertive people</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>4.4%</u>
<u>Committed / Loyal / Diligent people</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1.8%</u>
<u>People who "sell themselves"</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>3.5%</u>
<u>Civil service stereotypes</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.9%</u>
<u>Decisive Individuals</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>2.7%</u>
<u>Willing to learn / capable of learning</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.9%</u>
<u>Females</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.9%</u>



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What occasions are celebrated in this organisation?

<u>COMMENT</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>% of respondents</u>
<u>Promotions / Retirements / Departures</u>	<u>28</u>	<u>24.8%</u>
<u>Christmas</u>	<u>46</u>	<u>40.7%</u>
<u>Services for deceased colleagues</u>	<u>13</u>	<u>11.5%</u>
<u>Successful project completions / Project launches</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>6.2%</u>
<u>Weddings / Birthdays</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>6.2%</u>
<u>Very Little / None</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1.8%</u>
<u>Department / Section parties</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1.8%</u>
<u>Charity events</u>	<u>16</u>	<u>14.2%</u>

What aspects of your work give you most satisfaction?

<u>COMMENT</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>% of respondents</u>
<u>Dealing with the public / clients</u>	<u>11</u>	<u>9.7%</u>
<u>Positive feedback form clients / other staff</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>2.7%</u>
<u>Variety of work</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>5.3%</u>
<u>Seeing tasks through from start to finish</u>	<u>40</u>	<u>35.4%</u>
<u>Doing a good job / completing tasks efficiently</u>	<u>12</u>	<u>10.6%</u>
<u>Good relationships with fellow staff</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>3.5%</u>
<u>All of it</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1.8%</u>
<u>Job satisfaction / rewarding work</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>5.3%</u>
<u>Working on own initiative / personal control of my work</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>8.0%</u>
<u>Helping colleagues</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>5.3%</u>
<u>Keeping up to date with new innovations in my area</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>3.5%</u>
<u>None of it / very little</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>8.8%</u>
<u>Problem solving</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1.8%</u>
<u>Getting paid</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>4.4%</u>
<u>Good atmosphere at work</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.9%</u>
<u>Flexibility of job</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.9%</u>
<u>Making things run smoothly</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.9%</u>

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**What do employees like to see happening within the Organisation**

<u>COMMENT</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>% of respondents</u>
<u>Social Events</u>	<u>12</u>	<u>10.6%</u>
<u>Feedback from Management</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>4.4%</u>
<u>Training / Higher Education Opportunities</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>7.1%</u>
<u>Financial Reward</u>	<u>17</u>	<u>15.0%</u>
<u>Credit for work well done</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>6.2%</u>
<u>Confidence in Management</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.9%</u>
<u>Job Satisfaction / Sense of Pride in Work</u>	<u>13</u>	<u>11.5%</u>
<u>Fair treatment / Equal treatment for staff</u>	<u>17</u>	<u>15.0%</u>
<u>Promotions / Career Advancement Opportunities</u>	<u>17</u>	<u>15.0%</u>
<u>Open Work environment / Good Communications</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>6.2%</u>
<u>Teamwork</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>6.2%</u>
<u>Good working conditions</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.9%</u>
<u>Job Variety / Flexibility</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>8.0%</u>
<u>Clear Planning / Good working procedures</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.9%</u>
<u>Co-operation between Departments / Managers</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.9%</u>
<u>Keep on top of workload</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.9%</u>
<u>Investment in new technology</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.9%</u>
<u>Good Quality Work</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1.8%</u>
<u>Safety at work</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1.8%</u>
<u>Company objectives being achieved</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>3.5%</u>

**What is the biggest mistake an employee can make?**

<u>COMMENT</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>% of respondents</u>
<u>Absenteeism</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.9%</u>
<u>Arriving Late</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1.8%</u>
<u>Criticising Management</u>	<u>17</u>	<u>15.0%</u>

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Variables

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<u>Financial errors</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>5.3%</u>
<u>Careless Attitude / Laziness</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1.8%</u>
<u>Insubordination</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.9%</u>
<u>Bad attitude at work</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1.8%</u>
<u>Portraying the organisation badly to clients</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1.8%</u>
<u>Not being a team player</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>5.3%</u>
<u>Stealing / Fraud</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>5.3%</u>
<u>Concealing errors / Dishonesty</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.9%</u>
<u>Think for themselves</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.9%</u>
<u>Being Honest</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.9%</u>
<u>Setting unrealistic targets</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.9%</u>
<u>Disillusionment</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>8.8%</u>
<u>Making mistakes</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.9%</u>
<u>Being loyal</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.9%</u>
<u>Lack of pride in work</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>2.7%</u>
<u>Make enemies in company</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>4.4%</u>
<u>Not reaching Targets</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.9%</u>
<u>Think you are irreplaceable</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.9%</u>

**Which work problems can keep you awake at night?**

<u>COMMENT</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>% of respondents</u>
<u>Customer complaints</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>8.8%</u>
<u>Mislaying Information / Personal error at work</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.9%</u>
<u>Financial anomalies</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1.8%</u>
<u>Being unqualified for task</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.9%</u>
<u>Difficult decisions</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>8.0%</u>
<u>Exams</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1.8%</u>
<u>Job security</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.9%</u>



What type of people are likely to advance quickly in their career here?

<u>COMMENT</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>% of respondents</u>
<u>Individuals with Higher Education qualifications</u>	<u>12</u>	<u>10.6%</u>
<u>People who perform well at interview</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>6.2%</u>
<u>Sycophants / "Yes Men"</u>	<u>11</u>	<u>9.7%</u>
<u>Good workers</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>2.7%</u>
<u>Staff who are easy to work with</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>8.8%</u>
<u>Confident individuals</u>	<u>25</u>	<u>22.1%</u>
<u>People in certain departments / in the know</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>4.4%</u>
<u>Good communicators</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.9%</u>
<u>People with good experience in area</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>8.0%</u>
<u>Ambitious / self motivated people</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>2.7%</u>
<u>Males</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.9%</u>
<u>Intelligent people</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1.8%</u>
<u>People with a good overall knowledge of department / organisation</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>3.5%</u>
<u>Outspoken / Assertive people</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>2.7%</u>
<u>Committed / Loyal / Diligent people</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1.8%</u>
<u>People who "sell themselves"</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>2.7%</u>
<u>Civil service stereotypes</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.9%</u>
<u>Young people</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.9%</u>
<u>Decisive Individuals</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1.8%</u>
<u>Willing to learn / capable of learning</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.9%</u>
<u>Irish people</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1.8%</u>
<u>Females</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.9%</u>
<u>Self-centered people</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1.8%</u>

What occasions are celebrated in this organisation?

<u>COMMENT</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>% of respondents</u>
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<u>Promotions / Retirements / Departures</u>	<u>53</u>	<u>46.9%</u>
<u>Christmas</u>	<u>22</u>	<u>19.5%</u>
<u>Services for deceased colleagues</u>	<u>27</u>	<u>23.9%</u>
<u>Successful project completions / Project launches</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>2.7%</u>
<u>Weddings / Birthdays</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.9%</u>
<u>Charity events</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>2.7%</u>

**What aspects of your work give you most satisfaction?**

<u>COMMENT</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>% of respondents</u>
<u>Dealing with the public / clients</u>	<u>16</u>	<u>14.2%</u>
<u>Positive feedback form clients / other staff</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.9%</u>
<u>Variety of work</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.9%</u>
<u>Seeing tasks through from start to finish</u>	<u>41</u>	<u>36.3%</u>
<u>Doing a good job / completing tasks efficiently</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>4.4%</u>
<u>Good relationships with fellow staff</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1.8%</u>
<u>All of it</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1.8%</u>
<u>Job satisfaction / rewarding work</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1.8%</u>
<u>Working on own initiative / personal control of my work</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>6.2%</u>
<u>Keeping up to date with new innovations in my area</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1.8%</u>
<u>None of it / very little</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>8.0%</u>
<u>Problem solving</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.9%</u>
<u>Getting paid</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>3.5%</u>
<u>Improving standards in workplace</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1.8%</u>
<u>Good atmosphere at work</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>6.2%</u>
<u>Project work / working as part of a team</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.9%</u>
<u>Making things run smoothly</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>5.3%</u>

What is the biggest mistake an employee can make?

<u>COMMENT</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>% of respondents</u>
<u>Speaking out against inefficiency</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1.3%</u>
<u>Arriving Late</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>1.3%</u>
<u>Financial errors</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>13.3%</u>
<u>Careless Attitude / Laziness</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>2.7%</u>
<u>Insubordination</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4.0%</u>
<u>Bad attitude at work</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1.3%</u>
<u>Portraying the organisation badly to clients</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>2.7%</u>
<u>Stealing / Fraud</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>6.7%</u>
<u>Being Honest</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>2.7%</u>
<u>Disillusionment</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1.3%</u>
<u>Lack of pride in work</u>	<u>11</u>	<u>6.7%</u>
<u>Make enemies in company</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>4.0%</u>
<u>Entering the organisation without training</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>1.3%</u>
<u>Not open to change</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1.3%</u>
<u>Not reaching Targets</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>13.3%</u>
<u>Get involved in internal politics</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>1.3%</u>

Private sector survey 1

What do employees like to see happening within the Organisation

<u>COMMENT</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>% of respondents</u>
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<u>Social Events</u>	9	12.0%
<u>Feedback from Management</u>	4	5.3%
<u>Training / Higher Education Opportunities</u>	11	14.7%
<u>Financial Reward</u>	11	14.7%
<u>Credit for work well done</u>	1	1.3%
<u>Confidence in Management</u>	2	2.7%
<u>Job Satisfaction / Sense of Pride in Work</u>	11	14.7%
<u>Fair treatment / Equal treatment for staff</u>	7	9.3%
<u>Promotions / Career Advancement Opportunities</u>	10	13.3%
<u>Open Work environment / Good Communications</u>	3	4.0%
<u>Teamwork</u>	5	6.7%
<u>Personal Input / Involvement in Projects / Decision making</u>	5	6.7%
<u>Job Variety / Flexibility</u>	4	5.3%
<u>Fully staffed departments</u>	1	1.3%
<u>Keep on top of workload</u>	4	5.3%
<u>Investment in new technology</u>	2	2.7%
<u>Good Quality Work</u>	8	10.7%
<u>Happy Customers</u>	3	4.0%
<u>Job Security</u>	4	5.3%
<u>Safety at work</u>	1	1.3%
<u>Company objectives being achieved</u>	6	8.0%
<u>Working Day to End</u>	1	1.3%

What is the biggest mistake an employee can make? -

<u>COMMENT</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>% of respondents</u>
<u>Speaking out against inefficiency</u>	2	1.3%
<u>Arriving Late</u>	3	1.3%
<u>Financial errors</u>	10	13.3%
<u>Careless Attitude / Laziness</u>	3	2.7%
<u>Insubordination</u>	3	4.0%
<u>Bad attitude at work</u>	1	1.3%
<u>Portraying the organisation badly to clients</u>	2	2.7%

<u>Stealing / Fraud</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>6.7%</u>
<u>Being Honest</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>2.7%</u>
<u>Disillusionment</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1.3%</u>
<u>Lack of pride in work</u>	<u>11</u>	<u>6.7%</u>
<u>Make enemies in company</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>4.0%</u>
<u>Entering the organisation without training</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>1.3%</u>
<u>Not open to change</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1.3%</u>
<u>Not reaching Targets</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>13.3%</u>
<u>Get involved in internal politics</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>1.3%</u>

**Which work problems can keep you awake at night?**

<u>COMMENT</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>% of respondents</u>
-	-	-
<u>Customer complaints</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>9.3%</u>
<u>Discrimination / Bullying</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1.3%</u>
<u>Mislaying Information / Personal error at work</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1.3%</u>
<u>Long-term problems</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1.3%</u>
<u>Lack of staff</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1.3%</u>
<u>Management pressures</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4.0%</u>
<u>Exams</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1.3%</u>
<u>Equipment Problems</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1.3%</u>
<u>Safety Issues</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1.3%</u>

**What type of people are likely to advance quickly in their career here?**

<u>COMMENT</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>% of respondents</u>
-	-	-
<u>Individuals with Higher Education qualifications</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1.3%</u>
<u>People who perform well at interview</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>2.7%</u>
<u>Sycophants / "Yes Men"</u>	<u>21</u>	<u>28.0%</u>

<u>Good workers</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6.7%</u>
<u>Staff who are easy to work with</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1.3%</u>
<u>Confident individuals</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>12.0%</u>
<u>People in certain departments / in the know</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>2.7%</u>
<u>Efficient staff</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>2.7%</u>
<u>People with good experience in area</u>	<u>12</u>	<u>16.0%</u>
<u>Males</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4.0%</u>
<u>People who deal well with pressure</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>12.0%</u>
<u>Aloof individuals</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5.3%</u>
<u>Intelligent people</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>2.7%</u>
<u>People with a good overall knowledge of department / organisation</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4.0%</u>
<u>Adept / capable / competent people</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1.3%</u>
<u>Outspoken / Assertive people</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>13.3%</u>
<u>Committed / Loyal / Diligent people</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4.0%</u>
<u>"Safe" people</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1.3%</u>
<u>Decisive Individuals</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>9.3%</u>
<u>Willing to learn / capable of learning</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4.0%</u>
<u>Irish people</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>2.7%</u>
<u>Team players</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1.3%</u>

**What occasions are celebrated in this organisation?**

<u>COMMENT</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>% of respondents</u>
<u>Promotions / Retirements / Departures</u>	<u>22</u>	<u>29.3%</u>
<u>Christmas</u>	<u>29</u>	<u>38.7%</u>
<u>Services for deceased colleagues</u>	<u>35</u>	<u>46.7%</u>
<u>Successful project completions / Project launches</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6.7%</u>
<u>Charity events</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4.0%</u>
<u>Sport and Social Club outings</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>2.7%</u>

**What aspects of your work give you most satisfaction?**

<u>COMMENT</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>% of respondents</u>
<u>Dealing with the public / clients</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>12.0%</u>
<u>Positive feedback form clients / other staff</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4.0%</u>
<u>Seeing tasks through from start to finish</u>	<u>35</u>	<u>46.7%</u>
<u>Job satisfaction / rewarding work</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4.0%</u>
<u>Working on own initiative / personal control of my work</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>10.7%</u>
<u>None of it / very little</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>12.0%</u>
<u>Problem solving</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>2.7%</u>
<u>Getting paid</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>2.7%</u>
<u>Good atmosphere at work</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>2.7%</u>
<u>Project work / working as part of a team</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1.3%</u>
<u>Flexibility of job</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1.3%</u>
<u>Doing useful/quality work</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5.3%</u>
<u>Union work</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1.3%</u>
<u>Making things run smoothly</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1.3%</u>
<u>Learning on the job / New Skills</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1.3%</u>
<u>Solving Environmental Problems</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1.3%</u>

**What do employees like to see happening within the Organisation**

<u>COMMENT</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>% of respondents</u>
<u>Social Events</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>2.7%</u>
<u>Feedback from Management</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1.3%</u>
<u>Training / Higher Education Opportunities</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>10.7%</u>
<u>Financial Reward</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>10.7%</u>
<u>Credit for work well done</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1.3%</u>
<u>Job Satisfaction / Sense of Pride in Work</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>8.0%</u>
<u>Fair treatment / Equal treatment for staff</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>8.0%</u>
<u>Promotions / Career Advancement Opportunities</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>12.0%</u>
<u>Open Work environment / Good Communications</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>2.7%</u>
<u>Teamwork</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5.3%</u>

<u>Personal Input / Involvement in Projects / Decision making</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5.3%</u>
<u>Job Variety / Flexibility</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4.0%</u>
<u>Fully staffed departments</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1.3%</u>
<u>Keep on top of workload</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>2.7%</u>
<u>Good Quality Work</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>10.7%</u>
<u>Safety at work</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1.3%</u>
<u>Company objectives being achieved</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>9.3%</u>

**Which work problems can keep you awake at night?**

-	-	-
<u>COMMENT</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>% of respondents</u>
<u>Customer complaints</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6.7%</u>
<u>Mislaying Information / Personal error at work</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4.0%</u>
<u>Decentralisation</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>2.7%</u>
<u>Lack of staff</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1.3%</u>
<u>Management pressures</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1.3%</u>
<u>Equipment Problems</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4.0%</u>
<u>Safety Issues</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1.3%</u>
<u>Audits</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>0.0%</u>
<u>Breakdown in essential services</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>2.7%</u>

**What is the biggest mistake an employee can make?**

-	-	-
<u>COMMENT</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>% of respondents</u>
<u>Speaking out against inefficiency</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1.3%</u>
<u>Arriving Late</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1.3%</u>
<u>Financial errors</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>13.3%</u>
<u>Careless Attitude / Laziness</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>2.7%</u>
<u>Insubordination</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4.0%</u>
<u>Bad attitude at work</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1.3%</u>
<u>Portraying the organisation badly to clients</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>2.7%</u>
<u>Stealing / Fraud</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6.7%</u>



<u>Being Honest</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>2.7%</u>
<u>Disillusionment</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1.3%</u>
<u>Lack of pride in work</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6.7%</u>
<u>Make enemies in company</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4.0%</u>
<u>Entering the organisation without training</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1.3%</u>
<u>Not open to change</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1.3%</u>
<u>Not reaching targets</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>13.3%</u>
<u>Get involved in internal politics</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1.3%</u>

**What type of people are likely to advance quickly in their career here?**

<u>COMMENT</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>% of respondents</u>
<u>People who perform well at interview</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>2.7%</u>
<u>Sycophants / "Yes Men"</u>	<u>17</u>	<u>22.7%</u>
<u>Good workers</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>2.7%</u>
<u>Staff who are easy to work with</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4.0%</u>
<u>Confident individuals</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6.7%</u>
<u>People in certain departments / in the know</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>8.0%</u>
<u>People with good experience in area</u>	<u>14</u>	<u>18.7%</u>
<u>Ambitious / self motivated people</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1.3%</u>
<u>Males</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>2.7%</u>
<u>People who deal well with pressure</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>9.3%</u>
<u>Intelligent people</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1.3%</u>
<u>People with a good overall knowledge of department / organisation</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6.7%</u>

<u>Adept / capable / competent people</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1.3%</u>
<u>Outspoken / Assertive people</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6.7%</u>
<u>Committed / Loyal / Diligent people</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>2.7%</u>
<u>Decisive Individuals</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>2.7%</u>
<u>Irish people</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5.3%</u>
<u>Team players</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1.3%</u>

**What occasions are celebrated in this organisation?**

-	-	-
		<b><u>% of</u></b>
<b><u>COMMENT</u></b>	<b><u>Number</u></b>	<b><u>respondents</u></b>
<u>Promotions / Retirements / Departures</u>	<u>22</u>	<u>29.3%</u>
<u>Christmas</u>	<u>11</u>	<u>14.7%</u>
<u>Services for deceased colleagues</u>	<u>37</u>	<u>49.3%</u>
<u>Successful project completions / Project launches</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1.3%</u>
<u>Very Little / None</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1.3%</u>
<u>Charity events</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4.0%</u>

**What aspects of your work give you most satisfaction?**

-	-	-
		<b><u>% of</u></b>
<b><u>COMMENT</u></b>	<b><u>Number</u></b>	<b><u>respondents</u></b>
<u>Dealing with the public / clients</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5.3%</u>
<u>Positive feedback form clients / other staff</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5.3%</u>

<u>Variety of work</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1.3%</u>
<u>Seeing tasks through from start to finish</u>	<u>16</u>	<u>21.3%</u>
<u>Doing a good job / completing tasks efficiently</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>2.7%</u>
<u>All of it</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1.3%</u>
<u>Job satisfaction / rewarding work</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5.3%</u>
<u>Working on own initiative / personal control of my work</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1.3%</u>
<u>None of it / very little</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>13.3%</u>
<u>Problem solving</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1.3%</u>
<u>Getting paid</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1.3%</u>
<u>Good atmosphere at work</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>8.0%</u>
<u>Flexibility of job</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>8.0%</u>
<u>Doing useful/quality work</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5.3%</u>
<u>Union work</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>2.7%</u>
<u>Making things run smoothly</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6.7%</u>

Additional Questions 10 (a), (b), ©

	-	<u>Public</u>	- <u>Std</u> <u>dev</u>	-	<u>Private</u>
<u>TIME 1</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>N</u>		<u>Mean</u>	<u>N</u>
<u>10 (a) Are most decisions effecting your work taken</u>	<u>1.89</u>	<u>113</u>	<u>0.59</u>	<u>1.78</u>	<u>72</u>
<u>10 (b) To what extent is improvement part of your work?</u>	<u>2.99</u>	<u>111</u>	<u>0.76</u>	<u>3.36</u>	<u>72</u>
<u>10 (c) How much flexibility do you have in carrying out your work?</u>	<u>2.32</u>	<u>113</u>	<u>0.56</u>	<u>2.44</u>	<u>72</u>
<u>TIME 2</u>	-	-	-	-	-
<u>10 (a) Are most decisions effecting your work taken</u>	<u>1.79</u>	<u>112</u>	<u>0.56</u>	<u>1.77</u>	<u>75</u>
<u>10 (b) To what extent is improvement part of your work?</u>	<u>3.13</u>	<u>111</u>	<u>0.65</u>	<u>3.45</u>	<u>75</u>
<u>10 (c) How much flexibility do you have in carrying out your work?</u>	<u>2.39</u>	<u>112</u>	<u>0.54</u>	<u>2.33</u>	<u>75</u>

Anova Test for Fairness Culture Factor								
Fairness Culture	Time 1	N	Mean	Standard Deviation		df	Mean Square	
Organisations	Public Sector 1	14.00	405.00	1.17	Between Groups	6.00	17.21	
	Public Sector 2	66.00	3.58	1.22		163.00	1.55	
	Private Sector 1	25.00	4.47	1.34		Total	169.00	
	Private Sector 2	27.00	5.22	1.23				
	Private Sector 3	6.00	6.13	0.55				
	Public Sector 3	18.00	4.32	1.65				
	Private Sector 4	14.00	5.58	0.78				
	Total	170.00	4.42	1.45				
	Fairness Culture	Time 2					df	Mean Square
		Public Sector 1	14.00	4.91	1.25	Between Groups	6.00	8.93
Public Sector 2		69.00	4.28	1.28	169.00		1.76	
Private Sector 1		26.00	4.46	1.42	Total		175.00	
Private Sector 2		27.00	5.20	1.20				
Private Sector 3		6.00	5.68	0.87				
Public Sector 3		20.00	5.38	1.83				
Private Sector 4		14.00	5.88	0.88				
Total		176	4.80	1.42				

Anova Test for Commitment Culture Factor								
Fairness Culture	Time 1	N	Mean	Standard Deviation		df	Mean Square	
Organisations	Public Sector 1	16.00	5.13	1.07	Between Groups	6.00	13.25	
	Public Sector 2	73.00	4.16	1.33		175.00	1.45	
	Private Sector 1	25.00	5.44	0.83		Total	181.00	
	Private Sector 2	28.00	5.54	0.99				
	Private Sector 3	6.00	6.31	0.57				
	Public Sector 3	20.00	4.45	1.70				
	Private Sector 4	14.00	5.50	0.81				
	Total	182.00	4.83	1.36				
	Fairness Culture	Time 2					df	Mean Square
		Public Sector 1	15.00	5.74	1.09	Between Groups	6.00	2.02
Public Sector 2		74.00	5.48	0.80	177.00		0.99	
Private Sector 1		25.00	5.30	1.25	Total		183.00	
Private Sector 2		29.00	5.54	0.88				
Private Sector 3		6.00	6.43	0.47				

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	Public Sector 3	21.00	5.74	1.51	
	Private Sector 4	14.00	6.11	0.69	
	Total	184.00	5.95	1.01	

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Anova Test for Development Culture Factor								
Fairness Culture	Time 1	N	Mean	Standard Deviation		df	Mean Square	
Organisations	Public Sector 1	14.00	5.04	1.20	Between Groups	6.00	5.59	
	Public Sector 2	71.00	4.62	1.23		170.00	1.61	
	Private Sector 1	26.00	5.14	1.33		176.00		
	Private Sector 2	26.00	5.41	1.21	Within Groups			
	Private Sector 3	6.00	6.40	0.44				
	Public Sector 3	20.00	5.05	1.72				
	Private Sector 4	14.00	5.70	0.91				
	Total	177.00	5.04	1.32	Total			
	Fairness Culture	Time 2					df	Mean Square
		Public Sector 1	16.00	5.73	1.18	Between Groups	6.00	5.91
Public Sector 2		74.00	4.72	1.14	178.00		1.32	
Private Sector 1		25.00	5.19	1.21	184.00			
Private Sector 2		29.00	5.51	0.93	Within Groups			
Private Sector 3		6.00	5.86	0.96				
Public Sector 3		21.00	5.64	1.54				
Private Sector 4		14.00	5.76	0.71				
Total		185.00	5.21	1.21	Total			

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Anova Test for Empowerment Culture Factor								
Fairness Culture	Time 1	N	Mean	Standard Deviation		df	Mean Square	
Organisations	Public Sector 1	16.00	5.94	0.69	Between Groups	6.00	5.81	
	Public Sector 2	72.00	5.10	1.06		175.00	0.952	
	Private Sector 1	26.00	5.78	0.78		181.00		
	Private Sector 2	27.00	5.56	0.97	Within Groups			
	Private Sector 3	6.00	6.61	0.40				
	Public Sector 3	21.00	5.55	1.32				
	Private Sector 4	14.00	6.40	0.48				
	Total	182.00	5.54	1.05	Total			
	Fairness Culture	Time 2					df	Mean Square
		Public Sector 1	16.00	5.63	1.23	Between Groups	6.00	5.14

Deleted: 1¶

	Public Sector 2	73.00	5.41	1.25	Within Groups Total	178.00	1.25
	Private Sector 1	25.00	5.90	0.89		184.00	
	Private Sector 2	29.00	5.93	0.89			
	Private Sector 3	6.00	6.75	0.42			
	Public Sector 3	22.00	6.18	1.41			
	Private Sector 4	14.00	6.64				
	Total	185	5.80				

Deleted: 1¶

## SECTOR

**Table 1.1**  
Descriptive Statistics for Public Sector

Variables	Mini mum	Maxi mum	M e a n	Std. Deviation
FairnessCulture2	1.14	7.00	4 .5 8 2 5	1.45524
CommitmentCulture2	2.13	7.00	5 .5 6 7 0	1.00781
DevelopmentCulture2	2.00	7.00	5 .0 4 1 2	1.30311
EmpowermentCulture2	2.00	7.00	5 .5 9 4 6	1.30299

**Table 1.2**  
Descriptive Statistics for Private Sector

Variables	Mini mum	Maxi mum	M e a n	Std. Deviation
FairnessCulture2	1.07	7.00	5 .1 0 6 7	1.30595
CommitmentCulture2	1.88	7.00	5 .6 3 8 5	1.02381
DevelopmentCulture2	1.57	7.00	5 .4 8 0 7	1.01611
EmpowermentCulture2	3.50	7.00	6 .1 2 1 6	.86330

## GENDER

**Table 2.1**



**Descriptive Statistics for Males**

Variables		Mini mum	Maxi mum	M e a n	Std. Deviation
FairnessCulture2		1.07	7.00	4 . 8 2 2 4	1.47407
CommitmentCulture2		1.88	7.00	5 . 5 3 8 2	1.07915
DevelopmentCulture2		1.57	7.00	5 . 2 2 6 7	1.22817
EmpowermentCulture2		2.00	7.00	5 . 8 1 9 4	1.20447

**Table 2.2**  
**Descriptive Statistics for Females**

Variables		Mini mum	Maxi mum	M e a n	Std. Deviation
FairnessCulture2		1.50	7.00	4 . 7 6 6 6	1.33325
CommitmentCulture2		2.25	7.00	5 . 6 7 7 6	.90904
DevelopmentCulture2		2.00	7.00	5 . 2 0 3 0	1.19893
EmpowermentCulture2		2.50	7.00	5 . 7 8 5 7	1.13679

**Table 3.1**  
**Descriptive Statistics for age 'under 25'**

Variables		Mini mum	Maxi mum	M e a n	Std. Deviation
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				<b>n</b>	
FairnessCulture2		3.29	7.00	52060	1.06375
CommitmentCulture2		4.50	7.00	59231	.74840
DevelopmentCulture2		3.57	7.00	57473	.78174
EmpowermentCulture2		5.00	7.00	63077	.69393

**Table 3.2**  
Descriptive Statistics for age '26-36'

<b>Variables</b>		<b>Mini mum</b>	<b>Maxi mum</b>	<b>M e a n</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
FairnessCulture2		1.07	7.00	44776	1.58040
CommitmentCulture2		1.88	7.00	54706	1.07109
DevelopmentCulture2		1.57	7.00	47692	1.26774
EmpowermentCulture2		2.50	7.00	57255	1.18031

**Table 3.3**  
Descriptive Statistics for age '36-45'

<b>Variables</b>		<b>Mini mum</b>	<b>Maxi mum</b>	<b>M e a n</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
FairnessCulture2		2.14	7.00	4830	1.08692
CommitmentCulture2		3.38	7.00	55	.79635

				6 1 5	
DevelopmentCulture2		2.29	7.00	5 .1 7 3 8	.98943
EmpowermentCulture2		3.00	7.00	5 .6 2 5 0	1.14841

**Table 3.4**  
**Descriptive Statistics for age '46-55'**

Variables		Mini mum	Maxi mum	M e a n	Std. Deviation
FairnessCulture2		1.71	6.86	4 .9 0 7 8	1.67983
CommitmentCulture2		2.13	7.00	5 .4 9 6 3	1.31119
DevelopmentCulture2		2.00	7.00	5 .4 2 8 6	1.43486
EmpowermentCulture2		2.00	7.00	5 .6 7 1 4	1.36092

**Table 3.5**  
**Descriptive Statistics for age '56-65'**

Variables		Mini mum	Maxi mum	M e a n	Std. Deviation
FairnessCulture2		1.14	6.93	5 .0 3 5 7	1.96836
CommitmentCulture2		3.25	7.00	5 .8 7 5 0	1.22010
DevelopmentCulture2		2.29	7.00	5 .6 0 7 1	1.49225
EmpowermentCulture2		2.50	7.00	6	1.23387

				.3077	
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**Descriptive Statistics for age 'over 65'**  
*No respondents fell into this category*

**EDUCATION LEVEL**

**Table 4.1**  
**Descriptive Statistics for education 'Post Graduate'**

Variables		Mini mum	Maxi mum	M e a n	Std. Deviation
FairnessCulture2		3.43	7.00	5.5051	1.09819
CommitmentCulture2		4.50	7.00	5.9375	.76547
DevelopmentCulture2		4.43	7.00	5.6429	.83441
EmpowermentCulture2		4.00	7.00	5.7143	.89258

**Table 4.2**  
**Descriptive Statistics for education 'Degree'**

Variables		Mini mum	Maxi mum	M e a n	Std. Deviation
FairnessCulture2		2.57	6.86	4.9325	1.38905
CommitmentCulture2		4.00	6.88	5.6985	.83275
DevelopmentCulture2		2.71	6.86	5.1587	1.15424
EmpowermentCulture2		4.00	7.00	5.944	.96846

				4	
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**Table 4.3**  
**Descriptive Statistics for education ‘Diploma’**

Variables		Mini mum	Maxi mum	M e a n	Std. Deviation
FairnessCulture2		2.14	7.00	5 . 0 1 7 1	1.10835
CommitmentCulture2		3.75	7.00	5 . 6 9 2 3	.70377
DevelopmentCulture2		3.00	7.00	5 . 1 8 2 9	.93725
EmpowermentCulture2		2.50	7.00	5 . 6 5 3 8	1.30207

**Table 4.4**  
**Descriptive Statistics for education ‘Certificate’**

Variables		Mini mum	Maxi mum	M e a n	Std. Deviation
FairnessCulture2		1.79	7.00	4 . 7 6 1 9	1.54002
CommitmentCulture2		3.38	7.00	5 . 6 8 7 5	.94066
DevelopmentCulture2		2.43	7.00	5 . 1 2 7 0	1.45489
EmpowermentCulture2		3.00	7.00	5 . 8 5 1 9	1.21540

**Table 4.5**  
**Descriptive Statistics for education ‘Leaving Certificate’**

Variables		Mini mum	Maxi mum	M e a n	Std. Deviation
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FairnessCulture2		1.07	6.86	4 .5 2 2 2	1.36512
CommitmentCulture2		1.88	7.00	5 .4 7 2 4	1.05241
DevelopmentCulture2		1.57	7.00	5 .1 7 0 3	1.15647
EmpowermentCulture2		2.50	7.00	5 .7 7 9 2	1.14275

**Table 4.6**  
**Descriptive Statistics for education 'Junior Certificate'**

Variables		Mini mum	Maxi mum	M e a n	Std. Deviation
FairnessCulture2		4.21	6.86	5 .7 2 6 2	1.20663
CommitmentCulture2		4.75	6.88	6 .2 3 2 1	.74452
DevelopmentCulture2		4.00	7.00	5 .7 7 5 5	.91791
EmpowermentCulture2		5.50	7.00	6 .5 7 1 4	.60749

**Table 4.7**  
**Descriptive Statistics for education 'Others'**

Variables		Mini mum	Maxi mum	M e a n	Std. Deviation
FairnessCulture2		1.14	6.93	4 .6 2 3 4	2.18695

CommitmentCulture2		2.13	7.00	5 . 2 3 0 8	1.71304
DevelopmentCulture2		2.00	7.00	5 . 1 9 7 8	2.00131
EmpowermentCulture2		2.00	7.00	5 . 7 3 0 8	1.70313

### TENURE

**Table 5.1**  
Descriptive Statistics for tenure 'under 2'

Variables		Mini mum	Maxi mum	M e a n	Std. Deviation
FairnessCulture2		2.57	7.00	5 . 1 9 1 3	1.21826
CommitmentCulture2		4.50	7.00	5 . 9 4 2 0	.74495
DevelopmentCulture2		3.57	7.00	5 . 5 2 5 5	.99739
EmpowermentCulture2		3.00	7.00	6 . 1 4 2 9	1.02611

**Table 5.2**  
Descriptive Statistics for tenure '2-5'

Variables		Mini mum	Maxi mum	M e a n	Std. Deviation
FairnessCulture2		3.00	6.64	4 . 9 6 6 2	1.06755
CommitmentCulture2		4.75	7.00	5 . 9 2 8 6	.76298
DevelopmentCulture2		4.43	7.00	5 .	.67057

				8 0 9 5	
EmpowermentCulture2		4.50	7.00	6 . 1 9 0 5	.73274

**Table 5.3**  
**Descriptive Statistics for tenure '5-10'**

<b>Variables</b>		<b>Mini mum</b>	<b>Maxi mum</b>	<b>M e a n</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
FairnessCulture2		1.93	6.64	4 . 5 5 7 1	1.40346
CommitmentCulture2		3.13	6.25	5 . 1 6 8 8	.90255
DevelopmentCulture2		2.43	6.57	4 . 8 2 9 9	1.02082
EmpowermentCulture2		2.50	7.00	5 . 4 0 4 8	1.32871

**Table 5.4**  
**Descriptive Statistics for tenure '10-15'**

<b>Variables</b>		<b>Mini mum</b>	<b>Maxi mum</b>	<b>M e a n</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
FairnessCulture2		1.07	6.57	4 . 6 5 8 7	1.33351
CommitmentCulture2		1.88	6.88	5 . 5 0 7 4	1.09283
DevelopmentCulture2		1.57	6.71	4 . 7 3 9 5	1.23845
EmpowermentCulture2		2.50	7.00	5 . 5	1.15204



				2 9 4	
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**Table 5.5**  
**Descriptive Statistics for tenure '15-20'**

Variables		Mini mum	Maxi mum	M e a n	Std. Deviation
FairnessCulture2		1.43	7.00	4 . 5 1 3 9	1.46387
CommitmentCulture2		2.25	7.00	5 . 3 8 8 9	.95986
DevelopmentCulture2		2.00	7.00	4 . 9 9 6 8	1.21007
EmpowermentCulture2		3.50	7.00	5 . 7 2 7 3	1.01989

**Table 5.6**  
**Descriptive Statistics for tenure 'Over 20'**

Variables		Mini mum	Maxi mum	M e a n	Std. Deviation
FairnessCulture2		1.14	6.93	4 . 9 2 5 6	1.60789
CommitmentCulture2		2.13	7.00	5 . 6 7 4 0	1.18587
DevelopmentCulture2		2.00	7.00	5 . 3 6 9 7	1.41051
EmpowermentCulture2		2.00	7.00	5 . 8 0 7 7	1.36538

## **Appendix B**

## Excellence Through People Standard

### 1. Review of organisation plans and objectives

(a) Does the organisation prepare plans for its operations?

\_\_\_\_\_

(b) Does the organisation plan cover a specific period

\_\_\_\_\_

(c) Does the organisation plan take recognition of market, technological, financial, legislative and personnel/human resource requirements?

\_\_\_\_\_

(d) Is the organisation plan divided into departmental plans, with specific objectives and targets?

\_\_\_\_\_

(e) Is a review period and mechanism for the plan in operation?

\_\_\_\_\_

(f) Is performance against the plan evaluated?

\_\_\_\_\_

(g) What categories of employees are involved in the preparation of the organisation/departmental plans and in the review process?

\_\_\_\_\_

(h) Does the organisation have ISO 9000, Quality mark, FDA, ISO 14001 or other Certification? (please specify)

\_\_\_\_\_

## 2. Preparation of organization training plan

(a) Does the organisation have a policy on training approved by the Chief Executive/Managing Director?

\_\_\_\_\_

(b) Does an organisation training plan exist for the period under review?

\_\_\_\_\_

(c) Is the training plan based on the overall organisation plan?

\_\_\_\_\_

(d) Does the organisation training plan cover all categories of employees?

\_\_\_\_\_

(e) Have standards of performance been set and agreed with employees?

\_\_\_\_\_

(f) Is the training plan based on the identification of needs of individuals and groups of employees?

\_\_\_\_\_

(g) What is the involvement of employees in the preparation of the organisation training plan and the review process?

\_\_\_\_\_

(h) Have priority areas been highlighted in the organisation training plan?

\_\_\_\_\_

(i) What is the review period and mechanism for the plan?

\_\_\_\_\_

(j) Has the training plan for the organisation/department been approved by the Chief Executive/Managing Director?

\_\_\_\_\_

(k) What performance review systems are in operation?

\_\_\_\_\_

(l) Does training take account of the health & safety of employees?

\_\_\_\_\_

(m) Does the organisation have a training manager/co-ordinator?

\_\_\_\_\_

(n) What is the gross training cost/investment as a percentage of salaries/wages?

\_\_\_\_\_

### 3. Review of training

(a) What validation criteria are outlined for training activities?

\_\_\_\_\_

(b) Are training activities validated against the above criteria?

\_\_\_\_\_

(c) How does the validation process check that the training affects job performance?

\_\_\_\_\_

(d) What action is taken as a result of the review process?

\_\_\_\_\_

(e) What assessment systems are used for training activities?

\_\_\_\_\_

(f) What training activities are assessed and certified?

\_\_\_\_\_

4. Implementation of training

(a) Are written training programmes available both for individuals and for job categories?

\_\_\_\_\_

(b) Are the training objectives clearly defined?

\_\_\_\_\_

(c) Is the training objective linked to work performance?

\_\_\_\_\_

(d) Have individual training objectives been set and agreed with employees?

\_\_\_\_\_

(e) To what extent were the training objectives achieved?

\_\_\_\_\_

(f) Have those implementing the programme had suitable development in training and in the subject matter concerned?

\_\_\_\_\_

(g) How many people were trained in comparison with the training plan?

\_\_\_\_\_

5. Training and development records

(a) Are records of training and development activity maintained for each employee?

\_\_\_\_\_

(b) Are training and development records signed by/accessible to the employee?

\_\_\_\_\_

6. Employee communication and involvement

(a) What structures exist to facilitate effective internal communication?

\_\_\_\_\_

(b) What structures exist to facilitate employee involvement?

\_\_\_\_\_

(c) Does the organisation operate a quality improvement programme?

\_\_\_\_\_

(d) Is teamwork in operation in the organisation?

\_\_\_\_\_

(e) Does the organisation provide training for teams?

\_\_\_\_\_

(f) What other methods are used to facilitate involvement and communication?

\_\_\_\_\_

(g) Does the organisation have a policy on employee involvement approved by the Chief Executive/Managing Director?

\_\_\_\_\_

(h) What methods does the organisation use to obtain employee feedback?

\_\_\_\_\_

(i) What action has been taken as a result of feedback received to date?

\_\_\_\_\_

(j) What involvement have employees had in the design and follow-up of feedback systems?

\_\_\_\_\_



## **Appendix C**

## **Excellence Through People Revised Standard**

### 1 Business planning and quality improvement 150 points

The organisation plans where it is going and continuously improves its approach to quality

Standard level

1A The organisation has a documented Business Plan which sets out its measurable goals and objectives and takes into account external factors e.g. Market, technological, financial, legislative and human resource requirements.

1B The organisation can show how it cascades relevant sections of its Business Plan down to departmental/team plans and individual plans with measurable goals and targets.

1C The organisation can show that it reviews its Business Plans on a regular basis and communicates changes to staff.

1D People at all levels in the organisation can describe what the business objectives mean for their job.

1E The organisation can show that it operates a quality improvement programme.

Gold level

1F The organisation's Business Plan includes specific strategies for staff learning and development.

1G The organisation can show that it has achieved relevant quality standards/certification e.g. ISO 9001, EFQM, Quality Mark, FDA, Environmental Certification or other sector accreditation.

1H People involved in benchmarking activities can describe the development they have undertaken to support them in their role.

1I The organisation can show that it develops effective teamwork in its quality improvement programmes.

Platinum level

improvement in its business performance1J The organisation can show how it uses improvement tools e.g. Balanced Score Card, Effective Customer Service, Six Sigma, Total Quality Improvement etc, to communicate and motivate its people to focus on the key goals and objectives.

1K The organisation can show how its approach to Business Planning is improving its

performance and demonstrates people involvement in the process.

1L The organisation can show how quality improvement programmes have improved

its performance.

1M The organisation effectively uses technology to improve the quality of its products/services.

1N The organisation can show that it uses effective internal and external benchmarking activities and such activities show a sustained and continuous.

## 2 Effective communication and people involvement 125 points

The organisation communicates with and encourages its people in an effective manner

Standard level

2A The organisation has a communications policy and mechanisms which keep people informed on a regular basis and support an open and inclusive culture.

2B The organisation can show that groups of employees are kept informed in an effective manner e.g. departmental groups, teams, Staff Representative Committees, Trade Unions etc.

Gold level

2C People can describe how they contribute to the organisation's communications.

2D People can describe how they are encouraged to share their learning outcomes with fellow team members.

2E The organisation uses evaluation methods to measure the effectiveness of its

communication systems.

2F The organisation encourages and adopts Partnership approaches with staff.

Platinum level

2G The organisation carries out a regular review of staff attitudes and implements actions as a result.

2H Staff can describe their involvement in improvement activities identified as a result of attitude reviews.

2I The organisation has a clearly defined Community Policy, understood by all staff, and can show that it encourages and supports people in contributing to community involvement activities.

### 3 Leadership and people management 150 points

The organisation leads and manages its people and their performance to pre-determined objectives in a competent and effective manner

Standard level

3A Managers can describe how the organisation plans and implements development to enhance their skills in line with the Business Plan and can provide examples of how they have applied the learning acquired.

3B The organisation can show that all people and managers undergo a formal Performance Review at least once per year and can provide examples of how the review has impacted on their success in their job.

3C Managers and people can provide examples of how they have been developed to participate effectively in a Performance Review discussion.

3D People have clearly defined job objectives with measurable goals and targets.

3E The organisation can demonstrate to all people that it values them as individuals and their input to business success.

Gold level

3F Groups of people have clearly defined team/department objectives with measurable goals and targets.

3G The organisation can show that all managers and people undergo a formal and interim Performance Review every year.

3H The organisation can show that its Management Performance Review process is effective at measuring the progress of managers carrying out their staff development responsibilities.

3I The organisation effectively communicates its key selection criteria for management positions in order to facilitate internal promotion opportunities.

3J People throughout the organisation can describe how their manager is effective at motivating them.

Platinum level

3K People can describe how they contribute to the Performance Review of their line manager.

3L The organisation can show improvements made to their Performance Review Process

as a result of people feedback.

3M The organisation has clearly defined competencies which underpin manager and people performance.

3N The organisation has a clear vision and values which directly link to the Performance Indicators at individual, team and organisation levels.

3O The organisation can show that it has an effective succession planning and career

development plan in place.

3P The organisation can show that changes to its Business Plans have an effect on manager and people competencies where applicable.

3Q The organisation can show that its approach to leadership and people management is effective at improving performance.

#### 4 Planning of learning and development 100 points

The organisation plans the development of its people in support of the achievement of its business objectives

Standard level

4A The organisation has a Learning and Development Policy and Plan which shows a direct link to the Business Objectives.

4B The organisational Learning and Development Plan covers all departments, grades of staff, priorities and overall costs.

4C People can describe how they contribute to the Learning Needs Analysis and the range of learning methods available to them.

4D People can describe the objectives for learning and development planned for them at their performance review and how they fit with individual, departmental and organisational objectives.

4E The organisation has a designated person responsible for the co-ordination of staff learning.

4F The organisational Learning and Development Plan includes team development needs and has a specific category for management development.

Gold level

4G The person responsible for the co-ordinating of staff learning holds an appropriate professional qualification e.g. CIPD, IMI, IITD, NUI.

4H The organisation can show that the Plan is amended/adjusted in line with organisational, staff or other changes.

Platinum level

4I Individual Personal Development Plans exist for all staff which can be linked to departmental, team and organisational objectives.

4J The organisation can demonstrate its use of skills/competence matrices to support the planning of individual and team development.

4K People can describe how the organisation plans their development as individuals outside their normal job related activities.

## 5 Training and life long learning 150 points

The organisation maintains and continuously improves a culture of learning and development

Standard level

5A Learning programmes are in place for job categories and individuals.

5B The organisation can show that it effectively inducts new staff and provides effective support for staff transferred/promoted to new roles.

5C Line managers can describe how they contribute to the induction of new or transferred/ promoted people.

5D The organisation can show that the majority of the learning activities identified within its Learning and Development Plan have been implemented and can show the use of accredited programmes in its delivery of learning and development.

5E The organisation can show that trainers are suitably developed in training techniques.

Gold level

5F People can describe how they have contributed to the evaluation of their induction.

5G People can describe how they are effectively developed prior to the implementation of new or revised processes within the organisation.

Platinum level

5H The organisation has physical resources dedicated to the provision of learning activities e.g. training rooms, learning library, centre for learning etc.

5I The organisation can show sustained and regular improvements in the quality of learning and development delivery and activities.

5J The organisation can show that each new staff member is provided with effective guidance and support through the use of experienced colleagues, mentors, buddies etc.

## 6 Review of learning 100 points

The organisation reviews the impact that people's learning and development has had on performance and identifies improvements as a result

Standard level

6A The organisation can show that evaluation criteria are set out for planned learning and development activities and that such activities are assessed and certified where applicable.

6B Managers can provide examples of how they assist staff to evaluate the outcomes of learning activities at individual, team and organisational levels.

6C People can describe how learning and development activities have impacted on their performance and that of their team and the organisation.

6D Senior management can describe how they evaluate the impact of staff learning and development on the performance of the organisation and what actions they take as a result.

Gold level

6E Managers can describe development that they have received in setting objectives and evaluating learning and development activities.

6F The organisation can show improvements to management approaches made as a result of learning and development activities.

Platinum level

6G The organisation can show behavioural changes achieved as a result of staff learning and development and that such changes have been documented.

6H The organisation can show that it uses evaluation approaches e.g. Kirkpatrick's Model/Phillip's Model to establish outcomes that influence improved performance.

### 7 Recruitment and selection 100 points

The organisation recruits and selects its people in a professional, fair and competent manner in support of its business objectives

Standard level

7A The organisation can show that its recruitment and selection policies and procedures are in line with all current and relevant legislation and also demonstrate a commitment to non-discrimination, accommodating diversity and promoting equality.

7B People with recruitment and selection responsibilities can provide examples of development that they have received to support them in their role.

7C The organisation can show that it has up-to-date and accurate job descriptions, personnel specifications and/or assessment criteria for all positions being advertised.

7D The organisation can show that recruitment interview notes and scoring documents are retained in a confidential location.



Gold level

7E The organisation can show that its approach to recruitment and selection has contributed to its performance.

7F The organisation can show that it uses a range of relevant assessment tools in its recruitment and selection processes.

Platinum level

7G The organisation has an effective skills/competence framework for people participating in selection interviews.

7H The organisation can show that it takes a strategic approach to recruitment and selection in support of its business objectives.

8 Employee wellbeing 125 points

The organisation provides for the health, safety and well-being of all its people in a fair and non-discriminatory manner

Standard level

8A The organisation can show that it conforms with all relevant and current health and safety legislation.

8B Managers can describe their responsibilities for the health, safety and wellbeing of their staff and have received appropriate development.

8C The organisation has an Equal Opportunities Policy which addresses diversity, equality and disability and which has been effectively communicated to people throughout all departments and locations.

8D The organisation has specific strategies to ensure that all employees have equality of opportunity to have their learning needs reviewed and supported and people can describe the approaches taken.

8E The organisation completes regular reviews of its policies and practices which support the needs of a diverse workforce and people with disabilities.

Gold level

8F The organisation can show that it develops individuals and teams in support of problem solving health and safety issues.

8G The organisation can define its strategies which support staff wellbeing.

8H The organisation can show that it develops managers, trainers and employees in support of an awareness around and of skills in relation to issues of non-discrimination, accommodating diversity and promoting equality.

8I The organisation has complaints, appeal and review procedures to facilitate equality of opportunity.

Platinum level

8J The organisation can show that it measures staff perception on its approaches to health and safety, equality and wellbeing.

8K The organisation has an appointed person who has responsibility for Equal Opportunities which include planning and reviewing practices and policies which facilitate the needs of a diverse workforce and people with disabilities.

8L The organisation has a proven track record for hiring people with disabilities or actively encouraging their recruitment.

8M The organisation provides learning and information aids in alternative formats for people with disabilities.

8N The organisation can show that the facilities it uses provides ease of access for employees and job applicants who have physical and/or sensory disabilities.

8O The organisation can show that its wellbeing strategies contribute to the success of its performance.

Source FAS

## **Appendix D**

# Investors in People Standard

## Principles

## Indicators

### Commitment

An Investor in People Organisation is fully committed to developing its people in order to achieve its aims and objectives...

- 1) The organisation is committed to supporting the development of its people.
- 2) People are encouraged to improve their own and other peoples performance
- 3) People believe their contribution to the organisation is recognized
- 4) The organisation is committed to ensuring equality of opportunity in the development of its people

### Planning

An Investor in People organisation is clear about its aims and its objectives and what its people need to do to achieve them

- .....5) The organisation has a plan with clear aims and objectives which are understood by everyone
- 6) The development of people is in line with the organizations aims and objectives

### Action

An Investor in People Organization objectives

- 7) People understand how they contribute to achieving the organizations aims and

develops its people  
effectively in order to  
improve its performance

Evaluation

An Investor in People  
Organization  
understands the impact of  
its investment in people  
on its performance  
.....

8) Managers are effective in supporting the  
development of people

9) People learn and develop effectively

10) The development of people improves  
the performance of the organisation,  
teams and individuals

11) People understand the impact of the ...  
development  
of people on the performance of the  
organisation, teams and individuals

12) The organisation gets better at developing its  
people

Source IiP UK

## **Appendix E**

## The Investors in People Revised Standard

### Principle:

Developing strategies to improve the performance of the organisation

-An Investor in People develops effective strategies to improve the performance of the organisation through its people

### Indicators

- 1) A strategy for improving the performance of the organisation is clearly defined and understood
- 2) Learning and development is planned to achieve the organisation's objectives
- 3) Strategies for managing people are designed to promote equality of opportunity in the development of the organisation's people
- 4) The capabilities managers need to lead, manage and develop people effectively are clearly defined and understood

### Principle:

Taking action to improve the performance of the organisation

-An Investor in People takes effective action to improve the performance of the organisation through its people

### Indicators

- 5) Managers are effective in leading, managing and developing people
- 6) People's contribution to the organisation is recognised and .... valued
- 7) People are encouraged to take ownership and responsibility by being involved in decision-making
- 8) People learn and develop effectively

Principle:

Evaluating the impact on the performance of the organisation

-An Investor in People can demonstrate the impact of its investment in people on the performance of the organisation

Indicators

- 9) Investment in people improves the performance of the organisation
- 10) Improvements are continually made to the way people are managed and developed

Source IiP UK



# QUESTIONNAIRE

**Organisation Name:** \_\_\_\_\_

**Questionnaire Number:** \_\_\_\_\_

Your co-operation in completing this questionnaire is appreciated. The purpose of the questionnaire is part of the pilot study on introducing the Excellence Through People Standard within the Public Sector.

Your responses to the questions will be grouped with other responses and will be compared to responses from other organisations in order to identify any differences between public and private sector organisations.

Individual responses will not be identified.

Some personal information on respondents to the questionnaire is required in order to assist with the analysis.

Please circle the appropriate number.

**Which of the following best describe your present position (please tick only one)**

Manager, Professional, Supervisor, Technical, Craft, Apprentice, Semi-Skilled, Administration,  
 1            2            3            4            5            6            7            8  
 Clerical, Other \_\_\_\_\_?  
 9            10

**Education Level:**  
(please tick only one)

Post-Graduate/ Degree/ Diploma, Certificate, Leaving Certificate/ Junior Certificate/  
 1            2            3            4            5            6  
 Other \_\_\_\_\_?  
 7

**Gender:**

Male / Female  
 1            2

**Age:**

Under 25 / 26-35 / 36-45 / 46-55 / 56-65 / over 65  
 1            2            3            4            5            6

**Length of Service:**

under 2 year / 2-5 years / 5-10 years / 10-15 years / 15-20 years / over 20 years  
 1            2            3            4            5            6

**Key:**

Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

- |       |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|-------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 (a) | The reality of your organisation compares accurately with its external image? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 1 (b) | Employees have a sense of pride in working for the organisation?              | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 1 ©   | There is consistency between decisions, actions and promises of management?   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 1 (d) | Employees have confidence in the organisation and its management?             | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

**Key:**

	Strongly Disagree 1	Moderately Disagree 2	Slightly Disagree 3	Neither Agree or Disagree 4	Slightly Agree 5	Moderately Agree 6	Strongly Agree 7
2 (a) Employees get fair treatment from the organisation and management?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2 (b) Pay and benefits compare favourably with other organisations?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2 © Employees are able to voice criticisms and get satisfaction?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2 (d) Employees get recognition and rewards for efforts made?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3 (a) "Them and us" attitudes do not exist between management and non-management staff?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3 (b) Consideration and respect are given to employees by managers?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3 © Employees regard the working atmosphere in the organisation as very good.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3 (d) Employees listen to and have respect for managers?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4 (a) Mutual trust exists between managers and employees?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4 (b) Managers are willing to listen and be questioned?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4 © There is communication and freedom of information?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4 (d) Employees get feedback from requests and suggestions?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5 (a) There is a clear relationship between employees' work and the organisation's goals and objectives?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5 (b) Employees get pride and satisfaction from their work?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5 © Employees' personal expectations are fulfilled from their work?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5 (d) Employees are encouraged to meet customer requirements?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**Key:**

	Strongly Disagree 1	Moderately Disagree 2	Slightly Disagree 3	Neither Agree or Disagree 4	Slightly Agree 5	Moderately Agree 6	Strongly Agree 7
6 (a) Information is provided to employees regarding the organisation's future plans and policies?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6 (b) Employees believe that the organisation is addressing the real cause of problems (within the organisation)?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6 © Managers deal with mistakes in a fair manner?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6 (d) A friendly, open-style of management exists?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7 (a) A positive attitude exists towards the development of employees?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7 (b) Good education and training facilities are provided?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7 © Employees are responsible for their own work quality and performance?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7 (d) Employees are encouraged to work on their own initiative?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8 (a) A good team spirit exists within the department?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8 (b) Good working relationships exist between different parts of the organisation?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8 © Meetings are effective and of value to the organisation?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8 (d) A caring and motivating style of management exists?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9 (a) Employees are very loyal to the organisation?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9 (b) There is a sense of belonging and being part of the organisation?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9 © Employees consider their jobs to be worthwhile?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9 (d) The organisation is dedicated to high quality standards?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

- 10 (a) Are most decisions affecting your work taken
- (a) by yourself
  - (b) within your section
  - (c) outside your section
- circle most common response
- 10 (b) To what extent is improvement part of your work?
- (a) never
  - (b) rarely
  - (c) frequently
  - (d) always
- circle most common response
- 10 © How much flexibility do you have in carrying out your work?  
(This does not relate to working hours)
- (a) no flexibility
  - (b) some flexibility
  - (c) a high degree of flexibility
- circle most common response
- 10 (d) What do employees like to see happening within the organisation?
- 10 (e) What is the biggest mistake an employee can make?
- 10 (f) Which work problems (if any) can keep you awake at night?
- 10 (g) What special terms or phrases are used here that only employees would understand?

**10 (h) What kind of people are most likely to advance quickly in their career here?**

**10 (i) What occasions or events are celebrated in this organisation?**

**10 (j) What aspects of your work give you most satisfaction?**

## **Appendix G**



## **Private Sector Organisation 1**

### **Section 1-Review of Organisation Plans and Objectives**

#### **First Assessment**

##### Strengths

The organization's plans and objectives are based on the parent company's goals. These plans have extensive goals, objectives and budgets and are reviewed regularly.

The company has ISO 9002, ISO 14001 and CE Mark accreditation.

##### Areas for Improvement

None

#### **Second Assessment**

##### Strengths

There is a "corporate based" one year business plan, categorized under the headings of Business, People and Costs.

The plan in turn gives rise to departmental plans with specific objectives and targets.

The plan is reviewed quarterly and performances evaluated.

Employee categories from first line management up are involved in the preparation of business plans with involvement of operative levels in goals setting.

The company has ISO 9002, ISO 14001 and CE Mark accreditation.

##### Areas for Improvement

The hard copy or email circulated copies of business plans should have the signature or email approval of the plant manager. (Category 3)

### **Section 2 Preparation of Organisation Training Plan**

#### **First Assessment**

### Strengths

The training plan is linked to the business plan.

All employees have an input to the training plan.

The systems and procedures operated by the company are very good.

### Areas of Improvement

Priorities are recognized but are not obvious in the Training Plan and the Chief Executive does not formally sign the plan. (Category 3)

There is no separate Identification of Training Needs (ITN) document although the company does follow a defined methodology in forming the Training Plan.

## **Second Assessment**

### Strengths

There is a document company training policy, which is visible and circulated to all employees.

There are signed written training plans derived from the business goals.

These plans are in matrix/versatility format and tie in where appropriate with similar training plan activities identified in other locations of the organisation.

All employee categories are included and training needs are prioritized. There is a procedure for reviewing the training plan.

### Areas for Improvement

None

## **Section 3 – Review of Training**

### **First Assessment**

#### Strengths

The company uses various methods to evaluate their training including performance appraisal, teamwork, job performance, evaluation sheets, written tests, pre course/post course interview and certification.



### Areas for Improvement

It is suggested that these methods be formalized in a written evaluation procedure.  
(Category 2)

The company should consider introducing Certification of Competence for Internal Training (Category 3)

## **Section 4 Implementation of Training**

### **First Assessment**

#### Strengths

Written training programmes are available for all training exercises and these state training objectives, which are linked to job performance and are signed and agreed with all participants.

#### Areas of Improvement

The company would benefit from using the FAS training standard QA 5801. (Category 2)

The company should seek external accreditation for their “train the trainer” course.

### **Second Assessment**

#### Strengths

Internal training programmes are well designed with course specification, which meet FAS QA 5801 requirements.

Training objectives linked to work performance are agreed during performance review reflect the business goals.

Most training objectives were achieved.

Training is carried out by qualified training/subject matter experts.

Over 75% of planned training took place and this is tracked via the tri-monthly “attendance and training” report.

### Areas of Improvement

It is recommended that

- a) External training programmes have a “course specification” and meet QA 58/01 Standard (Category 2)
- b) In house trainers be certified to FAS/City and Guilds Standard. (Category 3)

## **Section 5 – Training and Development Records**

### **First Assessment**

#### Strengths

The training and development records are excellent.

Individual records are maintained and signed off.

#### Areas for Improvement

None

### **Second Assessment**

#### Strengths

The training and development records are excellent.

Individual records are maintained and signed off.

#### Areas for Improvement

None

## **Section 6 – Communication and Involvement**

### **First Assessment**

#### Strengths

The company’s philosophy is that “the Key to success is its People”.

This is reflected in a range of facilitative measures including teamwork (every employee is actively involved in teams), a range of communication media is used e.g. one to one appraisal, meetings and team briefings.

Employee feedback and action plans are formalized through the team process, which is then actioned and reviewed.

#### Areas for Improvement

The company should consider carrying out an independent attitude survey. (Category 2)

### **Second Assessment**

#### Strengths

A wide range of structures are in place to facilitate employee communication and involvement. These include email; quarterly meetings, team meetings, publications, notice board and TV monitor displays. Involvement is promoted through project teams, feasibility projects, presentations, interviews and company visits for project/product transfer.

The company operates a cost improvement programme.

Team working and teamwork training is very evident.

An employee survey has been completed and results fed back to the employees. In turn employees have been involved through project teams, review committees etc, in implementing actions to meet the survey findings.

#### Areas for Improvement

It is recommended that the communications policy be extended to include employee involvement. (Category 3)

## **Private Sector Organisation 2**

### **Section 1 – Review of Organisation Plans and Objectives**

#### Strengths

The company has prepared a set of three-year strategic objectives based on the requirements and strategic thrusts of the 5-year corporate strategic plan. Annual marketing and operational plans are derived from the strategic objectives which are prominently displayed.

The annual organizational business plan addresses all the relevant areas with particular emphasis on and a direct linkage to the human resource requirements. Each department has developed its own mission statement.

A documented review policy/procedure exists and the plan is reviewed and evaluated both at monthly and quarterly management meetings. A score carding system is currently being developed to facilitate this review process.

Company management prepares the overall plan based on the business needs and objectives. The review process is carried out with inputs from cross-functional teams such as the TOPS Group (Through Our People Success) and Facilitator Groups.

The company has product accreditation from the Food and Drugs Administration (FDA), the Irish Pharmaceutical Healthcare Association and the Irish Medicines Board.

#### Areas for Improvement

The organisation should investigate relevant certification for their quality system. (Category 2)

The company should continue to develop the score carding system to further enhance the review process. (Category 3)

Employees should be given the opportunity to become involved in the preparation of their own departmental plans and objectives. (Category 3)

### **Second Assessment**

#### Strengths

The company has prepared a set of three-year strategic objectives based on the requirements and strategic thrusts of the 5-year corporate strategic plan. Annual marketing and operational plans are derived from the strategic objectives which are prominently displayed.

The annual organisational business plan addresses all the relevant areas with particular emphasis on and a direct linkage to the human resource requirements. Each department has developed its own mission statement.

A documented review policy/procedure exists and the plan is reviewed and evaluated both at monthly and quarterly management meetings. A scorecarding system is currently being developed to facilitate this review process.

Company management prepares the overall plan based on the business needs and objectives. The review process is carried out with inputs from cross-functional teams such as the TOPS Group (Through Our People Success) and Facilitator Groups.

The company has product accreditation from the Food and Drugs administration (FDA), the Irish Pharmaceutical Healthcare Association and the Irish Medicines Board.

All sales representatives carry out Strength, Weakness, Opportunities and Treats (SWOT) Analysis on their regions and this data is fed into the Organisational Plan.

#### Areas for Improvement

The organisation should investigate relevant certification for their quality system. (Category2)

The company should continue to develop the score carding system to further enhance the review process. (Category 3)

Employees should be given the opportunity to become involved in the preparation of their own departmental plans and objectives. (Category 3)

## **Section 2 – Preparation of Organisation Training Plan**

### **First Assessment**

#### Strengths

The organisation has a documented policy on training in the form of a training Charter, however, circulation and understanding of the policy were poor.

The overall training plan is approved by the chief executive and exists for the period under review. It is directly linked to the human resource requirements in the business plan.

Priority areas are identified and addressed in the training plan through strategic objectives being cascaded into departmental and individual objectives.

Role profiles, which were developed in conjunction with existing jobholders outline the competency level and standard set and expected.

Individual performance management reviews identify training needs and personal development plans assist in the achievement of objectives set and agreed.

A documented procedure has been prepared for reviewing the training plan, which is reviewed monthly by the training department.

A formal performance management system is in operation and standards of performance, which outline specific objectives and targets for achievement have been set and agreed with employees. A personal development plan and a phased training plan assist individuals to achieve expected performance.

The training manager reports directly to the chief executive.

The company has spent 10.71% of total salaries on direct course costs this, however, does not reflect their full training investment.

#### Areas for Improvement

Circulate the documented policy on training to all staff to ensure full understanding. (Category 3)

Collect the total costs of training to more accurately cost their investment. (Category 3)

Encourage management to take full responsibility for the training of their own staff by preparing training plans for their own departments. (Category 3)

### **Second Assessment**

#### Strengths

The organisation has a documented policy on training in the form of a Training Charter, however, circulation and understanding of the policy were poor.

The overall training plan is approved by the chief executive and exists for the period under review. It is directly linked to the human resource requirements in the business plan.

Priority areas are identified and addressed in the training plan through strategic objectives being cascaded into departmental and individual objectives.

Role profiles, which were developed in conjunction with existing jobholders outline the competency level and standard set and expected.

Individual performance management reviews identify training needs and personal development plans assist in the achievement of objectives set and agreed.

A documented procedure has been prepared for reviewing the training plan, which is reviewed monthly by the training department.

A formal performance management system is in operation and standards of performance, which outline specific objectives and targets for achievement have been set and agreed with employees. A personal development plan and a phased training plan assist individuals to achieve expected performance.

The training manager reports directly to the chief executive.

Each representative must undergo the MMEI examination within 2 years of joining the organisation.

Everyone has a copy of the appraisal manual.

A new “9 Box Grid System” is being introduced which will categorise each employee in the system. The results as shown in the grid system will be made available to the organisation World System, which means that staff could be offered positions worldwide.

The organisation has a dedicated Human Resource and Development Manager who is currently completing a Masters in HR Development.

The cost of training has been established at 11% of salaries.

#### Areas for Improvement

Assessment Tests e.g. multiple choice should be considered for all technical programmes. (Category 3)

Positioning in “A Box Grid System” should be by agreement with the individual employee.

### **Section 3 – Review of Training**

#### **First Assessment**

##### Strengths

The company uses a range of validation criteria for its training activities including pre course briefing by e-mail, course validation by participants, post course discussions with management, performance management reviews, field visits by designated coach or manager. This process of validation ensures that training and development affects job performance.

Assessments for training activities include interim and final examinations for the induction course, behavioural assessments on field visits, skills audits at six-monthly intervals, performance management reviews and third party assessments for some programmes.

#### Areas for Improvement

The organisation should document the procedure for reviewing the effectiveness of the entire training process. (Category3)

The organisation should develop the evaluation cycle to determine the return on its training investment. (Category 3)

The organisation should investigate certification of competency for all courses undertaken. (Category 3)

### **Second Assessment**

#### Strengths

The company uses a range of validation criteria for its training activities including pre course briefing by e-mail, course validation by participants, post course discussions with management, performance management reviews, field visits by designated coach or manager. This process of validation ensures that training and development affects job performance.

Assessments for training activities include interim and final examinations for the induction course, behavioural assessments on field visits, skills audits at six-monthly intervals, performance management reviews and third party assessments for some programmes.

There is a specific policy for the evaluation of training. Most external courses carry certification.

Review of training is also carried out using comparison data between sales performance and training provided.

#### Areas for Improvement

The current assessment system should be extended to all training both internal and external. (Category 3).



## **Section 4 – Implementation of Training**

### **First Assessment**

#### Strengths

The training department delivers a range of internal training programmes and documented training programmes were available for all programmes, which in general conformed to the FAS QA 58/01 Standard.

The training objectives, which had been set and agreed with employers, were clearly linked to individual requirements and job performance.

Training objectives, for the past year were fully achieved and 100% of people were trained as per the training planned. Internal trainers were suitably trained for current requirements.

#### Areas for Improvement

Have internal trainers developed in quality systems management. (Category 3)

### **Second Assessment**

#### Strengths

The training department delivers a range of internal training programmes and documented training programmes were available for all programmes which, in general conformed to the FAS QA 58/01 Standard.

The training objectives, which had been set and agreed with employers, were clearly linked to individual requirements and job performance.

Training objectives for the past year were fully achieved and 100% of people were trained as per the training planned. Internal trainers were suitably trained for current requirements.

#### Areas for Improvement

Classification of objectives should be reviewed in line with QA 58/01 definition. (Category 3).

Training techniques skills should be undertaken by all involved in training. (Category 3).

## **Section 5 – Training and Development Records**

### **First Assessment**

#### Strengths

A range of written training and development records is maintained for each employee.

Each employee has signed the relevant course validation forms, field visit reports individual development plans, monthly records and annual training sheets.

#### Areas for Improvement

The organisation should document the health and safety training in each employee's induction record and have it signed by each individual. (Category 2)

The organisation should summarise all training undertaken for employees and retain it in the individual's file for ease of access. (Category 3)

### **Second Assessment**

#### Strengths

A range of written training and development records is maintained for each employee.

Each employee has signed the relevant course validation forms, field visit reports individual development plans, monthly records and annual training sheets.

Statistical data is gathered via computer records and this is actively used for comparisons and evaluation of the training process.

#### Areas for Improvement

None.

### **Section 6 – Employee Communication and Involvement**

#### **First Assessment**

#### Strengths

A variety of structures and methods exist for effective communications, these include an open door policy, sales meetings, communications meetings, business unit meetings, field visits and facilitated meetings.

A variety of team meetings and informal improvement initiatives encourage teamwork between departments and assist staff to become involved in improvement projects. The organisation has provided training for teams in group dynamics, leadership and facilitation skills. Outdoor team building events have also taken place to develop team spirit.

There is a formal policy on employee involvement.

The company utilizes a formal scientific anonymous value survey, which is scored by an independent external source to obtain feedback from staff.

The company also uses informal discussions following field visits and performance reviews to encourage feedback. Several improvements have been implemented as a result of actions from this feedback. Employees have also had some involvement in the design and follow up of the feedback systems.

#### Areas for Improvement

Formalise the quality improvement process with emphasis on continuous improvement. (Category 3)

### **Second Assessment**

#### Strengths

A variety of structures and methods exist for effective communications, these include an open door policy, sales meetings, communications meetings, business unit meetings, field visits and facilitated meetings.

A variety of team meetings and informal improvement initiatives encourage teamwork between departments and assist staff to become involved in improvement projects. The organisation has provided training for teams in group dynamics, leadership and facilitation skills. Outdoor team building events have also taken place to develop team spirit.

There is a formal policy on employee involvement.

The organisation bases its success on teamwork. A teamwork culture is fostered. Support for teams is provided by the training unit as well as by external trainers and a range of team training modules are provided. A survey produced by the company worldwide is carried out at regular intervals and the data fed into the world database. The response in Ireland was 80%.

A 360-degree feedback system is currently being piloted.

#### Areas for Improvement

Ways to be considered to involve staff in the design of the survey questionnaire. (Category 3)

Consideration be given to developing a continuous improvement system in addition to that already in existence. (Category 3)

## Private Sector Organisation 3

### Section 1 – Review of Organisation Plans and Objectives

#### First Assessment

##### Strengths

The company has a comprehensive range of integrated Strategic Business Plans, which separately address the marketing, technology, finance and human resource functions. These are divided into yearly departmental plans and are regularly reviewed and updated by way of structured quarterly, monthly and weekly meetings. All plans are directly linked to circulated vision and mission statements which are focused on innovation, quality and people.

Accreditation includes ISO 9000 and QS. The company were recent winners of both the FAS Training Award and the AIB Export Award.

##### Areas for Improvement

Legislative issues should be addressed in the business plan. (Category 2)

Lower levels of staff could contribute to the planning process. (Category 3)

#### Second Assessment

##### Strengths

The Company has a comprehensive range of integrated Strategic Business Plans, which separately address marketing, technology, finance and human resource functions. These are divided into yearly departmental plans and are regularly reviewed and updated by way of structured quarterly, monthly and weekly meetings. All plans are directly linked to circulated vision and mission statements which are focused on innovation, quality and people.

Accreditation includes ISO 9000 and QS. The company were recent winners of both the FAS Training Award and the AIB Export Award.

Legislative areas have been addressed since the last assessment.

All levels below middle management are encouraged to contribute to the planning process by way of departmental monthly meetings, which capture suggestions for improvement.

The planning process has also been improved by the amalgamation of Functional plans.

##### Areas for Improvement

None

## **Section 2 – Preparation of Organisation Training Plan**

### **First Assessment**

#### Strengths

The company has a comprehensive policy on training, which is directly linked to its strategic plans and ongoing priorities.

Training is an integrated, pivotal, function in all of the company's operations and is directly linked to its business plans.

The approach is in line with FAS Standard QA 58/01 and is based on formal evaluation systems.

Standards of performance are clearly defined, agreed and linked to corporate, functional and individual performance.

The company actively encourages the involvement of staff in their own development and supports individual initiatives.

All training activities are approved by the Chief Executive.

#### Areas for Improvement

Procedures for prioritizing training could be improved. Category 3)

### **Second Assessment**

#### Strengths

Training is an integrated, pivotal, function in all of the company's operations and is directly linked to its business plans.

The approach is in line with FAS Standard QA 58/01 and is based on formal evaluation systems.

The company has updated the whole area of performance appraisal, review and evaluation of training resulting in a more effective and consolidated system, which is currently in operation for management and administrative staff only and discussions are taking place to introduce it for all staff.

#### Areas for Improvement

The approach of performance appraisal and review of training needs should be completed for all staff. (Category 2)

## **Section 3 – Review of Training**

### **First Assessment**

#### Strengths

Training is evaluated on an ongoing basis through job performance, formal appraisal and regular review meetings.

Because of the level of technology involved and related safety issues, certification at key levels is a necessity.

#### Areas for Improvement

Job related objectives should be distinguished from course objectives and linked to training evaluation. (Category 2)

### **Second Assessment**

#### Strengths

Formal validation and evaluation procedures have been reviewed and updated. They are linked to job performance and training objectives/

Measurements are evaluated at four levels i.e. reaction, learning, behaviour and results.

Procedures directly link improvements required in job related objectives to training objectives and the subsequent review of same at different time intervals.

Certification and competence testing are integrated activities.

#### Areas for Improvement

The updated process should be implemented for all training activity. (Category 2)

## **Section 4 – Implementation of Training**

### **First Assessment**

#### Strengths

The company operate a FAS approved Apprentice Training Centre.

Training Manuals are available to FAS Standard QA 58/01

Written training programmes are available for all training activities.

There are twelve trained Instructors.

Health and safety issues are comprehensively addressed.

Most of the planned training was carried out.

Areas for Improvement

The procedures for defining training objectives and linking them to work performance could be improved. (Category 3)

**Second Assessment**

Strengths

The company operate a FAS approved Apprentice Training Centre.

Manuals are available to FAS Standard QA 58/01

Written training programmes are available for all training activities.

There are twelve trained Instructors.

Health and safety issues are comprehensively addressed.

The company operates a management by objectives approach to training, directly linked to work performance for all levels of staff.

Areas for Improvement

The updated evaluation system should be fully phased in for the remaining staff. (Category 2)

**Section 5 – Training and Development Records**

**First Assessment**

Strengths

Training records are computerised and available for all employees

Areas for Improvement

None

## **Second Assessment**

### Strengths

Training records are computerized and available for all employees.

### Areas for Improvement

None

## **Section 6 – Employee Communication and Involvement**

### **First Assessment**

#### Strengths

Senior management are dedicated to the principle of employee involvement and have put in place a range of initiatives to encourage and assist individuals to participate fully in the life of the company. All are based on the Human Resource Strategy Document . These include training in interpersonal skills to overcome barriers to communication, team building and project groups, a selective employee survey, weekly and monthly meetings, a bulletin, employee handbook and notice boards.

#### Areas for Improvement

The independent employee survey (Category 2) and the feedback loop (Category 3) should be expanded to cover all employees.

### **Second Assessment**

#### Strengths

The commitment to employee involvement emanates from senior management and is fully supported by a range of activities.

Staff are fully informed about company activities and involved through project teams addressing issues.

The company suggestion scheme made significant awards in the previous year.

Existing structures have been strengthened to improve an already effective communication model.

Structured meetings take place throughout the company on a weekly basis at section level, on a monthly basis at departmental level and on half yearly basis at company level. The objective being to keep employees fully informed, to answer questions and obtain feedback. These meetings are in addition to the structured management or operational meetings on a weekly or monthly basis.



Training is provided for the ranges of team activities including facilitators, participants, problem solving, communications and conflict handling.

Areas for Improvement

The independent employee survey should be completed. (Category 3)

## **Private Sector Organisation 4**

### **Section 1 – Review of Organisation Plans and Objectives**

#### **First Assessment**

##### **Strengths**

An Annual Operational Plan is derived from a five-year Strategic Plan and these have defined measurable goals under eight headings as follows, safety, environment, production, quality costs, customers, people, community and development.

The annual plan is consolidated from five sub-divisions of the plant, each having its own integrated plans and budgets with similar goals and objectives.

Plans are reviewed tri-annually at corporate level and monthly by local management.

Employees at all levels have the opportunity to make an input to plans and policies through a company-wide teamwork process.

The company has certification to ISO9000, ILAB, ISRS (International Safety Rating System) and plans to achieve the Environmental Standard ISO 114001 are well advanced.

##### **Areas for Improvement**

It is suggested that a procedure for review be written into all documented plans. (Category 3).

The plans should be signed off by the relevant Senior Manager. (Category 3)

#### **Second Assessment**

##### **Strengths**

The current strategic plan will be completed this year and a series of project teams and subgroups extending company wide are preparing proposals for the next five year periods using the EFQM Excellence Model.

An Annual Operational Plan is derived from a five year Strategic Plan and these have defined measurable goals under eight headings as follow, safety, environment, production, quality costs, customers, people, community and development.

The annual plan is consolidated from five sub-divisions of the plant, each having its own integrated plans and budgets with similar goals and objectives.

Plans are reviewed tri-annually at corporate level and monthly by local management.

Employees at all levels have the opportunity to make an input to plans and policies through a company-wide teamwork process.

The company has certification to ISO9000, ILAB, ISRS (International Safety Rating System) , plans to achieve the Environmental Standard ISO 114001 are well advanced and the company has recently received EPA Certification.

#### Areas for Improvement

It is suggested that a procedure for review be written into all documented plans. (Category 3)

All eight headings of the company's objectives be cascaded to all locals and business functions, teams and individuals. (Category 3)

## **Section 2 – Preparation of Organisation Training Plan**

#### Strengths

A written training policy and procedure for fulfilling it is in place.

Each division has its own training plan, which covers all categories of employees and is based on extensive performance appraisal and training and development review process.

Training plans are reviewed at six monthly team reviews, monthly management meetings and an annual training and development analysis.

Health and Safety is a priority training objective for the company.

The training officer reports to the Human Resources Co-ordinator and both have appropriate qualifications in training.

#### Areas for Improvement

It is recommended that the training request form be developed into a consolidated plant training plan to include scheduling of training courses, indication of priority areas and their current status. (Category 3)

It is recommended that the individual appraisal process at management level be developed to include performance goals under the eight headings in the company's objectives and as a framework for identifying training needs.

#### Strengths

A spreadsheet to consolidate all training activity in the plant has been devised in response to a recommendation in the previous assessment report.

Similarly individual performance reviews have been developed to include all eight headings of the company objectives.

All training activities are planned, implemented and reviewed in accordance with the company training standard.

Health and Safety is a pervasive priority for the company and they have an objective of achieving level eight of the ISRS (Internal Safety Rotary System) this year.

The training officer reports to the Human Resources Co-ordinator and both have appropriate qualifications in training.

#### Areas for Improvement

It is recommended that the consolidated training plan format be fully developed and implemented and that it be signed off by the Chief Executive. (Category 3)

### **Section 3 – Review of Training**

#### **First Assessment**

#### Strengths

Training procedures are validated by a range of measures including participant evaluation sheets, tests, certification, individual appraisals, training and development reviews, evaluation of lesson plans and instructor performance, and three to six month post course reviews. These are applied to both internal and external programmes.

Externally certified courses are used where available and tests are included in most internal courses.

#### Areas for Improvement

It is recommended that a written evaluation procedure be devised and implemented to include all existing measures and that this procedure be applied to all training exercises. (Category 3)

It is recommended that a system of internal auditing be included in the evaluation procedure. (Category 3)

It is recommended that competence testing be included in all training courses.  
(Category 3)

It is recommended that a project team be appointed to identify and devise additional ways in which the benefits of the company's extensive investment in training can be measured.  
(Category 3)

## **Second Assessment**

### Strengths

A procedure for the validation of training has been established and is being implemented as recommended in the previous assessment report. This has been given the status of a standard work method to institutionalize it in the system. It will be applied to all internal and external training programmes.

A sub team of the Strategic Planning Group is examining the subject of measurement of the benefits of the company's extensive investment in training and development.

### Areas for Improvement

It is recommended that the procedure for evaluation of training be fully applied to all training programmes and that job performance be established as a prime evaluation factor.  
(Category 3)

It is recommended that competence testing be developed for all training courses. (Category 3)

It is recommended that internal auditing of the Excellence Through People Standard be introduced. (Category 3)

## **Section 4 – Implementation of Training**

### **First Assessment**

#### Strengths

Written Training Programmes are in use for all internal and external training courses. These have defined objective that are related to work performance. Training objectives are

agreed with individuals and teams through individual appraisal at management level and training and development reviews with team members.

Internal instructors have been developed in trainer skills and the performance of both internal and external instructors is evaluated by the Training Officer.

In the year under review 76% of scheduled training was carried out.

#### Areas for Improvement

It is recommended that all the criteria headings in the FAS standard QA 5801 be used to extend the existing course specification. (Category 3)

It is recommended that the definition of learning objectives could be enhanced by stating them in terms of performance, conditions and standards. (Category 3)

It is recommended that the curriculum of all training programmes be regularly reviewed to reflect changing work performance criteria. (Category 3)

### **Second Assessment**

#### Strengths

Written Training Programmes are in use for all internal and external training courses. These have defined objectives that are related to work performance. Training objectives are agreed with individuals and teams through individual appraisal at management level and training and development reviews with team members.

Internal instructors have been developed in trainer skills and the performance of both internal and external instructors is evaluated by the Training Officer.

Every employee in the company had training during the year under review with an average of six and a half days of training per employee.

#### Areas for Improvement

It is recommended that individual training plans be regularly reviewed to include additional training implemented. (Category 3)

It is recommended that individuals with low levels of implementation in terms of planned training be examined for corrective actions. (Category 3)

It is recommended that the definition of learning objectives could be enhanced by stating them in terms of performance, conditions and standards. (Category 3)

## **Section 5 – Training and Development Records**

### **First Assessment**

#### Strengths

Records of training and development are maintained for all employees.

These are computerised and all employees have free access to them.

Course records are signed by all participants as training is completed.

#### Areas for Improvement

None

### **Second Assessment**

#### Strengths

Records of training and development are maintained for all employees.

These are computerized and all employees have free access to them.

Course records are signed by all participants as training is completed.

#### Areas for Improvement

Some training records were not signed off by trainees. (Category 3)

## **Section 6 – Employee Communications and Involvement**

### **First Assessment**

#### Strengths

Internal communications activities are wide ranging and comprehensive. They include weekly information notes, quarterly newsletter, notice boards, bi-annual communication meeting addressed by the CEO and senior management team, team briefings, e-mail and colour coded flyers.

Employee involvement is similarly facilitated through various structures such as team performance reviews, training and development reviews, individual appraisals, suggestion schemes, corrective action request scheme and special projects e.g. European Union Leonardo and ADAPT programmes and apprenticeship work group.

The company has a policy of continuous improvement and this is effected through a company-wide self managed teamwork structure. Extensive training is provided for teams.

A written policy on employee involvement is circulated fully and employees have numerous opportunities for giving feedback as detailed above and in the design and follow up of the feedback findings.

#### Areas for Improvement

It is recommended that all new recruits receive teamwork training as part of their induction. (Category 3)

It is recommended that the written policy on employee involvement be signed by the Chief Executive. (Category 3)

### **Second Assessment**

#### Strengths

Internal communications activities are wide ranging and comprehensive. They include weekly information notes, quarterly newsletter, notice boards, bi-annual communication meeting addressed by the CEO and senior management team, team briefings, e-mail and colour coded flyers.

Employee involvement is similarly facilitated through various structures such as team performance reviews, training and development reviews, individual appraisals, suggestion schemes, corrective action request scheme and special projects e.g. European Union Leonardo and ADAPT programmes and apprenticeship work group.

The company has a policy of continuous improvement and this is implemented through a company-wide self managed teamwork structure. Extensive training is provided for teams.

A written policy on employee involvement is circulated fully and employees have numerous opportunities for giving feedback as detailed above and in the design and follow up of the feedback findings.

#### Areas for Improvement

It is recommended that the written policy on employee involvement be signed by the Chief Executive and displayed. (Category 3)



## **Public Sector Organisation 1**

### **Section 1 Review of Organisation Plans and Objectives**

#### **First Assessment**

##### Strengths

The department has a Strategy Statement for the period based on a SWOT analysis of its operations and this sets out the mission statement, strategic objectives, planned outputs and the review process to be followed.

The document addresses human resource development, value for money, customer focus etc and is signed off by the chief executive.

Each of the sections within the department produces an annual business plan based on the Strategy Statement. These plans are reviewed monthly and six monthly by management. Employees at all levels have the opportunity to make an input to the business plans and strategy statement through the organisation's consultation process.

##### Areas for Improvement

Opportunities for input to the Business Plans should be formalized through section team meetings in all branches. (Category 3)

The departmental policy on the environment should be included in the strategy statement. (Category 3)

The potential benefits of ISO 9000 or Quality Mark accreditation should be examined as a control/improvement tool for the department's management systems. (Category 3)

#### **Second Assessment**

##### Strengths

The department has a Strategy Statement for the period 1998 to 2000 based on a SWOT analysis of its operations and this sets out the mission statement, strategic objectives, planned outputs and review process to be followed.

The document addresses human resource development, value for money customer focus etc. and is signed off by the chief executive.

Each of the sections within the Department produces an annual Business Plan based on the Strategy Statement. These plans are reviewed monthly and six monthly by management. Employees at all levels have the opportunity to make an input to the business plans and strategy statement through the departmental consultation process.

### Areas for Improvement

Opportunities for input to the business Plans should be formalized through section team meetings in all sections. (Category 3)

The departmental policy on the environment should be included in the strategy statement. (Category 3)

The potential benefits of ISO 9000 or Quality Mark accreditation should be examined as a control/improvement tool for the department's management systems. (Category 3)

## **Section 2 – Preparation of the Organisation Training Plan**

### **First Assessment**

#### Strengths

The organizations training policy is outlined in the Human Resources Section of the Strategy Statement and has been communicated to all employees via e-mail and the intranet site.

A detailed training needs analysis by section and individual has been carried out over recent months in all sections and a programme of training courses has been developed to address the major needs.

A documented consolidated training plan for the organisation is currently being prepared, in the meantime, a quarterly menu of training courses is offered that are derived from the training needs analysis, which in turn is linked to the business plan. Most employees have had training in the past twelve months.

Training investment in the past year was approximately 3% of total payroll costs.

#### Areas for Improvement

A consolidated training plan should be drawn up as planned to cover both on and off the job training showing the chief executive's signature, priority programmes and current status of its individual programmes. (Category 2)

The training plan should show linkages to the business plan. (Category 2)

The Performance Management and Development System (PMDS) should be fully and effectively implemented. (Category 2)

A review procedure should be included in the training plan. (Category 3)

Health and Safety training should be indicated as a priority in the training plan. (Category 3)

## **Second Assessment**

### Strengths

The organisation's training policy is outlined in the Human Resources section of the Strategy Statement and has been communicated to all employees via e-mail and the intranet site.

A performance Management and Development System (MDS) has been introduced this year, which includes a five day training programme for all staff. The system provides for agreed standards of performance, identification of competencies for each job, completion of a Personal Development Plan with an annual assessment and two interim reviews for every employee with their direct superior.

Training needs are assessed in relation to the Business Plans and the defined competencies through the (PMDS) process and a prioritized list of training requirements in each section is integrated into a summary list for the organisation by the Training and Development Unit.

The training plan is reviewed within the Human Resources Branch and six monthly by the Partnership committee.

Training in Health and Safety issues is addressed.

Training investment for the year was approximately 5% of total payroll costs.

### Areas for Improvement

The summary prioritized training list should be developed into a consolidated Training Plan for the total organisation to show total training activity in one document. (Category 3)

Linkages to specific goals in the business plan should be shown in the training plan. (Category 3)

A review procedure should be included in the training plan. (Category 2)

The Senior Management Training should be included in the consolidated training plan. (Category 3)

## **Section 3 – Review of Training**

### **First Assessment**

#### Strengths

Presently course evaluation forms are completed for all in-house programmes and some external courses are certified. However a project is in progress to design a validation and evaluation system for training activities in the organisation. Telephone follow up with

participants on courses by the Training and Development Unit (T & D Unit) is sometimes employed and a discussions with the manager of participants.

#### Areas for Improvement

An evaluation procedure should be drawn up and applied to all training exercises. (Category 2)

Appropriate evaluation measures should be included on all course specifications. (Category 2)

Data from applying the evaluation measures be analysed, actioned where necessary and these actions recorded. (Category 2)

The training system be reviewed regularly by the T & D Unit and the T & D Committee to evaluate all aspects of course design, delivery, evaluation and administration. (Category 3)

### **Second Assessment**

#### Strengths

Training courses are validated through a range of measures, including Course Evaluation Forms on completion, a further evaluation questionnaire six weeks after completion, pre/post course assessments, certification of external courses and ultimately job performance.

The PMDS process is primary a tool for evaluation of training and will be reinforced in this area as more experience is gained in its application.

#### Areas for Improvement

An evaluation procedure should be drawn up and applied to all training exercises. (Category 2)

Appropriate evaluation measures should be included on all course specifications. (Category 2)

Data from applying the validation measures should be analysed, actioned where necessary and these actions recorded. (Category 2)

The training system should be reviewed regularly by the T & D Unit and the T & D Committee to evaluate all aspects of course design, delivery, evaluation and administration. (Category 2)

## **Section 4 – Implementation of Training**

### **First Assessment**

#### Strengths

Documented training programmes are available for some courses and training objectives linked to work performance are available for most courses.

The course objectives for recent courses were decided and agreed by course participants before commencement and this approach will be extended by the T & D planning process and the PMDS process.

All internal trainers have appropriate qualification and experience in trainer skills.

With minor exceptions all training identified for 1999 was implemented.

#### Areas for Improvement

FAS Standard QA 58/01 be used to specify all training courses both internal and external (Category 3)

Training Objectives linked to work performance be clearly defined on all training programmes and that these be discussed with all participants in advance of the training. (Category 2)

All on the job training be documented, structured, recorded and validated as for formal courses. (Category 3)

### **Second Assessment**

#### Strengths

Documented training programmes are available for most training courses and training objectives linked to work performance are defined.

For some courses delivered by external trainers a group of intended participants are involved in the specification of course objectives.

Individual training objectives are agreed with participants through the PMDS process.

All staff has had training during the year particularly through the PMDS process, this averages at four days per employee.

Internal trainers are trained in trainer skills and more than twenty staff members have undertaken train the trainer courses.

### Areas for Improvement

FAS standard QA 58/01 be used to specify all training courses both internal and external.

Training objectives linked to work performance be clearly defined on all training programmes and that these are discussed with all participants in advance of the training. (Category 2)

All on the job training be documented, structured, recorded and validated as for formal courses. (Category 3)

Selected operators be trained in demonstration skills to conduct on the job training. (Category 3)

## **Section 5 – Training and Development Records**

### **First Assessment**

#### Strengths

Training records are maintained on computer for all employees and they have full access to these through the T & D Unit.

Attendance at health and safety briefings is signed by participants.

Their full training history is currently being verified with employees and at that stage they will be asked to sign their full record.

#### Areas for Improvement

All training records should be kept up to date. (Category 3)

### **Second Assessment**

#### Strengths

Training records are maintained on computer for all employees and they show their full training history.

Full access to these records is available to all staff members through the T & D Unit.

Attendance sheets for all courses are signed by the participants and these are kept on file.

#### Areas for Improvement

All training records are kept fully up to date. (Category 3)

## **Section 6 – Employee Communications and Involvement**

### **First Assessment**

#### Strengths

The organisation uses a range of methods and media for employee communication and involvement including a range of committees such as the Partnership committee, the Health and Safety Committee, the Training and Development Committee and the Management Advisory Committee. Participation on these is available to representatives of all grades, branches and unions in the organisation.

On a more informal basis, team meetings and management briefings are used in some branches and sections.

Information is widely available to all staff through electronic media such as e-mail and intranet, bulletin board and video conferencing, while print media in the form of civil service newsletters and publications are also employed.

Continuous improvement is integral to the organisation's mission of providing "value for money service" and is actioned mainly through a Customer Service Plan, a Staff Suggestion Scheme and Exceptional Performance Awards.

Teamwork operates informally through natural work groups.

The partnership process facilitates employee feedback.

#### Areas for Improvement

A structured teamwork programme be introduced to include natural work teams in the sections and a more widespread use of project teams at all levels and across levels. (Category 3)

The Structured Teams be given training in Teamwork Skills. (Category 3)

Team briefings by managers be formalized as a means of harmonizing communications between branches and sections. (Category 3)

A formal attitude survey be conducted on a regular basis and that employees be invited to suggest particular questions which could be included. (Category 3)

## **Second Assessment**

### Strengths

The organisation uses a range of methods and media for employee communication and involvement including a range of committees such as the Partnership committee, the Health and Safety Committee, the Training and Development Committee and the Management Advisory Committee. Participation on these is available to representatives of all grades, branches and unions in the organisation.

On a more informed basis, team meetings and management briefings are used in some branches and sections.

Information is widely available to all staff through electronic media such as e-mail and intranet, bulletin board and video conferencing, while print media in the form of civil service newsletters and publications are also employed.

Continuous improvement is integral to the organisation's mission of providing "value for money service" and is actioned mainly through a Customer Service Plan, a Staff Suggestion Scheme and Exceptional Performance Awards.

Teamwork operates informally through natural work groups.

The partnership process facilitates employee feedback.

The majority of employees interviewed during the assessment expressed satisfaction with the communications systems and the ways in which they received information.

An employee opinion survey was carried out as an exercise of module 2 of the PMDS training and the results have been analysed and documented for future action.

### Areas for Improvement

A structured teamwork programme be introduced to include natural work teams in the sections and a more widespread use of project teams at all levels and across levels. (Category 3)

The Structured Teams be given training in Teamwork Skills. (Category 3)

Team briefings by managers be formalized as a means of harmonizing communications between branches and sections. (Category 3)

A formal attitude survey be conducted on a regular basis and that employees be invited to suggest particular questions which could be included. (Category 3)



## **Public Sector Organisation 2**

### **Section 1– Review of Organisation Plans and Objectives**

#### **First Assessment**

##### Strengths

A Regional Plan is developed annually and is signed by the regional director, this includes a mission statement for the region which forms the basis of mission statements for each operating unit, included in the plan are the areas of marketing, technology, finance and human resource development.

The regional objectives are reviewed monthly at the unit's management meetings and subsequently at staff meetings. A review procedure exists and minutes are maintained for these review meetings.

The regional director and unit management with some staff involvement prepare the relevant section of the regional plan.

The department was awarded the Quality Mark three years ago.

##### Areas for Improvement

Department management should prepare their own business plans to focus externally on how the department's objectives will be achieved and to demonstrate their commitment to human resources development. (Category 2)

The department should redraft objectives in the light of feedback from staff meetings. (Category 2)

Staff should be given the opportunity to become involved in the preparation of their own unit's plan and objectives. (Category 2)

#### **Second Assessment**

##### Strengths

A major Strategic Review is currently being undertaken by the overall organisation.

An excellent Regional and Departmental Plan has been developed. A meeting took place with all staff at the beginning of the year whereby the Regional and Departmental objectives were discussed and action items identified.

The organisation has held the Quality Mark for the past three years – excellent marks have been achieved during that period.

### Areas for Improvement

There should be a better linkage between the Regional objectives and the Department objectives. (Category 3)

Specific plans were identified but it is suggested that these be more specific, measurable and detailed (Category 2)

A quarterly review of the plan should be carried out by senior management to examine (a) adherence to plan and (b) appropriate corrective action (Category 2)

## **Section 2 – Preparation of Organisation Training Plan**

### **First Assessment**

#### Strengths

The unit has a Standard Operating Procedure for Training and Development, which covers the identification of training needs to meet the unit's objectives. This entailed issuing a "Training Audit" form, which outlined the core competencies required by department staff, to each staff member.

Priority areas for training, which are identified and addressed, are directly related to the department's objectives and key result areas.

Monthly performance reports are compiled, circulated and discussed at Staff Meetings. A team appraisal is carried out as per the performance of departments objectives.

The training co-ordinator, who has completed the appropriate training, reports to the Department Manager.

The department spends approximately 3% of salaries on training.

The training plan prioritises training into Priority 1 and Priority 2.

#### Areas for Improvement

Formulate and document a department policy on training and circulate to all staff to ensure understanding. (Category 2)

Summarise the Individual Training Plans as an overview of the departments training Plan to include all management and staff. (Category 3)

Document the existing procedure for reviewing the Training Plan and include Standard Operating Procedure. (Category 3)

Collect the total costs of training to more accurately cost their true investment. (Category 3)

## **Second Assessment**

### Strengths

A training policy has been developed by the organisation and has recently been revised.

The training plan was largely based on the Business Plan and was mainly focused on technology and organisational restructuring.

The training plan covered all categories of staff and covered a period of one year.

Standards of performance have been established in the documented Quality Procedures.

The training plan was informally reviewed mid year..

There is a dedicated Training Manager who reports to the Department Manager.

Both the Training Manager and Assistant Training Manager have attended the Excellence Through People Internal Assessors Course.

The cost of training has been defined at 5% of salaries.

### Areas for Improvement

Job specific requirements should be established for all categories of staff and be agreed with staff. (Category 3)

There should be a more formal review of the plan possibly on a quarterly basis. (Category 3)

Some staffs' knowledge of the training policy was weak. (Category 3).

## **Section 3 – Review of Training**

### Strengths

Departmental performance is assessed at staff meetings, reports and analysed, and training related issues are reviewed.

A number of training activities are assessed and certified e.g. Counseling and Guidance Training, Health and Safety, European Computer Driving License (ECDL) and Induction.

### Areas for Improvement

Validation criteria should be outlined for all training activities and a validation procedure should be documented. (Category2)

All training activities should be validated against the criteria mentioned above.  
(Category 2)

Ensure the evaluation process checks job performance of department's objectives.  
(Category 2)

Document a Standard Quality procedure for reviewing training effectiveness.  
(Category 2)

Provide evidence of such reviews to include actions taken. (Category 2)

## **Second Assessment**

### Strengths

A training procedure has been documented as part of the Quality Management System.

Some training programmes had defined objectives and were evaluated.

Some training programmes undergo both a pre and post course validation.

Many of the training courses are certified.

### Areas for Improvement

All programmes both external and internal should have a definite process of validation particularly in relation to performance after course completion. (Category 2)

## **Section 4 – Implementation of Training**

### **First Assessment**

#### Strengths

The staff Induction Training Programme had training objectives clearly defined and in general was to FAS Standard for Training Programme Specification QA58/01.

The Training Objectives, which in some instances were linked to individual performance, were in the main linked to unit objectives and were set and agreed with staff through the Identification of Training Needs (ITN) process.

All Staff implementing training have suitable development in the specific subject matter and training techniques. 95% of staff was trained during the year in comparison to the plan.

#### Areas for Improvement

Ensure all training objectives are clearly defined. (Category 2)

Ensure all Training providers, both internal and external, develop programmes to QA 58/01 Standard. (Category 2)

Where possible link training objectives more closely with work performance.  
(Category 2)

## **Second Assessment**

### Strengths

The Staff Induction Training Programme had training objectives clearly defined and in general was to FAS Standard for Training Programme Specification QA58/02.

The Training Objectives, which in some instances were linked to individual performance, were in the main linked to unit objectives and were set and agreed with staff through the Identification of Training Needs (ITN) process.

Trainers used for external training are normally qualified instructors or trainers.

80% of Priority 1 training and a limited amount of Priority 2 training were achieved during the year.

Health and Safety Training was well documented.

### Areas for Improvement

Some individual objectives have not been set and agreed with employees. (Category 3)

## **Section 5 – Training and Development Records**

### **First Assessment**

#### Strengths

Records in the form of an individual training and development plan were maintained for each staff member. In some cases training covered in earlier years was not recorded.

Both the staff members and the manager signed these records.

#### Areas for Improvement

Review methods of planning and recording training to include all training and development of staff and facilitate signatures after the event. (Category 2)

Expand the existing Training and Development Standard Operating Procedure (SOP) to include the above changes. (Category 3)

## **Second Assessment**

### Strengths

Training records are held both manually and electronically for all staff.

### Areas for Improvement

There was not a consistency of documentation in each record. (Category 3)

## **Section 6 – Employee Communications and Involvement**

### **First Assessment**

#### Strengths

Effective internal communications and involvement are maintained through a variety of methods and structures, including a Standard Operating Procedure for Internal Communications, which defines management's responsibility for communications, Department Manager meetings with Regional Director, Staff meetings with Manager, Quality Steering Group Meetings, State of the Nation presentation by Manager to all staff in an external venue. Minutes are kept of these meetings.

Employee involvement is also encouraged through the ITN process, the participation forum, meetings reviewing departmental objectives and informal suggestions are encouraged using e-mail and direct contact with the manager.

The department operates a quality improvement programme as part of the normal method of working and a number of teams operate on specific projects.

Feedback from staff is obtained informally through meetings as opposed to formal attitude surveys.

#### Areas for Improvement

Provide training in group dynamics for all team leaders and team members. (Category 2)

Develop a documented policy on employee involvement. (Category 2)

Undertake a formal survey on employee attitudes to obtain objective feedback from staff. (Category 2)

Gather objective evidence of action taken as a result of staff feedback. (Category 2)

### **Second Assessment**

#### Strengths

Excellent communication exists within each staff unit and across the various functions.

Regular staff meetings take place.

The Quality Management System is the key driver of communication within the organisation.

Some teams are involved in problem resolution.

Newsletter, intranet, notice boards are primarily vehicles for communications.

Generally communication and staff involvement was good.

A staff survey had been carried out.

#### Areas for Improvement

It is recommended that training be provided for teams. (Category 2)

## **Public Sector Organisation 3**

### **Section 1: Review of Organisation Plans and Objectives**

#### **First Assessment**

##### Strengths

The division prepares its business plan on an annual basis in line with changing customer needs, new technology and new practices.

The plan is directly linked to the Overall Organisation Strategic Management Plan .

Human Resource Development is clearly identified as a key area in the plan.

The plan is reviewed every six months at three levels, management, supervisory and section level.

##### Areas for Improvement

That all employees should be given the opportunity to have an input into the business plan.(Category 2)

That all employees should be given the opportunity to become involved in the review of the business plan particularly, at departmental level. (Category 2)

That the business plan be communicated to all employees. (Category 2)

#### **Second Assessment**

##### Strengths

The division prepares its business plan on an annual basis in line with changing customer needs, new technology and new practices.

The plan is linked directly to the overall Organisation Strategic Management Plan.

The plan template has a number of objectives broken down into sub-objectives with targets for each objective and a set of metrics per sub-objective.

Human Resource Development is clearly identified as a key area in the plan.

The plan is received every six months at three levels, management, supervisory and section level and through the partnership forum.

##### Areas for Improvement



That all employees should be given the opportunity to have an input into the business plan. (Category 2)

That all employees should be given the opportunity to become involved in the review of the business plan particularly at departmental level. (Category 2)

## **Section 2 – Preparation of Organisation Training Plan**

### **First Assessment**

#### Strengths

The division has an approved training policy.

A training plan exists which covers a specific period of time and has clear links to the business plan.

A training need analysis questionnaire is used to identify training needs in tandem with a discussion with the line manager.

The training and engineering managers in consultation with staff members review the plan.

#### Areas for Improvement

The gross cost of training should be calculated on an annual basis. (Category 2)

Management and individual non-job specific training that is supported by the division should be included in the training plan. (Category 2)

## **Section 3 – Review of Training**

### **First Assessment**

#### Strengths

Some training providers use an end of course evaluation form.

A few courses have objective tests and participants receive a rating and feedback sheets. Otherwise most of the validation consists of informal discussions with management.

Individual and group evaluation sheets were provided for most of the externally delivered courses.

### Areas for Improvement

The division should research the possibility and feasibility of having one form of formal validation and evaluation of training. (Category 2)

The division should develop a review methodology based on the reaction to training, learning gain, job performance and return on investment. (Category 2)

That all training courses and trainers should be included in the evaluation process. (Category 2)

### **Second Assessment**

#### Strengths

End of course reports and brief discussions take place with persons who have received training.

External courses that receive a low rating are either sourced elsewhere or dropped.

As the majority of training in the plan was of a technical nature, assessment and certification is part of that training.

### Areas for Improvement

The division should research the possibility and feasibility of having one form of formal validation and evaluation of training. (Category 2)

The division should develop a review methodology based on the reaction to training, learning gain, job performance and return on investment. (Category 2)

That all training courses and trainers should be included in the evaluation process. (Category 2)

## **Section 4 – Implementation of Training**

### **First Assessment**

#### Strengths

A variety of styles of written training programmes that have been developed over the years are widely available in the division.

Some of these programmes do not have clear learning objectives but they do focus on being able to do the job.

A number of training programmes inspected during the assessment were operating manuals.

All trainers are checked for technical competence but not all trainers are trained trainers.

The number of people trained against the plan is approximately 90%.

#### Areas for Improvement

The division should examine the possibility of streamlining the design of all their training programmes to conform to best international practice. (Category 2)

The division should include learning objectives in all current training programmes. (Category 2)

Those internal trainers should complete a basic train the trainer course. (Category 2)

The division should seek to establish the training credentials of all external training providers. (Category 2)

### **Second Assessment**

#### Strengths

Prior to doing a course managers discuss the course with the participant, the expected outcomes are discussed, and the future needs are discussed and signed off.

Training programmes exist but are inconsistent in design and could benefit by having a standard training course design template which would improve the delivery of training and make it more systematic.

A number of training programmes inspected during the assessment were operating manuals.

All trainers are checked for technical competence but not all trainers are trained trainers.

The number of people trained against the plan is approximately 90% similar to the previous year.

#### Areas for Improvement

The division should examine the possibility of streamlining the design of all their training programmes to conform to best international practice. (Category 2)

The division should include learning objectives in all current training programmes. (Category 2)

## **Section 5 – Training and Development Records**

### **First Assessment**

#### Strengths

Training records were present for employees.

#### Areas for Improvement

Each employee should have a signed copy of their own training record. (Category 2)

It is suggested that all employees be made aware of the location and content of their training record. (Category 2)

### **Second Assessment**

#### Strengths

The division is in the process of transferring the manual records to computerized records. Currently there are a number of different types of records in existence.

All the records inspected were signed.

#### Areas for Improvement

Each employee should be made aware that the records are being computerized and should have access to them. (Category 3)

## **Section 6 – Employee Communications and Involvement**

### **First Assessment**

#### Strengths

Feedback from employees during the assessment revealed a major change in the area of communications.

Several employees at all levels with one or two exceptions, commented on the pendulum swing by all but particularly by management to develop a culture of inclusiveness.

The introduction of openness and particularly the “team-talk” which is only in its pilot stage is seen as helping the process of communication and involvement.

Weekly meetings of different grades are held frequently and records are kept of these meeting.

The division has trained facilitators and training in teamwork is provided.

Informal feedback is always welcomed, however, no communications survey has been completed.

#### Areas for Improvement

That a formal divisional climate survey should be carried out. (Category 2)

That employees should be involved in the design and follow up action plan resulting from the climate survey. (Category 2)

The division should continue with the roll out of the “team-talk” model and assess its usefulness over time. (Category 3)

#### **Second Assessment**

##### Strengths

Communications and involvement continues to improve, this is the expressed view of all those spoken to during the assessment. The partnership forum, which consists of management unions and staff, is seen as playing a key role in this improvement.

Team-talk, which was at a pilot stage during the last assessment, is now fully operational and proving to be a most effective means of improving communication and teamwork.

Team facilitators have been trained but team training has not been extended to the team participants.

Feedback on employee satisfaction is mainly gleaned from informal discussions through team-talk on the forum.

##### Areas for Improvement

All team members should be trained in team development principles and practices. (Category 2)

Consideration should be given to doing an objective employee survey. (Category 2)