

**Motivation and Quality Management in Academic
Library and Information Services**

by

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“If only it weren’t for the people, the goddamned people, “ said Finnerty, “always getting tangled up in the machinery. If it weren’t for them, earth would be an engineer’s paradise.”

Kurt Vonnegut, Jr. *Player Piano*

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Summary

‘Motivation and Quality Management in Academic Library and Information Services’ by Virendra Mistry

As management fashions go, few have been more pervasive than Quality Management Systems (QMS) like Total Quality Management (TQM) and BS EN ISO 9000 (ISO 9000). Their prominence was fuelled by a mixture of ideological and economic considerations as, by the early to mid-1990s, many organisations were keen to indicate that they were active participants of the ‘quality revolution’. The exponential growth of interest in QMS was reflected in the library literature although only a small percentage of academic library and information services (LIS) subscribed to the systems.

The thesis examines the relationship between QMS and motivation in such organisations. It ventures beyond the benign vision of the ‘quality gurus’ by critically considering the relevance QMS might have for understanding contemporary developments within the organisation and management of academic LIS.

The investigation determined that the quality of implementation is a key factor. In addition to senior management commitment, staff are motivated to QMS if there are accompanying changes in communication and training. The more successful LIS were those that did not treat staff as if they were barriers to change, but

involved them in the process of implementation. While there were many stated improvements it was discovered that many of the 'new' practices within the QMS LIS were not dissimilar to many of the initiatives in their non-QMS LIS counterparts. The investigator identified factors that also limit QMS as a framework for motivation and posits that the crux of the problem can be traced to the concept of 'quality' itself. As a self-evident good, workers become morally bound to quality, which enhances their own exploitation. There was evidence that managers can use this legitimating device to quell resistance, via peer pressure, and instil cultural homogeneity.

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Abbreviations

AAL	Association of Assistant Librarians (now referred to as the 'Career Development Group)
ALA	American Library Association
AP	Actual performance (level)
AQAP	Allied Quality Assurance Publications
AQL	Acceptable Quality Level
ARL	Association of Research Libraries
ASI	Adam Smith Institute
ASLIB	Association of Information Management
ASQC	American Society for Quality Control
BDA	British Deming Association
BEM	Business Excellence Model
BLR&DD	British Library Research and Development Department
BLRIC	British Library Research and Innovation Centre
BPB	Best Practice Benchmarking
BPR	Business Process Re-engineering
BPS	British Psychological Society
BQA	British Quality Association
BQF	British Quality Foundation
BR	British Rail
BS (5750)	British Standard (5750)
BSI	British Standard Institution
BUOPOLIS	Bournemouth University Library & Information Services
CAUL	The Council of Australian University Librarians
CBI	Confederation of British Industry
CCT	Compulsory Competitive Tendering

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IP	Ideal performance (level)
IPPR	Institute of Public Policy Research
IQA	Institute of Quality Assurance
IS	Information Strategy
ISO (9000)	International Standards Organisation (9000)
JCM	Job Characteristics Model
JDS	Job Diagnostic Survey
JIT	Just in Time
JUSE	Japanese Union of Scientists and Engineers
LA	Library Association
LIS	Library & Information Services
LISA	Library & Information Science Abstracts
LISU	Library & Information Statistics Unit (Loughborough University)
MBNQA	Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award
MBO	Management By Objectives
MCI	Management Charter Initiative
MoD	Ministry of Defence
MPS	Motivating Potential Score
NACCB	National Accreditation Council for Certification Bodies
NATO	North Atlantic Treaty Organisation
NCIHE	National Committee of Inquiry into Higher Education
NHS	National Health Service
NORDINFO	Nordic Council for Scientific Information and Research Libraries
NUS	National Union of Students
PBR	Payment By Results
PDCA	Plan-Do-Check-Act
PI	Performance Indicator
PIMS	Profit Impact Market Strategy (Associates)
PM	Performance Measure(ment)
PQM	Partial Quality Management
QA	Quality Assurance
QC	Quality Circles
QFD	Quality Function Deployment
QI(P/T)	Quality Improvement (Projects/Teams)
QMS	Quality Management Systems

QWL	Quality of Working Life
RAE	Research Assessment Exercise
SCONUL	Standing Conference of National and University Libraries
SDU	Staff Development Unit
SLA	Service Level Agreement
SRHE	The Society for Research into Higher Education
SQM	Strategic Quality Management
T&D	Training & Development
TCM	Trading Company Model
TGWU	Transport & General Workers' Union
TQA	Teaching Quality Assessment
TQC	Total Quality Control
TQM	Total Quality Management
TQP	Total Quality Paralysis
TUC	Trades Union Congress
UC&R	University College & Research (Group)
UCEA	University and College Employers' Association
UFC	Universities' Funding Council
UGC	University Grants Committee
UKAS	United Kingdom Accreditation Services
UMIST	University of Manchester Institute of Science & Technology
VFM	Value for money

Chapter One

General Introduction

1.1 Introduction

Quality Management helps provide the answers. The more I think about the function of librarianship, the more I study quality management and its goals...

(St. Clair, 1996: 14)

‘Quality’ has been attributed to all kinds of management techniques and initiatives. The appeal of the term is that it can be used to legitimise all sorts of measures and changes in the name of a self-evident good.

(Wilkinson and Willmott, 1995: 1)

The real key to the success of TQM is people. If the people in the business, at every level, are not committed to producing a quality product or service, then your TQM initiative is doomed to failure. It is relatively easy to change technology, systems and procedures. It is much more difficult to change people’s attitudes to work, their perceptions of management, their values, their *motivation* and their behaviour.

(Jeffries *et al*, 1992: 142).

If managers didn't *demotivate* their people, they wouldn't need to worry about motivating them!

(W. Edwards Deming¹)

In the late 1980s and early 1990s organisations, be they public or private, had been touched by a rhetoric which promised a new order of things. Quality Management Systems (QMS) like Total Quality Management (TQM) and BS EN ISO 9000 (hereafter referred to as ISO 9000) were imbued with this rhetoric. As quality acted as a euphemism for 'closeness to customers', quality management had been recognised as fundamental to the success of business enterprises, as fervent believers suggested that organisations could be made "leaner", "fitter" and more competitive and productive by the reduction of waste and delay (see, for example, Dearlove, 1996; Dobyns and Crawford-Mason, 1991; Younger, 1992a), or in the words of Grant *et al* (1994: 28), "(QMS) is the company's *raison d'être*." Similarly it was asserted that,

TQM is no inconsequential vision. At a time when most domestic and overseas markets are characterised by 'cutthroat competition', more and more firms are coming to realise that TQM is necessary *just to survive*.

(Dahlgaard *et al.*, 1998: 19)

It was estimated that quality costs, i.e. the cost of achieving, or not achieving, the required quality standard of goods, amounted to ten per cent of the gross national product (or several thousand million pounds) (Dale and Plunkett, 1991: 11) and as high as twenty-five per cent of sales turnover in the United Kingdom (Dale and Plunkett, 1992; see also Dahlgaard *et al.*, 1993). Responding to the notion that "quality is free" (Crosby, 1979: 1), it was therefore not surprising to note that, just prior to the commencement of this study in October 1994, quality initiatives "began in earnest" (Tuckman, 1994: 727) and were being pursued in

¹ Comments cited in the British Deming Association (BDA) pamphlet *Managing For Continual Improvement* (publication date unknown).

approximately three-quarters of the major companies in the United States and United Kingdom, having already been established in Japan and other 'tiger economies'², (*The Economist*, 1992; Wilkinson *et al.*, 1993; see also Incomes Data Services, 1990). This trend followed an earlier Gallup survey which reported a significant interest in the area of quality improvement (Ryan, 1989) and a study of senior executives worldwide, which identified quality as the single most important force of the marketplace in the 1990s (Business International, 1990). Also noticeable was the fact that service industries began to mimic the quality programmes of their manufacturing counterparts (Hagan, 1994) largely because customers' expectations had risen sharply, and it had been shown that quality improvement programmes could be adapted to such industries (Reichheld and Sasser, 1990; Zemke, 1992). Oakland (1993), while commenting on the universality of QMS, exclaimed,

Whatever type of organisation you work in - a hospital, a university, a bank, an insurance company, local government, an airline, a factory - competition is rife: competition for customers, for students, for patients, for resources, for funds. There are few people around in most types of organisation who remain to be convinced that quality is the most important of the competitive weapons. If you doubt that, just look at the way some organisations, even whole industries in certain countries have used quality to take the heads off their competitors (p. 3).

A similar rhetoric was detectable in the library and information services (LIS)³ literature where Brockman (1997b) observed that ,

² This proportion had risen from fifty per cent of the top corporations, as reported in *Business Week*, in 1990 (cited in Jurow and Barnard, 1993).

³ The generic term 'LIS' has been preferred in this thesis. It reflects the "changing structures" (Fielden and Schofield, 1994: 164) and increased cases of convergence between the 'library' and IT services. In common with the authors of the Fielden Report (John Fielden Consultancy, 1993) the investigator observed that,

One major problem about writing about academic libraries in 1993 relates to language and definitions. The term 'library' itself is becoming less used as the name for the place where books and, to a lesser extent, learning materials are kept. Information Centres, Library and Information Services, Learning Support Centres, Learning Resource Centres, Academic Services, Educational

... information managers are being pressed to reduce their costs, while simultaneously improving quality and becoming more customer-oriented. These latter objectives are achievable only through the structured application of specific tools and techniques used in a strategic way (p. xi).

Other prominent information professionals, mirroring the arguments put forward by Peters (1989), stated that there was a need to establish new management styles and structures in LIS, to enable them to cope with the constant change and competitive ethos of the 1990s (see, for example, Evans, 1997; Harhai, 1994; Line, 1991; St. Clair, 1993a; 1993b). TQM in particular received enormous attention, for it was considered to be “more down-to-earth than strategic planning” (Line, 1994: 219), and its credibility was further bolstered as consultants like Robson (1994) postulated that “in future years [Total Quality] will be a basic prerequisite for doing business” (p. 208), and Chase (1988) who suggested that “[QMS] is a positive requirement without which an organisation cannot survive”(p. 3), while *The Times*, in extolling the virtues of ISO 9000, were equally adamant in reporting that,

... by the end of the century, every organisation, from a school to an advertising agency, could be sporting logos on letterheads indicating that it has embraced the quality revolution.

(Nuttall, 1991: 35)

TQM was therefore heralded as “a new world order” organisational role model (Boje and Winsor, 1993: 57) and hailed as a “thought revolution” in management thinking (Ishikawa, 1985: 1). In addition to accepting that poor quality was loss making, that QMS could provide distinction for the organisation in the market place and that customers *want* QMS, it was also suggested that such systems could radically reorganise work (Smith, 1988), to the ultimate “yellow brick road”

Services are terms used to describe a rapidly evolving organisational scene (paragraph 1.6).

for managers (Tuckman, 1994: 727) for, as Webb (1995) observes, not only are people the consumer targets of 'customer care' but employees need to play 'enterprising supplier' in the organisations' 'internal supply chain'. Such thinking was stimulated by a Kuhnian development in management theory which had identified the end of mass production and rise of a new production paradigm based on "post-Fordism" and "flexible specialisation" (Piore and Sabel, 1984) or "lean production" (Womack *et al.*, 1990: 101). With this in mind, Morgan and Murgatroyd (1994) and Grant *et al.* (1994) have gone on to argue that TQM is an emerging and distinct management paradigm that is contrasted sharply with the economic model of the organisation. The new paradigmatic status was one that was justified in the eyes of Ross (1993: 2), who proclaimed that,

... no management issue since the scientific management movement of Frederick Taylor has had the impact of the quality movement.⁴

As organisations sought to increase their awareness of the business value of quality (Benbow, 1994) and the contribution of the 'quality professional' (Hagan, 1994; Keogh, 1994), academic interest was heightened as universities began to offer Institute of Quality Assurance (IQA) accredited Masters degrees in TQM (Keogh, 1994; Morrison, 1995). As a rationale for investigating QMS was rapidly being established, with commentators like Young (1993) describing 'quality' as the "fastest changing area of management" (p. 29), institutions like the Manchester School of Management at UMIST, set up a Quality Management Centre that was dedicated to exploring critical perspectives of QMS (Department of Trade & Industry (DTI), 1992d; Morrison, 1995) and academic journals devoted to QMS, like *Total Quality Management* published by Carfax, began to appear in 1991/92. Furthermore the British Quality Association (BQA) and

⁴ Conversely, to Boje and Winsor (1993) it is difficult to ascribe the new paradigmatic status to TQM, for they suggest it is a modernised repackaging of Taylor's scientific management. This argument is put forward with much more rigour by Tsutsui (1998: 220-224).

British Quality Foundation (BQF) were created to promote quality management issues and, in particular, 'offshoots' of TQM like the Business Excellence Model (BEM). Politicians were also embroiled with QMS as the rhetoric, and ideology, became the cornerstone of the radical changes in the public sector, including higher education institutions (HEI), in the 1980s and early 1990s (see, for example, Farnham and Horton, 1996; Kirkpatrick and Martinez Lucio, 1995b).

1.2 The Trajectory of Quality Management

The greater interest in QMS in academic, political and commercial circles has been graphically illustrated. The Ministry of Defence librarian John Brockman (1992^a) conducted a study of literature on QMS in 1992. He measured the output of literature from two databases; a specialist management database (Figure 1.1) and a specialist library database (Figure 1.2);

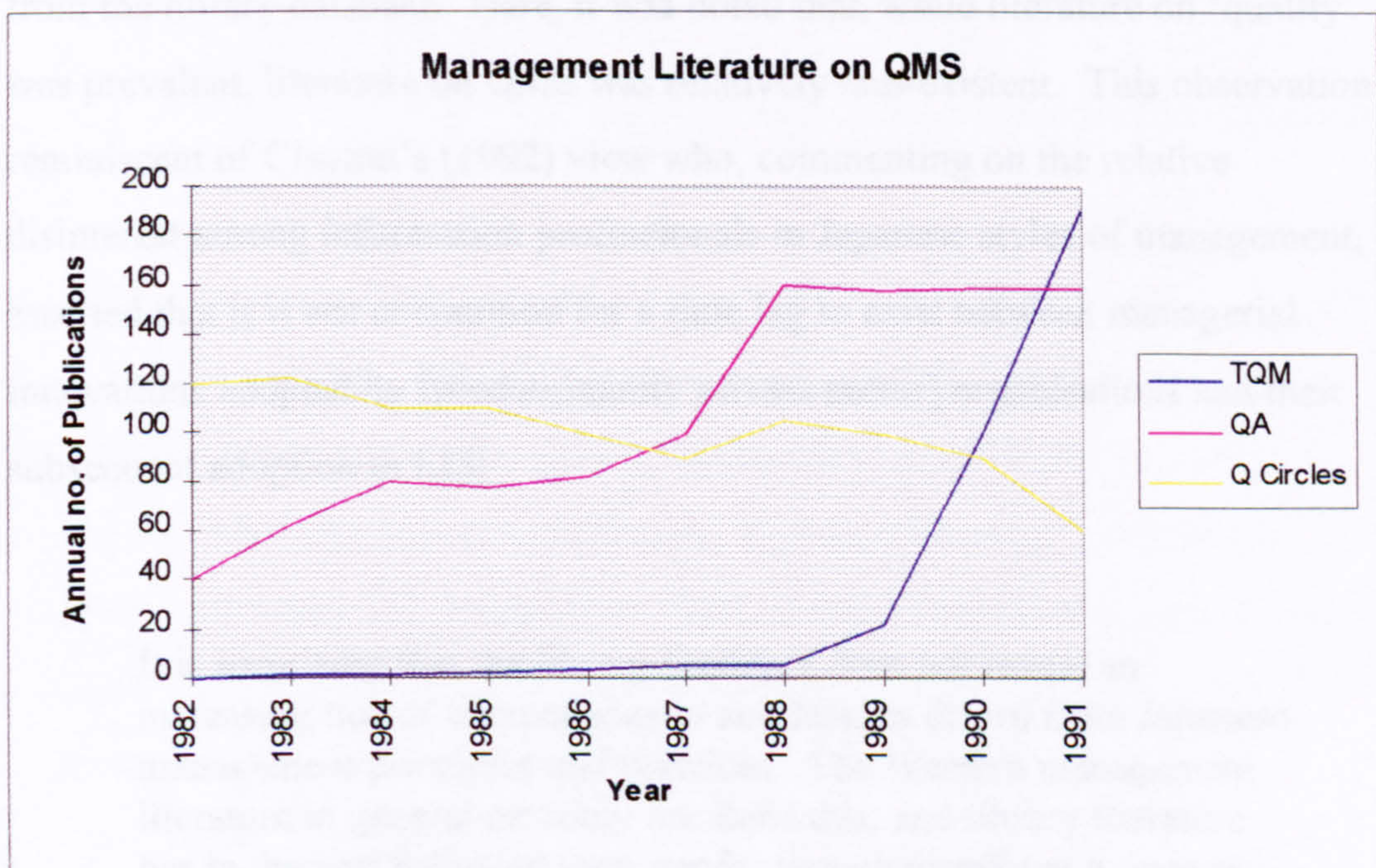


Figure 1.1: Brockman's review of the QMS management literature (by output)

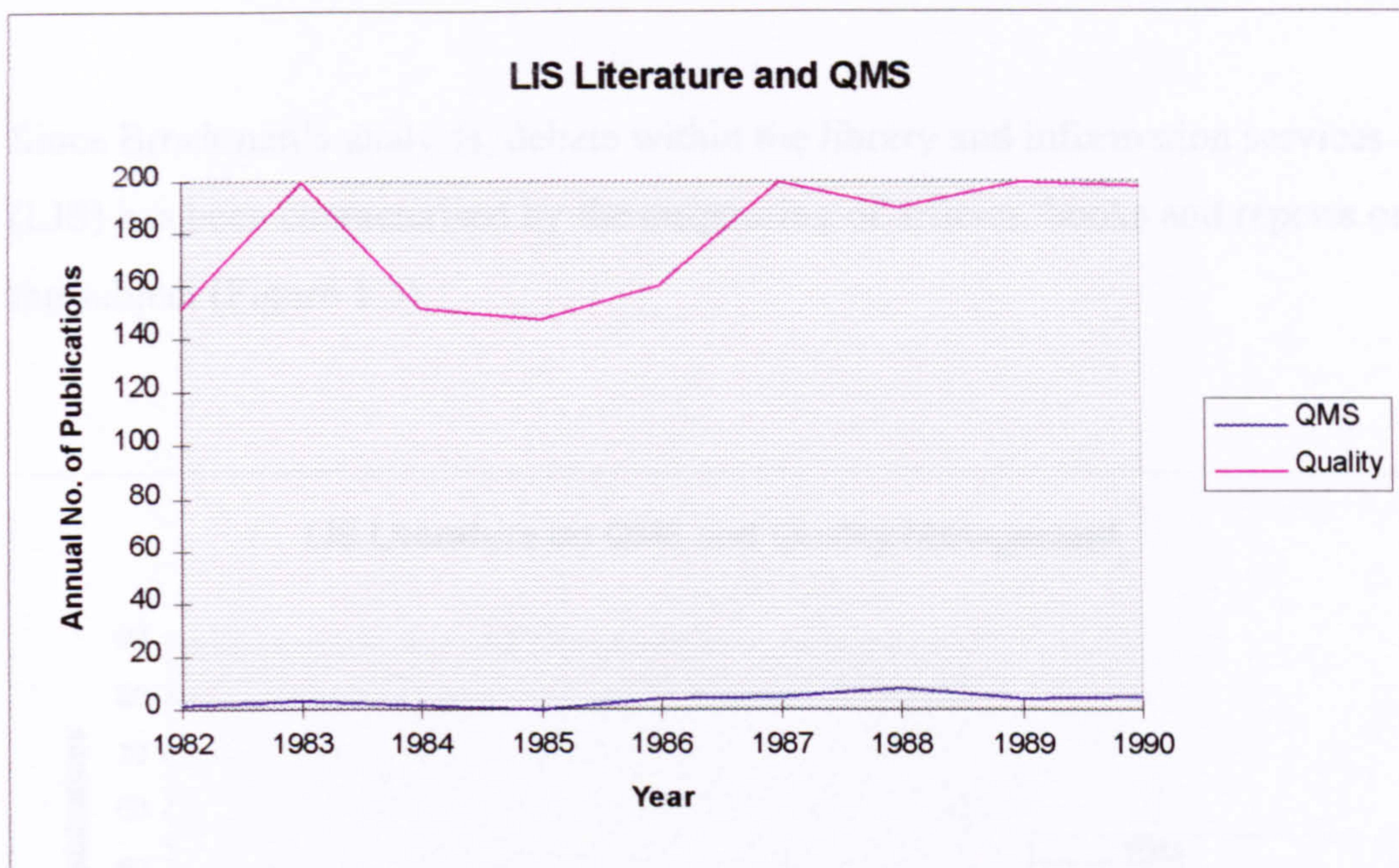


Figure 1.2: Brockman's review of the QMS LIS literature (by output)

Brockman had identified 1988 as the “exponential growth” of literature on TQM in the management database. This was in stark contrast to the output of literature from the library database. Here, it was noted that, while literature on ‘quality’ was prevalent, literature on QMS was relatively non-existent. This observation is reminiscent of Clayton’s (1992) view who, commenting on the relative disinterest among information professionals in Japanese styles of management, asserted that it is not uncommon for a time lag to exist between managerial innovations adopted by [predominantly private sector] organisations and their subsequent adoption in LIS;

It is surprising that the library literature does not reveal an increasing tide of comparisons to and lessons drawn from Japanese management principles and practices. The Western management literature in general certainly has done this, and library literature has in the past followed such trends, *though usually at a pace or two behind* (p. 298).

Since Brockman's analysis, debate within the library and information services (LIS) has been characterised by the outpouring of articles, books and reports on the subject (Figure 1.3).

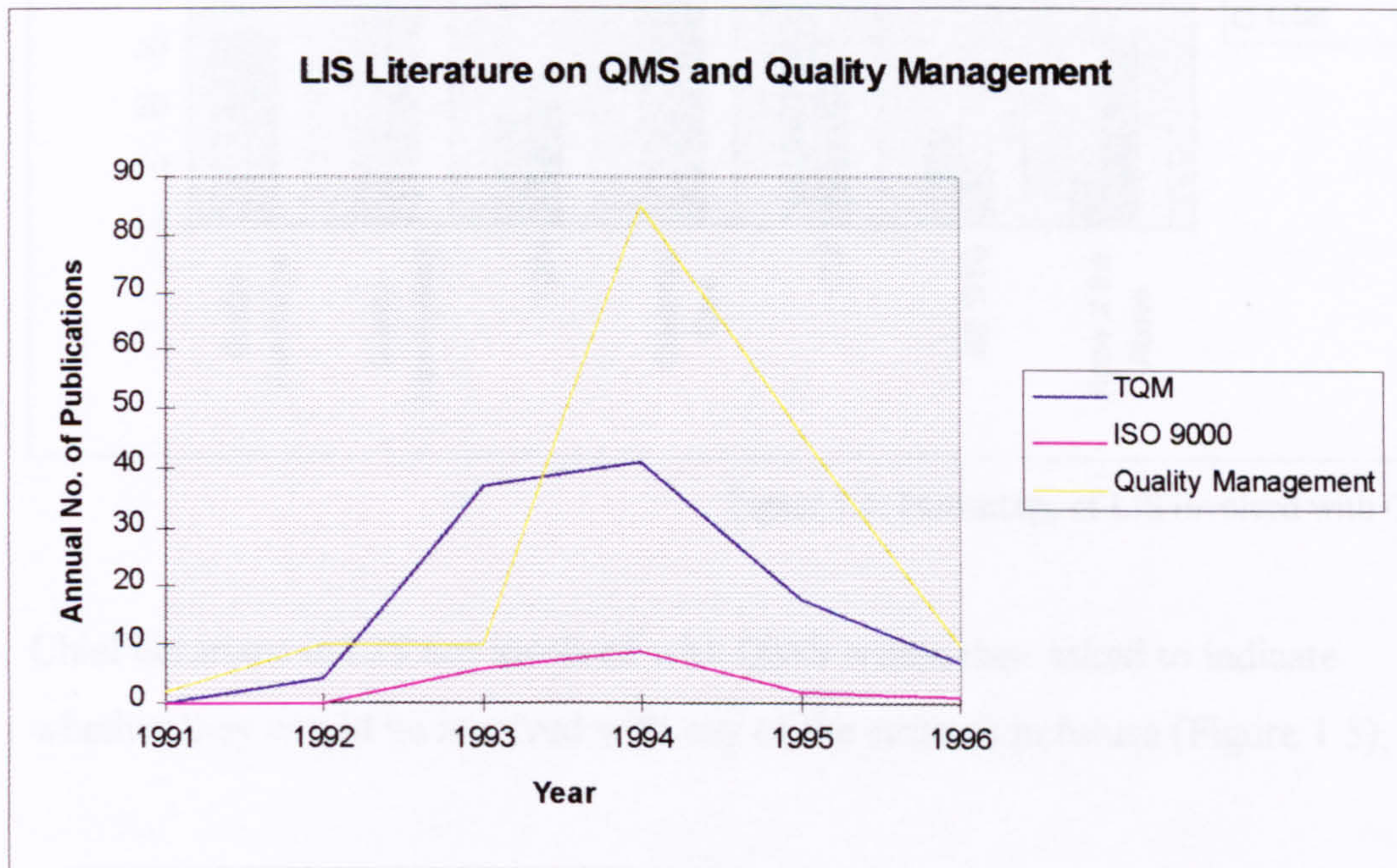


Figure 1.3: Post-1991 analysis of the QMS LIS literature

According to Porter (1992) quality management had been acknowledged as a “live issue” in 1991 by the British Library and as a “hot topic” by other information professionals (Johannsen, 1994: 228). In 1992, Porter (1992) conducted, what can be best described as, a ‘ground clearing’ exercise to establish how many LIS had pursued QMS. From a sample of forty academic LIS and sixty-five public LIS Porter asked chief librarians to indicate which systems and processes they were involved with (Figure 1.4),

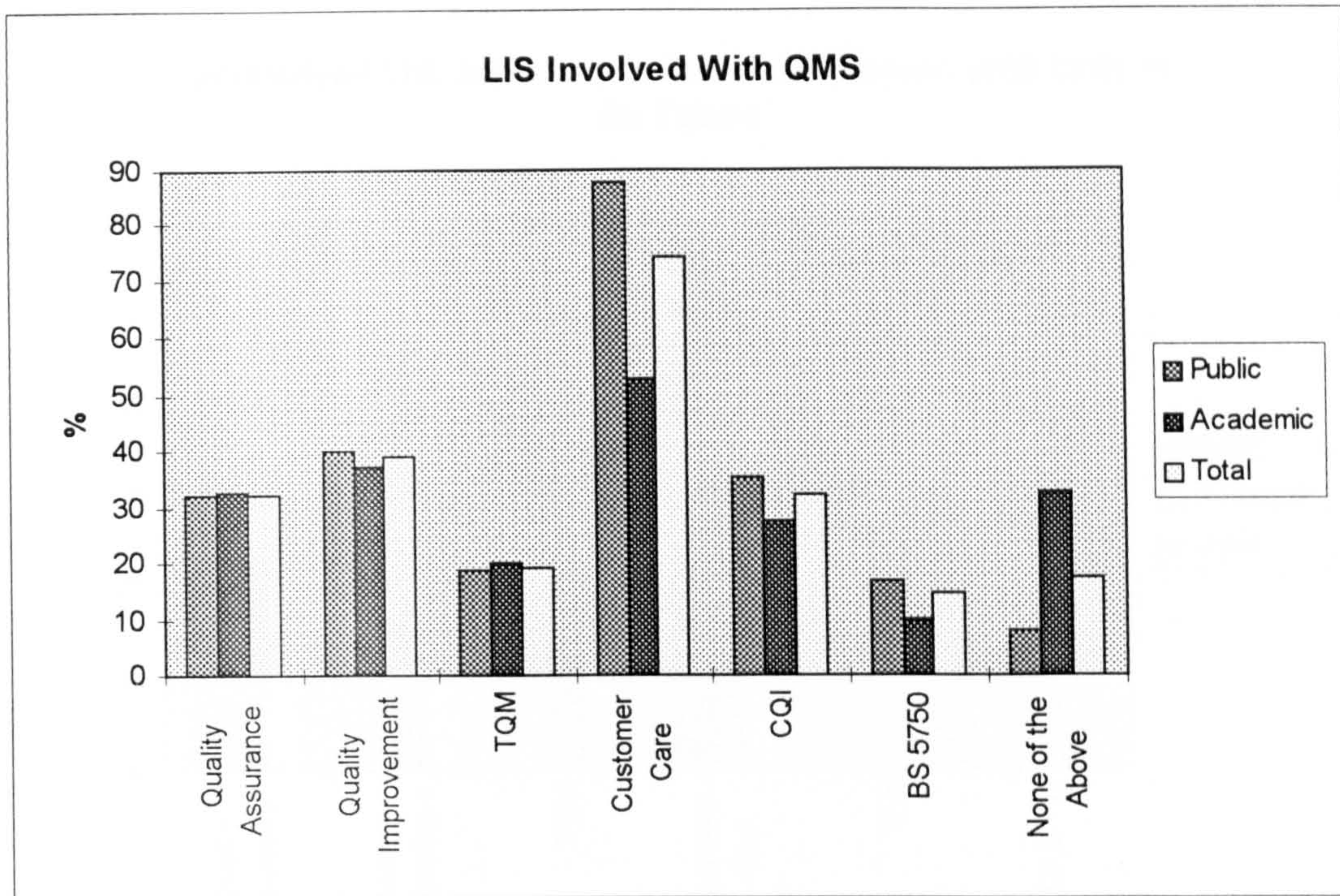


Figure 1.4: Percentage of LIS involved with QMS

Chief librarians in LIS not involved with QMS were then asked to indicate whether they would be involved with any of the systems in future (Figure 1.5),

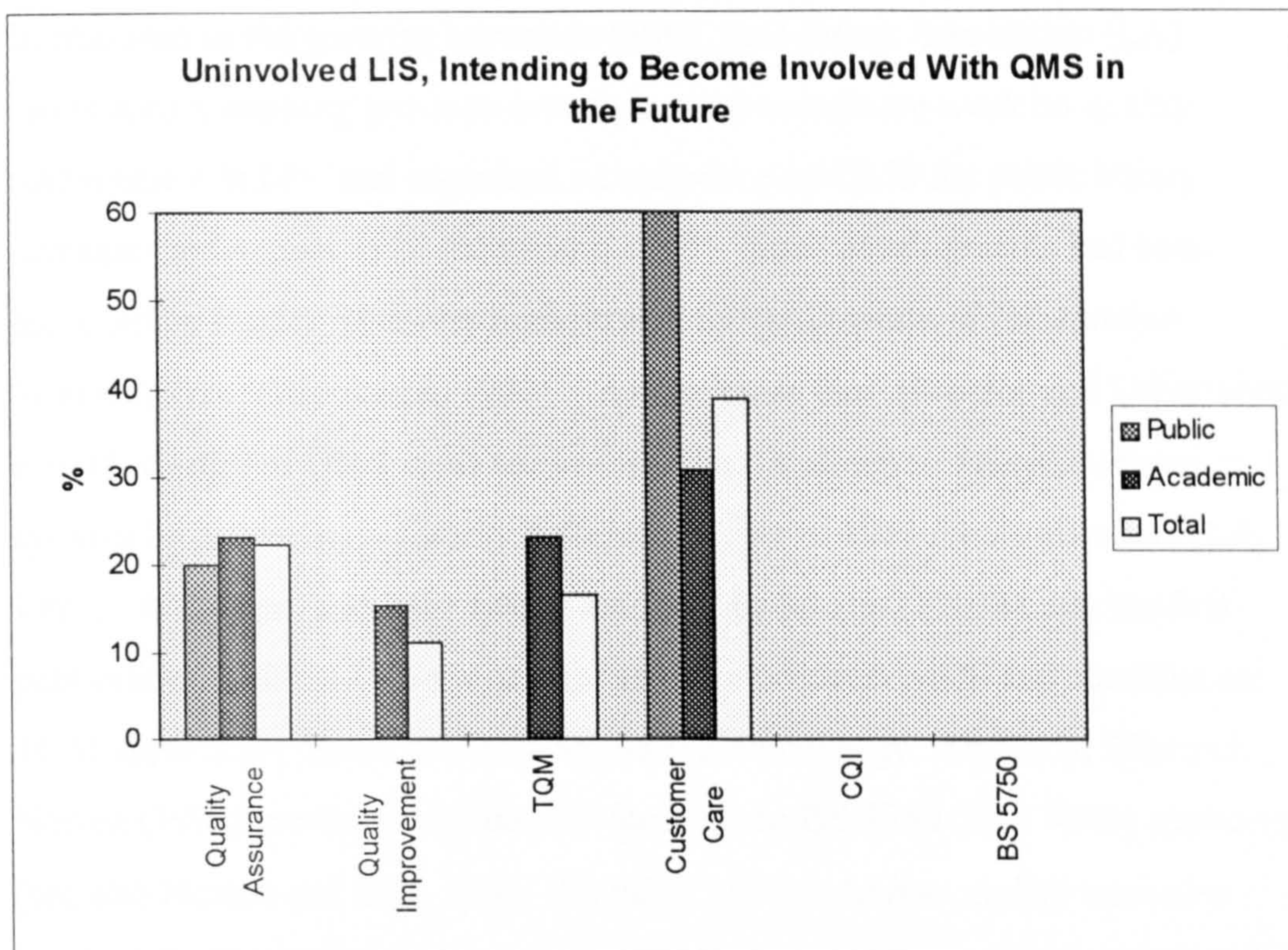


Figure 1.5: Percentage of uninvolved LIS intending to become involved with QMS in the future

It is clear that LIS were interested in quality management processes like customer care and less formalised versions of quality assurance and quality improvement. TQM was identified as the more popular QMS, but LIS managers seemed to be less convinced by BS 5750⁶ (ISO 9000), perhaps viewing the system to be too rigid and prescriptive to be of use to their organisation (Garrod and Kinnell, 1997). In a similar vein, P. Smith (1993), a school librarian in favour of BS 5750, cites the comments of a pro-TQM librarian, who was concerned that [BS 5750] had the propensity to create automatons in the library service,

... BS 5750 can ensure that the librarian greets you with a smile; TQM can help ensure that the smile is genuine.

⁶ BS 5750 is the former name of BS EN ISO 9000. The process of moving to the new numbering system began in 1994, for a discussion of these events see *BSI News* (1994).

In response to the growing interest in QMS, the Library Association (LA) established a working group to investigate and coördinate work on quality management in LIS, and organised a conference on QMS for public library managers in October 1992 (Morrison, 1995). Such developments had been preceded by similar initiatives orchestrated by the Institute of Information Scientists (IIS) (Brockman, 1991)⁷. As the 'maze like' (Proctor and Usherwood, c.1994) quality of QMS came to the fore, the LA aimed to demystify these systems by producing a *Quality Information File* in 1993 for its members (LA, 1993). A 'Library and Information Briefing' by Martin (1993b) was the first publication to offer LIS managers in the UK a practical guide and checklist on TQM application, based on Juran's (1989) methodology. Similarly, Ellis and Norton (1994) provided a guide and checklist on BS 5750 (ISO 9000) application (see also Norton and Ellis, 1993; Wedlake, 1993). *Ad hoc* studies were also conducted. For instance, Brockman (1992b) describes a small scale survey which attempted to examine the penetration of QMS in government LIS, and there was a growing exchange of ideas on the issue between information professionals and academics in the UK and their counterparts in other countries (Kinnell and Oda, 1996; NORDINFO & British Library Research & Development Department, 1994; Taylor and Wilson, 1990). Such was the interest in QMS that some information professionals were even advocating an accreditation scheme and quality award for the LIS sector alone (Byrne, 1993; Penniman, 1993). The talk of LIS quality schemes coincided with the period when the LIS profession was being informed of other quality awards like the Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award (MBNQA) in the United States or the Deming Prize in Japan (see, for example, Allan, 1993; Brockman, 1993; Keiser, 1993). Newcastle University Library's liaison with Proctor & Gamble, a multi-national organisation with TQM, in 1993 was indicative of the drive within academic LIS to understand the broader issues of customer care (Morrow, 1996: 8; see also Revill, 1991). The

⁷ Similar discussions by the Circle of State Librarians were also set in motion in government LIS (Foreman, 1993).

investigator's analysis of the specialist LIS CD-ROM, *LISA Plus* (Library and Information Science Abstracts), confirms Porter's (1992) supposition and reveals that 1992 witnessed the highest growth, or "sudden explosion" (O'Neil, 1994: ix), of literature in either TQM or ISO 9000 (see Figure 1.3).

The peak was attained in 1994, which coincided with the commencement of this study. The year also witnessed the prominence of British Library Research & Development Department (BLR&DD) funded projects on quality management in certain sectors of the LIS. Such projects appeared to respond to Byrne's (1993) assertions that there needed to be a practical set of guidelines for LIS managers involved in quality initiatives. According to Brockman (1997c) the LIS literature on QMS, at this time, was of little help to LIS managers for, in his estimation, "the trend, so far, has been for theory to proliferate, whilst practice lags behind" (p. 15). In an attempt to address this imbalance and build upon the insights of an earlier BLR&DD report by Porter (1992) the promotional literature that accompanied the projects' details, asserted that⁸,

In the Department's *Research Plan 1993 to 1998*, quality issues for library and information services, particularly with reference to users, are identified as a high priority for support. The theory and practice of quality assurance and quality management have been exercising the minds of librarians for a number of years now, the discussion mainly focusing on how theories designed originally for the manufacturing industry may be adapted for and adopted by the service provision sector. There have been many attempts to implement some of the quality management system in both the public and academic sector in the UK, *but there has been as yet little analysis or evaluation of the success or otherwise of any of these ventures...*

[emphasis added by investigator]

⁸ The comments are taken from a promotional brochure, published in November 1994, entitled *Promoting Quality: Research in Progress*.

The BLR&DD funded projects in question have included studies by⁹;

- ◇ Sylvia Webb (March to December 1994) on quality management in special LIS (Webb, 1995);
- ◇ Department of Information Studies, University of Sheffield and Loughborough University, Department of Information & Library Studies (September 1994 to August 1995) on quality management and the public LIS;

These studies were conducted in tandem with other BLR&DD funded projects on the development and the use of measures by which to assess quality;

- ◇ Centre for Psychology, Liverpool John Moores University (October 1994 to September 1995) on the development of a quality instrument in academic LIS;
- ◇ Centre for Research in Library and Information Management (CERLIM), University of Central Lancashire (March 1994 to May 1995) on the relationship between quality management and library performance measurement;
- ◇ Department of Information and Library Studies, Loughborough University (September 1994 to August 1995) on benchmarking in LIS, and augmented by a select bibliography on QMS for LIS managers (Garrod and Kinnell Evans, 1995).

The momentum was maintained with the British Library Research and Innovation Centre (BLRIC), the successor to the BLR&DD, funding a two year study, at Sheffield and Loughborough, on assessment tools for quality management in public libraries (January 1997 to February 1999).

⁹ The BLR&DD projects were published in a volume edited by Brockman (1997a).

Elsewhere, in what was considered to be the first project on QMS and LIS, in December 1992, the Nordic Council for Scientific Information and Research Libraries (NORDINFO) funded a project entitled *Development of Certifiable Quality Management Systems in the Library and Information Sector* which focused on the merits, or otherwise, of ISO 9000 [EN29000] (Clausen, 1995). The European Association of Information Services (EUSIDIC), recognising the prominence of TQM and ISO 9000, published a series of case studies, on behalf of the European Quality Information Programme (EQUIP), which examined the impact of QMS on the information sector (Lester, 1994). This development was preceded by a meeting on QMS in April 1992, entitled *TQM and the Information Sector*. During the course of this meeting delegates participated in working groups, which included one on 'staff motivation and rewards' (*Report on the EUSIDIC Spring Meeting, 2-3 April 1992 at the Rotterdam Rijnhotel: TQM and the Information Sector* published as an appendix in Porter, 1992). Additionally, the European Union sponsored a study aimed at developing a 'tool-box' for LIS performance measurement (Cotta-Schonberg and Line, 1994). Quality management in LIS was also being researched within the context of strategic management in some European countries (Johanssen, 1996a; 1996b). Within the wider remit of IT, the Eclipse Project, funded by the Libraries Programme of the Commission of the European Communities, set out to determine how technology could be employed with QMS in order to improve the overall effectiveness and efficiency of LIS (Brophy, 1997a). Elsewhere, in response to the growing use of quality assurance processes and management, and particularly TQM, in Australian higher education, the Council of Australian University Librarians (CAUL) provided funding to a project to select and develop performance indicators for Australian university LIS (Williamson and Exon, 1996).

Although the output of literature on the subject appears to be in decline after 1994, Bournemouth University LIS (BUOPOLIS) hosted a conference on quality

hosted the inaugural Conference on Performance Measurement, which included discussion on QMS. Such was the interest in quality-related issues, the latter conference attracted 123 delegates, representing a wide variety of organisations (Wressell, 1995). Quality management was also the theme of the Association of Assistant Librarians (AAL) national conference in 1997, which also discussed other QMS like Investors in People (IIP) (Lewis, 1997). As far as academic LIS were concerned, the inaugural International Conference on TQM and Academic Libraries was held in April 1994 in Washington DC (Association of Research Libraries (ARL), 1995).¹⁰

In response to the assertion that “there are no systematic and controlled studies of the TQM process” (Steel and Jennings, 1992: 25), it is hoped that this study will extend our understanding of the QMS phenomenon and build on the recently completed BLR&DD and BLRIC projects. A major spur to this investigation is the highly emotive way QMS was received by some information professionals. In a ground clearing exercise conducted by the investigator (explained in Mistry and Usherwood, 1995, see Appendix A) two respondents, from an ‘old’ university libraries, questioned the validity and veracity of QMS,

I find these gimmicky systems abhorrent! We just try to provide the best service we can, as we have done for the past 522 years!

[QMS] doesn't offer us anything. I have just realised, like Molière's M. Jourdain, that I have been implementing [QMS] all my life.¹¹

¹⁰ The Library Association of Ireland and the Northern Ireland branch of the Library Association organised a conference entitled *Commitment to Quality* in 1993. General issues on quality were debated but *not* quality management alone (Library Association of Ireland and Library Association (Northern Ireland), 1993).

¹¹ The same analogy is also used by Line (1994: 225).

The above comments indicate that 'new managerialism' may be abhorrent to the 'scholar' librarian, who may be used to the notion of collegiality, where institutions are seen as a scholarly community of equals working in the spirit of mutual intellectual exchange with only the loosest of bureaucracies (Duke, 1992; Miller, 1994). Similarly at the BUOPOLIS conference, some information professionals were aghast at the way QMS was being promoted,

The debate about 'quality' has taken on an almost evangelical feel as different techniques, systems and standards jockey for position in the hearts and minds of library managers. Converts to a particular approach preach with missionary zeal about the virtues of their documentation and their route to the ultimate quality salvation.

(Burch, 1996: 55)

This investigation was conducted against a backdrop of increasing emphasis on accountability (see, for example, Trow, 1996) and an intensifying managerial ethos in universities (see, for example, Deem, 1998; Duke, 1992; Welch, 1995). As such institutions began to transform themselves into "social businesses" along neo-managerialist lines (Ball, 1996: 6), the subject of 'quality' became a ubiquitous topic with the emergence of Quality Audit and Quality Assessment (Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE), 1994). LIS have been brought into very close focus by the inclusion of 'learning resources' as a core aspect of the Higher Education Funding Council's (HEFC) subject assessment. Information professionals were simultaneously being urged to develop quality mechanisms like performance indicators (PI), a recommendation which reflects an increasing awareness of the accountability of academic LIS and the need to play a proactive role in the above quality assurance (QA) procedures. This was exemplified by the publication of the Follett Report (HEFCE, 1993), and the subsequent consultative report from a Joint Funding Councils' *ad hoc* group (HEFCE, 1995). While some universities adopted systems like TQM (see, for example, Ashworth and Harvey,

relevant to the needs of society (Bosner, 1992), relatively little is known about whether QMS works and whether it does bring about the desired positive changes in attitudes, behaviour and performance of employees, as claimed by its proponents (see Chapter Two, 'Definitions and Context of the Study'). Taking into consideration the publication of the Fender Report (Committee of Vice Chancellors and Principals (CVCP), 1993a) and Fielden Report (John Fielden Consultancy, 1993), which was a significant stimulus to the acknowledgment and discussion of HR issues in universities and academic LIS (Corrall, 1994a; Parry, 1994: 158)¹², *this study will aim to identify and assess the relationship between QMS and motivation*. This is the focal point of this investigation. The underlying issues and questions are highlighted and discussed in the following chapter (Section 2.5, 'Statement of the Objectives').

The investigator's 'choice' of motivation in particular, was inspired by the work of Huczynski (1993). While analysing the relatively new phenomenon of guru management, Huczynski examined the salient management issues and systems of the twentieth century and concluded that *all* management ideas were imbued with three core themes, these he identified as: productivity, control and *motivation*. In addition, according to Dale (1984), the main motive behind the introduction of quality processes in the 1980s, as exemplified by the quality circle (QC) movement, was to improve employee job satisfaction. This appears to be a continuing theme in later incarnations of quality processes and systems. For instance, in the academic LIS setting, TQM was viewed as an antidote to declining

¹² Parry (1994) is critical of the Fielden Report, believing that there have been a number of omissions and is "simplistic and over-prescriptive" (p. 149). However, in her critique of the report, she concludes,

Those with responsibility for human resource management could do much worse than to use it as a discussion document within their own institutions to initiate or fuel debate about the future of library and information services and the staff who provide them (p. 158).

Similarly, in his assessment Sykes (1996) believes that the Fielden Report "chances its arm more [than the Follett Report]" but "runs occasional risks with its credibility, and weakens its clout with the funders" (p. 82).

morale and “widespread feelings of discontent, powerlessness and frustration [among front line staff]” in the Harwell G. Davis Library at Samford University (Fitch *et al.*, 1993: 294). The investigation therefore subscribes to the view that,

The appeal of TQM travels beyond production systems to the management of human resources.

(Kirkpatrick and Martinez Lucio, 1995a: 3)

1.3 Structure of the Thesis

The organisation of this thesis is set out as follows. It consists of twelve chapters. The next chapter is a short introduction to the substantive area and will introduce some of the core concepts, terms and definitions. It will also set the context of the investigation. This is particularly important as far as QMS research is concerned, because it has been posited that our understanding of such systems has been thwarted by insufficient analysis arising from incomplete definitions (Wilkinson *et al.*, 1998). Chapter Three discusses the methodological approach and issues which underpinned the investigation. It argues the case for the development of a research instrument and summarises some of the philosophical and technical issues (i.e. the aims, uses, purposes, intentions and plans within the practical constraints of location, time, money and availability of interviewees) faced by the investigator during the course of the study. The remainder of the thesis is organised on a thematic basis, as the investigation’s findings are analysed against the large body of prescriptive, theoretical and empirical literature on QMS and motivation. Chapter Four examines the meaning of QMS, and provides a preliminary insight into the value of QMS to front line staff. The insights from this chapter feed into the remainder of the thesis. Chapter Five analyses the nature of participation and involvement and provides a preliminary account of control since QMS intervention. Chapter Six examines other forms of employee involvement, such as the team briefing, within the wider remit of communication in the LIS. Chapter

involvement and provides a preliminary account of control since QMS intervention. Chapter Six examines other forms of employee involvement, such as the team briefing, within the wider remit of communication in the LIS. Chapter Seven assesses the impact quality-related roles and responsibilities have had on individuals and Chapter Eight discusses the type of training and development cultures that allow front line staff to develop, or otherwise, into these roles. It also considers the nature of career progression within academic LIS. Chapter Nine considers the nature of feedback and appraisal in the workplace and their place within a QMS framework. Chapter Ten builds on some of the insights discovered in Chapter Five, and discusses autonomy and bureaucracy within the context of PIs and quality-related documentation. Chapter Eleven considers the notion of rewards and examines the value of pay to individuals. The final chapter presents the conclusions and a postscript and also suggests directions for future research.

Chapter Two

Terms and Context of the Study

The whole language of quality management, like that of information technology before it, is treated by many with suspicion and/or derision. It smacks of exclusivity and arcanum. The profusion of terms, many of which mean the same thing, causes confusion, and promotes endless discussion on implied meaning. The language is often abstract and value-laden, as in 'good', 'quality' and 'effectiveness', and this adds to the problem. Little wonder that quality programmes are often criticised for stimulating conversation rather than action.

(Garrod and Kinnell, 1997: 341)

This chapter sets the scene of the study and represents an introduction to the substantive area. It will examine the central concept of 'quality' and also trace the origins and development of the 'quality revolution'. The meaning of motivation within the quality management framework will also be outlined. It is necessary to define these concepts because, as Pollitt (1990a) reminds us, words like "quality" and 'quality assurance' are terms which signpost a definitional battleground" (p. 436) and, furthermore, our understanding has been stunted because of the propensity of writers to subject QMS to premature evaluation on the basis of

incomplete definitions (Wilkinson *et al.*, 1998)¹³. The chapter concludes by stating the aims and objectives of this study and comments on the nature of the QMS research to date.

2.1 Quality

The difficulty in talking about standards is that the concept is like 'truth', or 'goodness', or 'beauty', both logically indispensable and yet impossible to define without considerable philosophical elaboration.

(Pring, 1992: 21)

The word 'quality' conveys the suggestion of subtle and nebulous factors that are not readily quantifiable - that is, factors that are not easily concretized, measured or tied down. Arguably, its vague, but nonetheless positive associations make the appeal of 'quality' immediate and extensive.

(Wilkinson and Willmott, 1995: 2)

Managers' quest for 'quality' is made the more testing by the difficulty of defining it - it is an ambiguous and contested concept (Deming, 1982a; Ishikawa, 1982; Juran and Gryna, 1982; Kano, 1984). Or as Hedges discovered,

Ten people, when asked to define 'quality', will invariably give ten different answers.

(Hedges, 1993: 75)¹⁴

Doherty (1994) has argued that our concerns with 'quality' can be traced back to the Aristotelian texts. More recently, such philosophical issues have been addressed by organisations like the Institute of Public Policy Research (IPPR). Pfeffer and Coote (1991) had determined that there was more than one approach

¹³ The 'main' definitions are outlined in this chapter. Other QMS-related terms and organisations are discussed and listed in the Glossary of this thesis.

¹⁴ Similar conclusions were also reached by the investigator in a Masters dissertation preceding this study (Mistry, 1994).

to 'quality'. Contemporary writers, perhaps famously Robert Pirsig (1976: 178), in *Zen and the Art of Motorcycle Maintenance*, have also attempted to define 'quality';

'Quality': we know what it is, yet we don't know what it is. But that is self-contradiction, for some things are better than others: that is, they have more quality. But when you try to say what the quality is, apart from the things that have it, it all goes 'poof'. There's nothing to talk about. But if you can't say what quality is, how can you know what it is, or how do you know it even exists? If no-one knows what it is, then for all practical purposes, it doesn't exist at all. But for all practical purposes, it really does exist. What else are the grades based on? Obviously some things are better than others. But what's the betterness? So round and round you go, spinning metal wheels and nowhere finding any place to get traction. What the hell is 'quality'? What is it?

(Pirsig, 1976: 178)

Having identified 'quality' in metaphysical, epistemological, aesthetic and pragmatic contexts, Pirsig concluded that one should not try to define it, for one will 'know [quality] when they see it', or as Garvin (1984: 27) has indicated, '[quality] lies in the eyes of the beholder' and that '[Quality]... is easy to visualise and yet exasperatingly difficult to define' (Garvin, 1988: xi).

'Quality' is therefore a "slippery", "distinctly murky" and "elusive" concept (see Gaster, 1992: 55; Hubert, 1995; Pfeffer and Coote, 1991), and it is this elusiveness which partly explains its seduction to many managers and spawned such a proliferation of literature on the subject (Wilkinson *et al.*, 1998; Wilkinson and Willmott, 1993; 1995), or as Munro (1995) asserts, "quality's elusiveness to definition appears to be part of its resource" (p. 130). It is worth noting that the *Collins English Dictionary* lists the following definitions of quality;

1. a distinguishing characteristic or attitude;
2. the basic character of something;
3. a feature of personality;

4. degree of standard of excellence, especially a high standard.

Quality derives from the Latin *qualis* which means 'what sort of'. In Aristotle's (1976) *The Nicomachean Ethics* a pragmatic view of quality is portrayed as the 'quality of goodness'. He asserts;

if we take a flautist or a sculptor or any artist, or in general any class of men who have a specific function or activity, his goodness and proficiency is considered to lie in the performance of that function. (p. 75)

and

...the function of an individual and of a good individual of the same kind, e.g. of a harpist and a good harpist and so on generally, is generically the same, the latter's distinctive excellence being attached to the name of the function (because the function of the harpist is to play the harp, but that of the good harpist is to play it well)... (p. 76)

and later,

let us assert, then, that any kind of excellence renders that of which it is the excellence, good and makes it perform its function well. (p. 99)

Lapin (1988) has noted that a common view is to define quality in terms of high standard or a luxury or excellence, in other words, the fourth definition listed in the above *Collins English Dictionary*. As Crosby (1979: 14)¹⁵ states,

... the first erroneous assumption is that *quality* means goodness, or luxury, or shininess, or weight.

¹⁵ According to Crosby, *quality* is defined as "conformance to requirements" and sets a performance standard of "zero defects" or "right first time". Similarly Juran (1974: 2-2) asserts that *quality* is fitness for use: "the extent to which the product successfully serves the purposes of the user, during usage, is called its 'fitness for use.'" According to Feigenbaum (1983) *quality* equates to value, while the 'newer wave' of 'quality gurus' believe it is "excellence" (Peters and Waterman, 1982) and 'delighting the customer' (Peters, 1989).

This leads the IPPR to conclude that managers embrace quality in very much the same vein as someone who condemns sin, and Hubert (1995), who exclaimed, “quality... still remains, like motherhood, so obviously *good* that the quest for it is not, and cannot, be questioned” (p. x). Examining this, within the context of the workplace, Wilkinson and Willmott (1995) have observed that the appeal of the term ‘quality’ can thus be used by senior managers to legitimise all sorts of measures and changes in the name of a self-evident good. On a ‘macrolevel’ (Bouckaert, 1995) a similar assumption has been reached by Kirkpatrick and Martinez Lucio (1995a: 9), who have asserted that ‘quality’ was being used as a ‘legitimation device’, or ‘hegemonic project’ (Tuckman, 1995), because of its positive connotations, by successive Conservative administrations in the 1980s and 1990s¹⁶. Similarly, Micklethwait and Wooldridge (1996) had observed that “by the early 1990s it had become an act of heresy to argue against ‘quality’” (p. 29). The newer wave of quality gurus, like Tom Peters, progressed this assumption of quality and believed it to be imbued with a moral dimension. Peters’ (1989) doctrine maintained that organisations should seek ‘quality’ for its own sake and not just because it lowered costs and increased profits. As far as TQM is concerned, and will be addressed in subsequent sections of this thesis, it is founded on the notion that it is everyone’s responsibility to improve ‘quality’ and, in Tuckman’s (1995) analysis, given the non-contentiousness of the concept, is a “notion that is difficult to reject.” However, to Wilkinson and Willmott (1995), there appears to be a tension between the ‘commonsensical’ association of quality with superior or exceptionally high standards of goods and services and, on the other hand, the quality gurus’ conception of quality as meeting consistent standards, which may not be commonsensically identified as exceptionally high.

¹⁶ The legitimacy of quality, tied with the language of enterprise was equally persuasive to Du Guy and Salaman (1992). They assert, “[they] established an affinity between the politico-ethical objectives of contemporary business and the self-actualising, self-regulating capacities of human subjects” (p. 631).

The same logic, it is argued, is applied to the method of organising work. Wilkinson and Willmott (1995) have commented that the so-called 'quality management gurus' do not view *quality* as a means of attaining exceptionally high standards with regard to employees' terms and conditions of work¹⁷. According to quality gurus like Deming (1982a) it is held that 'quality' [management] is about securing and developing 'uniform and dependable'¹⁸ work practices and procedures that are compatible with delivering products or services at low cost with a quality that is suited to the market, or as Wilkinson and Willmott (1995: 3) summarise,

The objective of 'continuous improvement' does not necessarily mean the steady amelioration of working conditions in the direction of improved pay, fringe benefits, career prospects, quality of working life (QWL), etc., although these may be facilitated by the gains in productivity achieved by successful quality initiatives. Rather, for the quality gurus, quality means whatever methods of work and organisation [that] generate low cost, dependable products and services.

On a semantic issue, Gillman (1993) asserts that we have been misusing the word 'quality' for it is conveniently forgotten that it is a noun and not an adjective. In other words, it is rendered meaningless until it is quantified by 'high', 'medium' or 'low' or another relative descriptor. This misunderstanding, or misuse, of the word 'quality' is important within the context of QMS research because, as asserted by Reeves and Bednar (1994), the lack of a clear definition makes it difficult to evaluate the effects of QMS on business outcomes.

¹⁷ The TUC (1992) introduced a servicemark for public sector organisations, 'Quality Work Assured', which it issued to indicate that there was a commitment to 'quality staff, providing a quality service in a quality environment'.

¹⁸ Deming (1982a) has defined *quality* as "a predictable degree of uniformity and dependability at low cost and suited to the market."

2.2 The Quality Revolution

Like pilgrims to the temple of success, [managers were] traveling to an ancient land... to learn how Japan does it.

(*Time Magazine* 30 March 1981, cited in Rees and Rigby, 1988: 173)

[Quality is] the ticket to play [for Western companies]... If one is going to be a world competitor you benchmark against the best, and that is often the Japanese.

(Sharon Studer, Partner at KPMG, comments cited in Taylor, 1992: 19)

Organisations' recent concerns with quality management have been influenced by "the Japanese connection" (Wilkinson and Willmott, 1995: 4; see also Oliver and Wilkinson, 1992) as some captains of industry in the West openly admitted to "having a love affair with Japanese management philosophy" (comments cited in Wickens, 1987: xi). They were obsessed with the need to uncover and ape the 'secrets of Japanese success' and halt Western decline (Tuckman, 1995). Similarly management academics have been fascinated by "the process of Japanisation" (Tuckman, 1995: 54; see also Elgar and Smith, 1994). By drawing upon Gramsci's (1971) critique of Fordism as the most advanced system of production of its time that would pervade all capitalist economies, some academics argued that the diffusion of Japanisation has the same inevitability about it (Kenney and Florida, 1993). The West was challenged and inspired by the success and speed of Japanese domination of major world markets, especially in the areas of motor and electrical engineering (see Garrahan and Stewart, 1992; Schonberger, 1992; Wickens, 1987). As argued by Wilkinson and Willmott (1995), the management of quality had been widely identified as a key, and not infrequently as *the* key, of Japan's dramatic post-war reconstruction (see, for example, Kakabadse *et al.*, 1996; Morgan and Murgatroyd, 1994; Oakland, 1989). There was a realisation that poor quality was loss making and that it was the key

in a strategy for securing a competitive advantage in a rapidly changing global economy (Smith, 1988). Redman and Matthews (1998: 57) have postulated that,

one of the most important contributions to competitive advantage in recent years derives from an organisation's quality strategy.¹⁹

The rationale had been further emphasised by a significant study of the top corporations in North America and Europe, conducted by the Profit Impact Market Strategy Associates (PIMS), which established that, in the long run, the most important factor affecting an organisation's performance is the quality of its products and services relative to those of their competitors (Buzzell and Gale, 1987).

As summarised by Oakland (1989), ironically, Japanese products were synonymous in the West with cheap and shoddy consumer goods. He argues that these prejudices obscured the fact that Japanese organisations were competing in terms of 'quality for price' and that the potency of Japanese firms only became conspicuous during the late 1970s and the 1980s, at the height of, what Oakland (1989: x) and Peters (1989) have dubbed, 'the quality revolution'²⁰,

In any competitive economy, continuous cost reduction and quality improvement are essential if an organisation is to stay in operation. Competitiveness is measured by three things: *quality, price and delivery*. The theory behind the costs of quality shows that, as quality improves, costs fall through reduction in failure and appraisal costs. Satisfying the customer in terms of quality *and* price will clearly benefit market share. [emphasis added by investigator]

(Oakland, 1989: x)

¹⁹ Conversely, in what has been described as a seminal work on 'competitive advantage' by Porter (1980), Lillrank and Kano (1989) observe that 'quality' is not included in the subject index.

²⁰ The investigator is uncertain who had originally coined the term 'quality revolution'. What does seem certain is that the term was used with greater regularity after 1989.

Commenting on this period of the quality revolution, Wilkinson and Willmott (1993) felt it was one that was ‘invoked’ and ‘provoked’. They cite the prominence of the shifting economic conditions during the 1970s and 1980s, as the era witnessed a continuing emphasis upon volume production and value-for-money (VFM). As will be discussed later, at the heart of this cultural movement was an elevation of the virtues of a pro-market ideology and a reification of consumerism. Wilkinson and Willmott (1993; 1995) also cite the importance of “faith and politics” as a mindset during this period. They assert that strong believers in the merits of quality initiatives did not continually diagnose shortcomings of QMS in terms of failures of implementation and early teething problems and were more prone to viewing QMS as “half full” rather than “half empty.” Given the non-contentiousness of the concept of ‘quality’, as outlined in the preceding section, ‘faith’ was in abundance and there was no shortage of believers²¹. It is worth noting that QMS was bolstered by the prominence of, what Huczynski (1993) has called, ‘guru theory’, which witnessed the increasing use of the marketing of management ideas in the late 1970s and early 1980s. As business books began to appear on bestseller lists for the very first time, with the new entrepreneurial spirit, managers were increasingly seduced by sound bites or quick and easy steps, in the form of ‘how to’ or cookbook style (Dennis, 1995) guides, to achieving profitability and competitive advantage (*ibid.*).

Another irony, that has been noted in many texts on quality management (see, for example, Berk and Berk, 1993; Wilkinson and Willmott, 1995), is the fact that Western, principally American, academics and consultants originally promoted the techniques, especially the statistical techniques, of quality management to Japan

²¹ See also A.T. Kearney (1992), whose report on the shortcomings of TQM was subtitled *Time to Take Off the Rose Tinted Spectacles*.

and found that their ideas were better appreciated there than in their homeland.²² Two such quality gurus, W. Edwards Deming (1982a; 1982b), who visited Japan just after the Second World War, and Joseph Juran (1993), who lectured in the country in the 1950s, attribute this reception to the long-established tradition of fine craftsmanship and attention to detail through miniaturisation, which emphasises reliability and attempts to reduce wastage rates. In an interview Juran insisted that, “if neither I nor Deming had gone to Japan in the early 1950s, the Japanese would still have achieved world quality leadership” (cited in Dickson, 1993: 15). Organisations in the West subsequently became interested in the ‘secrets’ of Japanese success and a new crop of management books began to respond to the Japanese challenge (see, for example, Peters and Waterman, 1982). Significantly, such books also stressed the significance of quality,

Cost and efficiency, over the long run, follow from the emphasis on quality, service, innovativeness, result sharing, participation, excitement, and an external problem-solving focus that is tailored to the customer.

(Peters and Waterman, 1982: 321)

The quality revolution has political ramifications too (Reed, 1995). With particular reference to the UK, quality was the cornerstone of the radical changes in the public sector in the 1980s and the early 1990s and pivotal to the aspirations of the New Right, or neo-conservative, ideological hegemony in British government and its expansion into the public sector was not without controversy (Farnham and Horton, 1996; Kirkpatrick and Martinez Lucio, 1995b). These radical changes were two-fold. First they were characterised by drastic reductions of public expenditure and later to market principles with the employment of policy mechanisms like privatisation, the creation of internal or quasi markets and the increased use of market testing and compulsory competitive tendering (CCT) (see,

²² There is a further irony with reference to LIS experiences of QMS. While comparing the application of quality management practices in public LIS in the UK and Japan, Kinnell and Oda (1996) observed that quality management was significantly further advanced *in the UK*.

for example, Gray and Jenkins, 1994; Le Grand, 1991; Kingdom, 1991; Painter, 1991; Sked and Cook, 1993). While such policy mechanisms within the public services have been closely identified with the successive Conservative administrations during this period, it is also worth noting that *quality* was also considered by the manifestoes of those on the 'left' or 'centre' of the political spectrum²³ (see Labour Party, 1992; Liberal Democrats, 1992; and also Trades Union Congress, 1991), and is neatly summarised by Sanderson (1992),

It seems that nearly every initiative to improve public services is now launched under the banner of 'quality' and the main political parties vie with each other to achieve the high ground in terms of policies to improve the quality of public services (p. 1).

It is possible that the politicians were responding to a broader shift in Western philosophy which promoted the sovereignty of the individual as a consumer *in addition* to championing the market as a means of securing and protecting this freedom (see Webb, 1995). According to the successive post-1979 Conservative administrations of "the combative" Margaret Thatcher and "more urbane" John Major (Tuckman, 1995: 77) "the market system was seen as more efficient than bureaucratic forms of organisation which tended to aggregate choice and waste public resources" (Kirkpatrick and Martinez Lucio, 1995a: 1; see also Chapman, 1979) and they believed in the superiority of commercial enterprise (Du Gay and Salaman, 1992; Keat and Abercrombie, 1991). The so-called New Right²⁴

²³ The New Left approach to quality encompasses three broad issues: an analysis of the failings of centralised statist approaches and an "assertion of the need for more decentralised solutions to problems of social need and economic restructuring"; an acceptance of the legitimate and positive differences in people's needs and wants; and a policy of empowering citizens rather than demeaning them or disabling them (Bennington and Taylor, 1992: 169).

²⁴ The intellectual foundations of the New Right philosophy were established by Hayek (1944) and Popper (1962) and an economic rationale was later provided by Friedman (1980). New Right thinking in the 1980s was maintained by the prominence of 'think tanks', like the Institute of Economic Affairs (IEA), Centre for Policy Studies (CPS) and Adam Smith Institute (ASI). In addition to the championing of the superiority of the market, Harris (1998) identifies other 'core ideas' of the neo-liberalism doctrine: the resistance to egalitarianism; a denial of collectivism; and a distaste for the 'new politics' of identity, such as feminism, anti-racism and gay rights.

thinkers in the Conservative party, argued that the pursuit of a pro-market, neo-liberal agenda would increase the quality of public services and instill a culture of accountability which would, ultimately, be more responsive to the needs of the public (see, for example, Munro, 1995: 145; Smith, 1996; Willetts, 1992).

Following the years of 'Thatcherism', a variety of different approaches to quality improvement were formerly incorporated into the reform project. These were undertaken by John Major, via the *Citizens Charter* (HMSO, 1991a) which was trumpeted as "the most far-reaching programme ever devised to improve quality in public services" (Conservative Party, 1992: 13). The core themes of the *Citizens Charter* were listed as: quality; choice; standards; and value. In the preface, emphasis is placed on VFM and the extension of user voice²⁵. The need to raise,

customer satisfaction... [and to] increase choice, extend competition and thereby improve quality in all services.

(*ibid.* : 4).

As far as the quality revolution in the academic sector was concerned, the advent of the Conservative administration signaled a sharp change in government policy towards universities as it was widely believed that the incumbents had an ideological distaste for higher education (Pollitt, 1990b). Shattock (1991: 102) argues that the government was pledged to reduce public expenditure and its

²⁵ The various policy mechanisms and attention to more consumerist lines leads to another dimension of the quality revolution, the increased interest in measuring the levels of customer satisfaction and particularly the understanding of how customers view the quality of intangible services (Lewis, 1989). This was in keeping with the emergence of what has been described as an "enterprise culture" (Keat and Abercrombie, 1991) in both public and private sector organisations. This culture was one which became obsessed with meeting the demands of the "sovereign consumer". One of the most widely publicised frameworks which sought to measure customer satisfaction, and described by some commentators as a "seminal work" (Rowley, 1998: 327), is the SERVQUAL model developed by Parasuraman *et al.* (1985; 1988). Such frameworks evolved, perhaps, with Gronroos's (1984; see also Gronroos, 1988) assertion in mind, that organisations should become proactive and extremely sensitive to consumer expectations and perceptions and then amend their own sales and marketing strategies accordingly.

policies towards higher education were essentially “expenditure led” rather than any particular view of the system. Pratt and Lockwood (1985) pinpoint 1 July 1981 as a crucial date. It signaled the announcement, by the Universities Grants Committee (UGC), of an average cut in grants of 17 per cent with cuts in individual universities of up to 44 per cent. They conclude that it was,

the first time the universities had been the victims of such savage and immediate financial constraint and was regarded by many as a watershed in their history.

By cutting public expenditure it was hoped that overall levels of cost-effectiveness and accountability would improve. Davies and Kirkpatrick (1995a: 85) believe that,

[the Conservative government] slowly transformed its role from being an allocator of grants to a more discerning and selective purchaser of teaching and research services. New criteria of cost-effectiveness and value for money were used to appraise the success or failure of academic institutions. Universities were, in short, to be made more accountable.

This transformation was sustained by the Committee of Vice-Chancellors and Principals’ (CVCP) Jarratt Report (CVCP, 1985). The report called for improved ‘management’ in terms of better strategic financial planning and also for university managers to become more accountable for existing resources. The CVCP argued that effectiveness and VFM had to be improved. To this end, the Jarratt Report recommended universities to develop quality instruments like “reliable and consistent performance indicators” which would provide a “greater awareness of costs and full cost charging” (CVCP, 1985: 36).

With the rhetoric of ‘accountability’ and ‘VFM’ in mind, there was greater importance attached to QA (Trow, 1996). In 1986 the UGC, in collaboration with the CVCP, published its first statement of university performance indicators.

Towards the end of the 1980s Shattock (1991) argues that there was further pressure on universities with the Universities Funding Council (UFC), the successor to the UGC, adopting a significantly more robust role in ensuring universities' accountability. This manifested itself in a requirement that universities:

- ◇ submit academic plans;
- ◇ submit statements about how they were improving their processes of management, in response to the recommendations of the Jarrett Report; and
- ◇ submit financial plans over the next five years.

(Shattock, 1991)

During this period, the deep seated changes were reflected in the way, as Phillips (1989) reports, students were being recognised as “customers” in much of the Department of Education and Science (DES) literature, and the language of education beginning to become “industrialised”²⁶ (Coffield and Williamson, 1997).

²⁶ Commenting on observations made by commentators like Phillips (1989), Coffield and Williamson (1997:1) are scathing of other changes to the language of education,

... students have become ‘customers’ or ‘consumers’ as well as ‘inputs’ and ‘outputs’, heads of departments are openly described as ‘line managers’ and many vice chancellors now prefer to be called ‘chief executives’. The length of a degree course has been changed to ‘the product’s life cycle’, lecturers no longer teach but ‘deliver the curriculum’ and aims and objectives have been replaced by ‘learner outcomes’ and by ubiquitous, vacuous and interchangeable ‘mission statements’. Financial cuts are now presented as efficiency gains, short, cheap courses are claimed to be ‘cost-effective’ and staff are no longer made redundant, but institutions ‘restructure’, ‘downsize’ or ‘rightsize’... Understanding is being replaced by ‘competence’, knowledge by ‘information’, and education itself is being transformed into a mass commodity to be bought and sold in the market place.

Conversely, in the archives of LISTSERVE TQM-L (‘TQM in higher education’ mailgroup, retrieved from the Babson College gopher, *circa* January 1996), one writer, from an American university, advocates a reduction of pedagogy and asserts that the language of ‘hard’ TQM (see Section 2.4.2), and particularly the Shewhart Cycle (or Plan-Do-Check-Act process) can be logically applied to higher education, he reports,

We apply the Shewhart Cycle to our instructional process by: 1) establishing very specific course objectives (plan), 2) having out instructors teach to those objectives (do), 3) assess the learning of the students and the effectiveness of the

Students were more closely identifiable as “customers” when the Dearing Report (1997) recommendation that undergraduate students be charged a “top-up” fee. In September 1998, most universities administered the fee and charged a sum of £1,000.²⁷

Inevitably, with the Conservative administration in power, the question of quality was hotly debated. At the outset of this thesis, there were *two* types of QA in universities: ‘Quality Audit’ and ‘Quality Assessment’. The 1991 White Paper *Higher Education: A New Framework* distinguished between Quality Audit and Quality Assessment. Quality Audit, which is UK wide, involves an examination of a university’s own procedures and mechanisms to determine whether the expressed mission and aims of the institution to provide quality education are capable of being met through its own internal structures. This process is managed by the Higher Education Quality Council (HEQC), the successor to the Academic Audit Unit. Typically, a number of institutions are selected for audit and HEQC

instruction (sic.) (check), 4) use the data on the outcomes assessment to improve the process (act).

The field of education is similar to the field of business. We in education supply a service (education), start with a raw material (students), apply a process (teaching), and turn out a finished product (graduates). Schools must become more customer-driven, as business is.

²⁷ During the course of this investigation it was reported that, in New Zealand, fee-paying students were resorting to litigation, especially where ‘quality’ was in question. The president of the New Zealand Students’ Union commented,

If the government is going to insist, as it plainly does, that education is now a commodity that can be bought and sold, then students, too, will treat it like a commodity in the sense of pursuing certain legal avenues if the product isn’t up to its advertised standard.

(cited in Cohen, 1997: vi)

As this thesis was being written up, the National Union of Students (NUS) declared that undergraduates deserved a guarantee for quality in return for their top-up fee. The NUS President made the following observation, “Students will demand high standards because cash is being paid over the table...” (cited in Russell, 1999: 11)

panels, consisting mainly of senior academics, scrutinise the university's written documentation, arrange institutional visits, meet staff and students, and determine whether the structures in place work sufficiently well for the institution to meet its own claims for quality (J. Sykes, 1996; Watson, 1995). The Quality Assessment, or teaching quality assessment (TQA), is a process which examines the teaching quality of academic departments. It is the responsibility of the individual funding councils²⁸ and was set up to complement the Research Assessment Exercise (RAE) which evaluates academic departments' research quality every five years. During the course of this investigation, plans to remove 'learning resources' and 'libraries' from the subject assessment process were jettisoned in English universities (Bulpitt, 1997). The Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE, 1994: 15) concluded that Quality Assessment had three main purposes:

- ◇ to ensure that all education for which the HEFCE provides funding is of a satisfactory quality or better, and to ensure speedy rectification of unsatisfactory quality;
- ◇ to encourage improvements in the quality of education through the publication of assessment reports and an annual report;
- ◇ to inform funding and reward excellence.

Each year, a number of academic subjects are announced by the funding bodies for TQA, and HE institutions which teaches those subjects submit a self-assessment document explaining the relevant course aims and structures. TQA panels of subject experts are appointed by the funding bodies to test the teaching quality against the department's aims and deliver the quality judgement (J. Sykes, 1996).

As the concept of quality in higher education became prominent, and as noted by Miller (1994), mission and strategy statements became increasingly in vogue in

²⁸ Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE), Higher Education Funding Council for Wales (HEFCW), Scottish Higher Education Funding Council (SHEFC) and Department for Education for Northern Ireland (DENI).

the late 1980s²⁹. Such statements were prepared for a host of stakeholders, including fund providers, for present and future students, for staff, and for the general public. There was growing evidence that universities were looking towards Service Level Agreements (SLA), the principles of TQM (Ashworth and Harvey, 1994; Clayton, 1993; Geddes, 1993; Miller, 1994) or ISO 9000 (Doherty, 1994; Storey, 1993) to reinforce such statements.

However, as discovered by Mistry and Usherwood (1995), QMS has not been as popular in UK universities as, for example, their American counterparts (see Engelkemeyer, 1993; Sherr and Teeter, 1991; Sullivan and Siggins, 1993).

To summarise the historical development of the quality revolution, according to Tuckman (1995) and Hill (1991; 1995), some advocates of quality management have tied its meaning to a particular approach or technique, like quality control, quality assurance and quality circles. Kanji and Asher (1993) and Dahlgaard *et al.* (1998) use this differentiation to demonstrate that such approaches pursue the following chronological order;

- ◇ Inspection
- ◇ Quality Control
- ◇ Quality Assurance
- ◇ Total Quality Management³⁰.

²⁹ As further evidence consumerism in higher education, at the outset of this study it was reported in *The Times Higher Education Supplement* that a student, using a university's mission statement, was preparing to sue it for changes made to their course (Wojtas, 1995a 2; see also Wojtas, 1995b).

³⁰ Tuckman (1995: 67) asserts that the development towards TQM in the West is represented as four phases of development, with considerable overlap between the phases,

First Phase (late 1970s to early 1980s): Some experimentation with quality circles. Mostly affected firms in direct competition with industrial sectors in which Japan had concentrated (e.g. electronics and motor industries).

Second Phase (the 1980s): Major companies, often affected by world recession, concerned with control of suppliers and subcontractors.

Redman and Mathews (1998) and Hedges (1993) have observed, it is the practices of the manufacturing sector which have dominated much of the early quality management literature. They argue that this is a reflection of quality management's origins in engineering and the very complex nature of 'service quality' (for example, the intangibility and heterogeneity of services). Redman and Mathews (1998) also observe that quality management practices in the service sector have, however, attracted greater interest since the 1980s.

2.2.1 Inspection

Inspection-based systems had been in place since the Egyptians built the pyramids (Kanji and Asher, 1993) and these systems were the sole guarantor of quality. Prior to the advent of the Industrial Revolution, skilled craftsmen were charged with the responsibility of 'building quality' into a product. They were both manufacturers and inspectors of quality (Dean Jr. and Evans, 1994). The *modus operandi* was preserved and maintained over time by enforcing lengthy apprenticeships upon newcomers before they assumed the mantle of being masters of their trade. The key psychological process of the feeling of pride of workmanship was cultivated (Flood, 1993; Garvin, 1988); an issue that is progressed by 'quality gurus' like Deming (1982a).

The Industrial Revolution radically altered the way products were manufactured, as economies geared towards mass production. The craftsmen's small tightly knit monopolistic guilds were broken by the new large organisational structures (see Chandler, 1977). Good quality, which had been an integral element of

Third Phase (from mid-1980s): A growing concern with customer service, particularly in the service sector.

Fourth Phase (from late 1980s): Penetration of concerns with 'customer service' in areas which previously had not recognised the existence of customers (for example, the public sector).

craftsmanship, did not occupy the same status in the new organisational structures (Flood, 1993). Subsequently the craftsmen concept eventually disappeared with the advent, in the early twentieth century, of F.W. Taylor's scientific management (*ibid.*).

2.2.2 Quality Control

“The year 1931 marked a watershed for the quality movement” (Garvin, 1988: 6), with the publication of W.A. Shewhart's (1931) *Economic Control of Quality of Manufactured Product* and “gave the Taylorian discipline a much sounder ‘scientific’ footing” (Flood, 1993: 6). There was now a recognition that variability existed and that equipment could not be manufactured to precisely the same specifications. The inspectors often failed to find the poor quality items and the customers were left with the consequences (Kanji and Asher, 1993). Whilst employed at the Bell Telephone Laboratory, Shewhart encouraged the use of control charts and statistical process control (SPC). By doing so he was emphasising the need to monitor processes rather than output. Shewhart showed that variability could be more clearly understood, particularly the distinction between acceptable variation from those fluctuations that indicated more ingrained problems³¹ (Garvin, 1988). This was an important phase in the quality management movement for the craftsmen's ethic of building quality into a product was returning (Juran and Gryna, 1982). This was the period of *quality control* (Kanji and Asher, 1993) where control systems, product testing and documentation control were employed to ensure greater process control and reduced non-conformance.

³¹ This marked the advent of the so-called ‘germ theory’ of management, a discourse which maintains that the main function of management is “the elimination of the virus of variability” (Deming, 1982a; Tribus, 1989).

2.2.3 Quality Assurance and ISO 9000

[ISO 9000] is not an objective measure of quality but merely verifies that systems are in place to deliver products of a predetermined quality standard.

(P. Smith, 1993: 218)

[ISO 9000] is not a product specification, but a management standard system, relating to how quality is provided. It provides a framework of procedures with which to achieve quality, but it is a means to an end and should not be seen as anything more. *It is geared to the quality of production, not the production of quality.*

(Wille, 1992: 120)

After the Second World War, the emphasis changed from quality control to quality assurance (QA). The fundamental difference between QA and quality control is that the latter is inspection based and the former is prevention based (Kanji and Asher, 1993). Here the organisation sets in place a system for controlling what is done and the system is audited to ensure that it is adequate both in design and use (*ibid.*). The efficiency of such systems involved the use of third-party audits (for example, British Standards Institute). QA has been defined as,

All those planned and systematic actions necessary to provide adequate confidence that a product will satisfy given requirements for quality.

(BS 4778 part 2, 1991: 4.1.1³²)

... an attempt to guarantee the quality of service offered by a library and information service (LIS) - the aim is to decide, in advance, what quality of service one can afford, and then to achieve that degree of quality... quality assurance is an attempt to define how well you want to perform.

(Taylor and Wilson, 1990: x)

³² Equivalent to ISO 8402 *Quality Vocabulary*.

... a generic description of an approach leading to a state of affairs (i.e. a high degree of confidence that quality requirements will be met).

(Tedesco and Sputore, 1994: 371)

Information professionals like Melling (1996a: 36) have assessed QA to incorporate four key elements,

- ◇ saying what you do;
- ◇ doing what you say;
- ◇ recording that you've done it; and
- ◇ improving it for the next time.

ISO 9000 is the standard for QA and has been described as “a less radical version of quality improvement than TQM” (see below, Kirkpatrick and Martinez Lucio, 1995a: 5). Its prominence arose as the demand for quality standards gathered momentum in the late 1970s. Kehoe (1996) states that this was as a outcome of; the increasing international competition, especially from Japanese manufacturers; the proliferation of multiple assessments whereby supplier companies would be assessed by many different customers; and increasing product liability concerns and the limitations of product standards in providing supplier protection. ISO 9000 emphasises the need to establish formal systems of quality control in order to ensure that products and services conform to specified standards and to reduce ‘nonconformity’ to an Acceptable Quality Level (AQL) (see Ellis and Norton, 1996). Within the ISO 9000 framework, quality is understood to be ‘fitness for purpose’ or,

the totality of features and characteristics of a product or service that bear on its ability to satisfy stated and implied needs. The sum of all the factors that result in ownership satisfaction and which bring customers back to buy a product or service repeatedly.

ISO 9000 has its roots in the UK defence industry. The Ministry of Defence (MoD) recognised the importance of standards because, in times of combat, it was imperative that munitions and field equipment performed with efficiency and effectiveness. Defence equipment therefore had to be made to very precise specifications and variability had to be kept to a minimum. In the late 1950s and early 1960s, the MoD held the view that field equipment failure could be reduced if the key processes were controlled (see Munro-Faure *et al.*, 1993). At this time the MoD created their own defence standards, reminiscent of the American MIL-Q-9859 standard, which over time became more formalised as the Allied Quality Assurance Publications (AQAP) in the 1970s. These AQAP quality system standards fell in line with the quality standards that had developed amongst a majority of the NATO countries at that time. In the UK, the MoD oversaw the registration and assessment against these standards. Registration was limited to those businesses which either were, or were expected, to become suppliers to the MoD.

The system gained popularity in non-defence related activities, notably in manufacturing and engineering (Department of Trade & Industry (DTI), 1995) and in 1979, the British Standards Institution (BSI) (1979) published BS 5750, the standard for quality assurance. This was as a result of the Warner Committee findings, which concluded that it was practicable to develop a universally applicable standard, along the lines of the defence standard (see Brophy and Coulling, 1996).

In 1982, the UK government published a White Paper which required all suppliers to conform to BS 5750 in government contracts (Kehoe, 1996). In 1983 the International Standards Organisation, in recognition of the widespread interest in quality systems standards, set to work on an international version based on BS 5750. The standard was reviewed and developed continentally, with the

publication of the European series EN 290000. In 1987 a number of countries ratified an agreement which recognised an international quality system standard, the ISO 9000 series. In the late 1980s, BS 5750 was made more relevant to the service organisations with the development of Part 8 of the standard or ISO 9004-2. However, it should be noted that despite this development a Binder Hamlyn Fry (1994) study on ISO 9000 and the service sector observed that service organisations had been struggling with registration because of its manufacturing and engineering roots and jargon. In 1994, the standard was subsumed to become BS EN ISO 9000 and, in the judgement of the DTI (1995), is unlikely to change until the expected revision in 2000.

According to the Mobil Survey (1996) 127,389 ISO 9000 certificates had been issued in 99 countries world-wide up to the end of December 1995. This was an increase of 32,163 certificates over the end of March 1995 when the total was 95,266 in 89 countries. In the United States, it was suggested that ISO 9000 was beginning to challenge systems like TQM (Gardiner, 1996). Despite its falling share globally, the UK showed the highest growth with 8,484 new certificates at the end of December 1995. As far as service organisations were concerned it was reported that the main reasons for seeking ISO 9000 registration was mainly externally-driven, with 68 per cent of respondents, from a survey sample of 292 organisations, citing external benefits like marketing. Management initiative (66 per cent) was a strong supporting factor, competitive pressure (57 per cent) and client pressure (56 per cent) were also important, with internal efficiency slightly lower at 54 per cent (Binder Hamlyn Fry, 1994: 6). Crosby (1995), in a letter to *The Economist*, postulated that the Standard would continue to exist, even after TQM has ceased to be in vogue; "TQM is an illusion that will pass, like other management fads. *Quality standards, such as ISO 9000, will not die so swiftly.*"

According to Drummond (1992: 72-73) the principle underlying ISO 9000 is for,

control of systems of all systems and procedures; adequate training in job related skills and quality management; and service to be measured using performance indicators and evaluated against predetermined standards.

According to Wedlake (1993: 24-25) QA is imbued with a philosophy which embraces three basic principles. She argues that,

1. **Quality is everybody's business** - each person has a specific quality-related responsibility;
2. **(Organisations must) get it right first time** - on the assumption that 'prevention is better than cure', a properly designed quality system will have identified and anticipated all the likely problems in advance; and
3. **(Organisations must) communicate and plan** - the real benefits of QA come from operating in an organized and controlled environment - each person must be made aware of their specific quality related responsibilities and plan for these within their daily activities.

After being audited by a body that is accredited by the UK Accreditation Services (UKAS), which had replaced the National Accreditation Council for Certification Bodies (NACCB) during the course of this investigation, an organisation is entitled to use the British Standard logo. This is currently a tick in a square surmounted by a crown and demonstrates to the customer that the organisation is committed to QA. The organisation will then be entitled for an entry in the *United Kingdom Register of Quality Assessed Companies*, which is published annually (see Breitenberg, 1993; BSI Quality Assurance 1990a; BSI Quality Assurance 1990b; BSI, 1994; Clements, 1996; DTI, 1995; Ellis and Norton, 1993; Freeman, 1993; Munro-Faure *et al.*, 1993; Rothery, 1993). The direct cost of assessment will depend on the size, type of organisation or the accreditation

(see Breitenberg, 1993; BSI Quality Assurance 1990a; BSI Quality Assurance 1990b; BSI Quality Assurance ND; Clements, 1996; DTI, 1995; Ellis and Norton, 1993; Freeman, 1993; Munro-Faure *et al.*, 1993; Rothery, 1993). The direct cost of assessment will depend on the size, type of organisation or the accreditation body chosen. It was estimated that the cost for an organisation of twenty employees may be anything from £1,000 to £5,000 for the initial assessment fee (Smith, 1993).

There are three parts to the standard; ISO 9001, a model for quality assurance in design, development, production, installation and servicing; ISO 9002, a model for quality assurance in production, installation and servicing; and ISO 9003, a model for quality assurance in final inspection and testing. There is no requirement for firms to meet all three parts of the standard nor is there progression from one to another. ISO 9000 can, however, be used by organisations to progress towards TQM or be the foundation for other quality initiatives (see for example Arnold, 1994; Bettes, 1995; *Quality World*, 1996; Sayle, 1991) or *vice versa* (Ellis and Norton, 1993). Ellis and Norton (1993) suggest that most LIS will opt for ISO 9002, where a library “processes its products or services in some way and there is no, or very little, design nor after-sales servicing.”

Organisations need to maintain a quality and procedures manual. This has been defined as “a document setting out the general quality policies, procedures and practices of an organisation” (Smith, 1993: 65). Such manuals should contain: an introduction to the organisation; an organisation chart; a quality policy, or mission, statement; and quality system overview. This would include subparagraphs on the various requirements of the standard. There are eighteen requirements of ISO 9002 (see BSI Quality Assurance, 1991), as follows,

1. Management Responsibility (section 4.1)

2. Quality System (4.2)
3. Contract Review (4.3)
4. Document Control (4.4)
5. Purchasing (4.5)
6. Purchaser-supplied Product (4.6)
7. Product Identification and Traceability (4.7)
8. Process Control (4.8)
9. Inspection and Testing (4.9)
10. Inspection, Measuring and Test Equipment (4.10)
11. Inspection and Test Status (4.11)
12. Control of Non-Conforming Product (4.12)
13. Corrective Action (4.13)
14. Handling, Storage, Packaging and Delivery (4.14)
15. Quality Records (4.15)
16. Internal Quality Audits (4.16)
17. Training (4.17)
18. Statistical Techniques (4.18)

It is not the intention of the investigator to discuss how the above requirements can be applied to the LIS setting as this issue has been addressed by Ellis and Norton (1993).

Of the definitions offered by Pfeffer and Coote's (1991) analysis of the different approaches to quality, ISO 9000 is the 'scientific or expert approach', which conveys conformity or 'fitness for purpose' to standards as defined and set by experts. It focuses on 'consistency' and not 'excellence', in other words it "provides the product/service to the standard specified" (DTI, 1995: 3). However one of the main points against ISO 9000 is that an organisation can "set the lowest level achievable" and still receive the award (Harrison, 1994: 212). This state of

affairs has been noted by some information professionals, for instance Pluse (1994: 95) observes that,

[BS 5750's] main benefit is as a kitemark for consistency. You could give a fairly mediocre service yet still fulfill the requirements of BS 5750 - so long as you have delivered it consistently.

and P. Smith (1993) cited the following comments,

A lot of people think that it means infallibility, whereas it really means consistency. You could be consistently crap!

2.2.4 Total Quality Management

TQM is something of a slippery concept and the label is frequently attached to a pot-pourri of diverse practices and often unrelated organisational change activities.

(Redman and Mathews, 1998: 57)

The fourth phase of the development of quality management involves the application of Total Quality Management (TQM), and it has been described by Wilkinson and Willmott (1995) as the “most celebrated and widely adopted form of quality management” (p. 8) and “more stringent and comprehensive than [ISO 9000]” (A. Smith, 1993: 241). The significance of TQM is underlined by Morgan and Murgatroyd (1994) who believe that TQM heralds a radical philosophy which

represents a “paradigm shift in management thinking” (p. 4)³³ and Kanji (1990: 3) who heralded TQM as the “second industrial revolution.”³⁴

Although a standard on TQM exists, in the form of BS 7850 (1992) (*Total Quality Management: Part One, Guide to Management Principles*), it is a consultative document and there is no external accreditation, as is the case with ISO 9000³⁵. This may have something to do with the fact that, according to Honeycutt (1993), TQM does not have a single definition and many views abound as to what it actually is. Likewise, Joss and Kogan (1995: 12) have asserted that “given the large amount of literature, there are surprisingly few definitions of TQM.” Survey evidence on the practice of TQM also finds the term often loosely

³³ Morgan and Murgatroyd cite Kuhn’s (1970) interpretation of a “paradigm shift”, which was held to be a new conceptual tradition, a radical change in interpretation, whereby science takes a wholly new and changed perspective towards an area of knowledge and activity. According to Morgan and Murgatroyd the notion of the paradigm shift can be legitimately applied to TQM because “the core assumptions which the ‘quality authors’ - the parents of TQM - have advanced and practiced, have been wholly subversive of many long-held assumptions regarding the management and work practices of people...” (p. 4). In stating this, the investigator also acknowledges Giddens’ (1979b: 137) assertion that Kuhn’s use of the word ‘paradigm’ is ‘notoriously ambiguous’ and that there are twenty-two distinguishably different senses in which the term is employed in *The Structure of Scientific Revolutions*.

³⁴ Mann (1989), citing a prominent chairman of a multinational organisation, has reported that Deming is viewed as the “founder of the third wave of the industrial revolution.” He explains, the first wave involved the widespread mechanisation in Britain in the eighteenth century. Taylorism and Fordism were prominent in the second wave of the industrial revolution, which reduced jobs to their simplest functions, applying efficiency programmes and mass production. The third wave of the industrial revolution is characterised by the use of statistical analysis to solve the problems of both production and service and the attendant possibilities of customer and employee involvement.

³⁵ According to Oakland (1995) “the closest thing we have to an international standard for TQM” (p. 121) is encapsulated by the framework of the Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award (MBNQA). The award criteria are built upon a set of core values and concepts: customer driven quality; leadership; continuous improvement and learning; employee participation and development; fast response; design quality and prevention; long range view of the future; management by fact; partnership development; corporate responsibility and citizenship; and results orientation. The framework has four basic elements: driver, system, measures of progress, and goal. The driver is the senior executive that creates the values, goals, and systems, and guides the sustained pursuit of quality and performance objectives. The system includes a set of well-defined and designed processes for meeting the organisation’s quality and performance requirements. Measures of progress provide a results-oriented basis for channeling actions to deliver ever-improving customer values and organisational performance. The goal is the basic aim of the quality process in delivering the above to the customers (see Keiser, 1993 for discussion of the MBNQA and LIS; United States Department of Commerce Technology Administration, 1997).

that it has become unclear whether TQM still has identifiable conceptual core (p. 310).

This is partly explained by the fact that TQM is a general philosophy which has come together from *different* authors and cultural directions over a period of some thirty-five years (Morgan and Murgatroyd, 1994)³⁶. As noted earlier in this chapter, there are definitional problems relating to the concept of 'quality', with each guru (see below) positing their own interpretation. The problem is compounded when one of the founders of TQM, W. Edwards Deming (1982a), rarely discusses TQM *per se*, with (Boje, 1993) even reporting that Deming did not know what the term meant. Fulop and Rossier (1995: 213) have argued that, given this state of affairs, "the search for a precise definition of TQM is becoming increasingly futile." However, far from being detected as a difficulty for the coherence and credibility of quality management this was identified, in an early study, as its principal virtue (Dale and Plunkett, 1989: 346),

It sometimes seems unfortunate that there are so many different interpretations of TQM. But by being amenable to wide and differing interpretations it remains appropriate in widely differing situations and circumstances. Thus it has a unifying effect, in that all genuine aspirations to improve quality are known to be moving in the same direction... The Total Quality image is the sum of a set of attributes, each of which has its own quality criteria.

The lack of a single definition of TQM may explain why there are, in the opinion of Steel and Jennings (1992), "no systematic and controlled studies of the TQM process" (p. 25), and Hill (1995) proffers some cautionary advice for the researcher,

... the range of applications now described as 'TQM' is so wide, including, for example, customer care programmes as well as 'real'

³⁶ Wilkinson and Willmott (1995) cynically add that the number of approaches have proliferated with the explosion of consultancy firms offering their own 'unique' view.

all genuine aspirations to improve quality are known to improve quality are known to be moving in the same direction... The Total Quality image is the sum of a set of attributes, each of which has its own quality criteria.

The lack of a single definition of TQM may explain why there are, in the opinion of Steel and Jennings (1992), “no systematic and controlled studies of the TQM process” (p. 25), and Hill (1995) proffers some cautionary advice for the researcher,

... the range of applications now described as ‘TQM’ is so wide, including, for example, customer care programmes as well as ‘real’ TQM, that one must take care not to compare like with like (p. 48).

There is confusion, too, with the acronym ‘TQM’. Oliver and Wilkinson (1992), while assessing ‘Japanisation’, use the term ‘TQC’, total quality control³⁷. Dale and Cooper (1992: 137) when addressing ‘The Japanese Approach to TQM’ immediately revert to TQC and inform the reader that the acronym “readily translates into total quality care and total quality commitment” (p. 138).

The philosophy of TQM has been shaped by quality gurus like, W. Edwards Deming (1982a; 1982b) - who has been identified as “the father figure of the modern quality revolution” (Morgan and Murgatroyd, 1994: 36), Joseph Juran (1974), Kaoru Ishikawa (1985), Genichi Taguchi (1986), Philip Crosby (1979; 1984; 1986) and Armand V. Feigenbaum (1983), over a period of some thirty-five years. According to Bendell (1991) three groups of quality gurus can be identified as significant in the establishment of TQM during the period since the Second World War:

³⁷ TQC is first coined by Feigenbaum (1956). According to Dahlgaard *et al.* (1994; 1998), the concept of TQM is a logical development of TQC, which was embraced by the Japanese into what they called Company-wide Quality Control (CWQC). They assert that TQM was the West’s response to CWQC. TQC was seen as the special responsibility of the quality department; TQM included management at all levels and in all departments.

1. The early Americans who took the message to the Japanese;
2. The Japanese who developed new concepts in response to the Americans' messages;
3. The new western wave of gurus who, following Japanese industrial success, have given rise to increased quality awareness in the West.

Bendell suggests that the quality gurus within each period are,

1. Deming, Juran and Feigenbaum are the “early Americans” who took the message to the Japanese;
2. Taguchi, Ishikawa and Sigeo Shingo are the prominent Japanese who developed the Americans' ideas; and
3. Crosby, Tom Peters and Claus Møller are “the new wave” of quality gurus.

A further chronology is offered by Berk and Berk (1993) (see Table 2.1). Writing specifically from an American perspective³⁸, they identify Deming and Juran (the early Americans) as the key founders of the TQM movement in the 1940s. Deming becomes a prominent figure in the 1950s, as he assists the MacArthur administration in Japan immediately after the Second World War. As Japan emerges as a “world quality leader”, Deming, who is still a prominent figure, is joined by Japanese quality gurus like Ishikawa and Taguchi in the 1960s and 1970s. Meanwhile in the United States, Total Quality Control (TQC) gains popularity as the writings of Deming, Juran and Feigenbaum become accepted. In the 1970s, in the United States, Berk and Berk imply that Deming, Juran and Feigenbaum become less prominent, as their ideas appear to become superseded

³⁸ And consequently ignoring the contributions of Møller and the British quality guru, John Oakland.

<i>Period</i>	<i>Prominent Guru(s)</i>	<i>Event</i>
◆ (First World War)		
◇ 1920s	Shewhart	Statistical methods applied to manufacturing
◇ 1940s	Deming, Juran	Increased emphasis on process improvement
◆ (Second World War)		
◇ 1950s	Deming	Deming Assists MacArthur in Japan
◇ 1960s-1970s	Deming, Ishikawa and Taguchi	Japan emerges as quality world leader
◇ 1960s	Deming, Juran and Feigenbaum	TQC emerges in the United States
◇ 1970s	Crosby	Zero defects movement in the United States
◇ 1980s-1990s	Deming, Juran, Taguchi and Crosby	TQM emerges in the United States

Table 2.1: TQM chronology

It is not the intention of the investigator to outline and list Deming's Fourteen Points and Seven Deadly Diseases, Juran's Ten Steps for Quality, Crosby's Fourteen Steps and Four Absolutes, or the Japanese and New Wave approaches to TQM at this stage of the study (see 'Glossary of QMS Terms and Organisations' at the end of this thesis). Instead, the tenets of the quality guru's work, especially its connection with motivation, will be delineated and analysed *during the course* of this thesis.

While no single theoretical formulation of TQM is in existence (Hill, 1991; Saskin and Kisher, 1993) nor "definitive shortlist of practices associated with it" (Lawler, 1994: 68), and despite some bitter exchanges between some of the quality gurus⁴⁰, there is 'convergent validity' (Campbell and Fiske, 1959). This is

⁴⁰ For example Macdonald and Pigott (1990: 97) cite a comment from Joseph Juran in the August 1986 issue of *Fortune* on Philip Crosby: "I do not regard Crosby as an expert in the field of quality... he is an expert in public relations. He is a combination of P.T. Barnum and the Pied Piper."

the degree to which the versions of TQM, as promulgated by the quality gurus and observed in organisational practice, share a set of core assumptions and specific principles of management that can then be synthesised into a coherent framework⁴¹. One of the more well known definitions of TQM has been posited by the British Standard Institute (BSI) who suggest that it is,

... a management philosophy embracing all activities through which the needs and expectations of the customer, the community and the objectives of the organisations are satisfied in the most efficient and cost effective way by maximising the potential of all employees in a continuing drive for improvement.

(BS 4778 Part 2: 1991)

Five components can be gleaned from the above definition. We note that TQM is a 'philosophy'; it embraces 'all activities' or is 'total'; it is 'customer-driven'; it requires 'staff involvement'; and is geared towards a culture of 'continuous improvement', or *Kaizen* (Imai, 1986). On the issue of 'a management philosophy' Wilkinson and Witcher (1991) believe that 'quality' becomes a way of life which permeates every part and aspect of the organisation. On 'totality' Kane (1996: 111) asserts it is "... total, everybody, everybody in the organisation, all the time, everywhere, not a department, not a set of perfects, not a management tool, total, everybody." Dahlgaard *et al.* (1998: 3) also make the suggestion that in a TQM organisation, "QI (quality improvement) is a way of life" and to Kanji (1990: 3),

TQM is the way of life of an organisation committed to customer satisfaction through continuous improvement. This way of life varies from organisation to organisation and from one country to another, but has certain essential principles which can be implemented to secure greater market share, increase profits and reduce costs.

⁴¹ While broadly accepting that TQM passes the convergent validity test, Hackman and Wageman (1995) also point out that the picture is not perfect. They feel that the diminished role of the employment of the scientific methodology and statistical tools is one expression of a "greater adherence to TQM philosophy at the espoused than at the operational level" (p. 318).

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The customer driven element is, to Webb (1995), the *key* concept of TQM, which is used to promote a new “vocabulary of motive” (Wright-Mills, 1940: 439; see also Webb, 1996). Organisations must achieve a common goal by developing a culture in which the customer is paramount (Catterick, 1992), and it therefore provides a central element of the prescriptions associated with a free market ideology (Webb, 1995),

The customer is the most important part of the production line. Quality should be aimed at the needs of the customer, present and future.

(Deming, 1982a: 5)

Wilkinson *et al.* (1998) observe that it therefore fits with Levitt’s (1960) notion that business must be a customer satisfying process rather than a goods producing process.

Other commentators have identified fewer or other elements in TQM. According to Dean and Bowan (1994), who conducted a review of the TQM literature, only three “basic” principles stand out, TQM is: customer focused; relies on teamwork; and linked to a mindset of continuous improvement. Redman and Mathews

(1998) note that other writers supplement Dean and Bowen's "basic principles" by stressing the need for employee involvement and senior management commitment (see, for example, Raffio, 1992), or as Deming (1982a) famously remarked, "the basic cause of sickness in American industry and resulting unemployment is failure of *top management to manage*" (p. ix); a study by Coopers & Lybrand (Carr and Littman, 1990) also identified TQM as; a long-term strategy and that the "timid and fainthearted, and people that expect 'quick fixes', are doomed to disappointment" (Deming, 1982a: x)⁴²; concerned with prevention of problems ('zero defects'); and based on fact-based decisions; Latzko (1992: 64) has identified TQM as a management philosophy which emphasises "a journey and not a destination"; and Hill (1991: 554) identified a further criterion by judging TQM to be a "business discipline." This is an important distinction, for it has been suggested by Morgan and Murgatroyd (1994) that employers and employees in the public sector, in particular, may view TQM to be inimical to their organisation.

As far as LIS are concerned, information professionals have also encountered similar problems when defining TQM. Carl Gustav Johannsen of the Royal Library School in Denmark encountered such difficulty during the early implementation efforts of QMS in 1992. Reporting to the EUSIDIC Spring Meeting on *TQM and the Information Sector* in 1992, Johannsen stated to the delegates that there are obstacles in "reaching a common understanding of TQM" (cited in Porter, 1992). In general, some information professionals, in defining TQM, have used many of the elements described above (see also Jurow and Barnard, 1993),

⁴² In his analysis of Japanese management, Clayton (1992) posits that a focus on long-term objectives is a characteristic of Japanese management style.

[TQM] is the approach which organisations adopt to improve their performance on a systematic and continuous basis... achieved via the involvement of employees throughout the organisation in satisfying the total requirements of every customer... and the development of processes within the organisation which are error-free

(Butterwick, 1993: 28)

[TQM] is a management and organisational philosophy, a way of life, a corporate culture, a way of doing things, a long-term commitment. It is not a management system or a set of techniques and procedures, nor is it a short-term fix.

(Brophy, 1997b: 74)

Although it is assumed that there are “*agreed* basic ingredients” (Barrier, 1992) there are different orientations of TQM. Organisations like the British Quality Association (BQA)⁴³ believe that there is a ‘soft’ and a ‘hard’ TQM (Marchington, 1992; Wilkinson, 1994). This point of view has been summarised by Marchington (1992: 93),

The BQA has put forward three definitions of TQM. The first focuses on the so-called ‘soft’ qualitative characteristics, found elsewhere in the work of US consultants such as Tom Peters: customer orientation, culture of excellence, removal of performance barriers, teamwork, training, employee participation, competitive edge. From this perspective, TQM is seen as consistent with open management styles, delegated responsibility and increased autonomy to staff. The second definition places emphasis on the production aspects such as systematic measurement and control of work, setting standards of performance, using statistical procedures to assess quality; this is the ‘hard’ production or operations management type view, which arguably leads to less discretion for employees. The third definition comprises three features: an obsession with quality, the need for a scientific approach, and all in one turn, thus borrowing from the above definitions albeit in a unitarist fashion.

⁴³ It should be noted that the BQA is the former name of the British Quality Foundation (BQF).

According to Wilkinson and Willmott (1995: 8) the disciplinary orientations of the quality gurus have “dominated and constrained” the TQM philosophy. They highlight the fact that the quality gurus’ background in operational research and statistical methods of control, with its emphasis on SPC, quality function development (QFD) and failure-mode-effect-and criticality analysis (FMECA) (see Neave, 1990), had resulted in the pre-eminence of the ‘harder’ ‘management by fact’ (Garvin, 1991) orientation of TQM,

...many of the leading gurus sought to develop and refine seemingly objective (e.g. statistical) means of gaining ‘hard’ information about processes of production and service delivery. Much attention and effort has been directed at the measurement and documentation of procedures and outcomes through the use of flow charts, scatter diagrams, control charts etc. Comparatively less consideration is given to the ‘softer’ process of winning employee support for, and commitment to, the TQM philosophy of continuous improvement.

(Wilkinson and Willmott, 1995: 8)

This view has only been partly corroborated in the late 1980s and early 1990s with a newer generation of quality gurus, like the British management academic John Oakland (1989: 14-15), who have stressed for the need to develop an approach to TQM that imbues employees with greater responsibility and accountability,

TQM is an approach to improving the effectiveness and flexibility of business as a whole. It is essentially a way of organising and involving the whole organisation, every department, every activity, every single person at every level. For an organisation to be truly effective, each part must work properly together, recognising that every person and every activity effects, and in turn is affected by, others.

TQM is a method for ridding people's lives of wasted effort by involving everyone in the process of improvement; improving the effectiveness of work so that results are achieved in less time.

(Oakland, 1989: 14-15)

Wilkinson *et al.* (1992) conclude that the image of TQM in the organisation is further complicated because the ambiguity of the term has led many organisations to shift back and forth between the "harder" features of quality assurance and the "softer" elements of TQM in their search for an instant panacea.

LIS experiences give flesh to the claim that softer elements of TQM are more paramount than hard TQM. For example, from the experiences of the directors at the Case Western Reserve University (CWRU) we learn that,

... there is no doubt from the CWRU experience that TQM principles can work in libraries, but one must know how to work within the TQM concepts. TQM works best as we manage our most valuable resource - ourselves. The library of the future can only be created by the librarian of the future. The most important element of a successful TQM programme is its inherent philosophy of managing people.

(Gapen *et al.*, 1993: 25)

Similarities between soft TQM and the QWL movement have been acknowledged by some commentators. If accepting Ishikawa's (1985) philosophy, both have attempted to improve 'work humanisation'. However, QWL has attempted to do so by focusing on job enrichment via job redesign, a strategy that is implicit in QMS and not necessarily endorsed by the quality gurus (see, for example, Deming, 1982a). Furthermore, QMS is a strategy employed to combat *market pressure* in order to develop a more competitive organisation; QWL was largely a response *labour pressure* and particularly to the recalcitrance and crisis in industrial relations of the 1970s (McArdle *et al.*, 1995: 158).

In conclusion, within the context of this investigation, there are *eight* TQM insights and concepts. The *approach*, is management led; the *scope* is organisation-wide and long term; in terms of *scale*, quality is everyone's responsibility; it has a *philosophy*, that is distinct from QA, which focuses on prevention rather than detection; the underlying *standard* is to 'get it right first time'; which is underpinned by the *theme* of continuous improvement; the ultimate *goal* is to delight the customer; and the *methodology* can be scientific and statistical (James, 1991: 6). TQM has been hailed as a "thought revolution" in management (Ishikawa, 1985: 1) and, in Kuhnian terms, occupies a distinct management paradigm that is contrasted sharply with the economic model of the firm (Grant *et al.*, 1994; Morgan and Murgatroyd, 1995). Commenting on this paradigmatic status, Hackman and Wageman (1995) conclude that TQM only just passes the 'discriminant validity' test, or the degree to which TQM philosophy and practice that can be reliably distinguished from other strategies for organisational improvement, when viewed within the context of the doctrine of the quality gurus. Although Wruck and Jensen (1994) have argued that systems like TQM provide a historically unique approach to improving organisational effectiveness that takes account of how people operate, according to Hackman and Wageman (1995) it is close to failing the discriminant validity test when viewed within the context of organisational practice. TQM is still an evolving management strategy and the 'bolt on' attributes, in recent years, like "empowerment" or "involvement" make it less distinct from participative management practices or the QWL movement. It is perhaps indicative that the debate surrounding TQM as a distinct management paradigm is reflection of the lack of consensus as to what it is. Whatever its paradigmatic status information professionals like Evans (1997) have suggested that TQM represents 'good management practice'. Corral (1996), writing from a perspective of an LIS manager who has implemented TQM, also supports this view. Although she acknowledges that the literature has described the initiative as "applied common sense", she believes that significant benefits were realised at her

university library because of the “formal and more rigorous approach to managing services” (p. 50).

2.2.5 Conclusion

The previous sections have charted the development of the quality revolution and underlined its significance in the context of current social, political and industrial changes. It acknowledges the shift of formal systems of quality control and QA out of the arena of manufacturing and into service industries and the public sector. Tuckman (1995) asserts that the emergence of TQM was not a new concern with quality, but it emerged as a critique of previous forms of QA. Table 2.2, presented to information professionals at the BUOPOLIS conference, sets TQM within the context of other approaches to quality discussed above (Cohen, 1996: 17),

	<i>Quality Control</i>	<i>Quality Assurance</i>	<i>Quality Management</i>
◇ View of Quality	Problem to be solved	Problem to be solved and tackled pro-actively	Competitive opportunity
◇ Emphasis	Product uniformity	The entire production chain and all functional groups (esp. designers) to prevent future quality failures	The market and consumer requirements
◇ Methodology	Gauging and measuring	Programmes and systems	Strategic planning, goal setting and mobilisation of the entire organisation
◇ Role of the quality professionals	Inspecting, sorting, counting and grading	Quality measurement, planning and programme design	Goal setting, education, consulting other departments and programme design
◇ Responsibility for quality	separate inspection department	All departments although top management only involved peripherally	Everyone in the organisation, with top management exercising a strong leadership role
◇ Orientation and approach	'Inspects-in' quality	'Builds-in' quality	'Manages-in' quality

Table 2.2: Comparison of quality control, quality assurance and quality management

2.3 Quality Motivation

To be motivated, individuals must have a motive and care about the work they do. To be motivated individuals must have a motive and this sense of purpose must be clearly communicated to people. Motivating and creating a culture change represents perhaps the most significant management challenge on the road to quality development.

(Kehoe, 1996: 66-67)

'Quality' is intricately linked to the attitude, morale and motivation of [our employees]

(Minkoff, 1992: 71)

Despite postulations by some of the quality gurus on the key role of effective people management (Crosby, 1979; Deming, 1982a; Ishikawa, 1985; Juran, 1989), one of the curious phenomena of QMS research is the relatively recent interest from human resource management (HRM) commentators (see, for example Costigan, 1995; Dawson and Webb; Hill, 1991; Hill and Wilkinson, 1995; Rosenthal *et al.*, 1997; Viney and Tyson, 1997). As far as this investigation was concerned, the emphasis on the softer aspects of QMS, and motivation in particular, was inspired by the work of Huczynski (1993). While analysing the phenomenon of guru management, Huczynski examined the salient management issues and systems of the twentieth century and concluded that *all* management ideas were imbued with three core themes: productivity, control and *motivation*. The investigation therefore subscribes to the view that,

The appeal of TQM travels beyond production systems to the management of human resources.

(Kirkpatrick and Martinez Lucio, 1995: 3)

and that,

... people-management issues emerge as central to the implementation of [QMS]

(Wilkinson *et al.*, 1998: 178)

According to Wilkinson (1994) the issue of human resources is critical and asserts that “until senior management and TQM practitioners address [the human side of quality], TQM will not fulfill its potential” (p. 273). The propensity, or potential, of QMS to motivate was observed by the investigator while the systems were being hyped, as exemplified by the following statements,

[Gwent Health Authority] Morale has improved, staff within the district feel less isolated and believe that there now exists a team spirit within the health care organisations in Gwent.

[Nissan] ... higher morale and enthusiasm, and increased teamwork.

[Sony] ... the improvement programme has increased motivation, determination and enthusiasm.

(cited in Hakes, 1991: 156-167)

While these may be viewed as the 'end-products' of QMS, employees need to be motivated to follow and comply with QMS, so that the shared values and norms of behaviour of individuals (Schein, 1985: 6), is compliant with a 'quality culture' (Kehoe, 1996: 65)⁴⁴. Dahlgaard *et al.* (1998; and Kanji *et al.*, 1995: 427) use the term 'quality motivation' to describe this process and is at the centre of this thesis. They concur with Jeffries *et al* (1992, see below) that it is easy for managers to use various quality tools and techniques, but the biggest challenge to any manager is in the management of people,

⁴⁴ The classic definition of 'culture' was first put forward by the anthropologist Sir Edwin Burnett Tylor in his *Primitive Culture* (1871). Tylor asserted that culture is,

that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom, and that any other capabilities and habits acquired by a man as a member of society (cited in Mair, 1972: 9).

However, as noted by Leach (1982), since Tylor's definition, "the anthropologist's concept of culture has undergone many transformations and there is no present-day consensus about how the term should be used..." (p. 39). Leach supports the view that culture to the anthropologist can be used in a variety of ways, for instance, it can refer to a society that is defined by distinctive cultural values, or ideas and behaviours associated with a social group. Bright and Cooper (1993) stress that culture in organisations is the "general pattern of behaviour, beliefs and values that members have in common (p. 22). They assert that it is a complex construct and invisible force,

The organisation itself has an invisible quality - a certain style, a character, a way of doing things, that may be more powerful than the dictates of any one person or any formal system. To understand the soul of the organisation requires that we travel below the charts, rule books, machines and buildings into the underground world of corporate cultures... Culture is to the organisation what personality is to the individual (p. 23).

The real key to the success of TQM is people. If the people in the business, at every level, are not committed to producing a quality product or service, then your TQM initiative is doomed to failure. It is relatively easy to change technology, systems and procedures. It is much more difficult to change people's attitudes to work, their perceptions of management, their values, their *motivation* and their behaviour.

(Jeffries *et al*, 1992: 142)

Information professionals have also subscribed to the above ideology, for instance, while reporting on a workshop on the use of quality in public LIS, Jones *et al*. (1998) conclude, for quality motivation to develop "the attitude of staff (and managers) are critical." To achieve quality motivation, organisations need to reflect on issues like 'leadership styles' (Deming, 1982a; Kanji *et al.*, 1995; Kondo, 1989), communication and training and education, team work and participation (Kondo, 1989; Oakland, 1989; 1993) to get employees to the point that improving quality is the motivation behind everything they do in the organisation (Deming, 1982a).

Motivation, however, is acknowledged to be a complex psychological issue that is steeped in ambiguity,

Motivate is one of those ambiguous words. The dictionary calls it a transitive verb. It normally has a subject and an object. X motivates Y, Y is motivated by X. But is X a thing or a person? Can *you* motivate someone? Or is it only money, or hunger, or status, or need for affection? Are you motivated by a lack of something..?

(Handy 1993: 29)

At its simplest a 'motive' is "something which initiates movement" (Armstrong, 1990: 63) and, from this, 'motivation' is "an internal state that induces a person to engage in particular behaviours" (Spector, 1996: 192), which is preceded by "a decision-making process through which the individual chooses desired outcomes"

(Huczynski and Buchanan, 1991: 56). Its central role in the function of an organisation has been acknowledged by occupational psychologists,

If we know what motivates you, we then know which buttons to press to make you work harder, we know what levers to pull to make you change your attitudes, we know what rewards and sanctions will get your support for a particular package of changes - so we can influence your behaviour in directions we think is desirable.

(Huczynski and Buchanan, 1991: 54)

As far as this investigation is concerned it is understood to embrace three elements: first, it is concerned with 'direction', or the choice of specific behaviours from a large number of other behaviours - 'what is an employee trying to do?'; second, it is concerned with 'effort' and intensity, or 'how hard is an employee trying?'; and finally, 'persistence' or the continuing engagement in a particular behaviour over time. In conclusion this template of motivation, as put forward by Arnold *et al.* (1998: 245) determines it to be concerned with the *direction, effort and persistence of behaviour over time.*

2.3.1 Assumptions of Motivation

Motivation theories are underpinned by four assumptions about people: the rational-economic assumption, the social assumption, the self-actualising assumption; the complex assumption and the psychological assumption (Handy, 1993: 34-35).

The rational-economic assumption posits that individuals are motivated by economic self-interest. They will act to increase their own financial and material rewards (Taylor, 1947). Organisations can therefore manipulate employees by with-holding or offering financial rewards. Underlying this assumption is the view that individuals are passive (Handy, 1993) and are inclined to assert less, rather

than more effort and are unwilling to take responsibility. This is exemplified by McGregor's 'Theory X' view of the individual (McGregor, 1960).

The social assumption views the individual to be motivated by social needs and building relationships with others (Handy, 1993: 35). The work of Mayo (1945; 1947) and Roethlisberger and Dickson (1939) in the 'Hawthorne Studies' discovered this sense of identity through relationships with other people within the context of increased mechanisation and rationalisation which had meant that work had lost some of its meaning. With these insights, Handy (1993) cites the importance of group behaviour, as people are more responsive to the pressures of their peer groups at work than to management controls and incentives (Mayo, 1945), and leadership style, for workers are responsive when management meets their needs for belonging, acceptance and sense of identity (*ibid.*).

The self actualising assumption of the individual posits that individuals are self-motivated and self-controlled (Handy, 1993: 35). The key exponent of this assumption, Maslow (1943; 1970), asserted that self-actualisation is the need an individual has to fulfill his or her capabilities and potential and desire for growth, "the desire to become... everything that one is capable of becoming" (Maslow, 1943: 382).

The complex assumption, deriving from Schein's (1980) "complex man" (*sic.*) hypothesis, considers the individual to be 'variable' and therefore disputes the preceding models of human behaviour's claim to 'universality' and 'generality'. In short, individuals' needs and motivations vary according to the different circumstances that are encountered (Handy, 1993: 35).

The psychological assumption, that is suggested by Levinson (1972)⁴⁵, also views the individual to be a complex, maturing organism who passes through physiological and psychological stages of development. They nurture an 'ego ideal' and attempt to bring themselves closer to that ideal. Motivation is accrued if opportunities are provided for individuals to work towards the ego ideal in work (Handy, 1993: 35).

The first three assumptions are 'content models of motivation' while the latter assumptions are expressions of a 'process theory' of motivation. Arnold *et al.* (1998) distinguish the two approaches by stating that content theories of motivation focus on *what* motivates human behaviour at work; process theories concentrate on *how* the content of motivation influences behaviour (p. 246). The following section provides an overview of the principal theories of motivation, commenting on their validity and application in LIS research. It also highlights the current trends of motivation theory.

2.3.2 Principal Theories of Motivation⁴⁶

This section highlights the principal theories of motivation, which are, in chronological order: need theories, reinforcement theory, expectancy theory, self-efficacy theory, equity theory and goal setting theory. It is not the intention of the investigator to explain these theories at length, instead the study will outline salient issues.

Need theories determine motivation as deriving from people's desires for certain needs. Such needs differ both within the same individual over time and among a

⁴⁵ As explained by Handy (1993), Levinson's work was an embellishment of a study conducted by Zaleznik (1970).

⁴⁶ The investigator acknowledges the 'self learning unit' *Human Resources Management*, created for the Masters programmes (1993/94) at the Department of Information Studies, by Prof. T.D. Wilson, in the development of this section.

cross-section of people. A key exponent is Maslow (1943) whose Need Hierarchy Theory put forward the idea that fulfillment of human needs is necessary for both physical and psychological health. These needs are arranged in a hierarchy that includes physical, social and psychological needs. The physical necessities for survival, such as air, water or food occupy the lowest level physiological needs. The next level incorporates safety needs or those things that provide individuals with security and shelter. Having defined, the 'lower order needs', Maslow then proceeds to explain the 'higher order needs'. The need for love, affection and affiliation with others, or social needs, are included in the third level. The fourth level contains esteem needs or the sensation of self respect and respect of others. Finally, there is self-actualisation which, as explained in the previous section, is the fulfillment of an individual's goals and reaching one's potential. The Needs Hierarchy Theory states that a need must be unmet to be motivating and that individuals are motivated by the lowest level that is unmet. Thus, if two levels of needs are unmet the lower level will dominate (although Maslow recognised that there can be exceptions to the hierarchy with some individuals finding certain higher order needs to be more important than lower level needs). As has been discussed in Locke and Henne (1986) empirical research has not supported the Need Hierarchy Theory (see also Wahba and Birdwell, 1975: 5). This is attributable to the vague nature of Maslow's statement of the theory and the resultant difficulty in designing good tests. McClelland (1961), for instance, asserts that the needs are not as universal as Maslow proposed, that they vary from culture to culture. McClelland offered three types of socially acquired needs: the need for achievement (or the desire to achieve goals), the need for affiliation (or the need to develop good interpersonal relationships) and the need for power (or the desire to influence and control other people). Despite its flaws, as stated by Spector (1996), the Need Hierarchy Theory is important because it "helps focus attention on the importance of meeting employees needs at work" (p. 195).

Another variation of the need theory can be found in Alderfer's (1969; 1972) Existence, Relatedness, Growth (ERG) Theory. In contrast to Maslow (1943), Alderfer believed needs were arranged in a continuum, rather than a hierarchy. The basic premise of ERG Theory views individuals to move back and forth from one category of needs to another; lack of fulfillment in one category can affect needs in another category (*ibid.*). The three needs are: existence, which includes material needs as well as those that address physiological desires and security, such as food, shelter and water; relatedness, which relate to the social needs and relationships with others; and growth, or the concern with creativity and productivity within the self. Growth implies that the individual is fully utilising their capabilities and/or developing additional capabilities. While research evidence is more supportive of the ERG Theory than the Needs Hierarchy Theory, evidence is still mixed, for instance, Wanous and Zwan's (1977) study of need theories found good support for the growth category, moderate support for the existence category and only weak support for the relatedness category.

Herzberg's (1968) Two-Factor Theory, another need theory, states that motivation derives from the nature of the job itself and not from external rewards or job conditions. Human needs, he posits, are divided into two categories: first, those deriving from the animal nature of human beings, such as the physiological needs; second, those relating to the higher level, uniquely human ability for psychological growth. The term "hygiene factors" was attributed to the aspects of work relevant to the physiological needs (for example, pay, supervision, relationships with co-workers, working conditions, status, security and the organisation's policies), while "motivator factors" was attributable to the psychological needs (for example, achievement, recognition, responsibility, advancement, growth and the nature of the work itself). In Locke and Henne's (1986) judgement, the Two-Factor Theory is the most flawed of the need theories and it has not been supported by research evidence. According to Spector (1996)

the key weakness of the theory lies in its reliance on employee descriptions of satisfying and dissatisfying events. He argues “in describing such events, people have the tendency to note things they did themselves as satisfying and things done by others as dissatisfying. This makes it look like satisfaction and dissatisfaction are caused by different factors” (p. 197).

Reinforcement theory is concerned with the way rewards or reinforcements can affect behaviour. At the heart of its premise is Thorndike’s (1913) ‘law of effect’, which posits that the probability of a particular behaviour increases if it is followed by a reward or reinforcement, such as incentive systems like performance related pay or bonuses. Conversely, the probability of a behaviour decreases if it is followed by a punishment (Spector, 1996). While Luthans *et al.* (1981) discovered that rewards increased the performance of salespeople, Locke (1980) notes that reinforcement theory is rarely applied, because it provides scant insight into motivational processes. In Spector’s (1996) summation it is therefore a “nonmotivational theory” (p. 198) because reinforcement theory says nothing about whether a person will want a reward (p. 200).

In contrast to reinforcement theory, expectancy theory focuses on the internal cognitive states that lead to motivation. Its basic premise is that people will be motivated when they believe their behaviour will lead to rewards or outcomes that they desire. Vroom (1964) hypothesised that motivation, or force, could be represented by a mathematical formula;

$$\text{Force} = \text{Expectancy} \times \Sigma (\text{Valences} \times \text{Instrumentalities})$$

In the above equation, *force* represents the amount of motivation an individual has to engage in a particular behaviour, or sequence of behaviours, that are relevant to job performance. *Expectancy* is the subjective probability that a person has about his or her ability to perform a behaviour. *Valence* is the value of an outcome or

reward to a person and *instrumentality* is the subjective probability that a given behaviour will result in a particular reward.

Self-efficacy theory states that motivation and performance are determined in part by how effective individuals believe they can be (Bandura, 1982). Thus, individuals with high self-efficacy believe they are capable of accomplishing tasks and motivation will accrue as effort is expended. Conversely, individuals with low self-efficacy do not believe they can accomplish tasks and will be reluctant to expend any effort. Self-efficacy theory presumes that the person has the necessary ability and that any constraints on performance are not insurmountable. As highlighted by Spector (1996), the key difference between self-efficacy theory and expectancy theory is that the latter is concerned with a specific task at a particular point in time; the former is concerned with the general feeling that a person is or is not capable of accomplishing a task. The concepts are related, but there are subtle differences: a high level of self-efficacy is the individual's judgement about how well he or she is at performing a task; a high level of expectancy is the individual's judgement about how likely it will be for that effort to lead to success. By employing a series of increasingly difficult tasks, and thereby raising the self-efficacy of employees, Bandura (1982) showed that motivation *and* performance can be enhanced. Research is generally supportive of self-efficacy theory, as extrapolated in further studies by McIntire and Levine (1991) and Locke and Latham (1990).

The equity theory of Adams (1965) states that individuals are motivated to achieve a condition of equity, or fairness, in their dealings with others. Thus, employees who find themselves in inequitable situations will experience dissatisfaction that they will be motivated to reduce. Inequity, Adams posits, is a psychological condition that arises as employees compare themselves, in the form of ratios of 'outcomes' and 'inputs', with others. Outcomes are the rewards or personal value an employee accrues from working in an organisation, for example,

pay, fringe benefits, good treatment or status. Inputs are the contributions made by the employee to the organisation, in the form of experience and talents that he or she brings to the job. The ratio is expressed as,

$$\frac{\text{Outcomes ('the job')}}{\text{Inputs (contributions)}}$$

Locke and Latham's (1990) goal-setting theory posits that people's behaviour is motivated by their internal intentions, objectives or goals: the goal is what an individual consciously wants to attain or achieve. Goal-setting theory supposes that individuals will exert effort toward accomplishing their goals, and that job performance, is a function of the goals set. Locke and Henne (1986) suggested that goal-setting can be an effective means of maintaining or increasing job performance but that there are several factors necessary for goal-setting to be effective at improving job performance. First, employees must have 'goal commitment', loosely translated as an acceptance to the goal. They posit, only the individual's goal, and not the organisation's goal, will motivate behaviour. Second, feedback is a necessary prerequisite. Individuals must be conscious of knowing whether their behaviour is moving toward or away from their goals. Third, the more difficult the goal, the better the performance is likely to be. Finally, specific 'hard goals' were determined to be more effective than vague 'do your best' goals (*ibid.*).

2.4 Front Line Staff

The investigation concentrated on the impact of QMS on the motivation on front line staff. The investigator concentrated on eliciting the opinions of staff with different perceptions and knowledge of QMS as viewed from their own unique vantage points and frames of reference. In this instance middle managers, professional and paraprofessional members of staff were chosen to take part in the study. In other words, other 'front line' members of staff, like technical, secretarial and administrative workers were not considered. Some LIS were undergoing far-reaching structural changes during the course of this investigation by 'converging' computing and library services (for an overview of convergence in academic LIS see, for example, Sidgreaves, 1995). To ensure greater homogeneity, computing staff were not considered.

2.4.1 Middle Managers

In very general terms, LIS middle managers, often division or department heads, are professionals who supervise other professionals (Bailey, 1981). They are distinguished from 'other professionals' because they are in the direct line of authority and communication between the senior levels of management and first-line supervisory personnel (*ibid.*), or as Hodges (1993) explains "their organisational role is often at a boundary between senior management and subordinates" (p. 7). Within the QMS context they are facilitators of the system (see Ishikawa, 1985; Kehoe, 1995).

2.4.2 Professionals

As early as the 1870s, the debate about librarianship as a profession had begun. By the beginning of the century, there were clear indications that the workforce would eventually be divided into ‘chiefs’ and ‘indians.’

(Baker, 1986: 1)

Definitions of professionalism are varied. Weber (1947) provides an early account when the term was tied with the bureaucratic concepts of the division of labour and functional specialisation, well-defined hierarchies, systems of rules and procedures, impersonality of interpersonal relations and promotion and selection based on technical competence. Using the *Oxford English Dictionary* and *Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences* the Library Association (LA) (1974) deduced ‘professional’ to mean,

Those whose adequate performance involves the ability to exercise independent judgement based on an understanding of the principles of library service, publications and information users and the means by which they are brought into effective relationship. This understanding implies a wide knowledge of specific library techniques and procedures.

In her profile of professionals, Johnson (1996) stipulated that they often possessed a Masters degree in library studies or information science. The American Library Association (ALA) (1977), while concurring with the LA’s interpretation of professionalism above, underlined the fact that such members of staff needed to have a ‘specialised background’ and ‘education’ that enabled them to identify library needs, analyse problems and set goals. This is congruent with Eliot’s (1972) and Wilensky’s (1964) belief that professionals need to meet certain entry requirements by means of specialised education and skill application that extends beyond the immediate work experience, and Abbott’s (1988) prognosis that professionalism is identified with the degree of “abstraction” and codification of

knowledge, since these are the ultimate “currency of competition between professions” (p. 102). Further sociological characteristics of ‘the professional’ have been listed as (Johnson, 1996: 81):

- ◇ individuals belonging to a professional association with criteria for membership;
- ◇ individuals who engage in prolonged training and a certification process to monitor membership in the profession;
- ◇ individuals with legal status;
- ◇ individuals who abide by a code of ethics or standard of behaviour;
- ◇ individuals who enjoy a high degree of autonomy.

This study draws upon the ‘more meaningful’ (Johnson, 1996) insights of the ‘attitudinal’ characteristics of professionalism, which have been identified as (Hall, 1968: 93; see also Abbott, 1988):

- ◇ the use of the professional organisation as a major reference; colleagues are the source of ideas and judgements,
- ◇ a sense of personal commitment - a belief in service to the public; an attitude that the profession is indispensable and is beneficial to the public and the practitioner,
- ◇ a belief in self-regulation: only other members of the professional group are capable of judging the professional,
- ◇ a sense of calling to the field: the professional feels that he or she must do this and internalises the profession, and
- ◇ a desire for autonomy of practice: the professional should be independent of pressure from those outside the profession.

2.4.3 Paraprofessionals

In her study on the management of change in public libraries, Goulding (1993) discovered a range of job titles relating to ‘professionally unqualified staff’. Arriving at an appropriate term was a crucial issue for the investigator if support for the study, from these members of staff, was to be ensured (see Chapter Three, ‘The Research Methodology’)⁴⁷. This is because the difficulty in finding a suitable definition for ‘professionally unqualified staff’ is rooted in the politics of the profession itself (see, for example, Baker, 1987; Davinson, 1982; John Fielden Consultancy, 1993). Notwithstanding the view that the term ‘paraprofessional’ (as used by Goulding, 1993 and Johnson, 1996) is a “sop to the pride of people who do not get paid enough”⁴⁸ (Mowat, 1998: 3), it was preferred to ‘support staff’, ‘library assistant’ (Thapisa, 1989) and the seemingly pejorative ‘non-professional’ (used by Baker, 1986; John Fielden Consultancy, 1993), ‘subprofessional’ (Johnson, 1996: 82; Scottish Library Association, 1980: 19), ‘non-academic-related staff’ (Mowat, 1998: 3) or ‘junior’ (Corbett, 1966). It was believed that the latter terms have “negative implications” (Mowat, 1998: 3) and “connotations with inadequacy” (Core, 1991: 15), which the investigator was keen to repel.

Corbett (1966) noticed that a majority of paraprofessionals were employed to do most of the unskilled jobs in the library. Corbett also suggested that such posts were undertaken by non-graduates. However, as this study will highlight, there are a fair proportion of graduates who have taken paraprofessional posts, including, in one case, a professionally qualified (Masters) graduate. Johnson (1996) has argued that vast changes in LIS in recent years has led to a “blurring of

⁴⁷ To enlist the support from front line staff during the study, the investigator opted to provide an outline of the study to potential participants. It was hoped that they would be more receptive to the study if the term ‘paraprofessional’ was used.

⁴⁸ Mowat decides, in his own words, “to fudge” (p. 3) the issue and does not offer an alternative term.

responsibilities and confusion” over “professionalism” and “nonprofessionalism” (*sic.*) (p. 79), which was also substantiated by the Fielden Report (John Fielden Consultancy, 1993; see also Russell, 1985). While the study will reflect on this ‘blurring’ and perception of the extra roles and responsibilities undertaken by paraprofessional staff, in very broad terms, a paraprofessional is “a trained aid who assists a professional” (Johnson, 1996: 82). A more complete definition is proffered by the ALA (1983: 164),

[Paraprofessionals are] library employees without professional certification or entrance-level educational requirements who are assigned supportive responsibilities at a high level and commonly perform their duties with some supervision by a professional staff member.

The English equivalent defines the ‘library assistant’ (*sic.*) within the context of duties performed,

Library assistants will work under the close and regular supervision of more senior library staff. They will undertake a variety of routine tasks and procedures, including the operation of various systems and equipment used by the library. Much of their work will involve direct contact with the client and they are generally the first people with whom the client comes into contact. Interpersonal and communication skills are therefore essential.

(Library Association, 1984: 307)

For the purposes of this study, the investigator subscribes to Thapisa’s (1989) definition of the paraprofessional as,

One whose work involves carrying out various library routine tasks, procedures and operations some of which include direct contact with library users (p. 28).

2.5 Statement of the Objectives

So 'quality' can also become mysterious. And when a mystique develops around a mysterious concept, the concept opens itself up to a whole range of criticisms. Perhaps this is the future path which 'quality' is destined to tread...

(Hubert, 1995 : ix-x)

Before stating the objectives of this investigation, it is necessary to comment on the nature of the QMS debate and research to date. The thesis takes into consideration Wilkinson and Willmott's (1993, 1995) criticisms of the studies to appear on quality management. They assert that such works have failed to address issues like the *meaning* of quality management, or reflect upon its social significance, or practical implementation⁴⁹. In their opinion, leading advocates of quality management have relished a virtual monopoly over the definition and discussion of the field because management academics have been sceptical about the intellectual credentials of QMS or "contemptuous of [quality management's] triviality" (1995: 2), and have dismissed quality management as "too faddish and superficial to be worthy of sustained examination" (1993: 1), despite Dean and Bowen's (1994) protestations that there is a new terrain of discussion to the academic community with QMS providing a test-bed for many key areas of management theory such as leadership, communication or employee involvement⁵⁰. This state of affairs has allowed such advocates of quality management to ignore previous management literature or reference anything outside the quality management field in disciplines such as organisational behaviour (Drummond and Chell, 1992; Wilkinson and Willmott, 1995),

⁴⁹ See also Hill (1991) who has stated, "while solutions to the technical issues of designing appropriate systems are fully specified there are lacunae in the treatment of social factors" (p. 541).

⁵⁰ In Tuckman's (1995) estimation, academics have underestimated the social significance of QMS in service industries and the public sector, however, a thoughtful analysis on this issue has been proffered by the likes of Gastor (1995) and Morgan and Murgatroyd (1994).

There is a prescriptive thrust that excludes consideration of ideas and evidence that might challenge or qualify [QMS's] assumptions and prescriptions.

(Wilkinson and Willmott, 1993: 12)

Where QMS has failed in organisations, the lack of any systematic analysis of QMS (Steel and Jennings, 1992), has also enabled quality gurus to attribute such limitations to the imperfect implementation of the initiative, often citing lack of resources, time constraints, or the expectation by senior managers of 'quick fixes' (Wilkinson and Willmott, 1993). According to Joss and Kogan (1995) the lack of critical studies on QMS is attributed to the 'guru status' achieved by the prominent writers on TQM. They believe that the hagiography around the very term 'guru' suggests that TQM has been promoted with a missionary zeal (see also Bank, 1992: 47) and they support this by highlighting the emergence of close followers of Deming as "Deming's Disciples." As an example, the evangelical crusade to 'true belief' is captured in Crosby's (1979) *Quality is Free*, where he contends that organisations go through the stages of Uncertainty, Awakening, Enlightenment, Wisdom and Certainty (*ibid.*: 26-30). Joss and Kogan's (1995) view is supported by Wieseltier (1993) who, in his comparison of the dystopias in TQM, with those depicted in Aldous Huxley's *Brave New World*, likened it to a 'corporatist cult' and, similarly, to Dennis (1995)⁵¹ QMS represents an 'idolatry of technique.' Bank (1992) adds,

... the pursuit of the goal of perfection in TQ has a monkish ring to it. The conversion to TQ... is both personal and public... There is also an element of personal witness (p. 47).

⁵¹ Dennis (1995) also indicates, that in a video on Deming by Lloyd Dobyns, he is described as a 'prophet of quality' and is ranked, alongside the apostle of St. Paul, as one of the nine men who have 'changed the history of the planet.'

This state of affairs was roundly condemned by one information professional at the BUOPOLIS conference on quality management,

The debate about quality has taken on an almost evangelical feel as different techniques, systems and standards jockey for position in the hearts and minds of Library managers. Converts to a particular approach preach with missionary zeal about the virtues of their documentation and their route to the ultimate quality salvation.

(Burch, 1996: 55)

Dennis (1995) also observes that as the cult of TQM has become more intensified, converts have vehemently criticised those who argue against the 'quality gospel'. In his observation of LISTSERV TQM-L (TQM in Higher Education mailgroup), he cites the comments of some 'believers' who have turned against a professor of History in an American university, with their 'digitally swift' remarks, after he had questioned the veracity of TQM in higher education,

I cannot honestly believe that anyone who believes in TQM, continuous improvement, Deming or simply education would write the reply to the message offered.

If this is the attitude of Professors of History... Quite frankly, I am beginning to understand why many schools are no longer teaching History...

Is he for real? Is it possible he is just putting us on?

The call for a more critical and rounded perspective of quality management, particularly an examination of the 'human' dimension, is also echoed by the Cardiff University Employment Research Unit who sense that,

... what has been lacking so far is a critical appraisal of what all these 'quality' projects have actually meant for the employees...

(Kirkpatrick and Martinez Lucio, 1995a: xi)

Similarly, in a PhD by Rees (1993), it was asserted that “there is little or no information about how TQM is perceived by employees” (p. 2).

The concerns have cascaded to the LIS field. In his report at the EUSIDIC Spring Meeting in April 1992 on *TQM and the Information Sector*, David Minkoff, of Datastream International, prescribed the need for senior LIS managers to focus on the employee. In Porter’s (1992) résumé of Minkoff’s speech, it was stated that,

The basic precepts of any programme are the need for participation on all employee levels and a willingness to accept and drive change. Problems generally consist of a lack of faith in people, an underestimation of the desire of people to provide quality and a misunderstanding of the amount of commitment, attitude and motivation needed.⁵²

Speaking on the subject of change a former President of the Scottish Library Association argued that LIS were in danger of losing its focus by concentrating on these quality initiatives and “management gimmicks” to the detriment of the librarian. She asserted that “what we need is a human revolution... we must perceive each human being as an entirely unique individual” (Dickie 1994: 12). A similar plea is made by Porter (1992). In her report to the British Library, Porter makes three recommendations. Her third recommendation reiterates the above sentiments of Rees, Wilkinson and Willmott, Kirkpatrick and Martinez Lucio, and the Scottish Library Association President.

The profession needs to investigate the views of front line staff. We already have a good idea of how top management see quality. If it is not seen as something which is forced upon the front line staff, then it is necessary to involve them. It is recommended that the views of middle management and front

⁵² *Report on the EUSIDIC Spring Meeting, 2-3 April 1992 at the Rotterdam Rijnhotel: TQM and the Information Sector* is published as an appendix in Porter (1992). (No page numbers cited in report).

line staff should be surveyed as soon as possible. This would enable the British Library to assess to what extent quality is being incorporated into the LIS culture and would allow recommendations to be made if necessary.

(Porter 1992)

As indicated in Chapter One, this thesis has one key objective;

◇ *to consider the relationship between QMS and motivation.*

In considering this relationship, the investigator will;

- ◇ identify the effects of QMS intervention, and
- ◇ discuss how staff have been motivated to follow QMS.

The former aim is derived from Porter's account of comments made at the 1992 EUSIDIC meeting on TQM,

Several questions arose about staff motivation and about whether staff could be motivated purely through the introduction of TQM. It was felt that TQM creates a good feeling among staff...

Thus, in very crude terms, "who gains what' from [QMS]?" (Wilkinson *et al.*, 1998: 3).

The latter aim reflects Wilkinson *et al.*'s (1998; and Wilkinson, 1992) prognosis that there has been little consideration to the issue of "winning employee commitment" to QMS. Seddon (1990) similarly argues that the QMS literature advances the need for staff and managers to espouse a new attitude but, he observes, "that's usually where the literature stops" (p. 181). At the beginning of this chapter, it was asserted that being 'for' quality is not an issue itself: within the context of this study the questions 'how an individual is to be for quality?' and

'how do employees reshape their interests in the context of quality?' are examined (Munro, 1995).

In essence this study responds to the insights and concerns of those authors who have taken a detached and reflective consideration of quality management. It has also been provoked both by the rapid growth and influence of QMS and by the dearth of non-prescriptive studies in this field. The investigation attempts to provide a critical understanding of the development of QMS as a contemporary managerial and organisational phenomenon. It therefore reaches beyond the 'seductive' nature of QMS (Pfeffer and Coote, 1991), explores the employment of new working practices and examine its relationship and nature to the labour process.

One of the principal tasks of the investigator was to design and implement a research instrument which examined the relationship between QMS and motivation: 'How do we deconstruct the concept of QMS, and show how it is actually used in academic LIS?' In other words a research instrument needed to be formalised which examined QMS in relation to the organisational and environmental context in which it is located. These concerns are debated and progressed in the following chapter ('The Research Methodology').

Chapter Three

The Research Methodology

Human beings act toward things based on the meanings that the things have for them; the meanings of such things is derived from the social interaction that the individual has with his fellows; and meanings are handled in, and modified through an interpretive process, and by the person dealing with the things they encounter.

(Blumer, 1969: 2)

A willingness to consider methodology afresh is a first step towards removing [the] artificial restrictions on [research]...

(Hounsell and Winn, 1981a: 205)

Researchers are confronted by a series of questions. First, on an epistemological level, they seek to discover what knowledge is. This is followed by an evaluative question, 'what kind of knowledge is most reliable or important?' and a genetic question, 'how does this knowledge arise?' Crucially, researchers must address the methodological question and seek to determine how the search for knowledge

is to be conducted (Scheffler, 1965: 5), and what to do with that data (Charmaz, 1995: 27).

In this chapter, the investigator will consider these questions and will provide an outline of the research design, the methods of data collection and process of analysis. The chapter will also consider the appropriateness of these methods and, with particular reference to feminist scholarship and praxis, highlight the pitfalls and problems encountered in their employment. There is a sketch of some of the philosophical and ideological issues in social research, which are beginning to be taken seriously by researchers of library and information studies.

3.1 Overview of the Research Process

While the investigation did not adhere to a strictly linear process, as exemplified by the hypothetico-deductive process, the specific 'aspects' of the investigation were as follows:

- ◇ An *ongoing* review of the literature (see Mellon, 1990) on motivation and QMS in academic LIS,
- ◇ A ground clearing exercise, to determine which academic LIS had achieved ISO 9000 or were pursuing TQM,
- ◇ The development of a research instrument and participation in the inaugural Research Training Programme coordinated by the Graduate School at the University of Sheffield, 1994-95,
- ◇ Choosing the sample, which had been informed by the results of the ground clearing exercise,
- ◇ Negotiating access with chief librarians,
- ◇ Testing of the pilot interview schedule in three academic LIS (one QMS LIS and two non-QMS LIS);

- ◇ Amending the pilot interview schedule,
- ◇ Main fieldwork, carried out in nine academic LIS (five with QMS and four without),
- ◇ Analysis of data, which was an ongoing exercise in keeping with the ‘constant comparative method’ in grounded theory, described by Glaser and Strauss (1967) and Strauss and Corbin (1990) (see below). As Charmaz (1995) observes, “grounded theory methods blur the often rigid boundaries between data collection and data analysis phases of research” (p. 28), and
- ◇ Synthesis of data and writing up.

3.2 Literature Review

The ‘literature review’ is prevalent in many studies. Hakim (1987) states that the review is vital preparatory work and provides a synthesis of existing knowledge, in other words it supplies a “theoretical framework” (Hannabus, 1995: 3) According to Kellehear (1993), the task of the literature review is to create a ‘sense of place’ (p. 13). He asserts,

The literature review for inductive research designs, is not only an evaluation of past literature, it is also the background to the culture studied, with imperfections of the literature noted and discussed (p. 21).

However, in preference to a chapter on ‘the literature review’, this report will adopt a “non linear” approach favoured by Mellon (1990: 23). The rationale for this approach was justified given that the LIS literature on QMS was limited to implementation efforts rather than the specific psychological and organisational issues or aspects of QMS (see, for example, Association of Research Libraries, 1995; Barnard, 1993; Brown and Stanley, 1995; Butcher, 1993; Butterwick, 1993; Khurshid, 1997; Kooijman-Tibbles, 1994; Lester, 1994; Lidman and Törngren;

1994; Martin; 1993b; Norton and Ellis, 1993; Rowley, 1996b; Wedlake, 1993). The thesis is, therefore, organised on a thematic basis, and the investigation's findings are analysed and illuminated against the prescriptive, theoretical and empirical literature on QMS and motivation. It is the intention of the investigator to generate explanatory theory, by highlighting any gaps, should they prove to exist, so that, in accordance with the investigation's aims and objectives, our understanding of QMS as a social phenomenon is advanced (see below Section 3.1.1 'Grounded Theory', Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Strauss and Corbin, 1990).

3.3 The Qualitative Approach

An investigator in social research is often confronted by a choice between employing: quantification, which is concerned with inferential statistics, hypothesis testing, mathematical analysis and experimental and quasi-experimental design and often exemplified in methods like surveys and questionnaires; or qualification, which is associated with ethnography, hermeneutics or phenomenology and often exemplified by participant observation or unstructured interviews¹. While information professionals have suggested that the debate between qualitative and quantitative approaches "has been spluttering in the social sciences" (Allen, 1995: 16) since the notion was first raised by Campbell and Fiske (1959), it is not the intention of the investigator to set the quantitative and qualitative traditions in diametric opposition to one another². Instead, the investigator subscribes to the

¹ The terms 'quantitative' and 'qualitative' have been preferred in this chapter. The investigator recognises that alternative terms have also been employed. For instance, Guba and Lincoln (1982) propose to contrast rationalistic (quantitative) and naturalistic (qualitative) paradigms; Evered and Louis (1981) refer to 'inquiry from the outside' (quantitative) and 'inquiry from the inside' (qualitative)'; Burrell and Morgan (1979) objective (quantitative) and subjective (qualitative); Luthans and Davis (1982), nomothetic (quantitative) and idiographic (qualitative); Morey and Luthans (1984), etic (quantitative) and emic (qualitative); Magoon (1977) equates the constructivist approach to qualification; Smith (1983) and Giddens (1974) substitute quantification with positivism and use interpretive in place of qualification; and Quantz (1992) employs the term post-positivist (or postmodern perspective) to denote qualification.

² The tone of the papers presented to the symposium of information researchers, published in *Social Science Information Studies* 1 (1981), is particularly insightful. While qualitative data

view that the approaches should be used where they are appropriate. This view is reflected in Morgan's (1983) *Beyond Method*, which exclaims,

[the purpose of research] is to analyse research strategies in a way that moves 'beyond method' so that we can consider the logic of engagement that link researcher and researched... rather than on the labels used to denote similarities and differences among them (p. 41).

In his analysis of social researchers' concerns with the quantitative and qualitative approaches, Bryman (1988b) has deduced that there are two main strands to this debate, which he accordingly identified as the 'technical' and 'philosophical'. Referring to the technical version of the debate, Bryman suggests that the choice between quantitative and qualitative methods is primarily a practical matter of deciding which approach is most suited to the research question, or problem at hand. Hence some questions are best addressed by experiments and closed questionnaires, and involve the use of numeric data. Other technical issues refer to the practical considerations a researcher must consider: What are the time constraints? How much funding does a researcher have at their disposal? What type of access does the investigator have to the organisation or individuals? (see Hakim, 1987)³.

The philosophical, or epistemological, aspect of the quality-quantity debate has gained much momentum since the 1960s. The debate involves wider and more fundamental questions regarding the nature and practice of science and the generation and legitimisation of knowledge (Hughes, 1980; Anderson *et al.*, 1986). Interest in epistemological issues culminated in the promotion of self

gathering has been part of the methodological repertoire of library and information research, the papers have implied that it has tended to be viewed as an adjunct to the 'key' task of quantitative data gathering and analysis (see for example Hounsell and Winn, 1981a).

³ In their instruction to PhD students, Phillips and Pugh (1987) also explain the importance of conducting a 'personal assessment' as a means of overcoming some of the main difficulties inherent in, what they view as, a large undertaking.

reflection, encapsulated by the interest in the writings of philosophies of science like Kuhn (1970), which cast doubt on the appropriateness and hegemony of the 'natural science' or 'hypothetico-deductive' model of research and, in particular, Popper's (1959; 1968) 'falsification' thesis. This self reflection and realignment of logical positivism or logical empiricism, during the 1960s, was also engendered by the diffusion of ideas associated with phenomenology (Husserl, 1931), which had been critically re-examined by the constructionist viewpoint of Berger and Luckman (1967) during this period. Congruent with Foucault's (1973) assertion that conditions give rise to discursive practices, the constructionist standpoint acknowledged that outcomes are the result of social interactions, negotiations and power. The process of self reflection has also been noticeable in the LIS literature, especially since Shera's (1965) article on trends in research methodology (see also, Hannabus, 1995; Oldman, 1981; Rajan Pillai, 1985; Stevens, 1971), as a number of methodologies consonant with a shift to a post-positivist, non-experimental paradigm are beginning to be witnessed in a wide range of LIS studies (see, for example, Allen, 1995; Brown, 1990; Weingand, 1993) and presented to meetings and symposia of information professionals (see Hounsell and Winn, 1981a; 1981b; Payne, 1988).

Bryman (1988b) has observed that the quantitative and qualitative approaches are often viewed as distinctive and, possibly, 'incommensurable' research paradigms (Kuhn, 1970). In contrast, on a 'technical' issue, while promoting the merits of 'method triangulation' (p. 135), Jick (1983) acknowledges that there is a case for *rapprochement* and qualitative and quantitative methods should be viewed as complimentary to each other rather than as rival camps (see also, Hoinville and Jowell, 1982; Hughes, 1976; Kaplan, 1964; Silverman, 1985).

A more sophisticated erudition of the philosophical aspects of social research has been put forward by Burrell and Morgan (1979), who posit that, as far as the

social sciences are concerned, there is a ‘subjective’ and ‘objective’ way of observing social reality. They identified four sets of assumptions the: ontological, epistemological, human nature and methodological (see Table 3.1). In a similar vein critical theorists have argued that, in addition to the subject-object divide, positivism has not transcended the antipathy of: body and mind, fact and value and appearance and reality (Adorno, 1950; Horkheimer, 1972; Marcuse, 1972; see also Giddens, 1976; 1979a).

Subjectivist approach to social science		Objectivist approach to social science
Nominalism	Ontology	Realism
Anti-positivism	Epistemology	Positivism
Voluntarism	Human Nature	Determinism
Idiographic	Methodology	Nomothetic

Table 3.1: Burrell and Morgan’s (1979) Subjective-Objective Dimension

The investigator has heeded these philosophical developments and, in accordance with the study’s objectives of examining QMS as a social phenomenon, the investigator has adopted a qualitative approach which privileges the search for meaning and sympathetic understanding, or *Verstehen* (Giddens, 1976: 52-53). Qualitative research has been described as the interpretive study of a specified issue or problem in which the researcher is central to the sense that is made (Banister *et al.*, 1994) or as Berg (1989) has stated,

Qualitative research refers to the meanings, concepts, definitions, characteristics, metaphors, symbols, and description of things (p. 2).

... [and] qualitative researchers are most interested in how human beings arrange themselves and their settings and how inhabitants of these settings make sense of their surroundings through symbols, rituals, social structures, social roles and so forth (p. 6).

Thus the concern for *Verstehen* directs the researcher to be more receptive to people's own understandings as seen from their own local frames of reference, or *Lebenswelt*⁴, and to be more sensitive to multiple interpretations and meanings which may be placed upon thought and behaviour (see, for example, Lincoln and Guha, 1985). A qualitative approach, while still considered to be in the throes of development (Hammersley, 1981), was an appropriate choice, especially when considering McCabe and Wilkinson's (1998) comments on the nature of QMS itself. They propose that systems like TQM represent a significant paradigm shift in the way it has generated "new meanings" and "ways of understanding the world" for employees (*ibid.*: 18), or "new sets of organisational metaphors" (Tuckman, 1995: 58). This, according to Webb (1996) has often resulted in "an uncritical alignment of the self with the corporate project of improved profit" (p. 263). The QMS literature has assumed, given the seductive nature of quality (Pfeffer and Coote, 1991; Wilkinson and Willmott, 1995), that employees will be submissive and obedient to the cause (Kerfoot and Knights, 1995) and that employees will "unproblematically respond to [QMS's] demands" (p. 229),

The quality literature fails to consider the possibility that quality concepts, prescriptions, or invocations may be subject to a broad range of interpretations and, even within the same interpretation, may produce differential forms of engagement and/or resistance.

(Kerfoot and Knights, 1995: 229-230)

In a similar tone, Wilkinson and Willmott (1993) argue that,

Contemporary work organisations... systematically promote forms of individual and collective struggle that are destructive as well as productive of the levels of cooperation and commitment required to accomplish the 'quality revolution' (p. 11)

⁴ Literal translation 'living (or lived) world'.

Researchers of QMS must therefore “ascertain the extent to which, and the ways in which, [these] meanings are being shaped” (McCabe and Wilkinson, 1998: 18-19) because the QMS literature has, for example, difficulty in distinguishing “between employee conformity and compliance, on the one hand, and commitment and consent, on the other” (Kerfoot and Knights, 1995: 229). The problem can be traced back to the implicit unitarism contained in QMS, which assumes that everyone in the workplace shares a set of common interests, values and beliefs (Wilkinson *et al.*, 1998)⁵. Sitkin *et al.* (1994) assert that the employment of an inductive strand of research is reasonable whereby, from the practices of QMS, implicit theories may be extracted and made explicit. This point is corroborated by Steel and Jennings (1992), who argue that, given the multifaceted nature of [systems like TQM], the system does not lend itself to conventional, empiricist or nomothetic research strategies.

In conclusion, the investigator wished to gain an “experience-near” perspective or “thick” information (Geertz, 1983: 57) and attempt to determine: *why* people behave as they do; *why* they react in particular ways to events; and *why* they make particular kinds of decisions (Morton-Williams, 1977: 2), within the *context* of their past and the situations in which they find themselves (Bogdan and Taylor, 1975). The quantitative approach, on the other hand, was deemed to be inappropriate for it is characterised by a distant relationship between the investigator and subject, and inherent is an image of social reality that is static and external to the actor (Bryman, 1988b: 94).

⁵ Consider, for instance, the language employed by Oakland (1989) who has a ‘mechanistic’ view of organisations (Wilkinson and Willmott, 1993), he states that “each process in every department or functional area can be analysed by an examination of the inputs and outputs” (pp. 9-10). Managers accordingly fine tune the inputs in the same vein as they would a car engine.

3.3.1 Grounded Theory

The idealised deductive process of developing a theory, deriving hypothesis, and testing them to support or not support the theory, is respected by almost everyone, but at the same time, almost everyone realises that the ideal seldom describes reality.

(Campbell, 1985: 328)

While ‘grounded theory’ (Glaser and Strauss, 1967), or ‘the discovery model’ (Glaser, 1978), was not used in its purist form, the inductive nature of the theory equipped the investigator with an openness and flexibility of approach. Grounded theory has its roots in the symbolic interaction tradition of social psychology and sociology as championed by the Chicago School. In general terms, symbolic interactionism focuses on the meanings people attribute to events through experience (Blumer, 1969; Mead, 1934). Grounded theory has been described as a logically consistent set of data collection and analytic procedures, which “represents an advance in the technology for handling qualitative data gathered in the natural, everyday world” (Chenitz and Swanson, 1986: 3). The most salient characteristic of the theory is predicated on its emphasis in developing and generating theory, rather than refuting or substantiating hypotheses (Corbin and Strauss, 1990; Glaser, 1978; Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Strauss, 1987; Strauss and Corbin, 1990). The standpoint is justified for as Mellon (1990) exclaims,

To enter a setting with a set of specific hypotheses is to impose preconceptions, and perhaps misconceptions, on the setting (p. 23).

Thus the flexibility of the theory allowed the investigator to shape and alter the data collection and pursue the most interesting and relevant material. Grounded theory enables the researcher to identify patterns in the problem and see how these patterns are related (Artinian, 1986: 16). This was a critical issue for, at the time

the research instrument was being developed, there was a paucity of literature on QMS as social phenomenon. Stern (1980) concludes that the use of grounded theory is therefore an ideal strategy in investigations of relatively uncharted waters and can be utilised to gain a fresh perspective in unfamiliar surroundings. Furthermore, as Charmaz (1995) deduces, grounded theory methods are suitable for “studying individual processes, interpersonal relations and the reciprocal effects between individuals and larger social processes” (pp. 28-29) and, in particular, are “useful for studying typical social psychological topics as motivation...” (*ibid.*; 29) and ‘micro-level’ organisational issues (see, for example, Brown, 1990; Martin and Turner, 1986; Orlikowski, 1993; Pettigrew, 1985). As noted below, the investigator’s approach was informed by feminist scholarship and practice and grounded theory was deemed to be congruent with the ideological issues associated with postmodern feminist epistemology. This is because it recognises multiple explanations of reality (Wuest, 1995) and is sympathetic to contextual influences (Campbell and Bunting, 1991). Finally, from a personal perspective, it has been argued that using grounded theory can be a salutary and edifying exercise, for it stimulates the researcher’s excitement about the conduct of research (Charmaz, 1995). It should be noted that the PhD was viewed, in part, by the investigator, as a study in the exercise of data collection and analysis, rather than on QMS *per se*.

3.4 The Quantitative Approach

3.4.1 Ground Clearing Exercise

Although this study was weighted in favour of a qualitative approach, a ‘ground clearing’ exercise, or quantitative approach, was undertaken at the outset of this investigation. The purpose of this exercise was twofold: to identify LIS which had adopted QMS and, to establish contacts with Chief Librarians of these institutions. A detailed account of the procedure, and results, is outlined in Appendix A.

3.5 Data Collection

3.5.1 Interviews

Interviews are just one of the four methods of collecting data (Stone and Harris, 1984). In contrast to the other methods, which Stone and Harris (1984) have listed as: observation, diary and questionnaire, interviews involve the gathering of data through direct verbal interaction between individuals. While the respective roles of the interviewer and interviewee may vary, and the motives for taking part may differ, Cohen and Manion (1985) conclude that this 'gathering of data', via the seeking of information on the part of one and supplying of information on the part of the other, is the common denominator of the method. As far as this investigation is concerned, the interview is understood to be,

A face to face interchange in which one person, the interviewer, attempts to elicit information of expressions, opinions or beliefs from another person or persons.

(Maccoby and Maccoby, 1954: 149)

In the research methods literature, the interview has often been described as a 'directed conversation' (Lofland and Lofland, 1983), thereby distinguishing it from a 'social conversation', or a 'conversation with a purpose', a phrase which the investigator believes to have been initially coined by Sidney and Beatrice Webb (1932) in *Methods of Social Study* (p. 130), and exemplified in the following statements,

... a purposeful conversation usually between two people (but sometimes involving more) that is directed by one in order to get information.

(Bogdan and Biklen, 1982: 135)

A two-person conversation initiated by the interviewer for the specific purpose of obtaining research-relevant information,

and focused by him [sic.] on content specified by research objectives of systematic description, prediction, or explanation.
(Cannell and Kahn, 1968: 22)

Interviews were considered to be an appropriate method of data collection in this investigation, for it enables the investigator to see the world from the eyes of the person being interviewed, by tapping into multi-layered accounts of respondents' experiences, views, thoughts, attitudes and beliefs (Ely *et al.*, 1991). In addition to providing complex, valid and rich data, Spradley and McCurdy (1972) suggest that the interviewees become teachers who instruct the researcher in the ways of life that they find relevant (pp. 11-12). The interactional nature of the process allows interviewees to use terms which have meaning to them. The process can also provide the opportunity for clarification and explanation for both the investigator and interviewee. This was particularly important given the nebulusness of 'quality' and QMS (see Chapter Two, 'Terms and Context of the Study'). In conclusion, the investigator accepts the strengths of the interview as an interactional encounter as expressed by Kuhn and Manford (1962); the investigator is not passive and does not just record data, instead they probe and examine the meanings of interviewees' statements.

In the investigation, data were collected by utilising a semi-structured interview schedule. This was preferred to the structured format which is fraught with a number of disadvantages. Smith (1995) states that while the alleged advantages of the structured interview format are control, reliability and speed, there are a number of disadvantages arising from the constraints put on the interviewee and the situation. He suggests that the main drawback of the structured interview is that it closes off theoretical avenues and, in the investigator's opinion, is therefore discrepant with the grounded theory approach. The structured interview limits what the interviewee can talk about and thus denies the investigator an opportunity to record those themes that are considered to be more important to

the interviewee. In contrast, the semi-structured interview guides, rather than dictates the investigator. It facilitates rapport and empathy, allows greater flexibility of coverage and enables the interviewer to enter novel areas and, as a result, produces a richer data (Smith, 1995: 12). Finally, the semi-structured interview was preferred to the unstructured interview, where researchers assume a subordinate role, because it imbued the investigator with control which was important as far as time was concerned (see below and Cohen and Manion, 1985). In relation to grounded theory, the investigator is able to adapt the interview schedule, to add areas, to explore and to delete questions that have not been fruitful in developing emerging theoretical categories (Charmaz, 1990; Glaser, 1978; Strauss, 1987).

While the advantages of interviewing are extensive there are many drawbacks. First, the interviewing process can be time consuming, and in this investigation chief librarians were reluctant to allocate time, as typified by the following comments,

```
>Date sent: Fri., 22 Mar 1996 13:50:00
>From:      X@Post-1992-University
>Subject:   Re: PhD Study
>Message:
```

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...You're looking for eight (plus) hours of staff
time. I'd need to consult colleagues about
whether they feel that we can afford to invest
that amount of time. I'm sorry I can't be more
positive but the pressure on staffing are
considerable.
```

```
>Date sent: Fri., 29 Mar 1996 13:42:00
>From:      X@Miscellaneous-University
>Subject:   Re: PhD Study
>Message:
```

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... What you propose is equivalent of one person
for a full day...
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Interview transcripts, particularly in their non-directive or unstructured format, can be time consuming to analyse, because they cannot be aggregated, and are more difficult to control (see Morton-Williams, 1977). Apart from these technical issues, there are wider philosophical and ideological concerns. While interviews permit the face-to-face interaction between investigator and the interviewee, this can be a hindrance rather than an advantage. The key issue that needs to be considered is one of bias and subjectivity (Borg, 1963). According to Frey and Oishi (1995), “the interviewer’s body language, eye contact and other non-verbal cues may influence respondents’ answers” (p. 35), or in the words of Bundy and Wasserman (1970),

The study of human beings engenders unique problems seldom precisely specified or understood. In the process of studying people, the researcher may often himself influence change in their behaviour so that they are no longer representative (p. 1).

Thus, while interviews are themselves ‘conversations with a purpose’, researchers need to consider ‘whose purpose’ the conversation is pursuing (Banister *et al.*, 1994). According to Cotterill (1992), in feminist epistemology the morality-politics of research practice and, particularly, the power dynamics of the research situation between investigator and interviewee, is acknowledged as an ever present dynamic. These concerns are given greater insight from the feminist empiricist perspective, which seeks to discover a more objective truth by eliminating such biases as gender, race and class from the research process, and feminist standpoint, which acknowledges that knowledge is shaped by the social context of the ‘knower’ (Harding, 1991).

In conclusion, administering the interview represents many challenges to the investigator. In accordance with feminist praxis, much consideration must be given to the issue of reflexivity, or the critical examination by the researcher of his, or her, impact upon the social situation under investigation (Fonow and Cook,

1991: 2; see also Acker *et al.*, 1991). While there are many potential pitfalls, the advantages are numerous. In summary they can be listed as: the ability to determine the real meaning of responses; the ability to correct and have contradictions explained; the ability to correct misinterpretations; the ability to probe in-depth; the ability to observe participants' reactions to questions; and the ability to allow for the identification of individual differences in question interpretation as well as in the specific meaning of answers (Douglas, 1985; see also, Busha and Harter, 1980: 78). While observation has been suggested as the appropriate method of data collection when conducting qualitative research in organisations (see for example, Douglas, 1976; Wilson and Streatfield, 1981), interviews are regarded as a legitimate alternative for studying beliefs and attitudes when observation is not practicable (Mellon, 1990). As a footnote, without the luxury of being able to apply any meaningful observation meant that the study suffered by not being able to trace and record properly the complex political strategies and conflicts which accompany the management of change. This was particularly apparent when subjects like workplace relationships were discussed. Danford (1999) has proffered that such conflict and struggle remain immanent in all organisations and are an expression of the capitalist employment relationship.

3.6 The Research Instrument

This section lists the research issues which underpinned the development of the research instrument. There are a wide variety of instruments that measure motivation, from sociological and psychological perspectives, and they include: The Worker Opinion Survey (Cross, 1973); The Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) (Hackman and Oldham, 1980); The Measurement of Job Characteristics (Sims *et al.*, 1976); The Manual for the Minnesota Importance Questionnaire (Gray, 1972); The Manual for the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Weiss *et al.*, 1967); The Job Involvement of Concepts and Measurement (Saleh and Hosek, 1976);

The Scales for the Measurement of Some Work Attitudes and Aspects of Well-being (Warr, 1979); and the Job Description Index (Sims *et al.*, 1974). Such instruments have been informative to researchers in library and information studies when they have attempted to elicit the measurement of employees' opinions and attitudes towards their jobs. For instance, Thapisa's (1989) Job Content Analysis Index (CAIn) was described as "a constellation and distillation of some of the [above] major research instruments in industrial psychology and the sociology of work" (p. 83). While the aforementioned instruments could be utilised in this study, it was believed that a separate research instrument needed to be developed for the purposes of this investigation. This was because the use of any of the established research instruments would deviate from the objective of this study and restrict the focus to a '*measure* of motivation' rather than the '*relationship* between QMS and motivation'. To illustrate this point one needs to examine Warden and Nicholson's (1995) study of motivation and quality management. They administered Hackman and Oldham's JDS⁶ to sixty-nine employees from IT organisations. Their survey was able to shed light on the motivational state of individuals and concluded that two-thirds of the IT quality practitioners surveyed "have motivational problems" (p. 174). However the authors conceded that the JDS was unable "to provide a causal link between QMS and [demotivation]" (p. 174). It is evident that a research instrument that was sensitive to the *context* of work needed to be implemented.

⁶ The JDS model summarises and consolidates the main motivational traits into a single measure. These traits have been identified as: Skill Variety (the extent to which the job requires a range of skills); Task Identity (the extent to which the job produces a whole, identifiable outcome); Task Significance (the extent to which the job has an impact on other people, either inside or outside the organisation); Autonomy (the extent to which the job allows the job holder to exercise choice and discretion in their own work); and Feedback (the extent to which the job itself provides information on how well the job holder is performing). These 'core job characteristics' produce 'critical psychological states': Skill Variety, Task Identity and Task Significance are believed to influence 'experiences meaningfulness at work'; Autonomy affects 'experiences responsibility for outcomes of the work'; and Feedback impacts on 'knowledge of the actual results of the work activities'. The JDS consolidates the individual measures into a single score, the Motivating Potential Score (MPS). An individual has Growth Needs Strength (GNS) which is a measure of that person's preferences. When the MPS of the job matches the GNS of an individual, that person is highly motivated; the larger the mismatch, the greater the level of demotivation (Hackman and Oldham, 1980).

In developing the analytic framework, the research instrument attempted to distinguish between the levels of attitudes, knowledge and experiences towards these initiatives. In order to attain an understanding of the 'rhetoric of QMS', the experiences and attitudes of staff in non-QMS LIS was also gauged (see Section 3.6.3, 'Sampling').

The interview schedule was developed so that it focused on three key areas;

- ◇ Perceptions of QMS;
- ◇ Knowledge of QMS; and
- ◇ Experiences of QMS.

The opening section of the interview schedule dealt with perceptions because, as Hackman and Wageman (1995) report, "[QMS] has come to mean different things to different people" (p. 310), while Dean and Bowen (1994) state,

[QMS] has come to function as a sort of Rorschach test, to which peoples' reactions vary as a function of their own beliefs and experiences (p. 394).

These were largely informational questions to establish chronology, types of events, degree of awareness and knowledge and cast of participants. For instance, the question 'what does TQM/ISO 9000 mean to you?' was intended to be provocative and to gauge the 'gut' reaction to QMS. It was hoped that the answers would present themes for the investigator to explore, in detail, the *interviewee's* area, or areas, of interest and/or anguish. It was also intended to provide initial information on the level of interest in QMS, or quality processes. The opening series of questions was also intended to gauge knowledge and provide the investigator with a preliminary insight into the levels of education and

training or communication in the LIS (see below 'experiences'). Fundamentally, this part of the interview schedule aimed to establish whether any disengagement in QMS had any bearing on an individual's affiliation to the system. The significance, or otherwise, of the impact QMS had made to services in the QMS LIS was balanced against the question 'How is quality maintained in your LIS?' to respondents in the non-QMS LIS.

A large proportion of the interview schedule was devoted to 'experiences'. The main themes were derived from Kehoe's (1995) and Oakland's (1995) suggested elements of 'quality motivation'. This included experiences of the social networks and peer relationships, accomplishments, involvement and compliance. In an attempt to make a more rigorous assessment of QMS, respondents were asked to provide a 'retrospective introspection' (Merton, 1946:541) and compare and assess their experiences in a pre-[non]-QMS environment to their experiences in a formal quality culture.

- ◇ In the LIS literature on QMS, the 'quality of implementation' appears to be a key issue in ensuring commitment to the system. This is reflected in a number of case study evidence, for instance Butcher (1993) refers to the debilitating effect on staff of the missionary zeal in which QMS was introduced to staff at the University of Oregon. Interviewees were asked to confirm how QMS was introduced to them.
- ◇ Roles and Responsibilities. This refers to quality-related roles and responsibilities only. In the LIS literature there is evidence that front line staff have assumed extra roles and responsibilities, for instance Butcher (1993) records that a TQM Steering Group at the Harvard College Library was made up of paraprofessionals and professional members of staff.

- ◇ Participation and Involvement. The focus on participation is regarded as the “radical” (Kirkpatrick and Martinez Lucio, 1995a: 4) aspect of QMS. It was hoped that this theme would provide the investigator with an insight into the nature of the QMS strategy and determine whether it conformed to ‘soft’ or ‘hard’ variants of the approach.
- ◇ Communication. This relates to the way messages are relayed and received. In relation to motivation, understanding and attitudes in the workplace are developed by effective communication and, it follows that, poor communication can “serve as a strong demotivator” (Rooks, 1988: 74).
- ◇ Training and Development. This refers to the environment that allows individuals acquire the skills to perform certain tasks (training) and to learn and grow (development). It also relates to the propensity of the individual to move up the organisational scalar chain.
- ◇ Feedback and Appraisal. This relates to the information an individual receives on his work, and is integral in instruments like the JDS (Hackman and Oldham, 1980). The subject is controversial as far as QMS is concerned (Walton, 1986: 221) because certain sections of the quality movement have admonished innovations like the performance appraisal, believing that they serve to ‘breed fear’ in the workplace (Deming, 1982a).
- ◇ Autonomy. This relates to the degree of freedom and independence, from supervision or rules and procedures, an individual has in the workplace. There were concerns in the LIS literature that rule-bound systems like ISO 9000 could demotivate staff if senior managers adopted an approach that focused on “bureaucratisation” (Johannsen, 1994).

- ◇ Rewards. This relates to any financial incentives individuals receive *in addition* to their salary, plus any other ‘psychic rewards’, such as individual awards or awards that recognise team/institutional effort (e.g. the awarding of a plaque for ISO 9000 accreditation). In some sections of the quality movement, rewards do not create the desired attitudinal changes and are considered to be incompatible in a quality culture (Deming, 1982a).
- ◇ The final section of the research instrument attempted to place the above cultural issues in some kind of context. The final section was also stimulated with Handy’s (1993) assertion in mind, that “it would be inappropriate to write [about] motivation without some discussion of the role of money” (p. 51).
- ◇ In addition to the above categories, interviewees were invited to talk about other issues, related to motivation and/or QMS that had not been addressed by the interview schedule. The probe “do you have anything to add?” is suggested by Kumar (1992: 182), for it enables respondents to continue to talk within their own frames of reference and of subjects *important to them*. It also improves the validity and reliability of the research instrument by picking up on relevant subjects neglected by the investigator.
- ◇ To illuminate and seek patterns or relationships in the findings, the investigator analysed the data by using the following variables: gender, age, tenure and qualifications. As far as the questions relating to qualifications was concerned, the investigator wished to establish whether any of the participants had a ‘management qualification’. This was based on a ‘hunch’ rather than any empirical evidence, that interviewees with a separate management qualification may derive greater insights, knowledge and, perhaps meaningfulness in QMS if they possessed such a qualification.

3.7 Procedure

3.7.1 The Pilot Study

A pilot study was undertaken in April and July 1995 to examine the usefulness and reliability of the interview schedule. From the data gleaned from the ground clearing exercise (see Appendix A, and Section 3.6.3 'Sampling'), a total of three LIS were chosen to participate in the study. A total of twenty nine interviews were carried out, comprising six middle managers, eleven professionals and twelve paraprofessionals. One of the LIS had TQM, the remaining two, one LIS in a post-1992 university, had less formal quality processes in place. The objectives of the pilot study were: to test the intelligibility of the interview schedule; to test the suitability of the interview schedule in the main study; to resolve any ambiguity and bias emanating from questions; to gain a preliminary insight into the nature of QMS in academic LIS; and finally, to build the confidence of the investigator, who had no prior knowledge or experience of administering interviews. A useful framework has been provided by Bell (1987: 65), who has suggested that the pilot study should;

- ◇ discover how long it has taken the respondent to complete the interview schedule;
- ◇ establish whether the instructions were clear;
- ◇ verify if there were any ambiguous questions;
- ◇ ascertain whether the respondents had any objections to answering any of the questions;
- ◇ determine whether any major topics have been omitted;
- ◇ discover whether the layout was clear; and
- ◇ seek further comments from the respondents.

As recommended by Martyn and Lancaster (1981), comments of the pilot sample have been excluded from the final analysis.

3.7.1.1 Pilot Findings

Interviewees were invited to provide feedback during the course of the interview, and any comments were carefully recorded by the investigator. An assessment sheet, based on one utilised by the Department of Information Studies, at Sheffield, on the Masters programmes was also given to the interviewees. In addition to the questions and subjects under discussion, interviewees were also given the opportunity to comment on the style of delivery and their experiences of the interview process. These issues are discussed below (Section 3.6.4 'Administering the Interview'). However the investigator was heartened by the comments of another interviewee who confirmed that the 'aims and objectives' information sheet allowed self reflection before interviews took place,

it enabled me to think carefully about my experiences here, so often studies are 'sprung on' you, and you never seem to do yourself any justice when answering the questions.

There were no objections to the questions and feedback from the participants revealed that the instructions given prior to the interview were clear. While pilot studies are a necessary phase of the research process, a major problem was outlined by the comments of one professional,

I think the [interview schedule] covered a lot of ground. You asked us to indicate 'whether any major topic had been omitted' - to be really honest, there may have been, because we're not in a position to know which topics are most important to your research area.

While no major topic was deemed to be missing, concern was raised with regard to the layout and a major revision was undertaken to make the interview schedule more appealing. For instance, the sequence of the questions was altered, for the

investigator had initially intended to discuss the issue of 'promotional opportunities' just prior to the other questions on extrinsic motivators ('pay' and 'rewards'). In nearly every interview, the topic cropped up during the discussion on 'training, development and education'.

As far as timing was concerned, the interviews varied in length. It was discovered that the interviews with middle managers were longer than the interviews with their professional and paraprofessional counterparts. Owing to the marginally fewer questions, the interviews in the non-QMS LIS were, on average, ten to fifteen minutes shorter than the interviews undertaken in the QMS LIS; the interviews, on average, varied from forty-five minutes to sixty minutes, although two interviews were timed in excess of one hour fifteen minutes.

3.7.2 Negotiating Access

Given the ubiquity of electronic communication, e-mails were sent to chief librarians enlisting their support and requesting permission to interview (Appendix B, 'E-Mails to Chief Librarians'). Problems of access tend to occupy many researchers of organisations (Brown *et al*, 1976; Bryman, 1988a) and this study was no exception. In common with an investigation undertaken by Thapisa (1989), whose research was also based in academic LIS, it was noted that some chief librarians were unwilling to grant access because of pressures on time or the actual value of the research. Similar reasons were given to the investigator. In the e-mails received from the chief librarians it is also interesting to note that some felt that the study would be an additional burden on their staff and therefore indicating that they seemed to perceive that front line staff were already stressed or demoralised;

>Date sent: Mon., 25 Mar 1996 18:11:06
>From: X@Red-Brick-University
>Subject: Re: PhD Study
>Message:

Sorry, unable to oblige. I am unwilling to put yet another external burden on my staff at the moment, when they are under such severe pressure to get through their ordinary work.

>Date sent: Fri., 22 Mar 1996 10:08:39
>From: X@20th-Century-London-Based-University
>Subject: Re: PhD Study
>Message:

I am sorry not to have come back to you for several days. This is symptomatic of the pace of life at [The University] at present. And that is why I am afraid I have to say that we cannot help you at the moment. It sounds feeble to say that people just do not have the time, but many are exhausted at the end of a most demanding term. And in that condition we now have to face first-time appraisal of a very large number of staff, among other things (including, I hope, some of them taking leave).

We have maintained a strong link with the Department at Sheffield over many years, and I would not be saying "No" without good reason.

The problem of access was exacerbated by major building work being carried out in a number of university libraries, possibly as a result of Follett-related funding. Again, the Chief Librarian pointed to possible strains caused by such structural work.

>Date sent: Tue, 19 Mar 1996 11:28:00
>From: X@Green-field-University
>Subject: Re: PhD Study
>Message:

...I would normally have no objection... but we are in the middle of extremely disruptive building work and a number of internal moves, all associated with the construction of our library extension. The building is very noisy, and staff are working under exceptional strain, with enormous amounts of additional work being thrust upon them...

The research coincided with many LIS undergoing 'convergence' (see, for example, Raven, 1995 and Sidgreaves 1995) and some chief librarians were reluctant to put their staff through another series of interviews;

>Date sent: Mon., 25 Mar 1996 18:11:06
>From: X@Post-1992-University
>Subject: Re: PhD Study

>Message:
Unfortunately the timing of your request is very difficult for us here - we are already involving staff in interviews as part of a job evaluation exercise; staff are experiencing a time of major change and uncertainty as we converge into a new staffing structure with the Computer Centre; we are also in the process of finalising the detailed plans for our new Learning Resources Centre...

The primary reason given to the investigator was time;

>Date sent: Fri., 22 Mar 1996 13:50:00
>From: X@Post-1992-University
>Subject: Re: PhD Study
>Message:

...You're looking for eight (plus) hours of staff time. I'd need to consult colleagues about whether they feel that we can afford to invest that amount of time. I'm sorry I can't be more positive but the pressure on staffing are considerable.

>Date sent: Fri., 29 Mar 1996 13:42:00
>From: X@Miscellaneous-University
>Subject: Re: PhD Study
>Message:

... What you propose is equivalent of one person for a full day...

'Research fatigue' was another issue. The PhD seemed to be 'competing' with other projects, which also involved the use of in-depth interviewing, like the IMPEL/2 project (see Day *et al* 1996);

>Date sent: Tue, 23 Apr. 1996 08:27:24
>From: X@Upgraded-College-of-Advanced-Technology
>Subject: Re: PhD Study
>Message:

I have circulated all staff with details of your project and encouraged them to volunteer to be interviewed, and followed this up with a reminder. ...I'm sorry that there hasn't been a larger response, but staff are fairly heavily interviewed nowadays for one reason or another.

Furthermore, I am already arranging time for people from the IMPEL project.

Others were sceptical about the value of the study;

>Date sent: Tue, 09 Apr. 1996 12:51:15
>From: X@Red-Brick-University
>Subject: Re: PhD Study
>Message:

Our library does not operate a formal 'Quality Management System', it may not offer you the information you seek for you study...

>Date sent: Fri., 15 Mar 1996 15:24:43
>From: X@20th-Century-London-Based-University
>Subject: Re: PhD Study
>Message:

We undertook a similar exercise a couple of years ago and didn't find it a particularly fruitful exercise.

The above reasons highlight the considerable problems of undertaking research in academic LIS. However, the greatest problem encountered by the investigator during the course of this study, was the apparent decline of QMS. The trend has been graphically illustrated in Chapter One ('Introduction') and is a theme that will be discussed in Chapter Four ('The Meaning of Quality Management') and the conclusion.

3.7.3 Sampling

The notion of representitiveness guides all traditional sampling procedures. In grounded theory, the emphasis is on 'theoretical sampling', rather than on the representitiveness of the population (Charmaz, 1995). This involves the selection of new cases to study according to their potential for enabling to expand on, or refine, the phenomena where it is found to exist (Strauss and Corbin, 1990: 176). A sample was therefore chosen from the results of the ground clearing exercise (see Section 3.4.1).

Despite the growing awareness, and importance, of QMS, the investigator was hampered by the fact that there had not been an exponential take-up of such systems in academic LIS. The investigator was limited to choosing from a very small sample of LIS. Being so dependent on such a small sample of QMS institutions prolonged the data collection, for the reasons outlined in Section 3.6.2 ('Negotiating Access'). The interviews commenced in December 1995 and were completed in July 1997⁷. A profile of the participating QMS LIS (Libraries A to E), is listed below (contextual issues, which had some influence on the data imparted, have been included),

- ◇ **Library A** was one of only two academic LIS that had implemented ISO 9000. The initiative was piloted in the LIS first, in 1992, with the intention that it would be applied to other departments of the university, a post-1992 university. The Chief Librarian pointed out that ISO 9000 had been achieved, but "using the principles of TQM." It was also indicated that Investors in People (IIP) was being considered by the university.
- ◇ **Library B** had implemented TQM in 1991 in the library only, with no apparent intention of being introduced to the remainder of the university. It was part of a post-1992 university.
- ◇ **Library C** had implemented TQM and IIP, as part of a university-wide initiative, since 1992. It too was part of a post-1992 university. The investigation was carried out in the immediate aftermath of widely reported industrial action undertaken by members of the Association of University Teachers (AUT).
- ◇ **Library D**, part of a 1960s university, had steadily progressed towards TQM. The initiative was piloted in the library first which had a history of using quality circles since 1988. The investigation was carried out shortly after the

⁷ Funding for this project expired in September 1997.

Higher Education Quality Council (HEQC) had been critical of the TQM initiative in the university.

- ◇ In the case of **Library E**, a pre-1992 university, TQM had been introduced to *one campus* of a university. The initiative had been operative since 1992.

The option to sample in non-QMS LIS was partly prompted by the small sample of QMS LIS but also because of the *post hoc* rationalisation among some chief librarians that the principles of systems like TQM was already being pursued in their institution,

I'd like to think that we already have 'Total Quality Management', and certainly follow its principles, even though we don't refer to it by name as other libraries have tended to do...

[QMS] doesn't offer us anything. I have just realised, like Molière's M. Jourdain, that I have been implementing [QMS] all my life!

Libraries F to I were non-QMS LIS;

- ◇ **Library F** was located in an 'old, established' university, which had "centuries of experience in providing a quality service" ('Acting' Chief Librarian);
- ◇ **Library G** was in a pre-1992 university, which had taken quality issues seriously, particularly since the introduction of university quality assessment (Chief Librarian)⁸; and

⁸ His full remarks were,

We do not have the systems [QMS] you mention, or at least they are not formally introduced here. We do participate in the university's formal processes for the HEFCE Quality Division and HEQC Quality Audit Division. As a result, informally several of the concepts behind quality management have influenced our practices. (Personal correspondence to investigator from Chief Librarian)

- ◇ **Library H** was in a post-1992 university, where “quality mechanisms were in the process of being re-examined” (Chief Librarian). The Chief Librarian also claimed to be “monitoring the development of TQM in libraries with interest”

Also included in the non-QMS sample, was a medical LIS, **Library I**. This was chosen as a result of comments also received during the ground clearing exercise,

I do not want to complete your questionnaire. I refuse to do this out of principle, for I have seen at first hand what ‘quality’ has done to the NHS. It has undermined and demoralised the workforce, all in the name of ‘efficiency’. Many apologies!

This kind of ‘purposive’ sampling (Gorman and Clayton, 1997: 127) was derived from the supposition that ‘quality’ could be viewed as an alienating entity in some academic LIS, especially in those located in teaching hospitals that had an ‘allegiance’ with the NHS, where the introduction of ‘quality’ mechanisms, like the ‘internal market’, had been fraught with difficulty (Kitchener and Whipp, 1995; for other studies of which highlight difficulties of quality initiatives in health care, see Morgan and Potter, 1995; Thompson, 1995).

In conclusion, the non-QMS LIS acted as a ‘control study’, unaffected by a formal QMS intervention. By using these institutions, the investigator was well placed to determine the differences of, and influences upon, motivation in a ‘formal quality culture’ and ‘non-formal quality culture’. In keeping with the objectives of the study, the investigator was also well placed to determine the ‘rhetoric’ from ‘reality’: how real is QMS? Are there any discernible differences between the two types of LIS? To ensure greater homogeneity, the investigator attempted to carry out the study in the main library only. This was possible in all the aforementioned LIS, except Library B, where the investigator visited a ‘site’ library⁹.

⁹In Library E, the interviews were carried out at the ‘main library’ located in one of the regional campuses of a university.

The sampling was carried out until ‘theoretical saturation’ had been reached (Glaser, 1978: 124-126; Glaser and Strauss, 1967: 61-62, 111-112; Strauss and Corbin, 1990: 188). This is the point when no new, or relevant data, seemed to emerge. According to Strauss and Corbin (1990), unless a researcher strives for this saturation “theory will be conceptually inadequate” (p. 188).

3.7.3.1 Participants

According to Swanson (1986), in grounded theory, twenty to fifty interviews are necessary to elicit major, repetitive themes of the topic under study (p. 70), this target had been successfully reached. The biographical profile of the participants is as follows,

	Middle Managers	Professionals	Paraprofessionals	Total
QMS	9	20	21	50
non-QMS	8	17	18	41
Total	17	37	39	91

Table 3.2: Composition of sample by status (no.)

	Middle Managers	Professionals	Paraprofessionals	Total
QMS	9.9	22.0	23.1	55.0
non-QMS	8.8	18.7	19.8	45.0
Total	18.7	40.7	42.9	100.0

Table 3.3: Composition of sample by status (percentage)

	Male	Female	Total
Number	23	68	91
Percentage	25.3	74.7	100.0

Table 3.4: Composition of sample by gender

Age	< 20	20-25	26-30	31-35	36-40	41-45	46-50	51-55	56-60	60+
no.	0	9	7	21	7	16	12	15	4	0
%	0.0	9.9	7.7	23.1	7.7	17.6	13.2	16.5	4.4	0.0

Table 3.5: Composition of sample by age

Tenure	< 1 yr	1-5 yrs	6-10yrs	11-15yrs	16-20yrs	21-25yrs	26-30yrs	30+ yrs
no.	12	30	17	8	11	7	4	0
%	13.2	33.0	18.7	8.8	12.1	7.7	4.4	0.0

Table 3.6: Composition of sample by tenure

3.7.4 Administering the Interview

The investigator had no previous experience of administering an interview. This presented many personal challenges. The following sections reflect the investigator's attempts to build rapport, stimulate reciprocity and collaboration with the interviewees and thus create the conditions for objectively valid data.

3.7.4.1 Code of Conduct

The study conformed to a code of conduct. It was hoped that this would, not only help to provoke stronger interest from potential participants, but also elicit a frank and open discussion by allaying any fears or doubts (see Dingwall, 1980; Harris, 1992). As Banister *et al.* (1994) note, research can be "disturbing" to some individuals, and may even "trigger some level of disruption" (p. 155); the investigator acknowledged that the subject of 'motivation', could be viewed as a sensitive issue by some participants, especially if examples of conflict were being recounted. By adhering to such guidelines the validity of the data can be enhanced, as discussed by Taylor (1994),

Research designs and procedures which fail to meet ethical standards and to treat subjects with respect are likely to result in misleading, inconclusive and biased results (p. 523).

and Banister *et al.* (1994),

Good research is only possible if there is mutual respect and confidence between researcher and participants (p. 153).

A code of conduct issued by the British Psychological Society (BPS) (1998), of which the investigator was an affiliate member¹⁰, extols researchers to protect their participants from harm and preserve their psychological well-being, health, values and dignity at all times. The BPS recommends researchers to address the following areas;

- ◇ investigations should normally be carried out only with the valid consent of participants. Banister *et al.* (1994) suggest that only when prospective participants have been fully informed in advance of the investigation's aims and objectives, are they in a position to give informed consent (see below);
- ◇ the participants should understand the nature of the investigation and its anticipated consequences. A profile of the investigation was disseminated to prospective interviewees and is reproduced in Appendix C. All elements of the investigation were fully disclosed. This included information on: who the funders were, the nature of the involvement of the investigator and interviewee, the anticipated number of participants, the time taken to complete the interview and the role of the tape recorder. Banister *et al.* (1994) also cite the importance of being available to prospective interviewees, to provide them with the opportunity to query and comment on any aspect of the investigation. To this end, the investigator's details (personal e-mail and department's

¹⁰ While the Library Association has a code of conduct, which emphasises non-discrimination of gender, race or disability, it does not address the issue of conducting research.

telephone and fax numbers) were also disseminated, together with the investigator's supervisor's name;

- ◇ reasonable steps must be taken to ensure the confidentiality and anonymity of organisations; and
- ◇ reasonable steps to be taken to ensure the confidentiality and anonymity of individuals. This action reflects the growing importance and concern for privacy (Wacks, 1980). However, as Bryman (1988a: 5) has noted, researchers of organisations may be met with scepticism and suspicion, especially as they need to negotiate access via senior managers. Interviewees were informed that their comments would not be disclosed to anyone, especially senior management. They were also informed that if their comments were cited in the thesis it would be written in a manner that would not permit identification of themselves. The general terms, 'middle manager', 'professional' and 'paraprofessionals' have been cited in this study.

Congruent with the issue of the power dynamic in feminist epistemology, as outlined above, proponents of guidelines believe that, although they may have little bearing on the actual research practice, their main usefulness lies in acting as "sensitising devices" (Wise, 1987: 56) and can even equalise the power relationship (Banister *et al.*, 1994), although it is acknowledged that,

... the power imbalance between the researcher and researched remains, despite the use of democratising practices and the efforts of the researcher to disown and shrug off the role of the expert. It is the researcher who sets the process in motion, who decides on the initial research issue, which framework to use, which prospective participants to contact and what happens to the final product. In the final analysis it is the researcher's version of reality that is given public visibility. It is not possible to achieve complete mutability and equality.¹¹

(Banister *et al.*, 1994: 155)

When the interviews were carried out, participants were asked if they had seen and read the aims and objectives of the investigation. They were also given the opportunity to ask any 'last minute' questions and whether they still wished to take part or had any reservations. To make the interviewees feel comfortable and, in accordance with BPS recommendations, they were given the right to withdraw at any time, or have the tape recorder switched off (see also Banister *et al.*, 1994: 154). Every effort was made by the investigator to make the participants feel comfortable during the interview. In conclusion, the code of conduct was fundamental to achieving a rapport with the interviewee. During the pilot phase of the investigation, interviewees were asked to comment on the guidelines. Favourable comments were received and there was a feeling that they had been adequately informed. During the pilot phase of the investigation, in addition to the dissemination of the guidelines, the investigator gave a short synopsis of the investigation's aims and objectives to the staff meetings of the various LIS. This was not persevered with during the main study, because of time constraints.

¹¹ Cotterill's (1992) comments are also worth considering: "the final shift of power between the researcher and the respondent is balanced in favour of the researcher, for it is [he] who eventually walks away" (p. 604).

3.7.4.2 Framing of Questions

Research interviews require a very systematic approach to data collection. The proper framing, pacing and managing of interview questions will allow the researcher to maximise the chances of maintaining objectivity and achieving valid and reliable results (Breakwell, 1995; Lofland and Lofland, 1983). The interview schedule was therefore constructed by adhering to the following insights (Breakwell, 1995: 230; Busha and Harter, 1980: 78-79; Smith, 1995: 13),

- ◇ The questions were neutral, rather than value-laden or leading,
- ◇ The interview schedule avoided jargon, esoteric terminology or ambiguity. Smith (1995) advises the researcher to construct a schedule which is thoughtful of the interviewees' mode of language and adds that questions must be framed in a way they feel familiar and comfortable with (p. 13),
- ◇ With the exception on the questions relating to the biographical information, the interview schedule did not use closed questions. Smith (1995) suggests that these negate the interviewee from opening up about his or her thoughts and feelings.

Given the investigator's theoretical interests, reflective questions were asked like, 'how did *x* affect you?', 'how did you see yourself then?', 'tell me how you feel about *x*?', 'how did you feel when *x* happened?' or 'what does *x* mean to you?'

3.7.4.3 Initial Rapport

The experiences of Hodges (1993) were particularly insightful to the investigator. In her study on stress and the middle manager in public libraries, she observed that

rapport in interviews was established in the first forty seconds. Swanson (1986) suggests a form of 'social talk' at the beginning, such as 'did you have trouble getting here?' (p.73). A review of the tape recordings indicates that the investigator regularly used the cue, 'have you had a busy/interesting morning (afternoon)?' to 'break the ice' at the outset of the interview. The conversational tone of the interviews was maintained as the investigator opted to place the questions relating to biographical information at the beginning of the interview schedule. Rather than read through the closed questions on age, tenure and qualifications, the investigator simply asked the interviewee, "can you tell me something about yourself?"¹²

3.7.4.4 Interview Style and Probing

Responding to questions can be a daunting experience for the interviewee. Some interviewees, during the pilot study, remarked that the process felt like "a test", especially with questions like 'what does TQM/ISO 9000 mean to you?' As a result, in the preamble to the interviewees, they were informed that there are no "right" or "wrong" answers. This amendment observes Schatzman and Strauss's (1973: 74) recommendations, who commented,

... there is no more important tactic... than to communicate the idea that the informant's views are acceptable and important.

Similarly, as far as grounded theory and feminist epistemology is concerned, Wuest (1995) focuses on the importance of the researcher not to impose their notion of what is right or significant. Accordingly, the investigator accepted what was heard from the respondent at face value and communicated that acceptance to the respondent. While this is fine in theory the standpoint was slightly problematic

¹² Another example of the informality during the main study was reflected in the dress code adopted by the investigator, who opted to dress smartly but without a 'suit and tie'.

to the investigator during the evaluation of the results. For instance, in one LIS (Library E), when asked about the nature of the membership in a 'Quality Improvement Team', one paraprofessional insisted that everyone had been "coerced" to join the team, while two of her colleagues were less forthright and informed the investigator that membership was "voluntary".

The experience, and confidence, of the interviewer is central to the effectiveness of the interview style. At the outset of this study, the investigator had no previous experience of administering interviews. Although the pilot was an important phase in the research process in enabling the investigator to experience the interview process and have greater confidence in his abilities, it was noticeable that as the interviews progressed, and the investigator had a better grasp and knowledge of the emerging themes, there was a marked improvement between those interviews carried out at the beginning to those at the end of the study. Thus many personal qualities, like effective listening skills, were developed during the course of the study which facilitated the collection of more valid data. The investigator studied the comments received during the pilot study. He was described as "nervous" and "tense", "a bit disorganised" and "rambling" by some participants, although some were more gracious, describing the interview as "very interesting", "very enjoyable" and even "therapeutic". Gorden (1975) advises interviewers to be 'emotionally secure', for the characteristics of being free from anxiety, sincere, observing the respondents' emotional needs, empathy and communication, develop with time and experience (Swanson, 1986: 68).

One of the key characteristics of executing an effective interview schedule is the ability to probe. In the pilot study, one respondent was aggrieved by citing, "I felt you jumped in too often" and, with hindsight, with inappropriate probes. According to Gorden (1975), proper probing encourages the interviewee to express their opinions in more detail (p. 422). In this investigation the 'neutral

probe' (*ibid.*), "ummmm...", "hmmmm..." and "and I see...", was regularly used. According to Gorden (1975), it conveys to the interviewee that their comments and views are being acknowledged, similarly Gorman and Clayton (1997) recommend nodding at the end of an answer (p. 134). A more detailed set of probes is proffered by Schatzman and Strauss (1973: 74), and they are probes which denote,

- ◇ Chronology ('... and then?' 'When was that?'),
- ◇ Detail ('Tell me more about that'),
- ◇ Clarification ('I don't quite understand...' 'Why do you say that?'), and
- ◇ Explanation ('Why?' 'How come?').

Finally, after inviting interviewees to talk about topics neglected by the interview schedule, the investigator closed the interview by thanking the interviewee for their time and willingness to participate in the study. It was believed that the respondents would fraternise with other respondents, who had yet to take part in the study, therefore leaving a good impression as they left the interview room was paramount.

3.7.4.5 Physical Conditions

Ely *et al.* (1991) state that interviewers must think carefully about the physical setting for the interview. They need to consider whether they would be able to influence the choice of the setting and assess whether there will be sufficient privacy. The issue is addressed by Shipman (1981) who, in her experience of interviewing schoolchildren in a classroom and headteacher's office, discovered that physical surroundings can influence response. When conducting interviews, researchers are at the mercy of the organisation being able to provide, where possible, comfortable interview rooms. Such conditions would help to elicit a

frank and honest response to the questions. In most cases quiet and secure interview rooms were provided. In two cases, the investigator interviewed subjects at, or near to, their place of work. In such instances, the investigator gained their verbal consent to conduct the study. The physical conditions did have a bearing on the quality of answers in one LIS (Library A). In this case, a brand new Learning Resources Centre had been erected and, in the event, a large open-planned office had been created. To accommodate the study, screens were placed around a desk, which served the purpose of creating an 'interview area'. In the case of three interviewees there was genuine fear that their comments would be overheard by colleagues, especially when their comments were critical of their LIS or made reference to external jobs that they had applied for. Their whispers were barely audible on the on the tape recorder and, in this instance, the investigator resorted to consulting notes taken at the time of the interview.¹³

3.7.4.6 The Tape Recorder

What an impact the words had on me when I sat alone transcribing the tapes. I was more able to hear and feel what these women were saying to me. I realised how, at times, I was preoccupied with thoughts of what my next question was, how my eye contact was, or hoping we were speaking loud enough for the tape recorder.

(Charmaz, 1991: 393)

A tape recorder was used to ensure that there was an accurate representation of the interviewees' comments and, as the above experiences suggest, be an edifying process for the investigator. In accordance with the BPS (1998) guidelines, interviewees were notified of its use beforehand. As highlighted earlier, interviewees were informed that the tape recorder would be switched off at any

¹³ Notes were made during the course of each interview. According to Schatzman and Strauss (1973) such notes enable the investigator recall fuller remarks made by the respondent.

time. During the course of the study, there was only one instance when a respondent asked the investigator to pause the recording.

After the pilot study, it was noted that there was some anxiety over the use of the tape recorder. Typical reactions during the pilot phase included, apprehension, fright and nervousness. Although many of the interviewees spoke with confidence and openness, despite assurances of anonymity and confidentiality, judging by the reactions of some of the interviewees, anxieties were not wholly overcome. The investigator posits that, although being a valuable *aide mémoire*, the tape recorder also served to inhibit the development of a 'free and flowing conversation' (see Gorman and Clayton, 1997: 135).

3.7.4.7 Time Constraints

Interviews took between forty-five minutes to one hour fifteen minutes to execute. In most of the LIS visited, extra time was allocated in the event of 'over-running'. Where this was not possible subsequent interviews, usually the final interview, were curtailed. A total of five interviews were affected this way. However, with experience, the investigator learnt to pace himself and the latter interviews were less prone to be curtailed.

3.8 Analysis of Data

Data analysis (is)... taking constructions gathered from the context and reconstructing them into meaningful worlds.

(Mead, 1934: 52)

There were two key phases of the analysis, which the investigator viewed as 'preliminary' and 'formal'. A preliminary analysis was undertaken almost immediately and, on some occasions, during the actual interview when the

investigator employed 'reflective listening' tactics (Gorman and Clayton, 1997: 130), or repeating back to the interviewee an understanding of what had been said. Interview recordings were transcribed shortly after each interview had taken place, while the data was still fresh in the mind of the investigator. According to Martin and Turner (1986), the tactic of writing up notes immediately after each visit will provide an accurate representation of the data and self-transcription, as opposed to the hiring of professional transcription services, will also serve to stimulate analysis (Swanson, 1986: 77; Strauss, 1987). In this 'preliminary' analysis, the investigator highlighted the salient issues and topics arising from the interview transcripts to capture the essential quality of what was being found. After each interview, comments were made as an attempt to: summarise the key issues, make associations and connections with other data, or were preliminary interpretations. This analysis was informed by Charmaz's (1995) experiences, who noted that in grounded theory data collection and analysis occur concurrently.

The formal analytic phase of the process consists of coding the data (Strauss and Corbin, 1990), or defining what the data are all about (Charmaz, 1995: 37). In contrast to quantification, which applies preconceived codes, codes were created and led directly to the development of theoretical categories (Strauss and Corbin, 1990). To make analytic sense of the data, Charmaz's (1995) endorses the researcher to use the following basic questions (p. 38);

- ◇ What is going on?
- ◇ What are people doing?
- ◇ What is the person saying?
- ◇ What do these actions and statements take for granted?
- ◇ How do structure and context serve to support, maintain, impede or change these actions and statements?

On the basis of constant comparison, or comparison of *varied* “slices of data” (Glaser and Strauss, 1967: 65), the method of handling and analysing data generated the emergence of major issues and themes. By studying the multiple interviewees’ accounts, observations and behaviour of the same, or similar, situations, it was possible to detect inter-relationships, similarities between themes and differences thus illuminating the question at hand. Patterns developed quickly during the early stages of the investigation, but less so during the latter stages when ‘saturation’ had been reached (see, for example, Strauss and Corbin, 1990)

The process of writing up was an equally important aspect of the analysis. It should be noted that the writing up had been delayed and interrupted, as the investigator conducted a year long BLRIC funded project on another QMS, Investors in People (IIP) (see Goulding *et al.*, 1999; Mistry and Goulding, 1998). Valuable insights and further ideas about the data had been gained throughout this period. It has been proven that writing and, in the investigator’s experience, *re-writing*, can foster analytic clarity (see Becker, 1986). The investigator’s experiences are reminiscent of Charmaz’s (1990) experiences, of a study on chronic illness, who observed that, “through writing and rewriting, a researcher can identify arguments and problems, make assumptions explicit, and sharpen the concepts” (p. 1169). Similarly, as Smith (1995) recommends,

... keep thinking as you write, because your interpretation is likely to become richer as you look at the respondents’ extracts again (p. 24).

When the IIP study had been completed, the investigator reacquainted himself with the interview transcripts, and in some cases playing the tapes again. As these transcripts were examined again, further patterns and ideas were extracted from the data.

3.9 Conclusion and Lessons Learned

The investigation was an *exploratory* study into the effects of QMS on front line staff. It describes the differences of experiences and attitudes, if any, between staff in a formal quality culture, or TQM/ISO 9000 environment, and their counterparts, who work in a non-QMS, non formal quality culture. The employment of a qualitative approach facilitated an open, flexible style and enabled the investigator to analyse the perspectives of the respondents in order to elicit the social meaning of their actions. In this endeavour the attempt is made, in the following chapters, to produce an account of how the key actors viewed their situation. While the investigator was inexperienced in administering interviews, the method, especially its informality and flexibility, allowed the respondents to raise issues which were of *importance to them*.

The interest generated by the qualitative approach among the chief librarians, who permitted the study to take place, was of considerable satisfaction the investigator. The investigator's overall experience reflects those of Farmer and Campbell's (1997) who, while investigating Continuing Professional Development (CPD) in LIS, concluded that growing awareness of research issues among senior LIS professionals reflects the practitioners' desire to be more involved in research, *in partnership* with academics. Chief librarians also seemed to be re-examining QMS, as mentioned in personal correspondence to the investigator (dated May 1997),

Dear [Mr.] Mistry,

Thank you for visiting our library last week... Your study has provoked many interesting discussions about TQM among my staff (although I am not sure if I am supposed to be thanking you or berating you for this!)... Anyway, good luck in the future, we wish you every success in your study.

'Chief Librarian'
Library B

The above comments, and other messages of goodwill, were also especially gratifying given the signs of anti-intellectualism among some die hard supporters of QMS, as outlined in the previous chapter (Dennis, 1995) (see Section 2.5, 'Statement of the Objectives').

Chapter Four

The Meaning of Quality Management

So tell me, what does Total Quality Management mean to you?

Oh hell! I knew you were coming but I'm afraid I didn't get a chance to read up on TQM beforehand!

(Paraprofessional, Library E)

Given the ambiguity surrounding the terms 'quality' and 'quality management', the investigator attempted to consolidate and summarise the 'gut' reactions from the participants to these terms. This prognosis stemmed from Dean and Bowen's (1994) assertion that peoples' reactions to QMS may vary as a "function of their own beliefs" (p. 394). In phenomenological terms, this chapter attempted to gauge the meaning QMS, and/or quality, has for front line staff and also 'sets the scene' for the remainder of the thesis.

4.1 Investigation Findings

The respondents were not asked to define either 'Total Quality Management', 'ISO 9000' or 'quality', but were invited to express the personal meaning, or meanings, they ascribed to the above terms. A wide range of reactions and attitudes were visible. They included feelings of hesitancy, cynicism, anger, bewilderment, apathy and, in a more positive light, receptivity, acceptance and enthusiasm. It was observed that many 'quality-related' techniques and approaches had been adopted in all the LIS. Some of these approaches were new, some amendments of old techniques, while others had been established, without apparent modification, in the respective LIS for some period of time.

Nevertheless, it was perceptible from the comments, in both QMS and non-QMS LIS, that the issue of 'quality' was engaging for a majority of the interviewees when the fieldwork was carried out. This underscored the assumption that it is not a question of being 'for' quality but 'how employees reshape their interests in the context of quality?' (Munro, 1995).

The cumulative evidence showed that the interviewees in *all* the LIS held assumptions about their services which emphasised 'the customer'¹ rather than 'the collection' (see Butcher, 1993). Cotta-Schonberg and Helsted (1993) also detected this shift in the information professional's view of quality. Once, they assert, the book was valued as a physical, intellectual or cultural object, and quality may have been perceived in the comprehensiveness of collections. Moore (1992: 7) has reflected on this association between 'volume' and 'quality',

¹ The term 'customer' has connotations with the commercial sector that academic library and information workers may find unpalatable. For instance, at the Oregon State University Library, Butcher (1993) observed that there was concern with the TQM vocabulary, "words such as 'customer'... were, according to some participants, fine for business but not for academia" (p. 47). In this investigation the word 'customer' was not mentioned by any of the respondents, who were more inclined to apply the words 'students' or 'users'.

There was a clear presumption that the way to improve quality was to consume more resources; to buy more books; to subscribe to more periodicals; to recruit more staff; or to move into larger premises.

As many testimonies confirmed, this presupposition is no longer valid. The interviews confirmed the sequence of events *vis-à-vis* 'quality', outlined in Chapter Two, that the physical nature of librarianship has been superseded by service quality and adapting to the new demands of the public, that is, there is an emphasis away from 'more' to 'better'. In a similar vein to the arguments outlined by Kinnell (1995), who believed that the exploitation of quality management techniques was timely for LIS managers, the common thread in many of the responses was an awareness and sensitivity to the issue of accountability, both to the user and to the funders. There was a common belief in the compulsion to achieve a quality of service that assuaged, to a satisfactory degree, the information and research needs of the users of the LIS. Furthermore, interviewees expressed a will to contribute demonstrably to the accomplishment of the university's educational, developmental and strategic goals and to fulfil the above criteria in an operationally efficient and effective manner. The interviewees' prognoses were determined by many political, social, economic and demographic demands. The key issues are recounted below.

The political and ideological connotation of quality in HEIs has been summarised in Chapter Two. With these insights in mind, university LIS have moved from Munn's (1968) characterisation of them as 'bottomless pits', where money could be showered without any discernible result, to units that have to actively demonstrate VFM and 'quality' in the hope of securing additional resources (Enright, 1990). Such burdens were reflected in the accounts of some of the respondents,

There's a lot more pressure [than before] to justify the resources you use. It isn't just an economic consideration anymore but, one feels, a political one too.

(Middle Manager, Library B)

'Efficiency' is the watchword these days, you feel you are a lot more answerable in the current economic climate.

(Professional, Library C)

And one participant in a non-QMS LIS stated,

Of course you'd like to offer as many services as you like, but we are walking a tight-rope as far as funding is concerned. That's why the management of this library has to take a more strategic direction.

(Middle Manager, Library G)

During the time of this fieldwork, it was palpable that library and information workers were providing a service to a more discerning user, who may have harboured greater expectations of their LIS emanating from their experiences "in the public and commercial sector where shops, banks and utilities have to compete on the grounds of added value in the form of excellent service to customers" (Parry, c.1996: 12). It led one interviewee to reply,

... it feels like a bank or supermarket at times... we wear badges, we're encouraged not to wear jeans. I suppose it looks nice to the public and that's what counts.

(Paraprofessional, Library G)

The fieldwork preceded the levy of the 'top up fee' to undergraduates in 1998, but there was an acknowledgement that certain groups of users, such as overseas students, were paying for their courses and may have demanded more for their investment. This concern is amplified by Winkworth (1992) who, while commenting on certain groups of Masters students, observed that,

Part time MBA students who feel they are paying most of the cost of their courses have in a number of Institutes, complained about the value of their courses - including the effectiveness of their library services. They are less willing than largely subsidised 'full time' students to accept the argument that the present level of service is all that can be offered, or that someone else has the right to determine what they can expect (p. 6).

It was acknowledged that academic LIS were serving a more diverse array of users, and that services needed to be sensitive to people from the ethnic minorities, mature, part time (see Freeman, c.1993) and, in some cases, a more "technically competent" user (Professional, Library F). In addition to this, the Follett Report (HEFCE, 1993: 49) also predicted an unprecedented rise in student numbers during the 1990s. Their predication was supported by a forecast by the Institute of Employment Studies, which estimated that an exponential growth would be witnessed during the early years of the twenty-first century (Connor *et al.*, 1996; see also, Targett, 1996). At the same time, there was a greater competition for resources as senior managers had to decide how best they could use their static, or reduced, funds (Kinnell, 1995). Just prior to this investigation CVCP (1993) figures indicated that, since 1984/85, there had been a twenty-three per cent cut in funding, in "real" terms, to academic LIS when measured against factors such as rising book prices and inflation. This state of affairs was corroborated by figures quoted in *The Times Higher Education Supplement* that university spending on books "had halved during the years of Conservative rule" and that there were "severe cuts in spending on periodicals" (Targett, 1995: 7)². With the exception of Oxford, every university recorded a cut and it was calculated that post-1992 university libraries fared worse than others (*ibid.*).

² Report on a survey conducted by the Publishers Association. A similar conclusion has also been reached by the Library & Information Statistics Unit (LISU), Loughborough University (see *LISU Annual Library Statistics 1998*) [With acknowledgements to Alison Murphy, Research Assistant, LISU].

Given the above appraisal, it was not surprising that the words 'efficiency', 'effectiveness' and 'economy' loomed large in the responses provided by the interviewees. To these ends, the Follett Report (HEFCE, 1993: 32)³ endorsed the implementation of performance measurement (PMs) and performance indicators (PIs). This generated wider demands for a more progressive approach to management and also provided the stimulus to many initiatives, including the First Conference on Performance Measurement (Wressell, 1995) and the Joint Funding Councils' (1995) *The Effective Library* report. Further perspectives were evident in the work of SCONUL (Revill and Ford, 1994), ISO 11620 (1996), the International Federation of Library Associations and Institutions (IFLA) (Poll and te Boekhorst, 1996; te Boekhorst, 1995) and Pickering *et al.* (1996). Such innovations were hailed as means by which efficiency, VFM and the effectiveness, with which limited resources were utilised to maintain the standards of service, could be evaluated (Davies and Kirkpatrick, 1995a; see also Abbott, 1990; 1994).

Respondents spoke of other forms of 'quality assurance'. Every LIS had a mission or vision statement which had been developed alongside the university statements and charters. In the eyes of the interviewees they were regarded as statements of intent, "to serve the needs of the users," thus paralleling Brophy's (1991) findings in his analysis of mission statements in academic libraries (see also Bulpitt, 1996). 'Customer' care programmes, user suggestion schemes, questionnaires, focus groups, service level agreements were some of the other formal approaches that had been adopted. In general, there appeared to be very little difference in the 'quality-related processes' between the QMS and non-QMS LIS, and this confirmed Brophy's (1991) assumption that library and information workers in the university sector have embraced user-centred and service concepts. In conclusion, the measured appraisal that was provided by many of the

³ As this thesis was being written up, the Dearing Report endorsed the widespread adoption of "PIs and benchmarks" in universities (NCIHE, 1998: para. 58).

respondents subscribed to Line's (1994) analysis of the climate within academic LIS when the fieldwork was carried out,

With shrinking budgetary resources, reduced staff numbers and potentially increasing demands, no library can now afford to have imprecise objectives, give services that are little needed, fail to give services that are needed, offer poor quality services, carry out work that is not strictly necessary, or continue with procedures that are not fully efficient (p. 221).

In the American academic LIS, such pressures enticed them toward TQM (see, for example, Butcher, 1993: 45; Gapen *et al.*, 1993: 20; Miller and Stearns, 1994; Stuart and Drake, 1993: 132-133). Although the Fielden Report made a passing comment on the system, suggesting that academic LIS may wish to examine customer care initiatives like TQM (John Fielden Associates, 1993: 19), there was no corresponding surge in the take-up of TQM or ISO 9000. Out of a total of 72 respondents, it was discovered that only two university libraries reported having ISO 9000 (three per cent) and eight university libraries possessed TQM (eleven per cent) (Mistry and Usherwood, 1995). The lack of penetration into the academic sector was unsettling to one participant,

I'm not sure how I feel about TQM, but you could say that I am a bit sceptical. There's not been a hell of a lot of interest elsewhere, so you don't really know how other libraries have been transformed. If they haven't got TQM, it makes you wonder, "why?" and "do they know something we don't?"

(Professional, Library E)

Overall, the veracity and validity of QMS in the academic LIS in this investigation, tended to be judged on the demonstrable improvements, or otherwise, in the service. This was somewhat problematic because QMS has been hailed as a long-term strategy (Carr and Littman, 1990) and it was a relatively new concept in most of the LIS (with, perhaps, the exception of Library D). Corral (1996) notes that, "in order to motivate staff and sustain momentum [one needs] some *early*

success and tangible progress” (p. 52). It was evident that success was more immediate for some LIS than others. In the case of Library A, success came in the form of achieving ISO 9000 status. The psychological impact of attaining the badge had generated pride in the workplace, for example,

I'm proud that we've achieved something. There are people here who have worked very hard over many years but with little recognition so from that point of view it is a good thing.
(Paraprofessional, Library A)

Some interviewees expressed strong support for QMS and had favourable expectations. Examining the positive adjectives used to describe the systems, some respondents referred to 'dynamism', 'greater focus', 'relevance' or 'proactiveness',

I see it as a 'wake up' call. It enables us to be less complacent about the way we deal with our users, especially at a time when we are working to very tight budgets. We can be set in our ways, but TQM allows us to interact with the users and really be proactive. That way we can use the budgets more effectively.

(Professional, Library E)

Other respondents suggested that QMS brought coherence to existing practices and reduced ambiguity, or “grey areas” (Professional, Library D) by setting standards and a benchmark that everyone could subscribe to,

You have a certain standard or benchmark to work towards... and everyone else works towards that benchmark, so it reduces any grey areas in the library. Mind you they might not always be aware that they are working to this end. It gives you an extra focus, but what's really important is that you don't think all the time “I am doing this to achieve that” it becomes second nature after a while.

A majority of the initial reactions referred to the 'mesolevel of quality' (Bouckaert, 1995), or the service side of quality. However, it was also intimated that the 'microlevel of quality' (*ibid.*) was also pervasive as some participants referred to an *esprit de corps* within the LIS, or the sense that everyone could be involved the quality improvement process. It is possible that QMS therefore acts as a catalyst that develops a common culture which assimilates the differing views and interests in the workplace, or as Jurow (1993) states, QMS may forge "a new set of assumptions and a different attitude [among staff] toward the delivery of library services" (p. 125).

It was observable that with systems like ISO 9000 at Library A, there was a great degree of consistency in the answers given to the investigator. Their comments are examined in greater detail in Chapter Ten ('Autonomy'). It was also noticeable that there were more pauses at the beginning of the answers provided by the respondents at the TQM LIS. This reaction underscores the problems academics have had in trying to define TQM (see Chapter Two, Section 2.2.4 'Total Quality Management').

Not everyone displayed enthusiasm. There were those who were not too bothered by QMS and had arrived at a *post hoc* rationalisation that, "Of course none of this is entirely new" (Professional, Library E). On a more discordant note, some believed that QMS was an innovation that intensified and monitored work,

Overall, I personally don't think [ISO 9000 has] done anything, or that much. I've always worked to very high standards. I've had ten years' experience prior to coming to [this library] and we never had 'quality management'. I think if one uses their common sense, it is totally unnecessary, but I accept that in this day and age management need to make sure that we are doing our job correctly and properly.

(Paraprofessional, Library A)

Affiliation toward QMS was erased by the perceived inability of the system to provide any substantive impact on the service. According to the following testimony, QMS was deemed to be unprotective in an increasingly 'hostile environment',

It's Total Quality Rubbish!

Why do you say that?

Because we don't offer 'quality'. The queues at the counter are very long, and appear to get longer by the week, while the people get irate, rowdy and sometimes very abusive - I've even been spat at. It's a hostile environment and I just wish library management gets back to basics.

What do you mean by 'getting back to the basics'?

If they took on just one extra person [at the issues desk], that would make all the difference. But they're more concerned in recruiting casual, student shelvers, keeping costs down, as usual.

(Paraprofessional, Library C)

Her concerns underscore Pollitt's (1990a) prediction of the manner in which quality has been identified and pursued in the public sector,

Quality might be the theme of the 1990s but it will have to be won through gains in efficiency, not large increases in spending. The increased prominence of competitive mechanisms in almost every public service appear to have at least as much to do with driving down costs as with promoting quality (p. 186).

The affiliation toward QMS was determined by political factors within the university. The conclusion of this thesis identifies the implementation of QMS during 'downsizing' as a contributing factor in its demise (see *The Economist*, 1995). Suspicion of the management of the university, and QMS, was raised by respondents at Library C. Here it was observed that strike action against job cuts elsewhere at the university, by members of the AUT, had exacted high human cost by raising levels of stress and demotivating staff. It was not surprising that the

sequence of events had served to create sympathy for the sacked lecturers among the LIS staff. This had a knock-on effect on their perceptions in the manner in which they were being managed by the university,

It's obscene what [the university] are doing. There appears to be a total disregard for people. TQM spells cutbacks.
(Professional, Library C)

Similar tensions were detectable at Library D, where the HEQC had criticised the university management, including their application of TQM. This led one respondent to confirm that there were two forms of TQM, which she termed, "university Total Quality Mismanagement" versus "library Total Quality Management" (Paraprofessional, Library D). Strikingly, in contrast to Library C, there was general enthusiasm for QMS. This was because there were demonstrable benefits both to the library service and to the individual, which will be addressed during the course of this thesis.

There were other inflammatory comments too. In the first instance, the association between QMS with the New Right ideology was unpalatable to some. For example, like the comments of the Chief Librarian from the medical LIS (see Chapter Three, Section 3.6.3 'Sampling'), one respondent alluded to the application of 'quality' in the NHS,

You only have to see what's happening in the hospitals to deduce that everything is not rosy. What does TQM mean? More cutbacks? Fewer doctors and nurses? No A&E services? Longer waiting lists? More dissatisfaction? It wouldn't surprise me if library services ended the same way.

According to Brophy (c.1993) this is the natural reaction by library and information workers when the adaptability of consumerist approaches to LIS is posited. He notes, "whenever the consumer society is mentioned, Adam Smith's

name is never far behind” (p. 18). A similar conclusion has been reached by Heery (1995), who argues that new managerialism also invites scepticism on the basis of its apparent proximity to ‘Thatcherism’ and ‘Reagonomics’ (p. 28). On the basis of the reactions of some of the respondents, QMS is not a politically neutral construct and this affects one’s affiliation to the system.

On the issue of managerialism, QMS was viewed as another long line of management fads. Some interviewees maintained that QMS was bereft of “real substance” (Professional, Library C), “[a management] bandwagon” (Paraprofessional, Library C), or just a “window dressing [exercise]” (Professional, Library E). Another participant, in describing his inability to “totally commit [himself]” to QMS observed,

... I’ve seen management ideas come and go in my time. It’s like painting the Forth Bridge, by the time you begin to implement the plans and procedures, you have to start all over again and acquaint yourself with another ‘big idea’.

(Middle Manager, Library C)

This was perhaps best encapsulated by one professional at Library E, who upon being asked what TQM meant to her, described it as “a gimmick” and handed the investigator a sheet of paper which was inscribed with the following quotation,

We trained hard... but every time we were beginning to form up into teams, we would be reorganised. I was to learn later in life that we tend to meet any new situation by reorganising... and a wonderful method it can be for creating an illusion of progress, while producing inefficiency and demoralisation.

Petronius (died AD 66)

Thus QMS was viewed as a form of 'change management', "for the sake of changing" (Professional, Library E). Its commercial undertones were deemed to be intrusive and there was disquiet for the apparent disregard for "anything that had been achieved [previously]" (Professional, Library C). QMS was described by one individual as a regressive step "into the 1980s" and "It's sheer bravado... management with shoulder pads!" (Professional, Library E). These reactions have been the focus of Morgan and Murgatroyd's (1994) analysis of the implementation of TQM in the public sector. According to Morgan and Murgatroyd these reactions correspond to the key stumbling blocks that are prevalent in the public sector that: the nature of QMS itself inhibits its application to the public sector; the nature of the public sector itself is inimical to the reception of QMS application; the work cultures of the professional groups which characterises the public sector are inimical to QMS; in the public sector the customer is a more problematic concept and; public sector provisions are much more complicated than manufacturing.

Finally, there were clear indications that the meaning individuals attached to QMS was changing during the course of the fieldwork. Continuing the theme that QMS was just another management fad one participant, towards the end of the fieldwork asked, "Isn't TQM rather old hat now?" (Middle Manager, Library C). This issue is examined in greater detail in the final chapter.

4.2 Conclusion

There were differing levels of enthusiasm for QMS and clear patterns were perceptible from the data. The investigator was able to conclude that the subject of QMS or 'quality' provoked strong reactions among respondents in both QMS and non-QMS LIS. Many quality-related techniques were adopted in both types of LIS, in recognition of the importance of accountability. In addition to the

varied reactions to QMS outlined in this chapter, the following patterns were apparent:

- ◇ the affiliation of individuals toward QMS differed from LIS to LIS; QMS was more durable and extensive in some LIS than others;
- ◇ there was a correlation between status and knowledge. Respondents who were unable to provide a 'meaning'/definition to QMS tended to be paraprofessional members of staff;

What does Total Quality Management mean to you?

I'm afraid I haven't a clue! I tend to distance myself from the administrative and management aspects of the library. It is of very little interest to me.

(Paraprofessional, Library C)

I don't really have an opinion on 'TQM'. *Why do you say that?* Because I'm not sure that I know what TQM is about.

(Paraprofessional, Library E)

Pass! I wasn't aware we had it until I saw your proposal.

(Paraprofessional, Library C)

- ◇ although a longitudinal approach had not been followed it was evident that an affiliation toward TQM and ISO 9000 among institutions was weakening during the course of the investigation (see Chapter Twelve, 'Conclusion and Postscript'). For instance, when the final interviews at Library B and Library C were carried out (in 1997), it was difficult to get a full complement of interviewees. Although this was eventually achieved in the latter LIS, in the case of Library B, the investigator resorted to interviewing staff from other site libraries, rather than the 'main' library only. This may be indicative of a

fatigue felt by individuals as systems like TQM “[went] past its ‘sell by’ date” (Middle Manager, Library C).

The following chapters build upon these insights and attempts to establish how front line staff make sense of their work environment and derive motivation from their experiences. The chapters also shed further light on the reasons why there were a variety of attitudes toward QMS.

Chapter Five

Participation and Involvement

Librarians have talked a great deal about participative management, but appear to have done rather less.

(Clayton, 1992: 299)

Participation is not a medicine but a health tonic, bestowing fitness and well-being on all participants as well as the company itself. The more involved we are, the more creative, more productive, the more enthusiastic we become. People support what they help to create.

(Minkoff, 1992: 71)

The rhetoric of 'involvement' and 'participation', via teamwork, and the promotion of 'empowerment' within hierarchies is "unreservedly celebrated" by the advocates of quality management (Wilkinson and Willmott, 1994: 10), who have viewed them as methods that serve to eliminate avoidable costs and needless waste (see, for example, Deming, 1982a; Juran, 1974). This 'softer' orientation of QMS (Wilkinson, 1992) can be compared to traditional Japanese management practices, which call for greater 'humanity for the workforce' (Ishikawa, 1985:

112; Kondo, 1989) or “humanistic management theory” (Ishikawa, 1985: 5), by encouraging staff to participate in decisions. Promoted heavily in the 1960s as an antithesis to Blauner’s (1964) enquiry into alienation at work (Shimabukuro, 1983: 5), it is said that the ‘humanity ethic’ has its roots in Confucianism (Cooper and Kuniya, c.1975). There is a firm belief that if quality initiatives are to work, and quality motivation is to be attained, there must be sufficient participation of all employees in ‘quality decisions’ (see, for example, Dahlgard *et al.*, 1998; Kehoe, 1995; Newell and Dale, 1991; Wilkinson *et al.*, 1992), perhaps to the point where employees feel a sense of ‘empowerment’ (Riggs, 1995: 253) or ‘ownership’ (Jones *et al.*, 1998: 10). According to Clayton (1992) Japanese management is characterised by a strong emphasis on participation, with consensus as the preferred decision-making mode, and corresponding focus on collective responsibility for quality. Commenting on this state of affairs, critics like Kirkpatrick and Martinez Lucio (1995a) posit that, “the more radical aspect of TQM is [this] idea of increasing employee involvement and participation” (p. 4). We can surmise that QMS may be viewed, not only as an aping of the perceived means of Japan’s industrial success, but of an attempt to construct a new management framework of industrial and social consensus (Tuckman, 1995: 59). This prognosis may be valid, particularly if one’s notion of ‘participation’ subscribes to Wall and Lischeron’s (1977) definition of the term,

[participation is] the influence in decision-making exerted through a process of interaction between workers and managers based upon information sharing (p. 37).

This chapter will identify the forms of participation that exist in QMS LIS and examine individuals’ perceptions and attitudes. The chapter will determine who is involved and outline whether staff consider themselves to be empowered. The veracity of participative regimes as a framework for motivation will be analysed against the wider ideological issues of control and surveillance in the workplace.

5.1 Investigation Findings

The participation and involvement of staff, at the inception of QMS intervention, was a common denominator in most of the LIS. It was evident that the magnitude of participation within each LIS was a mark of the organisation's level of commitment toward QMS. For instance, the emphasis placed upon "total participation" (Professional, Library D), in the form of QCs¹, at Library D was one expression of the seriousness and concern with which the Chief Librarian had approached QMS. In comparison to the other QMS LIS, most notably Library C (see below), Library D appeared to be exceptional in their readiness to devote resources over a period of years. This appraisal was reinforced by data from the ground clearing exercise, which confirmed that QMS had been embarked upon since 1988, considerably longer than any of the other QMS LIS. It was also indicated, in the interviews, that the university had "hand picked" (Middle Manager, Library D) "to act as a pilot." Were the university eager for QMS to succeed at the Library D? Given this state of affairs, had Library D been massively, and disproportionately financed?² Could this explain why there was overwhelming support for QMS at Library D? The relationship between finance and the success of participation in QMS regimes has been noted elsewhere,

There are sound theoretical reasons for believing that top management now has a real interest in making participation [in TQM] work at all levels. One is simply the amount of money that they have chosen to invest in TQM.

(Hill, 1995: 51)

¹ A QC is a team, of up to a dozen staff, that meets voluntarily, on as frequent a basis as necessary, to improve the quality of a product or service. The National Society of Quality Circles defines it as "a group of four to twelve people from the same work area who meet voluntarily and regularly to identify, investigate, analyse and solve their own work-related problems. The circle presents solutions to management and is involved in implementing and later monitoring them" (cited in Speakman, 1994: 51). They were popular in Japan in the 1960s, while the USA began to implement the concept in earnest, having realised their potential in the 1970s and 1980s.

² As a measure of their success, interviewees indicated that TQM had "collapsed" (Middle Manager, Library D) at other departments within the university. Were other university departments privy to the same level of funding?

QCs were a central feature of Library D's approach to QMS, and the experiences there were reflective of the Japanese CWQC approach. This approach is expounded by Ishikawa (1985), who is contemptuous of those Western organisations that have taken QCs out of context and not using them as a central component of their QMS approach. It is a view that is corroborated by Lillrank and Kano (1989) who have noted that it is unusual, in practice, for Japanese companies to have QCs without QMS. The interviewees suggested that the move towards 'full blown' QMS had been transitory, with participation in the QCs the initial experience of QMS. It was noted that the QCs had remained intact when the LIS was a "formal TQM library" (Middle Manager, Library D) approximately three years later. Thus, having the structures, and culture, in place *before* QMS was formally adopted served to enhance the respondents' receptivity to the system (see also Bright and Cooper, 1993, on the role of an organisation's existing culture in relation to the receptivity of QMS intervention).

The emphasis on participation at Library D was mirrored in approaches adopted by Library A and Library B, where various improvement projects, brainstorming sessions and Quality Action Teams had been established on a more *ad hoc* basis, and at Library E, where teamwork had been enshrined by the formation of Quality Improvement Teams (QITs, see below). These practices suggested to the investigator that senior management's focus on staff participation was primarily targeted on task accomplishment or problem-solving or, in Minkoff's (1992) judgement, to the success of quality techniques. In motivational terms such forms of collective problem-solving, from those closest to the process, have been proven to serve as a vital means by which change could be accepted in the LIS (Stuart and Drake, 1993: 133-134). In theory, the utilisation of employees in this way develops the self-confidence and competence of those involved and these attributes are the key causal variables in determining

motivation and job satisfaction, in addition to levels of performance (Hackman and Oldham, 1976; 1980). Overall the various initiatives enacted Melling's (1996b) recommendation that,

... the theme of employee involvement and responsibility should be central to any consideration of the quality framework (p. 43).

While there was widespread belief that the level of participation had increased since QMS intervention, this needs to be balanced against the findings from the non-QMS LIS. Here it was observed that a collaborative form of management were also in the ascendancy. While there was a tendency of staff in the non-QMS LIS to highlight regular 'briefing sessions', which are discussed in Chapter Six ('Communication'), as the main form of involvement, cross-functional teamworking and problem solving were also identified, but perhaps to a lesser degree than their QMS counterparts. In two of the LIS, Library F and Library I, new Chief Librarians had been installed just prior to the fieldwork. In both cases, the new incumbents were younger than the previous Chief Librarian and this precipitated the view that they were "forward looking" (Professional, Library I) or more "dynamic" (Middle Manager, Library I). From the data, there was congruence between the personality of the Chief Librarians and the implementation of, and affiliation of employees to, participative forms of management. A similar prognosis was reflected in accounts in comments from respondents at the QMS LIS, most notably Library D. The evidence therefore supports Marchant's (1976) conclusions of participation in university libraries. Using Likert's (1961) participative theory, Marchant set out to determine the relationship between the involvement of professional librarians in decision-making processes against selected performance characteristics. Two independent variables were measured, a Decision Making Index, which measured the perception of individuals' involvement in decision-making, and a Profile Index,

which was a measure of the perception of the nature a participative style of management. It was concluded that job satisfaction was affected by management style and the opportunity to participate in the decision-making processes of the library. Staff in university libraries, where the leadership style was participative, were more satisfied with the opportunities for professional growth than their counterparts in other libraries, where the leadership style was thought to be authoritarian.

A large *tranche* of the literature on QMS does not stop with participation but cajoles organisations to ‘empower’ their staff (see, for example, Berk and Berk, 1993; Gilbert and Nelson, 1991: 13; Sirkin, 1993: 79). Early quality gurus, like Juran (1974), suggest that, if the conditions are right, employees are ‘empowered’ when the focus for responsibility for quality rests in *their* hands. However, the relationship between empowerment and QMS was given greater prominence by the ‘new wave’ of quality gurus, especially Peters and Waterman (1982). They posit that a simple intuitive style of management needs to evolve which involves the redistribution of power, responsibility and accountability from the few at the top of the organisation hierarchy to the entire workforce. This prognosis was reflected in Fitch *et al.*’s (1993) account of the application of TQM at the Davis Library in Samford University, where it was believed that the library had to be “turned upside down” by empowering its staff³. Similarly, when QMS had been applied to the library at the University of Michigan, it was held that empowerment and autocratic forms of leadership occupy two extremes of the ‘leadership continuum’ (Riggs, 1995: 233, Figure 5.1),

³ The language and approach described by Fitch *et al.* (1993) is similar to Morgan and Murgatroyd’s (1994) conception of a QMS structure as an ‘inverted pyramid’ (p. 16). In the traditional conception of management, management is seen to occupy the apex of a triangle with the employees forming the base and viewed as supporters of what management is striving for. In QMS philosophy the pyramid is inverted as customers are put at the apex of the triangle, closely supported by workers who are, in turn, supported by senior management.

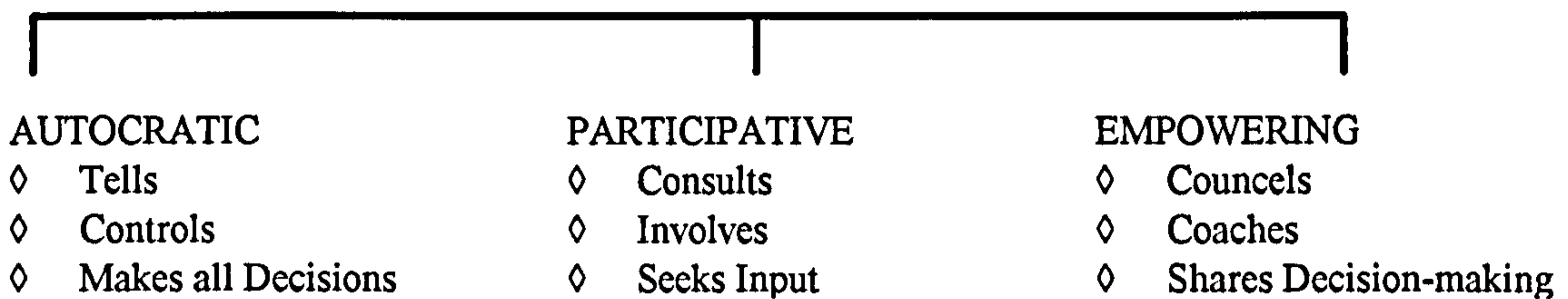


Figure 5.1: The Leadership Continuum

While there was agreement that participation and involvement were the hallmarks of their approach to quality at most of the QMS LIS, the cumulative evidence demonstrated that this takes place within a strict management agenda, thus confirming Magjuka and Baldwin's (1991) prognosis that employee participation and involvement programmes are not founded in the interest of 'workplace democracy' but are themselves devices that serve the interest of management,

We do suggest ideas but the QIPs [Quality Improvement Projects] have to be rubber stamped by the Chief beforehand...
(Professional, Library D)

Another respondent dismissed the notion that her personal responsibility had increased as a flatter management structure was being advanced,

I don't actually dispute that we are given more say since the QITs were set up, but I do despise those who say that there is no hierarchy anymore. That's just way off the mark.
(Paraprofessional, Library E)

Similar tensions were however perceptible in the non-QMS LIS, for instance, one respondent believed that a suggestion scheme just monitored employees' attitudes to changes which had already been planned,

We've had the scheme for as long as I can remember... I think your ideas are read, but a lot of the decisions have already been made [by senior management]... so you always feel that you're chirping from the sidelines anyway.

(Paraprofessional, Library H)

In conclusion, in relation to Riggs' leadership continuum, when staff are involved, the emphasis at most of the QMS and non-QMS LIS was on consultation rather than a responsibility for decision-making. The experiences were therefore reflective of White's (1985) definition of consultative management in libraries. This has been characterised as an attempt to imbue top-level managers with the responsibility for decisions while allowing other employees to *assist* in decision-making through an expression of their ideas (*ibid.*)⁴. In this investigation this was evident in Library A's approach to ISO 9000, which invited staff to comment on a draft version of a procedures manual. General feelings of satisfaction, with the manner in which ISO 9000 had been introduced there, underlined Minkoff's (1992) assumption that "people support what they create", and Towler's (1993) belief that,

Librarians in today's workforce are seeking a chance to participate and want a greater say in decisions that affect them on the job; they want to be recognised (p. 98).

We can surmise that the experiences at the QMS LIS reflect a more sober assessment of QMS that involvement is largely confined to the operational processes of the LIS, "[that are] dictated by customer requirements" (Wilkinson *et al.*, 1991: 30) rather than the wider issue of LIS strategy. It is asserted by Bass (1990) that the above forms of consultative decision-making are more likely to be accepted by those affected by it and may be associated with higher levels of satisfaction and lead to a higher quality of decisions.

⁴ According to Wilkinson (1997), this is also the realistic appraisal of empowerment for, in practice, it is usually viewed as a form of employee involvement, designed by management to generate commitment and enhance employee contributions to the organisation (p. 45).

Staff involvement is fundamental to maintaining the impetus in quality initiatives (Melling, 1996b). The more successful QMS LIS were able to involve staff at the beginning of the process and have feedback mechanisms in place that elicited their thoughts and feelings as the system and processes were being shaped. These methods were validated by evidence from an alternative scenario at Library C. By contrast to the other QMS LIS a lack of employee affiliation toward QMS was underlined by the discovery that participation and involvement was in a fragmentary state,

I had been involved in the first Steering Group [on TQM] but we haven't met in quite a while...

(Professional, Library C)

Or by the revelation that there was an existence of a culture which excluded certain sections of staff,

*Can you reflect on your experiences of participation within the library in recent times?*⁵

Our participation, by that I mean the other library assistants, has never really been that good. I can't really say that it has improved of late.

(Paraprofessional, Library C)

Further testimonies from all levels of staff at Library C, including middle management, corroborated the appraisal that the momentum of QMS had faltered resulting from a lack of communication (see Chapter Six) and involvement. However, the level of participation at the other QMS LIS was not without fault. Although practices varied from LIS to LIS, it became apparent that there was a

⁵ The question 'Can you reflect on your experiences of *participation in recent times?*' was put to the interviewee, instead of 'Can you reflect on your experiences *since TQM was introduced here?*' This was because the respondent indicated that he had no knowledge of TQM or that it had been introduced to the library. In such cases, jargon was avoided during the course of the interview.

correlation between status and participation; those respondents who had no recollection of being involved in QMS implementation or the various quality-related teams tended to be paraprofessional members of staff. Even with the existence of QMS, a sense of self estrangement was felt by some as accounts were given to the investigator that employees were not always granted the discretion to develop services,

Overall, this library has a great reputation within the university. But I still think that there are a lot of people, like me, who are denied, or unable, to make any worthwhile contribution to the development of the services here.

(Paraprofessional, Library E)

In conclusion, as far as academic LIS experiences are concerned, the findings emphatically question the claim that,

[QMS] looks likely to institutionalise participation on a permanent basis and involve managerial employees as well as office and shop floor staff, who now have more opportunities to participate in decisions.

(Hill, 1991: 541)

Participation was not universally welcomed. According to some respondents, the 'quality teams' were viewed as an irritant and "eating into time, when [they] could be serving the public!" (Professional, Library E), or as the same respondent later recounted,

There was a time when TQM was referred to as NABM.

What is that?

Not Another Bloody Meeting!

(Professional, Library E)

There were isolated indications of restlessness regarding the growing irregularity of the quality related team and project meetings. This was evident in the anxiety

felt by one respondent that suggestions for improvement from staff were “in decline” (Middle Manager, Library D),

I do worry about things as they stand. We are possibly the victims of our own success. Everyone was enthusiastic at first and a lot was achieved, but there's been something of a 'Mexican Wave' effect of late. I've noticed that people don't put forward ideas on things to improve, as they did before, so there are fewer QIPs than before. I can see everything petering out in the not so distant future...

(Middle Manager, Library D)

In the LIS literature, a similar trajectory was indicated at the Georgia Tech Library, where “the initial flurry [of suggestions] gradually reduced to a trickle” (Stuart and Drake, 1993: 133). However, this is dealt with in a cursory manner as the literature fails to gauge the perceptions of employees when quality-related team and project work is in decline. In this study, there were signs of frustration and cynicism by one paraprofessional at Library E who believed that “[The Quality Improvement] Team discusses anything but quality nowadays.” Overall, this was one indication that the quality momentum was descending during the course of the fieldwork.

While there was a solitary feeling that the move towards a participative style of management engendered by QMS was an attempt by senior management to “ingratiate themselves” to the staff “without any real substance” (Paraprofessional, Library E), as a framework for motivation, there were identifiable benefits of QMS. The focus on quality processes had invigorated previous forms of employee involvement, such as the suggestion scheme. It was intimated that the staff suggestions, like other suggestions from users, were “answered promptly” (Middle Manager, Library B), thus generating greater confidence in the process. Being a member of the QC at Library D appeared to have great symbolism to the interviewees. As mentioned in Chapter Four (“The Meaning of Quality

Management'), it was argued by some respondents that QMS had created a collective sense of purpose, or *esprit de corps*, and the feeling "that everyone [was] solidly behind improving the library service" (Professional, Library D). Being involved in the QCs had served to embellish this feeling of pride and solidarity. Such feelings correspond with Colin Marshall's [Chief Executive of British Airways] view that a greater sense of pride is accrued when everyone participates in a quality improvement process (from comments cited in S. Smith, 1986: 82)⁶. The positive orientation towards QMS at Library D was underlined by the belief that involvement in QCs had harmonised workplace relationships, between professional and paraprofessional members of staff to one of 'high trust' as everyone was viewed to be of "equal rank" (Paraprofessional, Library D)⁷,

Crucially, we all work together now. There used to be a physical division between us: we would work at the counter on the ground floor, and [the professionals] would work upstairs in the offices. You occasionally said 'hello' to them in the morning, but only really saw them properly at the Christmas party.

(Paraprofessional, Library D)

Similar feelings were recited at other QMS LIS. For instance, the willingness by senior management to involve all members of staff was also the ascendant theme at Library B. In addition to divisions that may exist between professional and paraprofessional members of staff, the investigator uncovered further divisions between staff in smaller, site libraries and their colleagues in the 'main' LIS. As discussed in Chapter Three ('The Research Methodology'), in the interests of

⁶ According to Cole *et al.* (1995) the positive affiliation toward participation is also reflected in the attitude of senior management. They posit that the connection between organisational performance *and* participation, a hallmark of "a modern approach to quality" (p. 73), as opposed to "participation alone" will garner stronger support from above.

⁷ As this thesis will record, the issue of status in the LIS is an important one. However, in relation to workplace relationships, the feelings were not as strong as those recorded by Thapisa's (1989) study on paraprofessionals in academic libraries. In his account there is respondents spoke of an "almost Victorian style class structure... an apartheid based on qualifications rather than colour of skin" (p. 345).

uniformity, the study attempted to focus on the views of front line staff in the main LIS only; this was possible in all but one LIS, Library B. Here, it was ascertained that the introduction of QMS provided a stimulus to involve and to elicit the views and opinions of those members of staff who were, geographically, not within immediate reach of the Chief Librarian,

How would you assess your own participation since TQM was introduced?

It's greatly improved. In the past we've tended to be excluded, or certainly felt exclusion, from everyone else in the Main Library.

Why is that?

I don't know, it's just one of those things. It's like being in a backwater here, we're very low profile and don't get the same volume of people coming in I suppose. We used to hear about things a little later than the others, and I think there was a feeling that they [staff in the Main Library] had preferential treatment when it came to things such as training or when it came to applying for internal jobs. I know everyone here felt that way, including the professionals, but perhaps to varying degrees. For me, the main benefit of having TQM is the feeling that they [senior staff in the Main Library] are now interested in my views. If changes are to be made, you are, more or less, immediately consulted and informed.

And you can confirm that this was something you had not experienced before TQM?

Yes, I would say so...

The extension of participation in the workplace has repercussions on motivation. This assumption is expounded by Wilkinson and Willmott (1995) and Wilkinson *et al.* (1992; 1998) who propose that the concern of QMS to increase employee participation echoes the aspiration of 'neo-human relations' thinking. They cite the work espoused by McGregor's (1960) thesis which endorses the replacement of a reliance upon "external control", favoured by scientific management (Theory X), with a concern to tap intrinsic forms of motivation, (Theory Y) (see Chapter

Two, Section 2.3.1 'Assumptions of Motivation')⁸. Continuing this theme, the philosophy of systems like TQM is congruent with the QC movement that preceded it (Ishikawa, 1985)⁹. For instance, Sell and Mortola (1994) also make reference to McGregor's Theory Y, but also add that quality processes are also rooted in the human motivation need theories of Maslow and Herzberg. They view the quality framework as appealing to the highest level requirements for self-esteem and self-actualisation, in Maslow's terminology, and Herzberg's admonition that motivation is found in the work itself, especially if individuals feel their work is rewarding and their contributions are meaningful (*ibid.*: 35; see also Speakman, 1994: 54-55).

Although the evidence has suggested that the antipathy of 'professionalism versus paraprofessionalism' is not wholly transcended by QMS intervention, the focus on multi-disciplinary and cross-functional teamwork had engendered a mutual understanding of the various roles employees undertake in the LIS. This was borne out by the following views from a professional at a non-QMS LIS, and a paraprofessional at Library D,

I think a lot of resentment 'library assistants' have has stemmed from a misunderstanding of what we actually do in the library.
(Professional, Library G)

[Professionals] now appreciate that it can be hectic at the Counter Service Desk. They were invited to work with us for a week, so could see at first hand, how busy it can get, what we have to do in addition to issuing books... Altogether, it was a worthwhile exercise.

(Paraprofessional, Library D)

⁸ To recap, the Theory Y view contends that I given autonomy and responsibility, workers will respond in a highly committed and motivated way. These assumptions are contrasted with the 'traditional' Theory X view of workers, who are seen as essentially lazy and in need of close supervision and control (McGregor, 1960).

⁹ Shimabukuro (1983) has argued that the focus on Theory Y is a characteristic of Japanese management (p. 3)

This dichotomy has propelled the issue of participation into a wider context by certain sections of the quality movement. Oakland (1989), for instance, has conceptualised QMS as a 'quality chain' where workers are, in essence, "limbs in [this] chain" (Wilkinson and Willmott, 1994:7). Within this body politic, employees are required to view themselves, and their colleagues, as 'internal suppliers' and 'internal customers' (see Figure 5.1), or as Oakland (1989) states,

... each part must work properly together, recognising that every person and every activity affects, and in turn is affected by, others (p. 15).

The chain metaphor is reinforced by the BSI in their standard on TQM (BS 7850: Part One, 1992) which, in asserting that 'participation by all' is a fundamental concept of TQM, exclaimed that organisations must align themselves so that,

... the total strengths and abilities of all members of an organisation should be fully and effectively utilised, and they should be recognised as links in a chain.

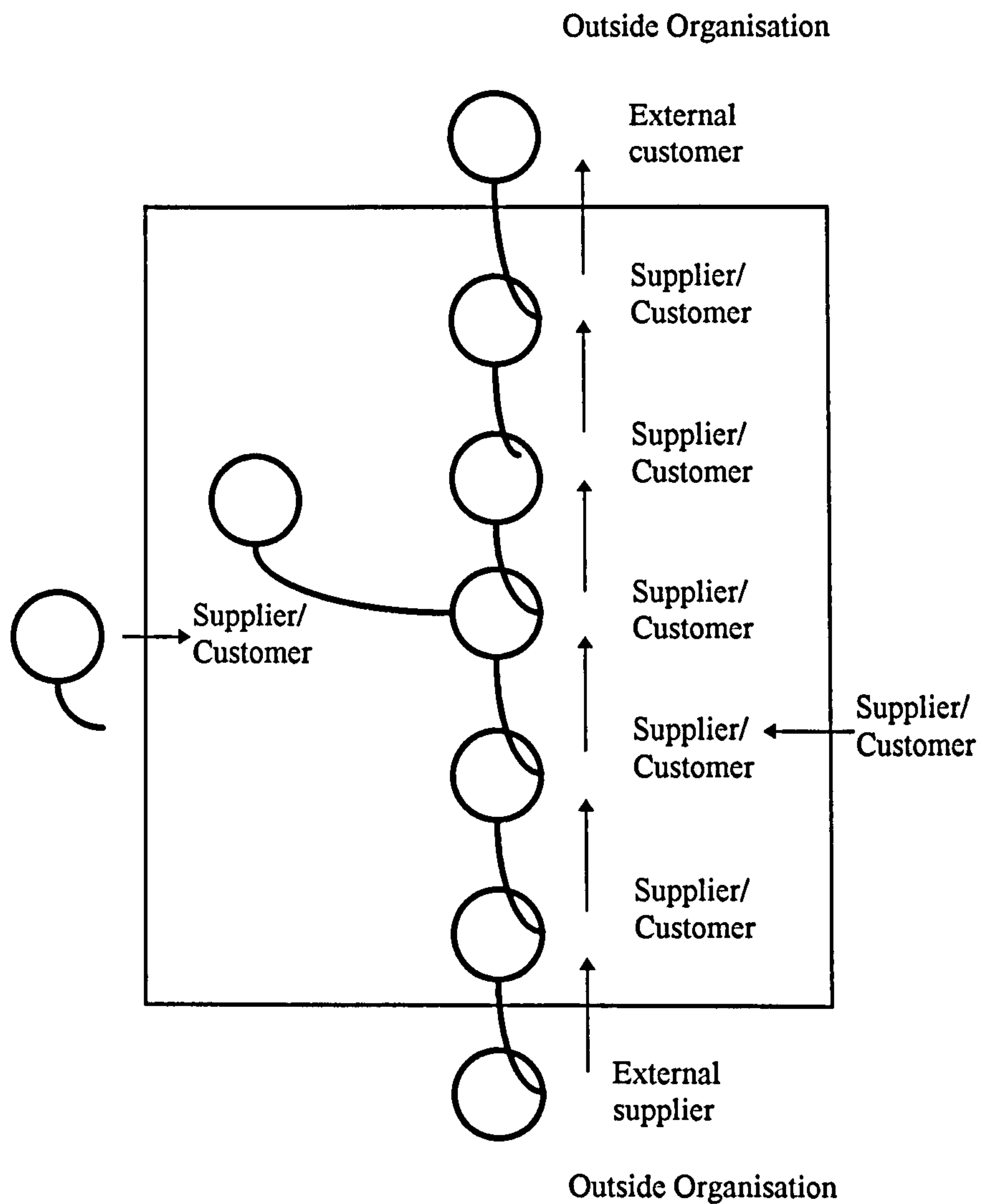


Figure 5.2: The Quality Chain

The basic premise of Oakland's model is that workers will receive work from their colleague (an 'internal supplier'). They may augment or add their contribution and then pass it on to their 'internal customer'. Through the use of a Quality Improvement Team (QIT) (see Library E below), the objective is to agree, and subsequently meet, the requirements of each internal customer, thereby forging a chain of quality which will end with the external customer. The process is

recounted by Radford (1992) in his observation of the use of TQC at Dunlop Tyres,

The [operative] considers the colleague who receives the partly processed material or product from him to be his personal customer whose satisfaction is every bit as vital as the end customer's (p. 170).

As demonstrated by the Harvard College Library's application of TQM (Clack, 1993), in organisational terms, the idea of the quality chain stimulates the principle of horizontal activity as the concern for 'quality' cuts across departments and divisions between functions, so cross-functional management becomes a key feature of QMS. A matrix organisational design presents an appropriate structure within which such activity can take place (Hill, 1995). In economic and ideological terms, it has been suggested that QMS can be presented as an 'internalisation of market relations' (Tuckman, 1995: 56, 59; see also Du Gay and Salaman, 1992: 619). Tuckman (1995) also argues that this is part of a broader hegemonic project as QMS commodifies social relations (p. 58). He proceeds to argue that this is congruent with New Right ideology which extols 'the market' as the only means of achieving quality (*ibid.*: 56, 59; see also Martinez Lucio and Kirkpatrick, 1995a, 1995b; Wilkinson and Willmott, 1995). The "quasi-market transactions" (Webb, 1995: 106) can be applied in an LIS setting. Martin (1993b), for instance, has illustrated how the quality chain may look in such an organisation (see Figure 5.3).

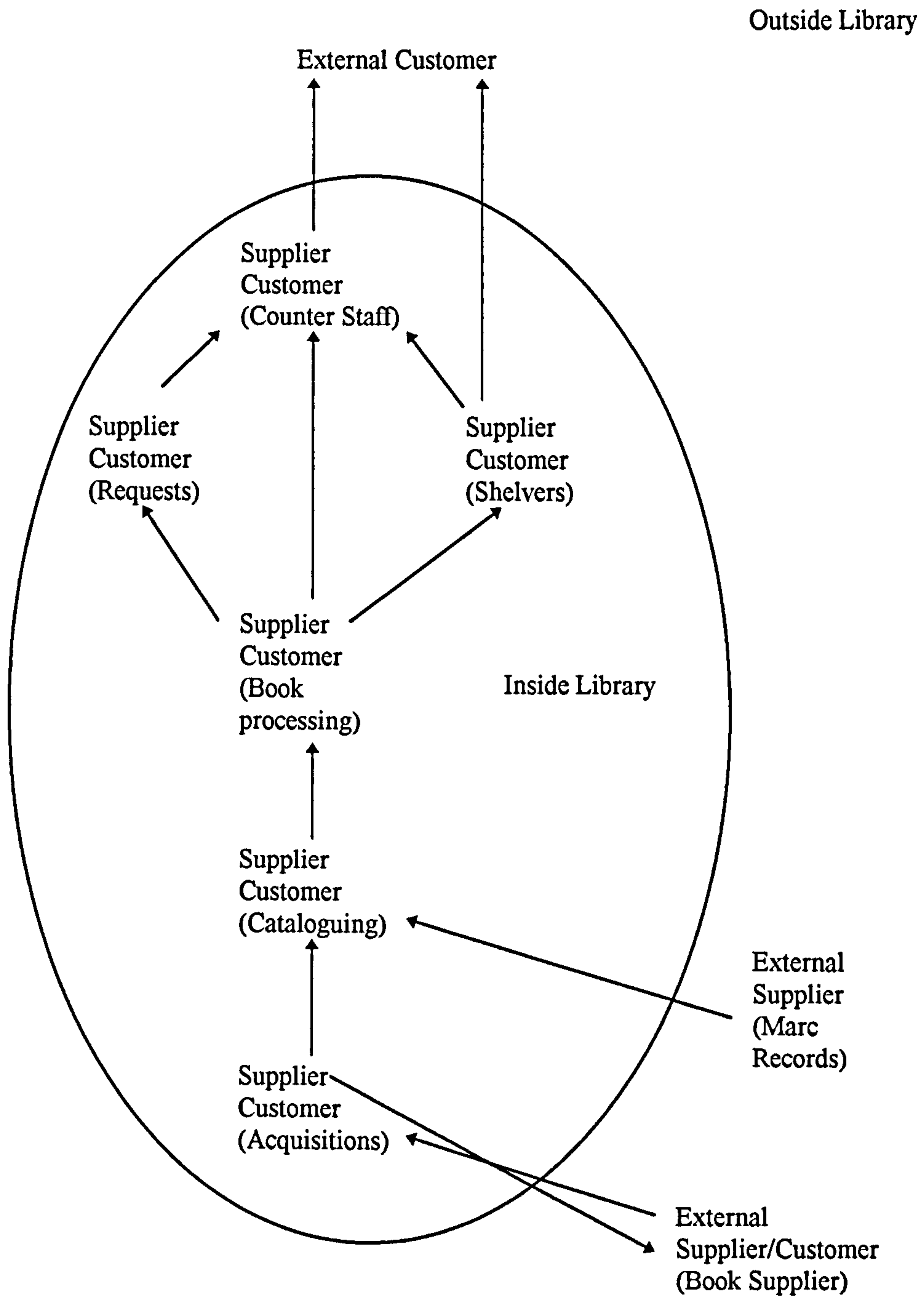


Figure 5.3: The Quality Chain in LIS

In theory the quality chain acts as a stimulant to the library and information worker to faithfully ponder how they can best serve their internal customer. Mortiboys and Oakland (1991; see also Oakland, 1989) have declared that each employee in the quality chain should interrogate every interface, by using the following framework:

Customers

- ◇ Who are my internal customers?
- ◇ What are their true requirements?
- ◇ How do I find out what their requirements are?
- ◇ Do I have the necessary capability to meet those requirements?
If not, what must I do about it?
- ◇ Do I continually meet the requirements? If not, what are the reasons?
- ◇ How do I monitor changes in requirements?

Suppliers

- ◇ Who are my internal suppliers?
- ◇ What are my true requirements?
- ◇ How do I communicate my requirements?
- ◇ Do my suppliers have the capability to measure and meet the requirements?
- ◇ How do I inform them of changes in the requirements?

Thus, the theory posits that no internal customer should be the recipient of faulty or incomplete work emanating from poor quality work of their internal suppliers. The above criteria of interrogation has ramifications on the learning culture in the LIS and explains why many interviewees in Chapter Four ('The Meaning of Quality Management') were quick to note that there was a solidarity and consistency of purpose to the point when "everyone [was] moving in the same direction" (Paraprofessional, Library D) and that "[they] all work for a common cause" (Middle Manager, Library B). The quality chain stimulates LIS employees to learn from each other and, the group-process heuristics that quality teams are

imbued with, increase the chances that the experiences and skills of individuals are exploited.

On the other side of the coin, Oakland's (1989) quality chain metaphor is apposite to Tuckman (1995) because it represents manacles as well as links (p. 58). This was the experience of one professional, in particular, at Library E, where the introduction of TQM, and rhetoric of participation, appeared to intensify surveillance and demotivation. The institutionalisation of teamwork by the introduction of TQM was perhaps more profound at Library E than the other QMS LIS¹⁰. For instance, when asked 'What does TQM mean to you?', two respondents made reference to the QITs, instead of trying to define TQM or explaining the philosophy of the system,

Absolutely nothing! I know there are these 'quality improvement teams' but that's about it.

(Paraprofessional, Library E)

Well we have QITs.

Prompt: What are QITs?

They are 'Quality Improvement Teams'. Someone may decide one day, that 'this' needs looking into and sends the idea around the library. We think about it in the meantime, then in the staff meeting we decide if it is worth examining. A group may volunteer to get together and see how the problem may be tackled. I think it works quite well really. I'm certainly satisfied.

(Professional, Library E)

However, there were competing views over the nature and viability of QITs as the above positive assessment was contested by a disgruntled colleague,

¹⁰ In Brocka and Brocka's (1992) estimation "without teamwork Quality Management is finished before it can start" (p. 11; see also Hill, 1991).

I'm not too enamoured with the QITs.

Why do you say that?

I suppose it's because I've shown my frustration so many times before... you see I have this reputation of being something of a 'rebel' or 'black sheep'. There are too many people here who unwaveringly follow management directives, without a willingness to question their motives. I'm not, and never will be, a 'yes' person.

(Professional, Library E)

Upon further qualification, she reported that the QITs had served to develop "cliques" within the library and create divisions, in contrast to the sensation of harmony and high trust exemplified at Library D. This points to another problem for, as highlighted by Redman and Mathews (1998: 70), the quality gurus fail to address issues of personal conflicts in groups¹¹. While her colleagues reported that being part of the QIT was a voluntary exercise, this professional claimed that she had been "coerced" and later qualified her statement¹²,

The thing is, you have to be seen to be taking part, or at least take an interest in QITs. When they were first brought in I just carried on with my duties only to discover that I was the only person actually working in the library one morning; everyone else was in the training room. That's what makes me ill at ease about QITs, because if you're not there, you're accused of being bitter and frustrated or unnecessarily disruptive.

From this account we can conclude that some QMS regimes may not include those whose views or personality go 'against the grain' or deviate from other

¹¹ Also, according to Marchington (1995) conflict in groups has tended to be trivialised in the general literature on participation and empowerment.

¹²In QC research, Tang *et al.* (1987) discovered that the voluntary nature of QC participation will affect performance and motivation. In a study of the application of QCs at a manufacturing company, the authors discovered that circles that were initiated by management and with compulsory attendance were less effective than those QCs with voluntary attendance. The experiences at Library E also demonstrate that some academic LIS had identified and pursued QMS in a manner that deviated from the rhetoric. For instance, voluntary membership was a feature of the QC movement; compulsory membership a feature of systems like TQM (Wilkinson *et al.*, 1998).

peoples', ostensibly management's, values and beliefs. There are many issues at stake. First, in sociological terms, an interesting parallel can be drawn alongside Dawson's (1995) account of the application of TQM in a multi-cultural workforce at Pirelli Adelaide (Australia). By accepting QMS, the organisation embarked on a course which saw them establish 'cultural homogeneity' in the workplace. This was set in motion by the fact that the dominant Anglo-Australian culture eclipsed the views and beliefs of the non-English speaking employees, who consequently remained 'outside' TQM (Dawson, 1995). Second, in ideological terms, as indicated in Chapter Two (Section 2.1, 'Quality'), peer pressure may be more readily executed because of the positive connotations with quality. With the appealing principles of consensus and participation, a further legitimising device is created as each employee is charged to inspect and control the quality of work,

... it is a form of involvement in which the agenda is said to be dictated by customer requirements. Therefore employees are immersed in the 'logic' of the market and thus more likely to be convinced of the legitimacy of company decisions.

(Wilkinson *et al.*, 1991: 30)

The above view is supported by an illuminating account of management control and intensification of labour, under a JIT/TQM regime, by Delbridge *et al.* (1992). It was discovered that the tacit acceptance of revised responsibilities and tasks, created by teamworking, coerced workers to become increasingly accountable both to management and to each other for their individual performance. The authors maintain that a simple means of direct control over the labour process was presented to management because of the natural visibility of the production process that was offered in such a highly synchronised JIT factory. Like Wilkinson *et al.* (1991), they posit that the market conditions exert a more subtle application of peer pressure, in the form of colleagues in the assembly line assuming the role of customers, by cajoling each other to maintain performance. In their conclusion, it is asserted that teamworking, in this instance, provides a

'more corrupting form of labour control' as employees are denied the space to exercise counter-controls over the pace of their work and task execution (*ibid.*: 98; see also Delbridge, 1995: 814),

... the ultimate goal of management under a JIT/TQM regime must be recognised to be 'Total Management Control'.
(Delbridge *et al.*, 1992: 105)

These accounts are not unique as Dawson and Webb (1989) and Sewell and Wilkinson (1992) also arrive at similar conclusions that senior management are the chief beneficiaries of QMS. Delbridge *et al.* (1992; see also Delbridge, 1995; Delbridge and Turnbull, 1992) also contend that systems like TQM, combined with JIT, have the propensity to intensify work by eliminating 'non-productive time' and increasing 'self surveillance' and 'culture of blame' in the form of peer pressure,

... workers are encouraged to participate in the process of surveillance which makes it possible to trace faults to individuals... a whole system of self-subordination begins to develop... in which employees 'spy' on each other and report any deviant behaviour.

(Delbridge and Turnbull, 1992: 65)

In their exploration of Taylorism and TQM regimes, Boje and Winsor (1993) argue that self-disciplining peer groups of workers represents a more compelling method of employee control than hierarchical control¹³. On the evidence of the experiences of the professional at Library E, it can be assumed that management control is extended by the need of the individual in question to resist being a "black sheep" for fear of creating an adversarial relationship with her peers and

¹³ McArdle *et al.* (1995), borrowing Zuboff's (1989) use of Foucault's 'panopticon' concept, add that the omnipresence of management can be extended by the use of electronic technologies in quality processes (McArdle *et al.*, 1995: 169). Within this context, it is worth noting the Eclipse Project, funded by the Libraries Programme of the Commission of the European Communities, which set out to determine how technology could be employed with QMS in order to improve the overall effectiveness and efficiency of LIS (Brophy, 1997a).

senior management. Wilkinson *et al.* (1997) and Sewell and Wilkinson (1992) conclude that participation in a QMS environment can be viewed as those who believe it leads to ‘empowerment’, on one hand, and ‘emasculatation’, on the other (Wilkinson, 1997 *et al.*),

Bouquets	Brickbats
Education	Indoctrination
Empowerment	Emasculatation
Liberating	Controlling
Delayering	Intensification
Teamwork	Peer Group Pressure
Responsibility	Surveillance
Post-Fordism	Neo-Fordism
Blame Free Culture	Identification of Errors
Commitment	Compliance

Table 5.1: Participation and QMS: Contrasting perspectives

In ideological terms, by conceptualising QMS as a quality chain, and constantly thinking about the means to satisfy an internal customer, it can also be argued that management is confiscating workers’ freedom of thought and subordinating their subjectivity (Gramsci, 1971: 309-310; Tuckman, 1995: 74-75)¹⁴. While it should be stressed that the following comments were received from a professional who was generally enthusiastic about ISO 9000, the phraseology “engaged in the thought of” may affirm this ‘subordination’,

¹⁴ The manner in which employees conspire in their own ‘subjectification’ by tacitly, and uncritically, accepting the values of their ‘superiors’ can be traced to Marx and Engels’ (1964) essay on ideology and consciousness, and Althusser’s (1971) ‘ideological state apparatus’ thesis. Meanwhile, non-Marxists, like Durkheim (1992: 47) contend that such coercive qualities are just as likely to be liberating to the individual,

The coercive power that we attribute to the social fact represents so small a part of its totality that it can equally well display the opposite characteristic. For while institutions bear down upon us, we nevertheless cling to them; they place constraints upon us, and yet we find satisfaction in the way they function, in that very constraint.

What are the benefits, or disadvantages, of ISO 9000 to your library?

Because we actually have TQ here, you don't rest on your laurels. You're never complacent. You become 'proactive not reactive'. I find that it keeps you engaged in the thought of meeting the needs of the user, beyond their immediate requirements like: how do we meet their needs again? Or, can we naturally assume they will be satisfied again? If not, how do we improve [up]on the service? I think it's something that we may only have considered in passing before.

(Professional, Library A)

However, a more optimistic stance has been occupied by Hill (1995). In dismissing the Foucaultian references, he asserts,

People... are not cultural dopes, they can judge such ideological appeals for what they are and test the exhortations of top management against reality (p. 50).

In other words, employees will not subscribe to the rhetoric in an unconditional manner. Their support of participatory regimes in the organisation is dependent on trust in senior management and the perceived benefits to themselves.

While increased participation may be viewed as a "self-evident, unequivocal good" (Wilkinson and Willmott, 1995: 12), the quality gurus assume there will be comprehensive compliance and do not entertain the notion that staff may *not* choose to participate (Wilkinson and Willmott, 1994).

Finally, in psychological terms, in their assessment of stress in 'UK PLC' during the mid-1990s, some academics were convinced that stressful conditions were being intensified by a culture of 'presenteeism', a state where "individuals vie to demonstrate 'organisational commitment' in an effort to avoid the second or third tranche of redundancies" (Cooper, 1996: 15). The prognosis that employees were

feeling compelled to be seen, by senior colleagues, to be working extra hours or taking on more responsibility is supported by the professional at Library E's insistence that she "had to be seen to be taking part." The issue was particularly pervasive as the sense of job insecurity became commonplace during the time of the fieldwork (*The Independent*, 1996:18).

While the rhetoric of empowerment features prominently in the QMS literature, critics like Wilkinson *et al.* (1998) have observed that the quality gurus do not address the issue of 'disempowerment'. There is an assumption that if subordinates are empowered, the power dynamic within the organisation will be altered leading to the possible diminution of middle manager influence (Price and Chen, 1995). Commentators in the LIS literature have also sensed the possibility of 'turbulence',

TQM can be expected to produce turbulence. A rigid hierarchical institution, and most libraries are more rigid than they think, can be severely upset when staff at all levels are empowered for the first time; the whole structure of command is threatened, senior managers may find it very hard to adapt, and middle managers may find they are not necessary at all. Unwillingness to accept radical change is a reason why TQM programmes fail.

(Line, 1994: 223)

Many middle managers feel that they are the most threatened by a "flat organisation". There needs to be a way to best utilise their knowledge and skills without jeopardising their standing in the organisation.

(Frank, 1993: 179)

Such concerns have been supported by a case study at Thames Water, where it was reported that middle managers were suspicious about the effects on their own roles when a TQM pilot scheme was introduced in 1992 (Joss and Kogan, 1995). Middle managers at Thames Water felt 'threatened' as lower levels of staff were

given the responsibility to solve local problems and push for changes in the process. It was noted that the whole ethos of management had changed to one of “support” and “facilitation” from one of “supervision” and “control”. This new style of management was not something the middle managers at Thames Water could readily accept. Their reactions are similar to the ‘stiff resistance’ of middle managers, cited in a Business Intelligence (1995) report on an offshoot of TQM, Business Process Re-engineering (BPR). The challenge for organisations is to strike a proper balance between giving middle management some authority as well as empowering employees (Price and Chen, 1995). The issue of middle management authority in a QMS setting has been addressed by Schuler and Harris (1992). They hypothesise that as middle managers’ traditional go-between role in implementing and monitoring instructions from senior management disappear, they need to develop new roles and responsibilities. When participation becomes more pervasive middle management should not be redundant in a QMS environment, but instead turn their attention to providing leadership and support to other employees and, in the process, develop new skills and attitudes (*ibid.*). As they “practice fast-paced ‘horizontal management’” (Peters, 1988: 369), Frank (1993) has argued that middle managers must be prepared to build a portfolio of skills, like counseling, coaching and mentoring as they collaborate with their staff. He refutes the feelings of anxiety felt by middle managers, when authority is ‘lost’, but believes that a form of intrinsic motivation will accrue as middle managers “watch their employees grow and develop” (p. 179) under their tutelage. Hill (1995) maintains that far from being disempowered, middle managers can develop into key actors as soon as they realise that QMS can be adapted to serve their own career interests. This will be forthcoming if they display competence and are then taken seriously by senior management (*ibid.*).

The evidence from this investigation suggested that there was little concern from middle management on the increased levels of participation. When asked to

comment on the impact QMS had made to their personal authority in the workplace, a typical response was, “I can’t say I’ve noticed any difference at all” (Middle Manager, Library B). A contrary opinion was advanced by a few interviewees, “if anything my authority has increased since TQM” (Middle Manager, Library D). Upon qualification it was noted that extra responsibilities had been undertaken in “coördinating” QIPs and “reporting [their] progress to senior management.” As Morgan and Murgatroyd (1994) have suggested, when participatory forms of management are introduced, it can be seen that “[middle managers have] a distinct place in quality improvement as they stand on the vertical and horizontal planes [of the organisation]” (p. 24). One middle manager endorsed decentralisation and argued for “staff to be at the centre and not at the fringes of the library” (Middle Manager, Library B) and was subsequently less concerned with the possible diminution of her authority, “for as long as people are motivated [this way], it makes management a lot simpler.” A ‘moral dimension’ to her reasoning was later advanced,

I think we’ve all been there, we know how frustrating it can be not to be able to really change things in any purposeful way.

In conclusion, a shift from individual decision making to a more collective and collaborative style was universally welcomed. In endorsement of the investigator’s earlier suggestions that empowerment was not truly realised, the feeling that the power dynamic had remained intact was underlined by the following reminder, “ultimately, we do still have to make the hard decisions” (Middle Manager, Library A).

5.2 Conclusion

QMS is more likely to be successfully implemented if front line staff are involved in its development, consulted about their views and encouraged to develop a sense

of commitment to the system. Given the right conditions, employees in the investigation welcomed the opportunity to contribute to quality decisions. However, the enlisting of 'total' staff participation in the development of 'quality services' in academic LIS is not a new phenomenon, and has already been summarised by Frank (1985; see also Marchant, 1982). The investigation findings show that where QMS does depart from previous LIS literature is in its elevation of 'total participation' to a level of greater formality and seriousness to attention.

As a framework for motivation, a common set of behaviours around QMS were identified, including a propensity of staff: to learn from others through collective problem-solving and to add their contribution and expertise to the development of the services. Although other salient benefits, including the development of high trust relationship between colleagues and greater harmony in the workplace were also identified, this differed from LIS to LIS. Paraprofessionals were more likely to voice apprehension when the issue of participation and involvement was raised. The issue of 'non-involvement' for such members of staff (e.g. in training and development, staff appraisal etc.) is a recurring theme during the remainder of this thesis. By examining the practices of the non-QMS LIS, there was a relationship between the personality of the Chief Librarian and participatory forms of management. Chief Librarians, who were by nature charismatic and able to communicate with their staff, were more likely to involve their staff and elicit general support, rather than cynicism, for any participatory initiatives.

While the literature on empowerment is ubiquitous in later prescriptions of QMS, the investigation was able to identify the manner in which it had been identified and pursued by the QMS LIS. The cumulative evidence suggested that a more sober conception of empowerment (i.e. that there is no *de jure* sharing of authority and power) was the norm.

The experiences at Library E has also underlined the considerable ambiguity of QMS. While the rhetoric is about increased participation and involvement, there is also a strong emphasis on reinforcing management control, or “subtle manipulation” (Bouckaert, 1995: 22), by enlisting peer pressure and the legitimating device of sensitivity to the customer. This ‘management by stress’ (Delbridge and Turnbull, 1992) serves to limit its potential as a framework for motivation and reinforces a management style that is rooted in Taylorism (Boje and Winsor, 1993), or as the psychologist Pat Guinan (1995) commented,

One begins to think ‘totalitarianism’ instead of ‘total’ [Quality Management] and remembers with a shudder B.F. Skinner’s *Beyond Freedom and Dignity* and social engineering (p. 459).

The following chapter will examine the nature of communication, or preliminary phase of the QMS participative process (Wilkinson, 1994: 279).

Chapter Six

Communication

The management like to *think* they communicate well with us, but from my point of view, it's often infrequent and the information we get is sometimes inaccurate anyway.

(Paraprofessional, Library E)

Organisational communication is a powerful influence on employee motivation, because information is power.

(Rooks, 1988: 68)

This chapter will outline the nature of communication in both QMS and non-QMS LIS. It will determine whether communication had been transformed by QMS intervention and examine its role before and during the QMS programme. Downward forms of communication like the 'team briefing', has been viewed as a form of 'involvement' (Marchington *et al.*, 1992), however the investigator subscribes to the view held by Pike and Barnes' (1996) that,

...many people confuse communications systems, such as team briefings, with involvement. Involvement, however, is more than just the exchange of information. It is the gradual but radical delegation of control to those closest to the process itself (p. 99)¹.

Consequently many of the insights contained in this chapter have already been highlighted in the previous chapter, as interviewees were asked to provide an assessment of communication after the subjects of involvement and participation, feedback and workplace relationships had been discussed. Further insights were also gained by the questions, How was QMS introduced to you? and, How is QMS sustained in your organisation?

6.1 Introduction

Classic communication models, such as those presented by Shannon and Weaver (1948) and Schramm (1953), determine effective communication to be the result of a common understanding between the communicator and the receiver. It is argued that communication sustains the motivation of staff if managers provide relevant information, convey good practices and generate interest, ideas and awareness in the organisation (Lynch, 1980; Millmore and Thornhill, 1996: 28). In short, understanding and attitudes in the workplace are developed by the way messages are relayed and received. It therefore follows that poor communication can “serve as a strong demotivator” (Rooks, 1988: 74), and can result in a lack of the required commitment needed for QMS (Brophy *et al.*, 1993; Oakland, 1993), or as one information professional exclaimed, “employees will not support TQM unless they are brought into a dialogue” (Secor, 1995: 91). In a QMS context, Oakland (1995) has concluded that failure to communicate effectively, and the confusion generated by a

¹ See also Wilkinson (1994), who asserts that briefings are the first element of employee involvement.

lack of guidance and stimulus, will result in declining quality levels. He concludes by asserting that “(Communication) is possibly the most neglected part of many organisational operations” (Oakland, 1995: 307). During the time of the fieldwork, this assumption had been supported in relation to communication strategies in the UK. For instance, BT Forum’s (1997) *National Communication Survey* reported that a ‘breakdown’ in communication in the country was commonplace. In response to the findings that: a majority of the employees surveyed felt that they were seldom given clear instructions; their ideas were often ignored and; there was a propensity to fail to consult employees before major decisions were made, the *Survey* recommended senior managers to develop their own communication skills. The same survey also determined that there were wider sociological issues and discovered that poor communication was endemic at home as well as in the office.

6.2 Investigation Findings

The issue of communication is central to QMS. For instance in the guide to TQM by the BSI (BS 7850: Part 1: 1992), it is asserted that, it is imperative for an organisation to establish good communications *internally* and externally with suppliers and customers. The BSI proceed to argue that communication should be planned both vertically, between manager and staff, through all levels and horizontally between suppliers and customers, whether internal or external to the organisation (p. 9). This is noticeable on the, wider, meso and macro-levels of QMS (Bouckaert, 1995) with the increased emphasis on accountability in public sector organisations, and the simultaneous emphasis on transparency and openness. It is argued that open communication is vital to this end (HMSO, 1991a). At the height of the quality revolution, public sector organisations were compelled to communicate service, or performance, standards to their ‘customers’. This was demonstrated by organisations

like British Rail in the early 1990s (Pendleton, 1995), who were charged with the responsibility of displaying performance standards on station concourses and platforms. As indicated in Chapter Four ('The Meaning of Quality Management'), it was reported that there was a belief that QMS had resulted in greater communication and consultation with the LIS users.

What do you consider to be the main benefits, or disadvantages, of TQM to your library?

Well, one of the tangible benefits, I've noticed, is that there is even greater communication between ourselves and our user. This, I think, has led to a greater understanding of [our users'] needs...
(Professional, Library B)

We certainly listen to our users... and, I would have to say, a lot more than we used to...
(Professional, Library A)

In contrast to before? I think everyone feels they can have a 'say' in things. It's not as 'closed' as it used to be.
(Paraprofessional, Library D)

The information points are much better than before, as is the provision of promotional material on the library itself.
(Professional, Library D)

Equally pervasive, in both non-QMS and QMS LIS was the ubiquity of the 'mission statement', communicating to users what could be expected from their LIS, and viewed by one respondent as "potent communication" and "very public display" of the LIS's commitment to ensure users received a 'good' quality service (Professional, Library A). Again, in the same LIS, another respondent believed that the quality manuals, which contained a "quality statement", communicated to staff and users alike that "everyone is working to these ends. [And] They are set 'in stone' for all to see" (Professional, Library A). In the following statement, a middle manager in a

QMS LIS explained how the 'vision statement' was used in relation to addressing users' concerns,

What are the benefits, or disadvantages, of TQM to the user?

... We've actually operated a student suggestion scheme for as long as I can remember... Although many of the comments we receive are complimentary, it's only natural that we do get a few students who are less satisfied with things in the library. In those instances, we not only take note of their complaint, but write back to them and explain, *in relation to the library's vision statement*, how we aim to rectify the problem, if it is at all feasible.

(Middle Manager, Library B)

This corroborates Lynch *et al.*'s (1993) image of communication in an environment where "library and information services are taking a more market-driven and customer-focused view of their work" (pp. 153-154). Taking Deming's (1982a) 'first point' into consideration, an organisation must create a 'Constancy of Purpose', and this is often embodied in the mission statement. It is argued by Mackey and Mackey (1993: 9) that if the constancy of purpose is to be effective, it must be disseminated and understood by all levels of staff in the library (p. 9).

From the above prognosis it is maintained that QMS may advance the communication culture in organisations. This is articulated by Hannagan (1998) who believes that the philosophy of QMS, which is designed to maximise the potential and actual contribution of *every* employee, stimulates managers to place considerable emphasis to communication. Similarly, in the case of the Harvard College Library, TQM was viewed as a approach to foster strong peer communication and clearer communication between functional departments emanating from the growing decentralisation in the library (Clack, 1993: 32). Perhaps unsurprisingly those respondents who had identified good forms of participatory management, in Chapter Five ('Participation

and Involvement'), were generally more complimentary about communication in their workplace, believing and subscribing to the notion that participation is about "information sharing" (Wall and Lischeron, 1997: 37),

Because we're involved in a lot more of the decisions than before,
there *is* a lot more information available to us...

(Paraprofessional, Library D)

How do QITs work? We decide which issue to tackle together.
We collect as much information as we can and distribute that to
every person on the team...

(Professional, Library E)

The above comments correlate with Hannigan's (1998) assumptions that the progress away from a structure based on command and authority from the top, with limited and routine tasks at the bottom, has created a re-evaluation of the way organisations communicate internally. Communication, in a QMS environment, is therefore viewed as a mechanism by which managers promote understanding and awareness and secure involvement through a free flow of information in order to create cohesion and mutual commitment on the part of all members of the organisation (pp. 185-186; see also the case study of Canon, cited in PA Consulting, 1988: 32). Thus, the emphasis is on two-way, open communication rather than the issuing of job instructions and policy statements to staff and then monitoring what happens (*ibid.*; Kehoe, 1995). The comments from those members of staff who had an optimistic view of participation also affirms Line's (1994) view that at an operational level, in a QMS environment there are many potential benefits to the LIS *vis-à-vis* communication, stemming from the concept of the internal and external customer. As indicated in the preceding chapter, librarians in a QMS environment are compelled to operate to a mindset which requires them to identify who their suppliers are, and what they themselves really require of them (*ibid.*, see also Oakland, 1989). They must

therefore engage in ways of communicating their requirements to their colleagues ('internal' suppliers) and discover whether their suppliers have the ability and capacity to meet them (Line, 1994: 220).

It was noticeable that a variety of methods of communication were utilised to implement and sustain QMS. Oral communication, particularly with line managers, was by far the most frequent form of communication. The increased exploitation of information and communication technology (ICT) was a common denominator in *all* the LIS in the investigation. The main benefit of ICT is that it allows management are to impart information to a wider audience at a fraction of the time. Not everyone had access to e-mail, as demonstrated by its conspicuous absence in the conversations with paraprofessionals, but its use has not supplanted other, 'traditional' forms of communication, like notice or bulletin boards, newsletters and verbal communication, either face-to-face or team briefings. However, the exploitation and advances of ICT in academic LIS do have a powerful symbolic value, as exemplified by the comments of one respondent who felt that the use of ICT was evidence of the LIS "moving forward" (Professional, Library H). In his philosophical erudition of communication, Kippendorf (1984) observed that while organisations may increasingly use forms of digital communication, communication among people is not dependent on technology but rather on forces *in* people and their surroundings. Hence, managers must create the conditions, or culture, that stimulate the free flow of communication. This was being achieved, in part, by the extension of 'staff briefings'. Every LIS had some form of forum where staff were gathered together to be informed my management. In all but two LIS, one non-QMS LIS (Library F) and one QMS LIS (Library E), separate briefings were tailored to meet the special interests of paraprofessionals and, in most cases, these were relatively new initiatives and they were held less frequently

than the main staff briefings². Typically, the purpose of communication was to promote current awareness,

What's the purpose of the staff meeting?

Oh the usual, who's doing what? When's 'such and such' going to take place... I was going to say the usual 'banal' things, but in their own way, I suppose it's all important news. No news is bad news!

(Paraprofessional, Library G)

Respondents at all the sites, regardless of status, believed that communication had increased, but not necessarily got better,

The management like to *think* they communicate well with us, but from my point of view, it's often infrequent and the information we get is sometimes inaccurate anyway.

(Paraprofessional, Library E)

On the increased volume of communication, the respondents' comments corroborated sentiments that training activity had risen exponentially and that communiqués often publicised such training activity (see Chapter Eight, 'Training and Development'). There were mixed opinions on the suggestion that staff are generally "kept abreast of changes" (Library G). Despite the growing media there were still indications of apprehension, particularly in relation to the control of media, as one interviewee suggested, "you're never entirely certain you're being told everything, senior management will still withhold information, that's a fact" (Professional, Library F). Particular criticism was directed at university communiqués at Library D when senior management had decided to jettison formal commitment to TQM,

² For instance, at Library G, a paraprofessional commented that the 'Library Assistants' Meetings' were held every month, in contrast to the fortnightly staff meeting.

the (university) newsletters never hint that there is any trouble, so when it we found out that TQM was being abandoned, it came as a big shock to a lot of us.

(Paraprofessional, Library D)

Where there is such blatant control, staff develop their own communication channels, like the 'grapevine', as an alternative, and perhaps objective, source of information. It is suggested that the grapevine serves as a bypassing mechanism and is quicker than formal systems of communication,

With the rapidity of a burning train, it filters out of the woodwork, past the manager's office, through the locker room, and along the corridors.

(Davis, 1980: 394)

Gibson *et al.* (1988) note the ubiquity of the grapevine and estimate that seventy-five per cent of the information carried along its channels is "effective" which leaves twenty-five per cent "that is distorted" and "can be devastating" (p. 564). Examples of the grapevine were perceptible in the later comments of the aforementioned paraprofessional at Library D. In support of her statement against 'university TQM', she referred to rumours that job cuts were impending, "I've even heard that the Staff Development Unit is being closed down."

The physical environment of new Learning Resource Centres has also had a bearing on communication. In Chapter Three ('The Research Methodology'), the investigator noted the impact of an open planned environment at Library A. While management may feel that there is greater transparency and openness, control was exerted on a few interviewees, who were fearful that their comments could be overheard (see Section 3.6.4.5 'Physical Conditions').

In the investigation only one LIS, a non-QMS LIS, was planning a “communication audit”,

We have known for some time that we have a problem with communication in this library. But in saying that, every other manager, at other libraries, I have spoken to, appear to say the same thing. I’m not sure how such issues can be addressed or resolved, but we definitely need to do something. One idea we have just discussed is to have a ‘communication audit’, which, we hope, will begin in earnest.

(Middle Manager, Library G)

While details of the communication audit had yet to be finalised, Scholes (1999) has put forward a framework that may allow managers to evaluate the type of communication employed. She asserts that managers must: consider the strengths and advantages of the medium; assess the opportunities and determine how it can best be used in various situations; examine the medium’s inherent weaknesses; list the pitfalls and common mistakes when using the medium; be aware of the financial implications of using the medium; consider time scales; build feedback routes into the medium; and determine how one can measure the effectiveness of the medium.

Although observation of the staff briefings was not feasible, one of the weaknesses of the methodology in this study was the failure, by the investigator, to examine examples of e-mails, newsletters or current awareness notices. This was demonstrated by one respondent’s recollection on the style of a current awareness bulletin at Library B, which was humorously entitled *whatsup.doc*, where it was suggested that receptivity was high given that the general tenor of the publication was one of informality rather than exhortation. This is particularly important in a QMS strategy for, as Deming (1982a) advises, the key to communicating effectively is to avoid ‘slogans and exhortations’ (‘Point Ten’ of his Fourteen Points), and he further

argues that slogans scupper genuine attempts to improve quality and they are liable to be met with cynicism and prone to becoming another buzzword. As a footnote, on the use of slogans and exhortations, it is worth noting that senior managers have used other, more farcical methods, in communicating QMS. For instance, in summarising General Motors' attempt to publicise quality in the workplace, Tuckman (1995) wrote,

The key folly of promoting quality was 'Howie Makem', a man dressed in a cat outfit who wandered around the plant to the, unintended, amusement of the workforce. This took the idea slightly further than GM's Shreveport plant, where quality was symbolised by a stuffed alligator, the 'Qualigator', kept in a glass case in the canteen and symbolised on the overalls.

(Tuckman, 1995: 68)

No such gimmicks had been employed at any of the QMS LIS. The LIS literature records instances of incessant proselytising, especially during the early phases of implementation. It has been suggested that this is one of the main obstacles to commitment. This was evident when staff rebelled at attempts to introduce TQM at the Oregon State University Library,

The [TQM] training session was conducted by two facilitators/trainers who were employed by Oregon State University. The first half of the first day was close to a disaster. The trainers' enthusiasm for TQM was leading them to proselytise rather than train. In addition to providing information about the TQM process they were also interested in having the library commit to the programme... Unfortunately the intensity of their enthusiasm was disconcerting and during the lunch hour some members of the group were ready to abandon the training.

(Butcher, 1993: 47)

Similar signs of frustration were detectable in this investigation, as some recounted tales of “blanket communication” (Paraprofessional, Library A),

Can you remember how TQM was first introduced to you?

Can I ever forget! It was TQ this, TQ that, TQ in every newsletter you dared to pick up, every meeting you attended and even with some of the enquiries at the desk! You just couldn't escape it. It was rammed down our throats...

(Professional, Library E)

Like the staff at Oregon, who eventually became committed to Continuous Quality Improvement (CQI), the above professional reported no ill affects from her initial encounter with TQM. The accounts demonstrate that new management ideas and techniques can often be thrust upon employees, as managers strive to get their staff to ‘buy into’ a process; this may be difficult to resist given the seductive nature, to senior management, of ‘quality’ and QMS (see Chapter Two, Section 2.1 ‘Quality’). The psychological impact of communication is brought into sharper focus by the work of Gibson and Hodgetts (1986). In their terminology, managers must examine carefully the ‘communication load’ and they proceed to argue that individuals, or groups, undergo conditions of ‘underload’, ‘overload’ or ‘appropriate’ communication loading. They surmise that appropriate loading is viewed to enhance motivation and satisfaction; underload to lead to alienation, apathy and demotivation; and overload to increased levels of stress and uncertainty.

This leads onto the notion of jargon. O’Neil (1993) suggests that library and information workers may be naturally reluctant to subscribe to QMS because its roots in business and industry may be reason enough for rejection. This may be particularly problematic for LIS adopting ISO 9000 (P. Smith, 1993). Recognising jargon as an obstacle to the acceptance of QMS, Oakland (1995) advises,

Reducing the complexity and jargon in written and spoken communication will facilitate comprehension. When written business communications cannot be read or understood easily, they receive only cursory glances, rather than the detailed study they require. 'Simplify' and 'shorten' must be the guiding principles (p. 309)

Given the reported scepticism in the LIS literature over the terms 'customer' and 'managerialism' (see, for example, Lawes, 1993; Heery, 1995)³, there were only a few respondents who were concerned with the commercial roots of QMS. This may, in part, be explained by the fact that, as the fieldwork was carried out, academic LIS were beginning to be more 'customer-focused', as exemplified by the publication of mission statements and charters, or development of Service Level Agreements (SLA) (see Chapter Four, 'The Meaning of Quality Management'). In LIS like Library D, front line staff had control of the information relating to QMS. It was noted that some staff were charged with the responsibility of developing a 'Quality File', or scrap book, piecing together the latest developments in QMS and disseminating the information to other colleagues. Ownership, by front line staff, of the communication or information process in this instance, appeared to have a positive effect on the receptivity of QMS. Identical reactions to the language of ISO 9000 were recorded at Library A, where 'quality coordinators', recognising that the language could be "baffling", served a similar purpose and "filtered out the junk" (Professional, Library A). Taking Oakland's (1995) advice, the emphasis was on developing clarity by "simplification" and "recording what we do" (Middle Management, Library A). In summary, these practices are similar to the experiences of the Telecom's National Resource Centre in Australia, where a TQM coordinator's role was created in order to communicate the main concepts and approaches of TQM to front line staff (B.

³ During the fieldwork, it was observed that the 'management-speak' at the BBC was so tiring that key entertainers were reportedly thinking of decamping to rival, commercial, television channels (Dearlove, 1996)

Armstrong, 1994). The role of middle and line management is equally important. Evidence from Library B suggested that line managers acted swiftly and followed up communication by making sure that ideas were understood,

How was TQM introduced to you?

I can't remember exactly, but I do remember we were given a 'fact sheet' and then a week or so later, we were all invited to a meeting to ask any questions we may have had.

(Paraprofessional, Library B)

The QMS philosophy advises senior management to communicate their commitment, and this commitment must cascade down the organisation. Where this condition does not occur, and there is a 'block' at the middle levels of management, it is said that the organisation suffers from Total Quality Paralysis (TQP) (see, for example, Kanji and Asher, 1993: 13; Martin, 1993a: 39; Melling, 1996b). In Library C, the QMS message had not been effectively relayed to the middle management levels of the LIS. For instance, lack of communication had created confusion and uncertainty, with one middle manager believing that other employees had been charged with the responsibility for promoting QMS,

Can you tell me what Total Quality Management means to you?

It's faded in the background of late because the person responsible for TQM, who was actually responsible for training and personnel issues, has since left.

(Middle Manager, Library C)

The account given by his colleague, suggested that this uncertainty was wholly owing to senior management recalcitrance, who had an inability to consult,

What do you believe are the main benefits, or disadvantages of TQM in your library?

The key problem here is that we have very little support from the Chief. He has simply told us to implement [TQM] but I'm afraid that's about that. We need a little more direction, a little more information, and considerably less of the *Diktat*. Other than that, it will always be considered as 'the VC's project', with very little bearing on the library service... I think if you were to ask the staff here what they understand by quality management, you'll have a lot of blank looks. It's basically stemmed from a dismal lack of communication and hence not viewed as a priority. I'm sorry to be so negative, but that is the situation as I see it.

(Middle Manager, Library C)

The experiences at Library C underscore the notion that senior management commitment is vital, and that this commitment must be communicated to middle management. It is illustrative of Crosby's (1984) contention that, "... the attitude of employees is a clear result of what they see in the attitude of senior management" (p. 196). In other words, if cultural change is the objective of QMS (Hill, 1991), management has a key role to play in affecting culture change (Deming, 1982a) and they set the agenda by explaining the reasons for the initiative, and what to expect in the coming months (Loney and Bellefontaine, 1993: 91)⁴. The above account, and communication breakdown, provided the key explanation for the lack of understanding and knowledge of TQM by the front line staff at Library C.

⁴ See also Dale and Cooper (1992), "[senior management is responsible for the] organisational culture, behaviour, values, climate and style of management in which TQM will either flourish or wither" (p. 225).

6.3 Conclusion

The evidence has suggested that effective communication is vital to raising awareness, mobilising commitment for QMS and allows staff to accept and understand change. A clarity of vision that is shared and understood by all levels of staff has a direct bearing on staff motivation (MacDonald, 1993: 13; Towers, 1995: 550). This proposition was underlined by a report on a workshop of a BLRIC funded project on 'assessment tools' in public LIS, which confirmed that communication is "the key" in the development of staff enthusiasm and trust (Jones *et al.*, 1998: 8). The emphasis on involvement and participation in some QMS LIS had created the impression that communication had improved. Here, for instance, there was consensus that there was greater "structure and formality" to the communication process (Professional, Library E). In general, QMS and non-QMS LIS were similar. Both sets of LIS are exploiting new forms of communication, but uneasiness was apparent. This is partly explained by the feeling that employees have no control of communication and are, as a consequence unable to identify objectively valid information.

As enunciated in Chapter Nine ('Feedback and Appraisal') the more simple methods of communication, like face-to-face conversations, where staff are listened to, have greater effectiveness and appear to be imbued with greater symbolic value to the receiver.

Chapter Seven

Roles and Responsibilities

You only get 'quality' by getting commitment, by offering shop floor workers responsibility.

(Peter Wickens, Director, Nissan UK, comments cited in S. Smith, 1986: 9)

[I do not have a specific role or responsibility] but my instinct is to provide quality in the first place.

(Professional, Library F)

This chapter will identify the extra roles and responsibilities undertaken by front line staff since the introduction of QMS. It will examine the opinions and perceptions of these roles and responsibilities and determine how individuals have responded to the 'enlargement', or otherwise, of their jobs. The evidence will be contrasted with the attitudes to the quality-related roles and responsibilities undertaken by front line staff in non-QMS LIS.

7.1 Investigation Findings

In the QMS LIS literature, there are examples of front line staff taking on extra roles and responsibilities. For instance, at the Harvard College Library, Clack (1993) explains that a 'TQM Steering Committee' was made up of professional and support staff (p. 35). This investigation revealed that the focus on 'quality' had served to create many new roles for individuals in the QMS LIS. For example, these were identified by the respondents as:

- ◇ Customer Care Coordinator (Library D);
- ◇ Quality Coordinator (Library A);
- ◇ 'Champions' of Quality (Library D);
- ◇ Participants in QITs (Library E);
- ◇ Participants in [University] Quality Council (Library D);
- ◇ Participants in Quality Circles (Library D);
- ◇ Participants in Quality Improvement Projects (Library D);
- ◇ Participants in Quality Steering Group (Library C);
- ◇ Participants in Quality Action Teams (Library B);
- ◇ Quality Chairperson (Library E);
- ◇ 'Troubleshooter'¹ (Library D) and
- ◇ Internal Quality Auditor (Library A).

Any assessment of the meanings individuals attach to the aforementioned roles must be viewed within the context of the changing roles undertaken by LIS staff during the time of the fieldwork. As indicated in Chapter Four ('The Meaning of

¹ The investigator is not certain whether this was the official job title. The respondent stated that he was responsible for monitoring and inspecting the physical condition of the LIS, including "signage, lighting, floors, furniture... [plus] currency of information on noticeboards and handouts... also health and safety issues affecting staff, including the identification of unstable trolleys, provision of 'kick stools', and the proper functioning of electrical equipment" (Middle Manager, Library D).

Quality Management'), the rhetoric of VFM and accountability in academic LIS had become more pronounced, especially during a period when LIS budgets were either static or declining. Within this context, it was observed that expectations of academic LIS users were continuing to rise and, as a consequence, services at all the LIS in this investigation, displayed signs of constant modification. LIS had, in turn, adjusted and shifted staff responsibilities continually in an attempt to provide the requisite quality of services to their users. The practices support Gould's (1985) claim that the shifting job responsibilities in the academic library owe more to economic stringency and external forces rather than a willingness, on the part of senior management, to evaluate the roles and responsibilities of front line staff, or in the words of one senior manager on 'converged roles',

[In academic LIS] The staffing structure is shaped by the needs of particular groups of service users, rather than by the professional allegiance of the service providers.

(Comments of Head of 'Learning Resource Centre' cited in Raven, 1995: viii)

In this study, professionals complained that they had to execute a greater level of clerical duties; middle managers, more personnel issues. The evidence from this study also indicated that paraprofessionals are performing a greater volume of work traditionally done by their professional counterparts². It is a trend that has been noted elsewhere in the academic LIS literature (see, for example, John Fielden Associates, 1993). For instance, in their survey of over nine hundred professionals and paraprofessionals at the University of California Libraries, Kreitz and Ogden (1990) tested the assumption that the blurring of roles is widespread and that this results in a high level of dissatisfaction for paraprofessionals. They reported a major overlap of responsibilities between the two sets of staff in certain

² As this thesis was being written up, the eLib Skip study has confirmed the predication, outlined in the Fielden Report, that paraprofessional roles would experience the greatest number of changes. It was noted that paraprofessionals are extending their knowledge and skills to cover user instruction, subject searches, software support and copyright clearance (Garrod and Sidgreaves, 1998).

sections of the library, but a strong division of responsibilities in management-related activities. The survey also indicated that paraprofessionals were significantly less satisfied with their jobs than their professional counterparts (pp. 307-308). The impact of convergence has further blurred the distinction between computer support staff and library and information workers (Raven, 1995: viii). As identified by the IMPEL (Edwards *et al.*, 1993; 1995) and IMPEL 2 (Bartle *et al.*, 1997) projects, which were conducted at the same time as this investigation, technological changes have radically and suddenly changed the tools academic LIS are utilising to acquire and organise information. In addition, the new technologies are modifying the information itself as LIS, and LIS staff, are adapting to the overwhelming quantities of information in wider varieties of formats. Thus, in summary, all members of staff, regardless of status, are undergoing fundamental change as far as their 'traditional' job descriptions are concerned. This may be fortuitous in a QMS context, for Bowen and Lawler (1992) advise that flexibility is paramount and organisations must avoid a restrictive delineation of job descriptions (pp. 37-38). In the case of the Harvard College Library, the perception that staff would carry multiple responsibilities, that cut across lines separating traditional functions, in future was a key impetus toward TQM implementation (p. 30).

There were many favourable and positive attitudes to the extra quality-related roles undertaken by front line staff. In general, many respondents enjoyed the social interaction and *esprit de corps* engendered by involvement in the various teams described in Chapter Five ('Participation and Involvement'). In such cases, individuals had volunteered to assume the extra roles, for example, membership in the QITs at Library E was deemed to be voluntary. In other cases, senior management had a tendency to enact a more proactive role and appointed certain members of staff in such positions. In these instances there appeared to be a very positive attitude among respondents toward these roles and responsibilities.

Typical reactions included feelings of being valued and feelings of pride. It is possible that the subsequent willingness to perform these tasks was a measure of confirming the faith senior management had placed in them. It was also evident that the importance or significance of the role and responsibility was commensurate with the individual's status in the organisation. For instance, 'coordinating' and 'facilitating' roles, or those roles and responsibilities which required key leadership skills, appeared to be undertaken exclusively by professional members of staff or middle management. As identified in the following chapter ('Training and Development'), in relation to career development, a majority of paraprofessionals expressed a personal preference for occupying their present positions in the LIS, rather than progress up the hierarchy. The reluctance to assume any "supervisory authority" (Paraprofessional, Library F) appeared to be the key reason for their position. While the assumption of roles and responsibilities can satisfy the need for self-esteem (Maslow, 1943), expectancy theorists suggest that it will only be a motivator if it is desired by the individual or that they feel they are capable of performing those behaviours (Vroom, 1964). Without being able to probe senior management on the recruitment of staff in these positions, it is difficult to determine whether the lack of paraprofessionals in facilitating roles was by accident or design. For instance, in Kreitz and Ogden's (1990, see above) study, it was speculated that while a greater volume of challenging duties would make paraprofessionals' work more interesting and rewarding for the individual, on the negative side, they could be inclined to invite unfavourable comparison with their professional counterparts, who may be viewed to be involved with similar or equally difficult assignments, yet receive substantially better pay (p. 310).

In the non-QMS LIS, having identified how quality was maintained in their LIS, respondents were then asked to identify if they had a specific role or responsibility as far as the maintenance of quality was concerned. Some quality-related roles

were also identified and this further underscores the assumption that a 'customer-centred' ethos had permeated *every* LIS. The roles which were identified included: Focus Group Facilitator (Library I); member of a Student Liaison Group (Library G); and Service Level Agreement Coordinator (Library G). However, the cumulative evidence of this investigation revealed that the number of designated quality-related roles and responsibilities were considerably greater in the QMS LIS than in their non-QMS counterparts. It was also perceptible to the investigator that the question on 'roles and responsibilities' was an irritant to many respondents,

I don't have a 'role' or 'responsibility', as you call it, but that doesn't mean that I don't personally provide a quality service.
(Professional, Library H)

No, but it is my instinct is to provide quality in the first place.
(Professional, Library F)

We take great pride working here, so I'm not sure I really understand your question.
(Paraprofessional, Library I)

A similar tendency was detected in the remarks from some respondents in the QMS LIS,

Not directly, but I'd like to think we were motivated to provide 'quality' even before we embarked on TQM!
(Paraprofessional, Library B)

If I've not been offering 'quality', I'd like someone to tell me what I have actually been doing these past fifteen years!
(Professional, Library E)

In the LIS literature the above comments are reminiscent of a delegate's observations at the ARL's 'First International Conference on TQM',

I think some organisations in the beginning got upset when somebody said you've got to initiate quality, because they said "For fifty years we've been doing quality around here, what do you mean? Is it something brand new? So, in some cases, it's almost an embarrassment to say we have to do it.

(Comments cited in ARL: 1995: 30)

The reason for this "embarrassment" is explained by Cotta-Schonberg and Helsted (1994), who assert that the desire for quality has always been an attribute of librarianship. Manifestations of this include professionalism in the workplace or book cataloguing and standardisation. This view is shared by another information professional,

For me the quality issue is a simple one because it goes to the heart of what we are about in our profession, every day of our lives. We have through experience, training and disposition an instinct to give quality services and we draw daily on a wide range of skills and experiences to provide those services.

(Burch, 1996: 55)

The Library Association (1996b) endorse Burch's prognosis and have insisted that *all* LIS have a QA system because "delivering a quality service is what professional librarianship is all about" (p. 3).

The evidence from this investigation is therefore congruent with the view held in certain sections of the quality movement that the responsibility for quality belongs to everyone in the organisation. Where perhaps a 'professional' ethos does not exist, a 'quality infrastructure' is paramount and it is incumbent on senior management to adjust practices and structures accordingly if responsibility is to be pervasive (Deming, 1982a; Oakland, 1989). Operating from the premise that workers are imbued with a natural orientation and motivation to do a 'quality job', it is assumed that front line staff will view this change optimistically (*ibid.*), or as Oakland (1989) exclaims, "...people want to achieve, accomplish, influence

activity and challenge their abilities” (p. 26). McArdle *et al.* (1995) have corroborated this belief by comparing the views held by an employee from Nichols and Benyon’s (1977) study on the perceptions of job design under a QWL initiative with the comments from employees in a TQM regime ,

You move from one boring, dirty, monotonous job to another boring, dirty, monotonous job. And then to another boring, dirty, monotonous job. And somehow you’re supposed to come out of it all “enriched”. But I never feel “enriched” - I just feel knackered.

(Comments from Nichols and Benyon (1977), cited in McArdle *et al.*, 1995: 164)

I’m forty-six and I’ve been doing this new job for nearly two years and I’ve been completely turned around. It’s given me a new lease of life. I’d rather work this way. It’s hard work with more responsibility and more worry, but there’s a lot more satisfaction.

TQM works because the shop floor operators believe that is the way to run a factory - they get satisfaction out of the job and keep the factory running... there is more commitment among the workers than among the management.

(Comments of two employees in McArdle *et al.*’s (1995: 164) study of TQM at ‘PCB Electronics’).

Likewise, in this study, the investigator noted that front line employees did not form a negative view of the enlargement of their jobs and did not eschew the ‘extra’ roles and responsibilities. There was a tendency to view such changes as a natural element of their job,

How do you feel about these extra roles and responsibilities you have assumed?

I don’t see it as an impediment if that’s what you mean. I think we’ve always monitored what we do or how we are trying to do things. If anything the added emphasis on quality monitoring and improvement has probably enhanced my work.

(Professional, Library D)

The relationship, and congruence, between professionalism and the QMS philosophy of 'continuous improvement' is further underlined by Abbott (1994),

For me, a concern for quality is simply part of the professional ethos. If professionalism is important, and service is important, then part of that attitude must be a recognition that there is always room for improvement, that there is never an excuse for being complacent and not seeking new ways of providing services, or new services to provide (p. 205)

The acceptance and willingness to assume the quality-related roles and responsibilities can be partly explained by McCarthy's (1993) prognosis that library and information workers can positively transfer their skills and experience and naturally assume many of these roles. For instance, it is posited that information workers' inclination and expertise is commensurate with the demands of systems like ISO 9000 because roles like 'quality auditing' may be best suited to individuals with a background in keeping information up-to-date and an aptitude for document control (*ibid.*). A further explanation of the tacit acceptance of the roles and responsibilities may be offered by the fact that 'quality' is a self-evident good, that compels library and information workers to become morally bound to QMS, which subsequently serves to enhance their own exploitation (Boukaert, 1995; and see Chapter Two, Section 2.1 'Quality'). From this, a more critical perspective is offered by McArdle *et al.* (1995), that front line staff may not be willing to resist enlargement, as the legitimating device of 'quality' has displaced thoughts of such action by a solidarity with the interests of management, or in the words of Roberts and Corcoran-Nantes (1995),

... the drive for 'quality' [lays] a benign veneer over work regimes which require[s] everyone to do more and bear heavier responsibilities (p. 198).

It is probable that this compliance may be more potent in times of insecurity (McArdle *et al.*, 1995)³.

In organisational terms, the impact of the 'quality chain' appeared to have had a positive effect on the perception of roles in the workplace. As identified in Chapter Five ('Participation and Involvement'), the philosophy of QMS, and its identification of an internal and external customer-supplier relationship, compels individuals to be aware of their roles and attributes and sensitive to the roles and responsibilities of others. Library D had conducted a job evaluation, or 'job awareness', exercise as the quality systems were being introduced in the LIS. The evaluation exercise did not exclude anyone and job descriptions were amended accordingly. Accounts of the respondents indicated that professionals worked for a short period on the ground floor at Library D, where paraprofessionals were mainly located, and saw at first hand what their colleagues did, and *vice versa* (Paraprofessional, Library D). S. Smith (1986) posits,

When people are clear about what they and their colleagues are doing, grey areas of responsibility - where most quality problems occur are eliminated (p. 32)

Similarly, Oakland (1989) insists that,

... each part must work properly together, recognising that every person and every activity affects, and in turn is affected by, others (p. 15).

The experiences at Library D, is therefore indicative of the potential of QMS in reducing 'role ambiguity' in the workplace. According to Arnold *et al.* (1998) this arises "when individuals do not have a clear picture about their work

³ See for example the earlier notes on presenteeism in Chapter Five ('Participation and Involvement'). In times of insecurity employees may be eager to fulfill certain duties to prove, to senior management, that they are committed to the organisation and thus be well placed to avoid redundancy (Cooper, 1996).

objectives, their co-workers' expectations of them, and the scope and responsibility of their job" (p. 433) and, in the LIS literature, it has been shown that stress can be the most serious repercussion of role ambiguity in the workplace (Hodges, 1993). Thus, we can surmise that the configuration of the quality chain can enable front line staff to reshape their conception about the purpose and importance of their role and responsibility in the organisation.

7.2 Conclusion

In this study, the investigator isolated the meanings individuals had attached to the quality-related roles and responsibilities from the general duties undertaken in the workplace. Where applicable, academic LIS staff responded positively to the extra quality-related roles and responsibilities, which were more pervasive in the QMS LIS than in their non-QMS counterparts. The roles and responsibilities generated feelings of value and pride and, in a few cases, served to build confidence in individuals. This was especially strong to those members of the organisation who had not previously been imbued with such responsibility, and to those members of staff who had been actively encouraged by senior management to assume the roles. These were the key conditions for the acquiescence of individuals into their respective roles, in addition to being able to utilise their skills and knowledge. The quality-related roles and responsibilities were not .. anathema to staff, with many subscribing to the view that the 'extra' duties were consistent with the 'professional' ethos within each of the LIS and hence viewed as a form of job enrichment, rather than enlargement. This general affective orientation towards quality and improvement was also apparent in the attitude and behaviour of paraprofessionals, who had undertaken roles as 'Champions' (Library D) or been participants in Quality Improvement Teams or Projects (Library E and Library D). While there was a degree of consistency between all the LIS, it should be noted that the investigator failed to gauge attitudes and

reactions among those respondents who had not assumed a designated quality-related role in their organisation. Did, for instance, they feel ostracised? It is possible that a more discordant account may have arisen had this line of inquiry been pursued. While many respondents reacted favourably, they were also quick to point out that they did feel a sense of work intensification *vis-à-vis* the roles and responsibilities acquired in the newly formed converged services. While an analysis of the general duties performed by front line staff was beyond the scope of this investigation, the following comments were illustrative of the concerns raised by some respondents,

There's a lot more to do now that we are a 'converged service'... and although I can cope with many of the computer-related enquiries, I just panic when do get asked to help someone with a problem - it's especially hard when you are on your own and there are no computing staff around.

(Paraprofessional, Library A)

It was evident that front line staff need to be supported if they are to grow into their roles and responsibilities. This line of investigation is continued into the following chapter which will assess the impact and role of training and development.

Chapter Eight

Training and Development

Quality companies invest in their people. They recognise that investment in training is essential to ensure that employees understand how to perform their jobs in a high quality manner...
(S. Smith, 1986: 31)

An essential part of building any quality programme must be the education and training of staff. The main objectives not only include training on the quality philosophy and tools but also developing a common language and preparing employees to promote the quality concept.

(PA Consulting, 1988: 44)

Train, train, train and train again.
(Oakland, 1995: 26)

The investigator wished to determine how training and development (T&D) had been used to support QMS. In Lascelles and Dale's (1994) estimation, if staff are to be committed and motivated to QMS they must be provided with the necessary skills to allow them to use the various problem-solving techniques associated with quality management (see also Melling, 1996b). By using a programme of T&D to enhance the quality of working within the organisations, quality gurus have

indicated that there will be a higher level of intrinsic motivation which is derived from the individuals' belief they are doing a better job (Deming, 1982a: 249). According to Kehoe (1995), the attainment of a quality culture is dependent on an effective programme of T&D that focuses on the individual and addresses their attitude to quality improvement (see also Jeffries *et al.*, 1992: 142; Larsen, 1994). Thus, this chapter considers whether staff have been imbued with the skills to enable them to 'use' QMS and whether the T&D cultures have been affected by QMS intervention: What opportunities exist for staff to acquire skills and/or qualifications? What are the key outcomes of QMS-related T&D activity? From the acquired data an assessment of whether staff are able to progress within their LIS was made. What qualitative differences exist between QMS and non-QMS T&D cultures?

8.1 Introduction

Before presenting the findings it is necessary to define a few terms. Although the terms 'training' and 'development' are used synonymously in this chapter, drawing upon Harrison's (1992) observations, the investigator acknowledges that there is a *difference* and an *interrelationship* between 'training' and 'development'. The Department of Employment's *Glossary of Training Terms* (1971) has defined training as;

The systematic development of the attitudes, knowledge, skill behaviour pattern required by an individual in order to perform adequately a given task or job... (p. 29)

In a review of training, Goldstein (1980) has determined it to mean;

The acquisition of skills, concepts or attitudes that result in improved performance in an on-the-job situation (p. 230).

In common with the above definitions, information professionals understand training to be,

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training seminars were organised. In addition to having an “uninterrupted induction” (Professional, Library D) to QMS the “away day” initiative was indicative of a distinct break from previous methods. The willingness to close the LIS, to gather *all* levels of staff together, regardless of status, was further endorsement of the seriousness and care attached to QMS implementation at Library D. Core (1991) advances the need for a training regime that considers the importance of T&D for paraprofessional staff, for in a quality service context they are “the public face of libraries and librarianship and the arbiters of professional services” (p. 17).

Other initiatives like mentoring featured highly at Library A. Here it was revealed that when ISO 9000 was first introduced, staff were encouraged to work in small groups or in pairs. A new paraprofessional described how she had “shadowed” another colleague, as part of her induction, in the normal course of understanding her role and responsibilities in the LIS, and also “to discover how ‘ISO’ work[ed].” A quality coordinator at Library A, believed that this form of “shadowing” was the most effective technique of training staff because of the complex nature of ISO 9000,

How would you assess training and development since the introduction of ISO 9000?

... I was baffled when I first saw the ‘BS 5750’ literature, because [the language] is so far removed from what we normally encounter. Rather than discuss it at length during the training hour, which would have been counter-productive because there is so much information, we relied on other coördinators and Senior Library Assistants to disseminate information to their own staff, who were then mobilised into small groups. It was the groups that hammered out the procedures, with a little direction from the coordinators. I think it’s only fitting then, that as new staff join they are trained by other ‘library assistants’ because *they* have formulated the quality and procedures manual, not management.

(Professional, Library A)

While not recounted in the paraprofessional testimony, it is probable that mentoring among peers can serve to forge 'higher trust' relationship and thus firmer commitment to QMS. There has been considerable interest in the LIS literature on mentoring in recent years. Berry (1998), for instance, has concluded that it is an effective means of T&D when an organisation needs to ensure that staff understand a new concept and technique (see also Nankivell and Shoolbred, 1996). Furthermore, in their examination of T&D in the service sector, Korczynski *et al.* (1996) discovered that 'peer-based learning' was the most important and effective source of learning.

A further stimulus to the broad acceptance of the QMS T&D activities at Library D was reported by a paraprofessional, who noted that the "away day" did not exclude anyone in the LIS, "including library assistants and clerical staff." The prevailing attitude therefore subscribes to the holistic philosophy of TQM, "... total, everybody, everybody in the organisation, all the time, everywhere, not a department, not a set of perfects, not a management tool, total, everybody" (Kane, 1996: 111) and Deming's (1982a) insistence, enshrined in Point Six of his 'Fourteen Points', that training be open for all employees. However these experiences differed from other paraprofessionals' recollections at other QMS LIS. For instance at Library E, one paraprofessional recalled how she had taken part in QITs but, unlike her professional colleagues, was "not permitted" to take part in the preparatory activity, like group working and "team building exercises". Believing this to be as a result of her paraprofessional status, she remained sceptical of the QITs, "training is still an issue of entitlement, and always will be". It was clear from the evidence that those LIS that had adopted a holistic attitude to T&D were more successful in securing commitment to QMS; in some cases those least privileged remained invariably sensitive to the inequalities that existed in their LIS.

Staff need to be aware of the T&D opportunities open to them. At Library A the development of the quality manual, in line with the requirements of ISO 9000, addressed the issue of T&D and confirmed to staff the LIS's commitment to such activity.

Staff training is outlined in the quality manual, so our position is well publicised and more widely disseminated than before.
(Middle Manager, Library A)

It was discovered that dissemination of the opportunities for T&D are also the responsibility of the university. Partington (1996), for instance, has detailed the increasingly proactive role universities have undertaken since the publication of the Fender Report (CVCP, 1993a)¹. Examples include the development of Staff Development Units (SDUs) or the incorporation of T&D obligations in university mission statements. A respondent at a non-QMS LIS, Library G, claimed that one of the benefits of working at the university, was their "commitment to [provide] at least five days of training a year" and that this insistence had, it was believed, fed into the operations of the LIS. In relation to the awareness of T&D opportunities to support QMS, respondents at Library C substantiated their comments relating to the lack of communication (see Chapter Six). It was believed that the lack of key personnel to publicise such activities, in this case a Training Officer who had not been replaced (see below), was a major cause for this lack of opportunity and subsequent lack of commitment to QMS. Anecdotal evidence suggests that opportunities for T&D are less forthcoming to older employees, who are often overlooked on such matters (cited in Sherwen, 1999: 27), however this investigation failed to substantiate this suggestion.

Support for T&D was another pertinent issue. The evidence suggested that trainers or staff involved in personnel issues are key actors, and not marginal to

¹ And further endorsed by the publication of the Dearing Report (National Committee of Inquiry into Higher Education [NCIHE], 1997).

the successful implementation of QMS. This was borne out in a comments received from a paraprofessional in Library A, who commended the role of one of the 'quality coördinators' responsible for T&D issues in the LIS. The value of specialist training staff was underlined in a reply from a middle manager in Library C who, on being asked 'what TQM meant to him', replied that the initiative had lost its momentum since a member of staff with responsibility for T&D had left the LIS. To augment the T&D of staff in LIS, it was discovered that SDUs were another source of support. One middle manager (Library D) recalled that the SDU worked closely with the LIS in developing T&D programmes to support QMS like the 'TQM Away Day'.

In relation to the key outcomes of QMS intervention, predictably, the belief that 'customer/user services training' had developed together with the growth of customised services ushered by QMS intervention, was reported by many individuals. In view of perhaps their proactive view on management, it was noticeable that most of the QMS LIS had quickly advanced to a formal converged status when the fieldwork was carried out. As articulated by Sidgreaves (1995) convergence has implications on the customer service culture, where there is a greater focus of the services required by users. However, this is a phenomenon not limited to QMS LIS for, as acknowledged in the Fielden Report, formal customer service initiatives have been applied in many academic LIS (John Fielden Consultancy, 1993). The development of T&D for customer service initiatives and associated interpersonal behaviour, which is recommended by the Report, was evident in non-QMS LIS too, as indicated in the following testimony,

How is quality maintained in your library?

... In fact only last week we underwent, as part of an interpersonal skills course, a seminar on how to deal with overseas students and how best to understand their needs. I found it fascinating. Did you know there are everyday gestures that they might find offensive and insulting? So I think quality is taken seriously, except that we

now look at the 'minutiae of the service', or the service as it affects everyone.

Is this a recent development?

Yes. It's the type of training we didn't do before.

Why do you think that is?

Probably ignorance [of overseas students], though I think that's indicative of society in general. I suppose [overseas students] pay huge fees, and are suddenly in a strange environment, so by ensuring a good quality service we are seen to be giving them some value for their investment.

(Paraprofessional, Library G)

Library G was one of three LIS that had just developed a library mission statement to complement the university student charter. The above recollections indicate that if LIS are publicly committed to providing good customer service, staff are liable to be motivated to quality processes if the rhetoric is matched with reality.

It was clear that QMS had an important part to play in "targeting and focusing" (Professional, Library A) T&D. This was evoked from the belief that "training budgets are limited" (Middle Manager, Library B) and that LIS needed to be even more accountable for the resources they consumed (Middle Manager, Library D). T&D needs had been identified at the inception of QMS at Library D when a thorough job evaluation exercise, including an audit of skills, had been instigated,

What are the benefits or disadvantages of TQM to you?

When it was first introduced we became aware of what were supposed to do, what our roles were, and *how we were to be developed*. That, I think, is the main advantage of TQM.

(Professional, Library D)

Chapter Seven ('Roles and Responsibilities') provides a more thorough assessment of the impact of the job evaluation exercise. The belief that the value of T&D could be demonstrated in relation to present and future needs and costs was also underlined by a professional commenting on the merits of ISO 9000,

ISO 9000 provides us with a framework to ensure that training is reflective of the individual's needs.

(Professional, Library A)

While another interviewee referred to the issue of choice,

We have to be seen to spending the money wisely these days, so while we may not send as many people to conferences as in previous years, the savings are used to develop our own in-house programmes.

(Middle Manager, Library B)

The confirmation that evaluation of T&D had improved considerably since QMS intervention was made by another respondent,

There's an incredible amount of planning and evaluation than before. We compile feedback from the training exercises, questions like 'did we like the training?' 'did we learn any skills?' and 'did we use the skills?' form an important part of the evaluation

(Professional, Library D)

The views from the QMS LIS subscribe to the recommendations in the Fielden Report that LIS need to adopt a systematic approach to management in relation to T&D: needs have to be analysed, plans drawn up and resources allocated. The experiences from the fieldwork were also reminiscent of Oakland's (1995) prognosis that "Training... can be expensive... [and] must be related to needs and expectations" (p. 26), it must be constantly evaluated. For one professional (Library D) the "continuous improvement ethos" of QMS could feed into the T&D programmes, but added that the programmes' success depended on the constant vigilance of external changes,

Courses which were popular a year ago might not be so useful this time around. Because things change so quickly nowadays we actually have a 'champion' responsible for monitoring these broad changes, and our courses reflect these changes

(Professional, Library D)

At Library B, it was suggested that training courses and modules were "more rigorously appraised" (Middle Manager, Library B) and that "feedback on training [is] encouraged" (Paraprofessional, Library B). Bambrough (1993) maintains that that evaluating T&D, and using it so that it can be readily applied in the workplace, stimulates motivation in individuals. The positive transfer of T&D is also underlined by Melling (1996b) who states that any consideration of T&D in a 'quality framework' must take into consideration the fact that different groups of staff will require different forms of T&D in relation to quality. The value and confidence in the 'new T&D regime' was expressed in a greater willingness to learn, as examples of inappropriate T&D were recited,

How has training and development altered since TQM was introduced here?

We used to do group work skills before actually, but they were never really applied ... well, not to the same extent as they are now [in the QITs]. Some of the training we did was, quite frankly, abysmal and a complete waste of time but, you sense, there's certainly a lot less cynicism now

(Professional, Library E)

In summary, relevant T&D is critical if future participation and receptivity to T&D is to be ensured.

It was suggested that staff were in a position to prioritise T&D activity collectively during QIT meetings at Library E. The experiences here, and those recounted in Chapter Five ('Participation and Involvement') is evidence that QMS can elevate organisations to the status of 'learning organisations' (Senge, 1992). While the

concept emerged from the self-development movement of the 1970s (Taylor and Thackwray, 1996), learning organisations gained increasing popularity as a number of commentators attempted to place it into the context of QMS philosophy (Pearson, 1993; St. Clair, 1993a). In the LIS literature, this trend was reflected in the development of the vision statement at Harvard College Library, which had committed itself to TQM, and endorsed the library to become a learning organisation (Clack, 1993: 39). Taking Senge's (1992) broad suggestion that learning organisations are about exploring new patterns of learning², especially by learning together³, the key points to emerge from the data *vis-à-vis* QMS LIS as learning organisations include:

- ◇ the propensity to institute participative decision-making, or an environment which supports creativity and innovation, that is reflected in greater ownership by staff. As indicated in Chapter Five, the QMS environment can be a reflective environment for many LIS staff. Increasing teamwork can enable staff to develop attitudes collectively, to value theirs and their colleague's experience and process new ideas;
- ◇ the exchange of mutual knowledge between departments through the establishment of the 'quality chain'(see Figure 5.3, p. 175);

² Senge (1992) identified five disciplines which are needed to create a learning organisation:

Personal Mastery - whereby an environment is created that helps individuals to develop themselves continuously towards their own personal goals;

Mental Models - a reflection on and improving upon 'personal pictures' of the world and understanding how these pictures shape actions and decisions;

Shared Vision - the building of a group commitment through a shared image of the desired future and how to achieve it;

Team Learning - the transfer of learning skills so that groups can develop their abilities further than they could on their own;

Systems thinking - the understanding and expressing of the interrelationships within systems and unites the above disciplines.

³ See also Tann (1995), who asserts that the hallmark of organisational learning is one which "involves mutual behaviour exchange, when a change in behaviour of one individual has an effect on the behaviour of others there is mutual learning" (p. 48).

- ◇ the understanding of the quality chain, which enables staff to learn about their environment and how they can best serve the external customer (see p.176);
- ◇ and the development of inter-departmental learning, also stimulated by the establishment of the quality chain, whereby staff understand the broad needs of internal customers too, or in the words of Jurow and Barnard (1993) “[front line staff] learn about and participate in issues affecting other departments and gain a larger sense of organisational purpose” (p. 3).

As far as the nature of the QMS T&D programmes were concerned, the evidence substantiated Hackman and Wageman’s (1995) prognosis that, in practice, service sector organisations adopting QMS appear to place greater emphasis on issues like teamworking and interpersonal skills, rather than on the various statistical tools and techniques associated with the initiative. LIS research on interpersonal skills training has also reflected the growing perception within LIS that such skills are required in developing service which is responsive to client needs,

Libraries are about people, not about books and information, which is what people think. without good interpersonal skills, you don’t have the customer liaison that you actually need to give the client what they want. If you have not got good communication with the client, then the odds on you giving them what they have actually come in for may be small.

(Levy and Usherwood, 1991: x)

While T&D to support ‘management by fact’ (Garvin, 1991) was not discounted, a middle manager at Library D admitted to being “bewildered and confused” by the welter of statistical techniques, particularly, “fishbone diagrams, measures of non-conformance and cause and effect analysis”⁴. In proclaiming that training on this issue had been “patchy” and that she felt “uneasy and lack[ed] confidence” in

⁴ On the issue of QMS statistical techniques, Line (1994) posits that information profession needs “to distinguish between the principles of TQM, which must be embraced wholeheartedly, and the [statistical] techniques, which can be used selectively” (p. 224).

applying the techniques, the investigator was surprised to learn that she still remained committed to QMS. When asked to qualify reasons for her commitment, she referred to the support from fellow managers, including the Chief Librarian, who “[would] readily take over and help [her]” when needed. Another middle manager at Library B confessed that QMS statistical training had not superseded previous approaches to data gathering and interpretation,

Although library [automation] systems change, they present the same gamut of data and we still interpret usage the same way. Total Quality Management hasn’t changed anything in that respect.

These experiences are reflective of American approaches to QMS T&D rather than UK or European. For instance, Dale *et al.* (1993) established that much QMS training in the UK and Europe had the propensity to concentrate on the harder tools and techniques and, by contrast, Olian and Rynes (1991) discovered that interpersonal skills, problem-solving via teamwork ranked higher, in terms of frequency, than statistical analyses, in the US firms in their enquiry.

Finally, as far as formal qualifications are concerned, Dakers (1994) has presented a case for the implementation of Scottish/National Qualifications (S/NVQs). Writing in response to the Follett and Fielden reports, she observes that the generic standards that allow staff to develop skills, analogous with customer care, is indicative of a definite link between S/NVQs and the quality movement (Dakers, 1994: 185; see also Bone, 1996: 6). Given this prognosis it was surprising that the take-up of S/NVQs in the QMS LIS under investigation was non-existent when the fieldwork was carried out. During the fieldwork only one paraprofessional, in a *non*-QMS LIS (Library H), made any reference to S/NVQs (her comments are cited in Chapter Eleven, ‘Pay and Rewards’). This may be attributed, in part, to the uncertainty of the value of the qualification, particularly, from the schools of library and information studies in relation to levels 4 and 5

(Wilson, 1995). In an article following the publication of the Fielden Report, Fielden (c.1996) stipulated that academic LIS knew nothing of S/NVQs in 1993, and despite the fact that “matters had moved on... there [was] still a degree of apathy and ignorance” (p. 4). On the issue of the competence of middle managers, there has been some discussion of the synergy of the Management Charter Initiative (MCI) and QMS, particularly in relation to IIP (Goulding *et al.*, 1999). While Frank (1993) has argued that QMS makes considerable demands upon middle managers, both to learn and communicate new skills and techniques, arising from growing decentralisation in the workplace, there were no indications of middle managers studying for such qualifications. While one respondent admitted interest in an “IPD [Institute of Personnel and Development] course” (Library B), there was consensus that they relied on “experience” and “insights to management [over time]” (Library B) and from their library degrees. In some cases library qualifications had been awarded over twenty years previously. While this did not appear to be a cause of major consternation for the middle managers interviewed, during the investigation, research was initiated which set out to address the needs and requirements of management training in academic LIS (cited in Corral, 1994b).

In comparison to non-QMS LIS, it was evident that T&D activity is very high in both types of LIS. One constant in all the LIS under investigation was the fact that T&D activity was being utilised to support a packages of relentless change. Change was, for example, exemplified by technological changes and accompanying structural changes like convergence. It was observed that many of these changes were not incremental but sudden. The acquisition of key skills, like basic ICT skills, for a greater proportion of the LIS staff was evident in both sets of LIS. There were indications, in both sets of LIS, that the T&D cultures reflect a process where employees are taking increasing responsibility for their own development, or developing a ‘portfolio of transferable skills’ (Raddon, 1996).

This was indicated by staff taking part in courses at SDUs or being involved in Continuing Professional Development (CPD)⁵ activity. By improving 'professionalism' and keeping abreast of changes in library and information work, Lester (1994) has concluded that this is an important criterion in assessing quality. It is also worth noting that the personal responsibility for skill development, as exemplified in many of the individuals' accounts, is reflective of a pattern being witnessed in the UK in general (Pritchard, 1995: 15) as the workforce becomes flexible and multi-skilled. In a similar tone to some of the above QMS testimonies, the two examples below also indicate that some sets of staff are supported in their T&D endeavours, and that T&D is continuous,

Training is not denied. I feel you are supported well by management here, as long as you can demonstrate that you need the training and that it's relevant to your work...
(Professional, Library H).

The refresher courses are an excellent idea. It goes to show that training does not stand still in this place.
(Paraprofessional, Library G).

Thus a strong impression was given to the investigator of the academic LIS environment being one where the learning cycle is continuous. However, on a discordant note, the subject of "entitlement" was also evident in a non-QMS environment,

I don't feel we really are listened to in this respect. There are loads of things I'd like to do but you never sense that there's any encouragement.
(Paraprofessional, Library F)

⁵ Within the context of this chapter, CPD is understood to mean,

The systematic maintenance, improvement and broadening of knowledge and skills, and the development of personal qualities necessary for executing professional and technical duties throughout the practitioner's working life.

(R. Brown, 1992)

Where there was dissension, like their QMS counterparts, this was voiced by paraprofessional employees.

While the investigation discovered that there is much T&D activity in academic LIS, it is not a panacea for motivation, and in fact conceals more deep-seated problems. In the QMS LIS for instance, as indicated in Chapter Five ('Participation and Involvement'), LIS are attempting to develop 'flatter structures' which itself has significant ramifications on the career aspirations of the individual. Roberts and Corcoran-Nantes (1995; see also Bowen and Lawler, 1992: 36) posit that the introduction of QMS affects the hierarchical career progression because instead of stimulating vertical progress in the organisation, there is an emphasis on horizontal expansion as employees are required to update their skills or, in the case of paraprofessionals who have assumed many of the responsibilities of their professional counterparts, become multi-skilled, "upskilled" (John Fielden Consultancy, 1993) or "re-skilled" (Collier, 1996: 76, 78). Thus in a QMS regime, there may be a conflict of interest. Senior management may view the acquisition and updating of skills to be in keeping with the maintenance or improvement of the quality of service or the enhancement of the quality of working within all levels of the organisation; front line staff may harbour the aspirations of career advancement via increased T&D activity. From the testimonies of the paraprofessionals it was evident that "[promotion] happens too infrequently" (Paraprofessional, Library A), or as another respondent retorted,

It sounds really awful, but the truth is the only chance of getting anywhere in this place is if somebody dies! And even then I'd only become 'Senior Library Assistant'...

(Paraprofessional, Library B)

A majority of paraprofessionals were in agreement with the proposition that "library work is a dead-end job" (Paraprofessional, Library E) or "careers are for

professionals only” (Paraprofessional, Library C), and a few were subsequently sensitive to the inequalities in their workplace, “matters would of course be different if I had a library degree” (Library G). However, the cumulative evidence of this investigation revealed that the majority of the sample did not, as the above comments suggest, perceive career progression as a realistic possibility and consequently did not appear to place high importance on it. For instance, a majority did not wish to attain the extra responsibility, especially “supervisory authority” (Library F) associated with promotion. The reasons why many paraprofessionals choose to stay at an academic LIS, particularly in relation to the social relationships at work, are more clearly outlined in Chapter Eleven (‘Pay and Rewards’). Where there was resentment, this was forthcoming from younger paraprofessionals (below the age of thirty), especially the small sample with university degrees,

I am getting itchy feet. I hate the routine now. I *am* good at my job, I want to move on.

Away from the library?

Not necessarily. I’d like to experience more *library* work, you know things like enquiry work, but there’s an unwritten law that prevents you from doing so.

Have you been able to vent your frustrations?

No, but I don’t think much would be achieved if I did. ‘What will be, will be’...

(Paraprofessional, with Bachelors degree, Library F)

As articulated in the following chapter (‘Feedback and Appraisal’), staff need to have the opportunity to express their views and discuss their careers, this is achievable via the implementation of staff appraisals. During the study it was discovered that where paraprofessionals are promoted the “politics of the workplace” (Professional, Library C) can conspire against them. This was indicated by the closing of ranks by other professionals when a ‘paraprofessional’ had just been promoted to a ‘professional post’. Despite being given the support

by middle management, it was discovered that professional members of staff refused to speak or acknowledge her,

I know I have the skills and experience to do the job, so it doesn't really get me down. [Middle Manager] has been around to smooth the cracks. It was difficult at first, but they're slowly coming round I think. Librarians do jealously guard their turf in this place! I suppose if I were them, I would feel a bit aggrieved, it may set a precedent. But I think it sends a bad message to other 'library assistants', and confirms their fears, if you like, that you are a 'second class' person in this library.

Thus, in relation to equality of opportunity, this is further evidence that QMS has not transcended the antipathy of paraprofessionalism and professionalism in academic LIS. Kinnell (1994) is adamant that such issues need to be addressed for the good of the profession,

The elimination of the professional/non-professional (*sic.*) divide and removal of barriers to promotion, together with effective motivation strategies, will be important if the best people are to be encouraged and their efforts rewarded (p. 195).

The level of dissatisfaction among professionals *vis-à-vis* career progression, in all the LIS in the investigation, was less pronounced. Progression in their LIS was not always open to some professionals and this generated a feeling that "ambition is knocked out of you" (Library F),

You have to serve a very long apprenticeship sometimes before you are even seen as management material.

(Professional, Library E)

You'd like to be loyal, but the fact is I don't think my career has progressed as far as I would like.

(Professional, Library G)

If things carry on as they are, you know that your enthusiasm is prone to evaporate. I've only applied for one internal job, which I didn't get, since I came here. In that time I believe I've acquired competence and experience beyond the scope of my job description... but nothing suitable has cropped up.

(Professional, Library C)

In general, however, professional members of staff are well placed to move to other LIS, or professions, especially if they are involved in CPD activities or become Chartered Members of the LA. As indicated in the following chapter ('Feedback and Appraisal'), professional members of staff and middle managers are able to discuss career progression at staff appraisals, which are not always open to paraprofessional members of staff. Of the professionals who harboured thoughts of seeking opportunities elsewhere, including one "away from the university sector" (Professional, Library F), they tended to be younger members of the sample (below the age of thirty-five). Reflecting on the positive ramifications of QMS, a disenchanted professional at Library A, believed that involvement in the initiative had equipped her with a breadth and depth of experience in critical areas, such as "project management skills", that enabled her to be in a position to apply for other jobs,

Since being involved as quality coordinator, I've actually had the confidence to apply for other jobs. I don't really want to say too much about it but I've been shortlisted for two already, and I know that it's because of my knowledge of ISO. I suppose it looks good on my CV. Being involved [with ISO 9000] has also allowed me to keep my options open, and look for jobs outside, beyond the library field.⁶

In addition to training officers in LIS, senior management have a key role to play and can be decisive in stimulating the motivation of staff, where experiences at

⁶ Underlined sentences from notes taken during the interview. Respondent requested that the tape recorder be turned off.

work fail to match career expectations. In the data there were some interviewees whose skills and qualifications had exceeded their job specification. In the most extreme example, a recently qualified Masters graduate faced increasing difficulty in obtaining work that was commensurate with her qualifications and was compelled to take a 'library assistants' post. Reconciling herself to work that did not make use of her abilities had created 'frustration and disillusionment'; the Chief Librarian was aware of her plight and had, however, encouraged her to take part in other training activities,

I graduated last year but could only get a 'library assistants' job. My boyfriend and I are settled in the area, so looking elsewhere is not really viable. The problem is, there aren't too many jobs around, and I needed to get something quickly because studying took so much out of us financially.

How do you feel?

Well I obviously feel really frustrated and disillusioned. At the back of my mind, I keep saying to myself, "it's better than nothing" or "it's all valuable experience", but I know I shouldn't really be doing this job. It's really hard when you think you have, in effect, wasted a whole year. On the plus side, I suppose working in a small library has its benefits: it's small-knit and everyone's really understanding. [The Chief Librarian's] been over to see me many times. I think he senses things aren't OK, but he's been encouraging me to do other 'projects' on top of what I do here. He's even given me permission to take part in some of the training activities for 'professional' staff, so hopefully I won't be stuck in this rut for much longer.

('Paraprofessional', Library I)

To further underscore the qualities of the above Chief Librarian, it was discovered that Library I had been recently enlarged as a result of a merger with another smaller LIS. The head of the smaller LIS was "demoted" to the position of middle manager and, reflecting on her sudden change in responsibility and career aspirations, stated,

It was tremendously hard to adjust but, in fairness, [the Chief Librarian's] been very supportive. He's given me my own space, I don't think many other people would have reacted in the same way. He is very energetic, tremendously hardworking, not power hungry in any way, very sympathetic and a thoroughly nice person. I don't know how much longer I would stay here, but for the present, I think things are satisfactory.

(Middle Manager, Library I)

In summary, experiences and attitudes relating to career progression did not differ between the two sets of LIS. The evidence shows that the career enhancement of paraprofessionals has been perfunctory, in contrast to the experiences of their professional counterparts.

8.3 Conclusion

Successful implementation of QMS is supported by the appropriate T&D. Experiences in LIS like Library D demonstrate that T&D can provide an awareness of the need for change and provides the means whereby change and development can be accomplished, or as indicated in the Follett Report,

Failure to provide library staff with adequate training represents one of the single most important constraints on change and development in library and information provision
(HEFCE, 1995: paragraph 123)

The onus is upon LIS managers to acknowledge and value all their staff, it was palpable that the more successful LIS were able to accrue support by making T&D more holistic and available to all levels of staff.

While the investigator noted that there were no apparent deficiencies in the level of T&D provision, with satisfaction with the T&D activity itself at high levels,

more deep-seated issues were revealed, particularly in relation to career progression. Staff in academic LIS appear to be acquiring the knowledge, skills and qualifications which are pulling ahead of job descriptions. The pockets of discontent may become more ubiquitous and it is possible that academic LIS may have problems recruiting and retaining their staff in future years.

During the fieldwork there were two important developments that affected the attitudes to T&D in HEIs. The first involved the change of government, from Conservative to Labour administration in May 1997. With the advent of Labour, the rhetoric of 'lifelong learning' and 'employability' became even more pronounced. The second major development was the publication of the Dearing Report (NCIHE, 1997). The report made calls for greater clarity in the staff development policies of HEIs, echoing, for instance, Fielden's suggestions that staff development be linked to the strategic planning of the institution. As a template, HEIs should, as 'Recommendation 47' suggested, examine the principles and practices informing QMS like IIP,

... over the next year, all institutions should

- ◇ review and update their staff development policies to ensure that they address the changing roles of staff;
- ◇ publish their policies and make them readily available to staff;
- ◇ *consider whether to seek the Investors in People award.*

(NCIHE, 1997)

Chapter Nine

Feedback and Appraisal

I don't go round expecting a 'pat on my back' every time I come into work, but I suppose it's just nice to be acknowledged from time to time.

(Paraprofessional, Library C)

It's important to me, to be told you're doing a good job, to be appreciated. It's great to be told you are doing things wrong too! It's not negative, I think it's constructive.

(Paraprofessional, Library C)

Accurate feedback on performance has been acknowledged to have a motivating effect on staff. This can be an informal process, through verbal feedback, or formal process, via mechanisms like the staff or performance appraisal. However, organisations following the doctrine of certain quality gurus, like Deming (1982a), have admonished the performance appraisal, believing it to breed fear or instill a 'culture of blame' and ultimately be demotivating for the individual. This chapter sets out to explore the nature and extent of feedback and performance appraisal in academic LIS. A number of questions were raised: have QMS LIS, particularly those with TQM, jettisoned the performance appraisal and, if so, what are the

reactions of employees? In those LIS with performance appraisal, is there a sense of fear and corroboration of Deming's thesis? What purpose does the performance appraisal fulfil and what is its potential to motivate? Who is involved, or denied, performance appraisal, and what are their reactions? What other forms of feedback exist, and how are they perceived by staff?

9.1 Introduction

Accurate, believable and informative feedback on performance, whether in the form of formal performance appraisal or informal verbal feedback, is considered by many occupational psychologists to be an important factor in the motivation of staff (Ilgen *et al.*, 1979). Hackman and Oldham (1976; 1980) considered feedback to be one of the 'core job characteristics' and therefore integral to the overall motivation an employee feels for their work. Similarly Taylor (1980: 31) has posited that "some act of recognition and appraisal" is vital to employees' motivation. Feedback, or 'knowledge of results' is also an important aspect of many other motivation-related theoretical positions such as goal-setting (Locke and Latham, 1990; Locke, 1968), as set out in figure 9.1,

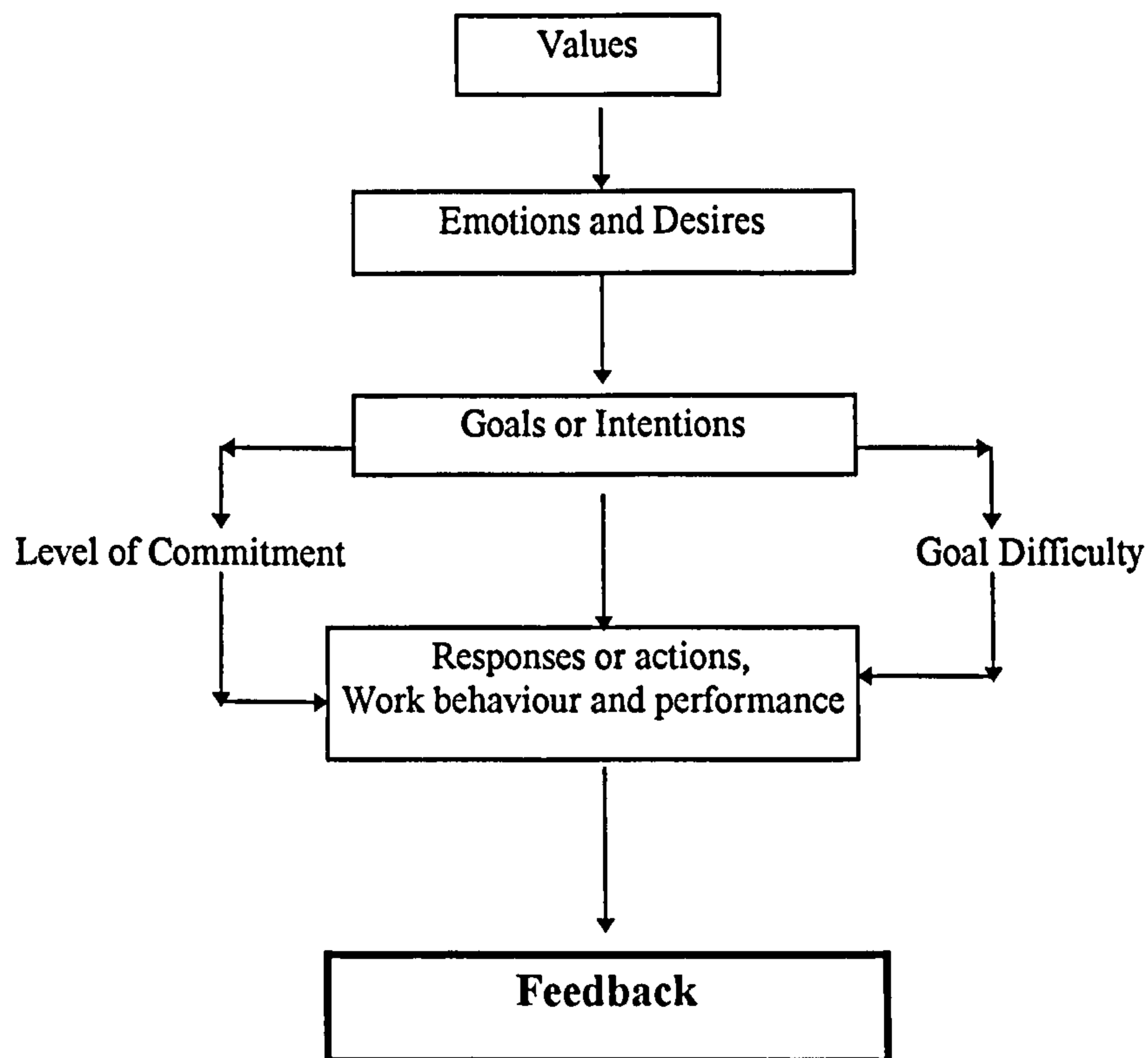


Figure 9.1: An Illustration of Locke's (1968) theory of goal setting

The staff appraisal has been defined as "... the judgement of an employee's performance in a job" (Graham and Bennett, 1992: 233) and the reasons for implementing such processes are varied. In the first place, well-designed performance appraisals can ascertain the suitability and potential of people for particular types of employment. Second, the developmental needs of employees in terms of job experience, training and education can be determined and as well as providing an inventory of skills for the organisation. Third, organisations can use staff appraisals to identify those individuals that may be suited for promotion. Fourth, the appraisals serve as a basis for individuals to modify or alter behaviour toward more effective working habits. Finally, the process provides a basis for the allocation of rewards to individuals (see Handy, 1993; Levinson, 1976; McDonagh, 1995; Tyson and York, 1982). Of particular interest to this study was

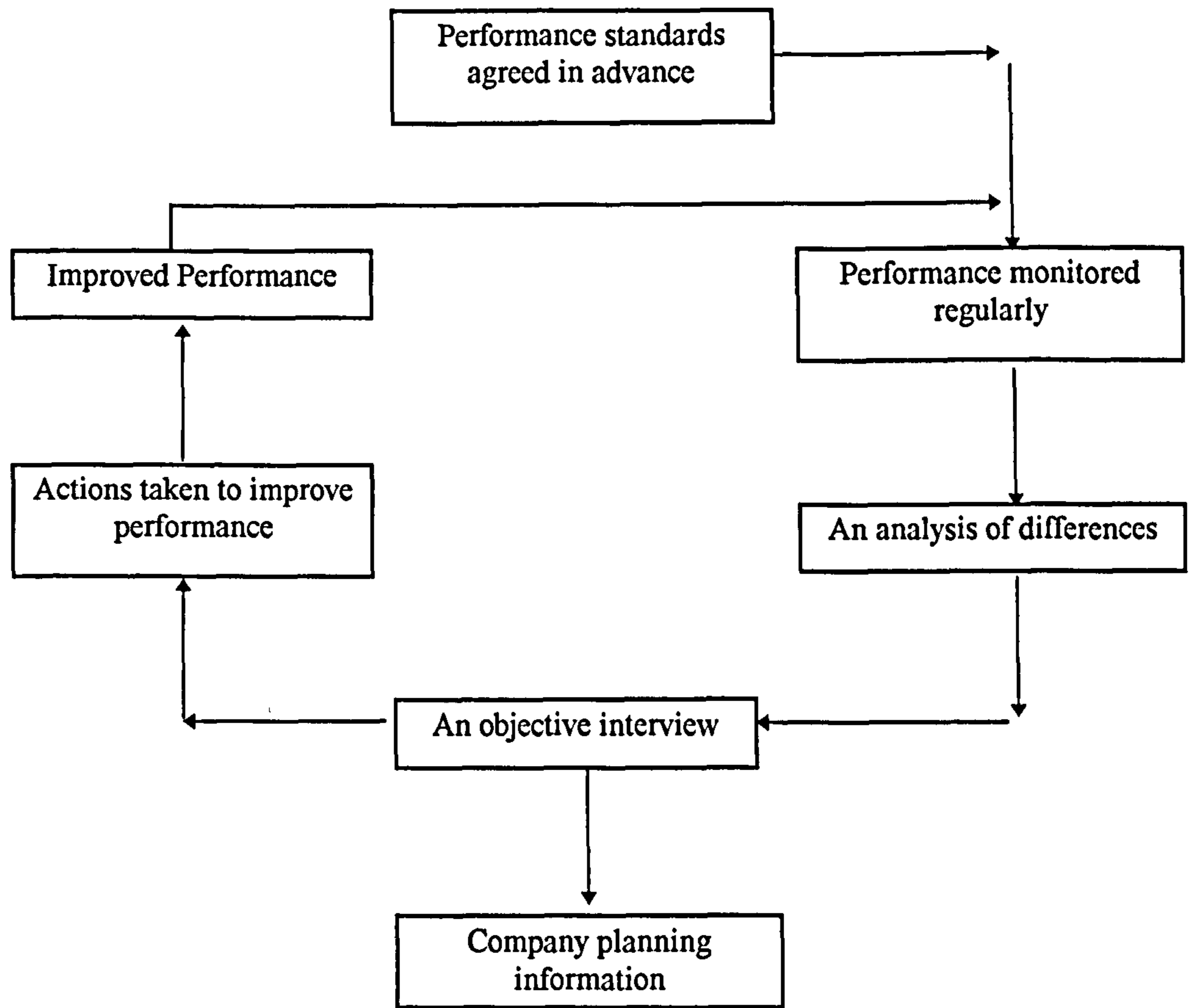
the assertion, by occupational psychologists, that the appraisal process can enhance motivation and commitment when managers provide accurate feedback on performance and discuss employees' strengths and weaknesses (see Hackman and Oldham, 1980). In Owen's (1995) experiences of a newly created staff appraisal scheme at the National Library of Wales, it was reported that by focusing on the strengths of an individual, the appraisal scheme was a "real filip to every jobholder" (p. 10). Within the context of this investigation the performance appraisal is understood to be the "process [that] provides a forum to debate the requirements of the organisation and the needs and aspirations of the individual" (Kakabadse *et al*, 1988: 354). A typical model for effective performance appraisal is illustrated in figure 9.2 (Philip, 1990: 9),

At the outset of this investigation it had been recorded in a survey that performance appraisal was widespread in university LIS, with a number of schemes in operation¹. A total of 86 out of 96 responding universities and colleges of higher education possessed an appraisal scheme, and library personnel were included in 83 of them (SCONUL, 1995). Conversely, a decade earlier, in a study conducted by Gibbs (1986), it was observed that "staff appraisal was one of the most under used techniques in library training." (p. 61). Gibbs's assertions were partly corroborated by this investigation (see below) and the SCONUL (1995) survey, which went on to record that while library staff may be included in the appraisal schemes of 83 academic institutions, there were only 38 instances where the scheme was applied to *all* levels of staff. Hansen (*c.*1994), while examining the appraisal schemes of two "old" libraries, also noted that staff appraisals covered "academic related library staff" only (p.3). Similarly, Fielden (*c.*1996; see also Fielden Report, 1993), citing the LISU return, reported that the

¹ The introduction of appraisal schemes in universities is of relatively recent origin. Rutherford (1992) argues that its introduction became more widespread in the late 1980s, in the aftermath of the Education Act (1988). As a greater competitive ethos was introduced to higher education, institutions began to scrutinise their planning processes and procedures, including more systematic approaches to staff development.

adoption of staff appraisal was "patchy" (p. 4) with 57 per cent for professional, 25 per cent for paraprofessional and only 9 per cent for ancillary staff participating in such schemes. In conclusion, while appearing to be prevalent in academic institutions, staff appraisals, as they are applied to academic LIS, are limited in scope.

Model for Effective Performance Appraisal



Resultant benefits:

- | | |
|--|---|
| <p>For the company,
Improved:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Efficiency Profitability Training Needs Manpower Planning Quality of Service Salary Administration Performance of Company | <p>For the manager,
Improved:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Relationship Communication Decision Making Removal of Problems Individual Performance Departmental Performance Performance of Manager |
| <p>For the Job Holder,
Improved:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Relationship Communication Self-Confidence Job Satisfaction Removal of Obstacles Understanding of Roles Performance of Job Holder | |

Figure 9.2: Model for effective performance

9.2 Investigation Findings

At first glance, the implementation of staff appraisals appears to be consistent with TQM philosophy because it involves 'measurement'. Consider for instance the comments from a middle manager in a LIS with TQM,

Can you tell me what Total Quality Management means to you?

Well it involves a lot of measurement! We measure and monitor everything, and I mean *everything*, and improve. As it's applied to [this library] it's a never-ending and continuous cycle.

(Middle Manager, Library D)

The above comments reflect Ewell's (1991) prognosis of quality thinking, who posits that the gathering and utilisation of all relevant data is to be found in 'assessment' as well as TQM, a view that is also shared by Marcum (1995). The rhetoric is also detectable in a remark, by an HRM expert, in relation to other quality approaches like 'quality control',

Annual appraisal can be described as an essential part of a company's quality control and stock-taking activity.

Philip (1990: x)

Performance appraisals, whilst widely accepted to be *de rigeur* in Western management, are however admonished by Deming (1982a), who has argued that it is *not* consistent with 'TQM'. On this issue alone Walton (1986) mentions that "no aspect of W. Edwards Deming's teachings was more controversial than in his opposition to performance ratings" (p. 221). The basis of Deming's argument, and one which lies at the heart of *Out of the Crisis*, is that variation in performance is mainly attributable to work systems rather than to variation in the

performance of individual workers². Deming's antipathy towards the performance appraisal is encapsulated in the 11th and 12th 'points' and his third 'deadly disease' (Deming, 1982a: Chapter Three), they stipulate,

11. Eliminate numerical quotas for the work force and numerical goals for management
12. Remove barriers that rob people of their right to pride of workmanship and eliminate the annual rating or merit system.

[Third Deadly Sin] Regular evaluation of performance, merit rating or annual review.

Performance evaluation, Deming argues, nurtures 'a climate of fear' and generates a culture of 'blame'. Ultimately they are divisive to the individual and organisation. The process serves to stifle creativity, by risk avoidance for with "management by fear" (Deming, 1982a: 102) employees will dread the idea of getting into trouble if they raise questions or espouse a point of view that may be at variance with that of their managers (Mackey and Mackey, 1994: 14). Critical of MBO approaches, as advanced by Drucker (1954), which emphasises "results over process" (Mackey and Mackey, 1993: 8), Deming also posits that the performance appraisal encourages mediocrity by rewarding those who set safe goals. The preoccupation with short-term, individual targets also serves to undermine the cooperative, creative and committed behaviour that is necessary for continuous improvement and he is therefore dismissive of Crosby's 'motivational' programme of Zero Defects (*ibid.* and see also Joiner Associates, 1987; Scholtes, 1988; Whitehill, 1991: 210). In summary, Deming concluded that the

² Deming (1982a) illustrates his argument by describing "the red bead experiment" (pp. 110-112). Blindfolded subjects were instructed to draw fifty white beads from a mixture of red and white beads. Despite their efforts, some drew red beads. Deming noted that there were variances, with some drawing out fewer red beads than others. It was concluded that the performance of the participants would be improved, and more uniform, if the system was changed: by reducing the proportion of red beads in the mixture or by removing the red beads altogether.

psychological and motivational impact of performance appraisal on the worker, is debilitating,

(Performance evaluation) leaves people bitter, crushed, bruised, battered, desolate, despondent, dejected, feeling inferior, some even depressed, unfit for work for weeks after receipt of rating, unable to comprehend why they are inferior. It is unfair, as it ascribes to the people in a group differences that may be caused totally by that system they work in.

(Deming, 1982a: 102)

His solution is simple. Managers will cease to have an alienated workforce and generate improvements in quality by changing processes rather than people and by shifting towards group recognition (Deming, 1982a; see also Glover, 1993).

Academic LIS embracing the TQM philosophy, like the University of West Indies (George, 1995) and Centenary College, in the USA, (Marcum, 1995) are two such examples of LIS that have embraced Deming's approach and consciously moved towards team assessment rather than individual performance. In the case of the Harvard College Library, performance appraisal was adjusted to recognise both individual achievement and collaborative skills (Clack, 1993: 39).

There are examples in the LIS literature, mainly from American LIS commentators, that support Deming's presumption of the staff appraisal³. Veaner (1990) bemoans the fact that LIS literature on performance evaluation is, in the first instance, "scant" (p. 308) and argues that the literature that does exist lacks any critical examination because of its focus on the 'mechanics' of conducting staff appraisal. Lindsey (1990) concentrates on the psychological impact of fear⁴

³ There is a chorus of criticism in the non-LIS literature, see for example Zemke (1985) and Halachmi (1993).

⁴ Fear plays a prominent role in 'protection motivation theory' (Rogers, 1983). Like expectancy theory, which focuses on the rational decision-making processes involved in choosing one course of action from alternatives, the induction of fear will alter behaviour when individuals are convinced that: the problem is serious; the problem may affect the person; the individual can avoid the problem by taking certain specific action; and the individual is capable of performing the behaviour required to avoid the problem.

suggesting that there is: fear of unfair or inaccurate appraisal; fear of retribution; and fear of personal failure. Other psychological reactions include Lubans' (1984: 17) belief that performance evaluations are "anxiety laden", or "sources of anxiety" to subordinates and "stressful" for supervisors (Roman, 1987: 1175); and Stueart and Moran (1987: 128) cite feelings of "resentment and tension between the supervisor and employee". In summary, Cirano (1991) dismisses performance appraisals, believing that library managers must enable their subordinates to "function as independently as possible", as proposed by Deming (1982a). Cirano (1991) cites the following reasons to support his view (pp. 90-91),

1. Managers see little or no direct benefit to be derived from the time and energy spent in the process;
2. Managers dislike face-to-face confrontation;
3. Most managers are not sufficiently skilled in the use of performance evaluations;
4. The level of standards, biases, and subjective judgements that vary from rater to rater seriously damage the validity of any rating system;
5. The judgemental process required for evaluation is in conflict with the helping role that should be a leader's prime objective;
6. Appraisals are usually conducted as a once-a-year activity, and they often resemble a formal legal case in which the supervisor documents the evidence instead of conducting a helpful motivational discussion;
7. Employees don't like to hear negative comments, especially long after the supposed offence has taken place;
8. Appraisals are often used by supervisors as a form of disciplinary procedure;
9. Where real disciplinary proceedings are necessary, appraisals can also work against the best interests of the employer.

In the first instance, this investigation has discovered that in the case of those academic LIS with QMS, appraisals were *not* discarded. In the case of those LIS that had implemented QMS independently of their parent institution, there was no indication of the abandonment of the inherited appraisal schemes. Obviously, this

tells us that the 'Deming Approach' has not been followed by the TQM LIS under investigation, for as Deming tells his audience, managers cannot pick and choose from his Fourteen Points, they must accept the philosophy in its entirety. The evidence that emerged from the investigation is consistent with the observations of Bowen and Lawler (1992: 37) and Wilkinson *et al.* (1993), who have reported that even where organisations implement TQM, they have done so alongside existing appraisal systems. As far as this investigation was concerned, there were no questions about the compatibility of staff appraisal and TQM. The following comments were indicative of the feeling that staff appraisal was in some way consistent with TQM philosophy, particularly in relation to serving the needs of the user. Having established that staff appraisals did exist in their LIS, interviewees were asked,

Prompt: What, in your opinion, are the purposes of staff appraisal?

We need to change and adapt in tandem with many of the technological initiatives that have been undertaken in the library, particularly as we are now a converged service. As a result the needs of our user become more complex and varied, our staff need to develop, or update, those skills and competencies so they can continue to provide a service that is expected... I think the appraisal system that we have in place fulfils this function, by identifying those training and development requirements and it, of course, allows us [the appraiser] understand any anxieties and concerns at close quarters.

(Middle Manager, Library C)

... in a Total Quality environment? Quite simply develop, by understanding what skills we need so that we can endeavour to be more responsive to our users.

(Professional, Library C)

...I imagine it's so *we* can continuously improve like the rest of the service.

(Professional, Library B)

... the quality of staff is important in an operation such as ours,
as is the service they provide...

(Middle Manager, Library A)

In conclusion, there is very little qualitative difference between the above
comments and performance appraisal in a quality control context,

performance appraisals are a necessary part of an
organisation's quality control process to ensure that customers
get the service they deserve...

(cited in Pecora and Austin, 1987: 57)

In Thomson's (1998) assessment there are four types of appraisal; self-appraisal, which involves employees making an assessment of their own performance; peer appraisal, which requires comment on performance from an employee's colleague; upward appraisal, which involves subordinates commenting on superiors' performance; and one-to-one appraisal, which is an appraisal conducted by a line manager or other superiors and acknowledged by Thomson to be the most common form of appraisal. The latter form of appraisal was, incidentally, the most commonly utilised system in this investigation. Redman and Snape (1992) believe that organisations need to look beyond this traditional, top-down approach and examine peer or upward appraisal, for these approaches may be more applicable in a TQM environment. Operating from the position that under TQM, the customer, both external and internal to the organisation, is viewed to be supreme, they conclude that it seems logical to include an element of customer evaluation in the performance appraisal. It is also suggested by Redman and Snape that peer appraisal may help underpin cooperation and team-based performance, whilst upward appraisal may help nurture a more open, positive management style. While this investigation did not uncover evidence of upward appraisal, it is worth considering Oldroyd's (1996) perception that it is just beginning to be utilised in an increasing number of academic LIS (see also McDonagh, 1995; Incomes Data Services, 1995 on the growing use of upward

appraisal). Similarly, Hansen (c.1994) discovered a range of approaches to staff appraisal in university libraries, including peer appraisals and a hybrid peer/manager appraisal. Another form of appraisal which may be more acceptable in a TQM environment is '360 degree' appraisal, which requires the individual to send a questionnaire to a number of other stakeholders, like customers, mentors, or other colleagues. The responses come back to the individual, rather than the supervisor, gleaning information, 'without fear', that will allow the employee to amend their actions accordingly (Shaughnessy, 1995).

Fletcher (1993), while accepting Deming's concern of the performance appraisal, makes the distinction between 'assessment-based' appraisal and 'developmental-based' appraisal. There is agreement with Deming on the prominence of external factors that affect outcomes, for these are beyond the influence of the employee, and appraisers in turn face difficulties assessing the impact of such factors on individual performance. The traditional assessment-based appraisal, posits Fletcher, especially where it includes merit pay, must be discarded in favour of an approach which is intent on the setting and reviewing of personal objectives, that is linked to a review of the training and development needs of the individual. In conclusion, Fletcher concurs with Deming, that organisations must jettison the judgemental aspects of appraisal, and proposes instead a process that shifts away from the allocation of 'blame' towards the development of the individual.

This investigation substantiated Fielden's (c.1996) and SCONUL's (1995) findings and observed that appraisal schemes were limited in their scope and magnitude. On a quantitative note, there was little difference between the QMS LIS and their non-QMS counterparts. Staff appraisal had been implemented in every LIS, but was only extended to all levels of staff in one QMS library, with TQM, and one non-QMS library. In the case of the latter LIS the first cycle of staff appraisals to paraprofessional members of staff had just been completed in

1996. In all but one LIS, a LIS with TQM, there were indications that staff appraisals were being extended to all levels of staff. Some paraprofessionals were uncertain when the scheme was to be introduced, with many citing that it had been discussed or “in discussion” (Paraprofessional, Library G) and another stating that it was “in the pipeline” (Paraprofessional, Library C). The investigator sensed that the issue of the staff appraisal was, in a few cases, an emotive issue. Participation, or non-participation, was symbolic of a clear divide that had existed between the two sets of staff. A typical reaction was expressed by one paraprofessional, who was resigned to the fact that staff appraisals were “for professionals only” (Library G). Most revealingly, there seemed to be a contradiction between the responses given by paraprofessionals to the questions on staff appraisals and participation (see Chapter Five, ‘Involvement and Participation’). Whilst many paraprofessionals expressed pleasure with the flattening of hierarchies, or “delaying” (Paraprofessional, Library B), and increased personal participation they were experiencing in their institution, a different tenor was detectable with regard to the question on staff appraisals. Taking Kakabadse’s *et al.* (1988) assertion that appraisals represent an opportunity for the organisation to instill participation in the workplace, some paraprofessionals, who had earlier given a positive reaction to a question on involvement, appeared to contradict themselves and be more negative on participation in this instance.

Having established that staff appraisals were being utilised in the TQM LIS, and discovered the purpose of the appraisal in a TQM environment, interviewees were then asked to comment on the impact TQM intervention had made to the appraisal process. With the exception of some interviewees thinking that there had been a slight change of emphasis by identifying individual development and training and linking it to ‘quality of service’ and commitment to the user (see comments above), “very little change [was] detectable” (Professional, Library B). However, it should be stressed that only two LIS had completed a full cycle of staff

appraisals since QMS intervention. While the evidence was inconclusive, it has been stated that,

Performance appraisal systems that focus on the quality goals of the organisation, the behaviours critical to achieving these goals, and utilise customer-driven data are more compatible with improving service quality than traditional appraisal systems

(Redman and Mathews, 1998: 68)

The only significant change was in the appointment of a Training Officer in one LIS with TQM, who was responsible for overseeing staff appraisals. Without being able to probe senior management on this initiative it was difficult for the investigator to ascertain whether this was because, or in spite, of the library adopting a 'soft' TQM approach.

With reference to the experiences of staff appraisal, again there was very little qualitative difference between the QMS LIS and their non-QMS counterparts. There was consensus that staff appraisals had been beneficial (see below). In each LIS, appraisals were held on an annual basis. When probed on the issue of frequency, this also found favour with the interviewees, although one interviewee felt that with constant changes in her environment the main annual appraisal needed to be augmented with two shorter reviews. Another professional added,

Performance appraisal is annual, but I wouldn't want to wait for a year to speak to my manager. I'd rather go to see him when I need his advice. Likewise, I would like to think that my staff can come and speak to me.

(Professional, Library C)

McDonagh (1995) reports on a form of appraisal held every month or quarterly citing the key benefit of being able to identify problems at an early stage rather than being recorded as a failure at an annual review.

The interviews confirmed that staff appraisals were seen as a goal-setting process, which McDonagh (1995) argues is the “traditional purpose of the appraisal interview” (p. 424). In a typical scenario, appraisees reflect on their work, usually with their line managers, over the year and express their aspirations for the forthcoming year to achieve these. One middle manager reported that the appraisal interview also elicited a frank discussion of the performance assessment (Library I). Interviewees suggested that, by providing the opportunity to review personal and career objectives and any training needed to fulfil them, the appraisals had “created a fresh focus” every year (Professional, Library E), or “plan to follow” (Professional, Library D). Similarly, on promotional possibilities one middle manager remarked, “I imagine I wouldn’t be where I am without the aid of the annual review!” (Middle Manager, Library F). Typically many of these goals took the form of completing training courses in support of CPD initiatives undertaken by the individual (see Chapter Eight, ‘Training and Development’). The identification of training and development was viewed by many as the most important, and tangible, purpose of the staff appraisal (see Lynch, 1980) and again there was very little qualitative difference of experiences between the QMS LIS and non-QMS LIS.

Important psychological factors were also identified, for example one interviewee exclaimed that it was “comforting” to experience the appraisal (Professional, Library F). The choice of adjective here is interesting. From a personal standpoint, one of the more long-standing effects of conducting the interviews during the course of this investigation was the sensation of acting as ‘councilor’ rather than interviewer. On occasion sensitive information was imparted to the investigator, and it was almost as if some interviewees were very keen to share

their predicaments. It is possible that this is symptomatic of the growing cases of stress in the workplace⁵.

While the overall picture was generally very positive, there were some issues of concern. It has been stated that staff appraisals can be demotivating for employees, especially in highly bureaucratic and authoritarian organisations. In such organisations Frombrun and Laud (1983) argue that the staff appraisal represents management's most potent tool in exerting control over its staff. This sentiment was only partially observed by the investigator. One interviewee believed that she could "never be entirely truthful", or wish "to rock the boat", perhaps with the thought of not wanting to challenge the *status quo* (Professional, Library H),

Prompt: So can you tell me how useful the staff appraisals been for you?

No one in their right mind can be entirely truthful at the [appraisal] interview! It's best not to rock the boat and own up to your own foibles and weaknesses. I think that can be used against you in the future should any promotional opportunities arise.

Are you suggesting that the appraisals seem a bit worthless?

Not 'worthless', I think they are a very good idea. I just think they have their weaknesses.

⁵ During the course of this investigation, the issue of 'stress' has received much media attention. In an Industrial Society study it was suggested that nine out of ten organisations witnessed 'serious levels of workplace stress'. The study went on to conclude that managers believed stress to be an unavoidable hazard of most jobs, and they did not regard it as part of their role to help reduce the problem among their workforce (cited in *The Independent*, 1995a). In addition, the Harris Research Centre detected that British employees were reporting higher levels of stress than their counterparts in Europe (Clement, 1997). The growing levels of stress were having a dramatic impact on health, even linking it to the rise of cancer cases (Timmins, 1995). Drewett (1996a; 1996b) reported that there were a growing number of early retirements and insurance pay-outs because of stress. It was also calculated that ninety million working days had been lost through stress-related illnesses, costing British Industry billions of pounds *per annum* (*The Independent*, 1995b; see also *The Guardian*, 1995; Ross, 1996). For a discussion on stress in LIS, see Hodges (1993).

This is reminiscent of Deming's (1982a) concern for "fear" and "blame". To encounter this hurdle, Oldroyd (1996) prescribes an environment that is sensitive to the appraisee, and one that is based on trust and openness. Cultures of organisations need to be nurtured to this end, if staff appraisals are to be effective. One solution would be to examine and utilise other forms of appraisal that transform the appraisee from static to active participants (for example, self-appraisal, see Thomson (1998) above).

The key issue of action, or inaction, after the appraisal interview caused frustration to some,

I will have an appraisal some time early next month, and this will be my... fifth appraisal since joining [the library]! I suppose the big problem is sometimes the senior staff raise expectations. You go into the interview, it's like New Years Day, a new start or you think "right the 'slate's clean' this is how I would like to progress from here". You work out your plan, you submit your goals, they in turn say thank you, one week goes by, then another, then a month and then lo and behold it's appraisal time, I haven't done this course, this hasn't changed or something or other is still bothering me. They're not really that effective or important. You don't really notice any significant change... [*indistinct*].

(Professional, Library G)

However, while management intransigence was "disheartening" and "mystifying" (Professional, Library C), there was also an acceptance that follow-up action was only possible "where the training budget allows this" (Professional, Library G).

The issue of style was less prevalent from the evidence, but equally important. A minority, who were less convinced by the purpose of the staff appraisal, complained of "boredom" (Professional, Library G) or that the process was "sterile" (Professional, Library G), "run-of-the-mill" (Professional, Library F), not constructive ("it's a jolly chat I suppose" Professional, Library C) and that

appraisers (and appraisees) were “just going through the motions” (Professional, Library C). It begs the question, how are appraisals conducted in academic LIS? Are appraisees adequately trained or advised before their interview? Similarly, appraisers need the requisite skills to conduct appraisals. Taking a cue from a remark, on the subject of roles and responsibilities, a middle manager observed that “extra personnel functions had been undertaken”, but “with little, or no, extra training or advice” (Middle Manager, Library I). Perhaps responding to the nature of the investigation, middle managers were keen to stress their increasing responsibilities *vis-à-vis* HR planning, which may be symptomatic of increasing decentralisation in universities as they reorganise, or ‘downsize’, the ‘traditional’ personnel department.

‘Political’ issues also featured highly. As discussed earlier it was stated that paraprofessionals remain distant from the appraisal process. During the course of the interviews, the investigator sensed that on this subject alone, staff appraisals had been a highly emotive issue. Perhaps lack of involvement in the appraisal process had cemented, or created, divisions. Some paraprofessionals complained earlier of being “undervalued” (Library G), and “not appreciated” (Library A). It is possible to surmise that such feelings are ignited by the lack of involvement in the appraisal process, particularly with McDonagh’s (1995) thoughts in mind, who has suggested that the staff appraisal is indicative of the organisation’s willingness to invest in time and effort on the individual, which in itself can boost morale. Oldroyd (1996) has further argued,

We expect all staff to be committed to the organisation, so we must find ways of showing that all are valued, that their needs are taken seriously, and that they all have at least the opportunity to put themselves in a position to advance their careers, or become better paid. (p. 36)

Oldroyd is concerned by the fact that many paraprofessionals in academic LIS are often the most committed members in an academic library, and committed to the organisation in ways sometimes totally disproportionate to the level of payment they receive. Lack of involvement in the appraisal process is therefore scant reward for their efforts. Academic LIS managers often have little manoeuvrability, sometimes relying on the parent institution to develop and create separate schemes applicable to 'non-academic-related' staff, or as Oldroyd (1996) continues,

It is a pity that at Nottingham [University] there is as yet no official appraisal scheme for staff other than academic-related, though one is promised "soon"... Sometimes one is obliged to follow institutional practice and wait for a scheme to be put in place for all support staff in the university. (p. 38)

While the LIS under investigation appear to be in the process of extending staff appraisal, it may be inappropriate for such members of staff. A few paraprofessionals, in those LIS considering appraisal to all staff, were uncertain how the appraisal process could benefit them. This issue may be particularly acute to those members of staff who appear to have no clear prospects of career advancement or promotion and the appraisal could be viewed as a meaningless exercise. Oldroyd (1996) concludes that the staff appraisal may therefore not represent time well spent, especially in terms of training, preparation, interviewing and dealing with outcomes.

Perhaps the best solution to counter the above problems, is to employ regular verbal feedback to paraprofessionals, as *proposed* by Deming (1982a). Bowl (1995) believes that the key to motivating people "is communication and listening." She adds,

Staff can be motivated as follows... good oral and/or written communication is as imperative as internal memoranda. Staff should be given recognition and praise when they perform well. (p. 542)

There were examples of good management practice. One paraprofessional, for example, commented on the “regular encouragement and support” her line manager gave her (Library C), while another exclaimed that “hard workers are more than likely to be acknowledged” (Library B). Such examples were outweighed by more negative comments. Again, management intransigence was condemned, with many interviewees citing *ad hoc* feedback as “infrequent” (Library B),

I don't go round expecting a 'pat on my back' every time I come into work, but I suppose it's just nice to be acknowledged from time to time. I think that's what disappoints me most about working here, you feel some people feel really 'put out' to be able to thank you.

(Paraprofessional, Library C)

We received thanks for our efforts last Christmas, but I suppose you wonder how genuine the praise actually is, particularly when we don't really get any recognition for the remainder of the year.

(Paraprofessional, Library E)

It was clear that feedback was viewed to be more “infrequent”, or difficult, in those LIS with poor lines of communication, and this is consistent with Thapisa's (1989) findings on feedback to ‘library assistants’ (*sic.*) in academic libraries. Thapisa also discovered that while library supervisors were “popular with their subordinates” (p. 124), the key observation from library assistants was the feeling that they were not being advised on how well they were doing,

... our performances are not appraised, so whether we work hard and conscientiously or are idle and negligent makes little difference.

(comments of a 'library assistant' cited in Thapisa, 1989: 124)

George (1995) states that feedback, like formal appraisal, is effective if it is clear and ongoing, she concludes,

The art of communicating can only develop with constant practice. As assessors and assessees become more comfortable with communicating reservations or fears, as goal setting comes via discussion, and as feedback becomes ongoing rather than an annual exercise, the relationship between supervisor and assessee is more likely to be mutually supportive and nurturing one. (p. 149)

Quality processes played their part in feedback, but only a negligible role. One interviewee commented on the growing “partnership” with his user, encapsulated by feedback mechanisms like ‘user suggestion schemes’. Positive, and complimentary, feedback from users was a major cause for satisfaction,

The gratitude you get from the users is particularly satisfying.
It indicates that the service you provide is worthwhile...
(Professional, Library D)

In addition to providing clarity of performance, the key motivational issue above is one of ‘meaningfulness’ derived from ‘task significance’. Hackman and Oldham (1976; 1980) assert that this is the sensation employees will feel if they believe their work is perceived to be influencing the lives of others.

9.3 Conclusion

Staff appraisal schemes have the potential to revitalise employees and can harmonise their aspirations with those of the LIS. While such psychological factors and social factors, like bringing of staff together, were salient issues, ‘political’ issues also emanated. The chief concern, among paraprofessionals, was one of parity with their professional counterparts. The evidence was skewed by

the fact that appraisal schemes were in the process of being introduced to all levels of staff in most of the LIS under investigation, and the investigator sensed that some paraprofessionals were placated by such overtures. Nevertheless, the issue of non-participation had been highly emotive to some interviewees.

With relation to QMS, the evidence gleaned was highly significant, for it cast light on the quality approach of the respective QMS LIS. It is possible to conclude that 'Deming TQM' had not been implemented in any of the QMS LIS, if one accepts Deming's assertion that the Fourteen Points must be adhered to in its entirety. It is indication that the 'purist' version of TQM was not reflected in practice, as far as the UK academic LIS are concerned. While Deming's concern that performance evaluation has a negative effect on the employee, by breeding fear and stifling innovation, was only partly corroborated, the overwhelming sensation, to those who had experienced the appraisal process was highly positive. Finally, the evidence from the QMS LIS was consistent with Debilieux's (1991) and Fletcher's (1993) supposition that appraisal may play a key role in the development, communication and monitoring of achievement of quality standards.

Chapter Ten

Autonomy

In its specific nexus of rhetoric and practice, TQM is often overcoded with the crudest forms of crypto-positivism embodied by the uncritical use of histograms, flow diagrams and Pareto charts. Mix these tendencies with a ritualistic fetish for linear, cookbook-like formulas and the result is a classic case of technocratic performativity.

(Dennis, 1995)

If we are not careful, instead of putting our energies into generating ideas, we will be distracted by the creation of large numbers of cost centres... We are in danger of turning into a nation of bookkeepers, rather than coöperating and networking which is our strength and our professional ethos.

[President of the Scottish Library Association] (Dickie, 1994: 11)

Innovations like autonomous work groups, quality improvement teams and QCs are vehicles for empowerment which, as indicated in Chapter Five ('Participation and Involvement') looms large in the QMS literature. With this state of affairs, in ideological terms, McArdle *et al.* (1995) and Oliver (1990) observe that it is

characteristic of systems like TQM to remove bureaucratic control procedures towards a form of control based on Friedman's (1977a; 1977b) 'responsible autonomy'. Responsible autonomy, which was presented as an antithesis to Braverman's (1974) critique on the 'degradation of work', extols the legitimacy of managerial authority by preparing workers to identify with the competitive aims of the enterprise in the hope that they will act "responsibly" with a minimum of supervision. The ideas were reinvigorated by Peters and Waterman (1982) who believed that 'entrepreneurship' within the workplace was critical to the success of organisations and they posited that firms would reap the rewards of giving employees the discretion and authority to make decisions and try out new ideas. In psychological terms, autonomy has been identified as a 'critical psychological state' by Hackman and Oldham (1980) and is defined as the degree to which a job provides an individual with freedom, independence and personal discretion in scheduling activities and determining how such activities will be carried out (*ibid.*). This chapter will outline the respondents' attitudes towards their autonomy. Using case data from Davies and Kirkpatrick's (1995a) study as a template for analysis, this chapter will outline the impact quality processes have on the autonomy of professionals.

10.1 Investigation Findings

As far as paraprofessional experiences were concerned, there was an almost unanimous belief that autonomy was a predominant aspect of working life in academic LIS. This assumption was held by paraprofessionals in both QMS and non-QMS LIS. The most commonly cited expression of autonomy at work was in the freedom to arrange work rotas and activities,

It's fairly flexible around here... you can arrange breaks and things like that to suit your needs. Most people here are fairly easy-going.

(Paraprofessional, Library I)

From the data it was possible to determine that interference in work from others was negligible. Some cited the “relaxed and open nature” (Paraprofessional, Library G) of their immediate line manager as the key explanation for this autonomy. In general respondents were content that they did not experience the irritant of close supervision, for instance one participant declared, “I don’t feel someone is breathing down my neck all the time” (Paraprofessional, Library I). Other interviewees intimated that they were not dependent on their line managers for continual direction,

I’m fairly independent here. I’m in a job that encourages you to work things out for yourself... and it would be impractical for me to seek guidance from my manager all the time.

(Paraprofessional, Library D)

However, there was also a pragmatic consideration when the above judgements were reached, and these were exemplified by the following comments:

Nobody can have complete control over their work, can they?

(Paraprofessional, Library B);

In any given day, there are a number of tasks that have to be accomplished, there’s no shirking away from that.

(Paraprofessional, Library F)

Similar to Thapisa’s (1989) prognosis of autonomy among paraprofessionals in academic libraries, it is possible to surmise that: employees have little influence on the content of their work; however when the content is determined they can arrange schedules and activities to suit their preferences and; they have the propensity to decide on the level of personal contribution, or style of operation, as long as it does not disturb the job content.

When asked to confirm their feelings on their autonomy in the LIS, middle managers and professional members of staff provided an equally positive reaction. Similar to the responses provided by their paraprofessional counterparts, there was congruence between the QMS and non-QMS LIS,

I don't feel constrained or shackled here... on the whole I would say personal initiative is probably encouraged.

(Professional, Library D)

However, within the context of other questions in the interview schedule, the investigator posits that autonomy is not as pervasive as was believed. This is because the relationship between professional autonomy and quality management has been brought into sharper focus by the sociologists Davies and Kirkpatrick (1995a), who contend that 'quasi-professional workers', such as academic librarians, are particularly vulnerable to management incursions (Davies and Kirkpatrick, 1995b). Their case study data from six 'old' university libraries revealed a trend towards escalating bureaucratic control and a diminution of professional autonomy arising from their institutions' implementation of quality processes, particularly performance indicators. At the heart of their prognosis is the dichotomy of consumerism and professionalism, as they contend that consumerism creates a tension which challenges the legitimacy of the 'expert'/professional definitions of quality. It is asserted that in a consumerist paradigm, power is wrested from the expert because the user becomes "the sole and unchallengeable arbiter of value" (Keat, 1991: 228; see also Pfeffer and Coote, 1991). Furthermore, E. Heery (1993) adds that in the age of the sovereign consumer, professionals are viewed by senior management to be the 'bastions of protectionism' who impede customer responsiveness. It is therefore incumbent upon senior management to create the conditions that allow consumers to make any informed decisions (Davies and Kirkpatrick, 1995b).

Operating from the position that professionalism is 'the ability to exercise independent judgement based on an understanding of the principles of library service' (Library Association, 1974), using a framework that is borrowed from Hoggett (1991), Davies and Kirkpatrick (1995a) argue that professional autonomy in academic libraries is being impaired by the following forms of control: "objectives and performance targets" (p. 97); "standardisation" (p. 98); "task specialisation" (p. 99); "emphasising hierarchy" (p. 100); "demarcations between professional and clerical roles" (p. 100); and "turning professionals into managers" (p. 102)¹. This investigation revealed support for some, but not all, of these factors.

Objectives and performance targets is regarded by Davies and Kirkpatrick (1995a) as the most potent aspect of bureaucratic control. Their case study evidence revealed that work was set so that it was measurable and, in preference to employees own goals and objectives, the targets were set by senior management. It is concluded that this is indicative of management's way of asserting greater control by formalising it along the lines of open, transparent and 'rational' objectives (p. 98). The evidence from this investigation only partly supports this notion. As indicated in Chapter Nine ('Feedback and Appraisal'), there was a renewed interest in the personal goals of individuals as appraisals were in the process of being *extended* to all levels of staff in most of the LIS. However, there was greater support for the assertion that professionals were constrained by the need to meet measurable, organisational targets, as respondents intimated that they were under greater strain to meet institutional objectives,

¹ Similarly, according to Thompson and McHugh (1995), the hallmarks of bureaucratic control have been determined to be: specialised division of labour, hierarchical authority, abstract performance standards, job specifications, rule-governed procedures and standardisation (p. 158).

There's a lot more pressure [than before] to justify the resources you use. It isn't just an economic consideration anymore but, one feels, a political one too.

(Middle Manager, Library B)

'Efficiency' is the watchword these days, you feel you are a lot more answerable in the current economic climate.

(Professional, Library C)

However, it should be stressed that this feeling was equally pervasive in the non-QMS LIS too,

The service standards are rising but the resources haven't matched this trend.

(Professional, Library G)

However, far from reducing the professional autonomy of individuals, according to some respondents, it was claimed that measurement and monitoring had 'enhanced professionalism', as indicated by two respondents from Library D,

I think we've always monitored what we do or how we are trying to do things. If anything, the added emphasis on quality monitoring and improvement has probably enhanced my work.

(Professional, Library D)

I used to manage a library, of around forty people, before I came to [Library D] and I therefore know what it's like to work in a pressurised environment. I think performance measurement reduces stress because, if it is applied properly, it forms the basis of decisions we have to take. If you like, it backs up judgement.

(Professional, Library D)

It is possible that QMS intervention at Library D served to generate a positive assessment of performance measurement there. Rather than viewed as a top-down or externally imposed innovation, interviewees were able to see the context

or framework for their development and use. Abbott (1994) concedes that collecting PIs can be an inconvenience and viewed by staff as something which has to be done for a higher authority however, at Library D, any negative feelings were expunged as respondents were able to judge the contribution performance measurement had made to their own work situation.

The issue of objectives and performance targets feeds into the question of standardisation. Within a consumerist framework, if the user is to have an informed opinion on the quality of the library service it is argued that there must be a greater standardisation of professional knowledge and expertise,

Only by making professional work more 'transparent' through the simplification and standardisation of - previously indeterminate - practices, will the user be able to make informed decisions about the quality of services they receive.

(Davies and Kirkpatrick, 1995b: 784)

The above principle is used by management to make informed decisions on various aspects of the library service and allocate their "limited resources in a cost-effective way" (Davies and Kirkpatrick, 1995a: 99) and, it is proposed, that inefficient or wasteful practices are consequently prone to standardisation (*ibid.*). With the explicit focus on systems and processes to ensure that services are delivered with a greater conformity, the rhetoric of 'standardisation' is predominant in QMS like ISO 9000 (see, for example, Pluse, 1995) and featured in some of the definitions offered by the respondents,

What does ISO 9000 mean to you?

It's trying to standardise the procedures that we have. I know that some members of staff use it for training purposes. I suppose, if I were to be highly cynical, it's trying to improve efficiency, trying to get more out of us.

(Paraprofessional, Library A)

[ISO 9000] tries to standardise everything so we are all doing the same thing... and, what we are doing, meets a particular requirement.

(Professional, Library A)

Reed (1995) has noted that there are two distinct approaches to QMS, which he termed the "procedurally based approach" and the "culturally based approach." The latter approach is concerned with a long-term attitudinal restructuring aimed at instilling a pervasive ethos of customer responsiveness (*ibid.*); the procedurally based approach is one where "rules become goals in [themselves]" (Johannsen, 1994: 231). The procedurally based approach can be interwoven in Aucoin's (1990) characterisation of the bureaucratic organisation: highly standardised systems of coördination and control and excessive attention to formalised procedures. However, Johannsen (1994) fears that when staff are burdened and overwhelmed by paperwork, the rule-bound orientation of ISO 9000 may limit the autonomy of individuals through "bureaucratisation". He also posits that employee motivation is affected in "a negative way" by extensive administrative requirements, a conservative inspection philosophy and an emphasis on document control (p. 231, see also Tedesco and Sputore, 1994).

From the respondents testimonies at Library A, the procedures and quality manuals were deemed to be "in the background" (Middle Manager, Library A), and "[did] not dominate at an operational level" (Professional, Library A). This was explained by the fact that the library had adopted "a TQ approach" (Professional, Library A), which instilled a belief that employees had been bestowed with a degree of "circumscription" and were able to "apply common sense" (Professional, Library A). A middle manager put this "flexibility" down to the vision of the Chief Librarian, who appeared to have set in motion an ethos that subscribed to Gillman's (1992), assertion that "quality management is a state of mind not a set of procedures" (p. 17). These experiences confirm Johannsen's (1994) opinion that ISO 9000 and academic librarianship are complementary. In

acknowledging the critics of the system, who may view ISO 9000 to be congruent with jobs that are involved with “routine tasks, programmed activities and repetitive processes” and not appropriate in contexts where professional judgement is required (p. 235), Johannsen observes that it can be applied to aspects of the library service which are dependent on error free and effective routines, such as cataloguing and inter-library loans (see also Khurshid, 1997). He also observes that there are other tasks that require professional judgement, such as on-line searching, and concludes that bureaucratic means and professional skills can interchange when appropriate (p. 236). This appeared to be the overall experience of Library A where there was unanimous belief that senior management had not replaced professional discretion and control over one’s work.

According to Davies and Kirkpatrick (1995a), the assumption of ‘clerical’, or paraprofessional, duties militates against professional autonomy. Their case study data identified professionals who were undertaking an increasing number of paraprofessional tasks such as shelving. The investigator noted a similar trend in this investigation, for instance while commenting on a complaints procedure, one professional replied,

What are the benefits, or disadvantages, of TQM to you?

... I suppose my main concern is the support, or lack of it. We spend enormous amounts of time just replying to recommendations or complaints. We used to have ample support from one full time secretary, now we only have one part time secretary to assist us with the paperwork. The backlog can build up at times and you have no option but to deal with it yourself, especially as all letters of complaint have to be dealt with within forty-eight hours. It can get very stressful at times.

(Professional, Library E)

The increasing number of clerical duties was a recurrent theme in many of the accounts provided by the professionals. Such use of professional time may be

regarded as a waste to senior management and contrary to the objective of achieving value for money. Davies and Kirkpatrick (1995a) note that PIs have been used to evaluate the validity of professional work, resulting in a diminution in the number of professional posts. They argue that the situation is intensified in cases where paraprofessionals have been 'upskilled' and displaced professionals in jobs such as book cataloguing.

In Davies and Kirkpatrick's (1995a) study it was observed that the introduction of quality processes had enabled senior management to specialise professional work and tie the roles more closely to fixed timetables and routines. In so doing, it is argued that staff were denied the freedom and autonomy to move from task to task. In this investigation, there were similar expressions of anxiety among those respondents who were becoming increasingly irritated by the incursion of the various quality-related teams and meetings,

What are the benefits, or disadvantages, of TQM to the library?

None. I feel distanced from my clients.

Why do you say that?

The QITs just get in the way, in fact I would say that the level of quality has gone down. I have a particularly unique job, not just in this place, but generally, and I therefore know *my* user very well. Everything is done in committees these days... there's so much interference - an added layer of bureaucracy - and it just seems that you have to prioritise your time around QITs before anything else...

(Professional, Library E)

Taking a cue from Hoggett's (1991) observation that, in the public sector, professionals like doctors and teachers were suddenly finding themselves managing a budget and, in the process, transforming themselves into a "new generation of unit managers who combine technical expertise with management competence" (p. 294), Davies and Kirkpatrick (1995a) argue that librarians have followed a similar path and turned themselves into managers. In their case study,

they observe that a trend towards managerialism was reflected in the jobs of professionals, who believed that they were imbued with greater responsibility in 'organisation and planning'. While it is observed that some individuals regarded this as a "positive improvement" *vis-à-vis* ownership in decision-making, Davies and Kirkpatrick (1995a) conclude that professionals were now "forced to work within a tighter framework of financial and bureaucratic control" (p. 103). This emphasis was not detected by the investigator when professionals were asked to comment on their 'quality-related roles'. As indicated in Chapter Seven ('Roles and Responsibilities'), many professionals had undertaken 'coördinating' or 'facilitating' roles and viewed other quality-related roles as a natural element, rather than extension, of their jobs. Although there was no hint that professionals had been elevated to the status of 'managers', this should be balanced against the general feelings, from the 'perceptual data' in Chapter Four ('The Meaning of Quality Management'), that managerialism was more enduring and pervasive than previously experienced.

10.2 Conclusion

Respondents in both QMS and non-QMS LIS expressed the view that they were relatively autonomous. Many interviewees reacted favourably to the assertion that they had the freedom to arrange activities, to work independently and with the minimum of supervision. However, the issue of autonomy, especially professional autonomy, and quality processes in academic LIS has been brought under careful scrutiny by Davies and Kirkpatrick (1995a; 1995b). Their case study results were published *after* the investigator had developed the research instrument, hence the interview schedule did not specifically address the main themes identified by Davies and Kirkpatrick (1995a). From the data, it is possible to surmise that under the veneer of an apparently mundane procedural mechanism that is directed towards the delivery of services in an operationally efficient and effective manner,

there may be grounds to be wary of quality processes. As Davies and Kirkpatrick (1995a) argue, the reality is one that occludes an underlying strategy of control, to which 'quasi-professionals' are particularly vulnerable to, that is marshaled in the interests of senior management. As the authors conclude, although library and information professionals work in an environment where judgement is continually exercised, the balance of power between their interests and the interests of management has tilted towards the latter. Although library and information professionals are not subject to detailed bureaucratic controls, it is argued that academic LIS are, in general, descending in this direction (*ibid.*).

Chapter Eleven

Rewards and Pay

We'd always like extra money. But I don't choose to work here
just for the money.

(Paraprofessional, Library C)

Well I suppose being able to provide a 'quality' service, and
working to the best of your ability, is reward in itself.

(Professional, Library D)

Notwithstanding the fact that it is "characteristic to Japan [and]... taken deep root in the life of Japanese workers" (Sano, 1995: 114), the allocation of financial rewards is deemed to be incompatible with a TQM culture. This chapter examines the role of rewards in the academic LIS under investigation. In the light of the incompatibility, have such rewards been removed and, if so, how have staff been 'compensated'? How are rewards perceived in academic LIS? What other forms of reward exist, and how are they perceived? In response to Handy's (1993) assertion that it pay is a sensitive issue and that "it would be inappropriate to write [about] motivation without some discussion of the role of money" (p. 51), the

investigator sought to elicit attitudes on pay. Within the context of the intrinsic factors described in the previous chapters, the investigator attempted to determine the importance of pay, described by one interviewee as “the perennial problem” (Professional, Library H) in most organisations, and “the paradigm case of extrinsic motivation” (Locke, 1984: 104).

11.1 Introduction

The appropriation of financial rewards is heavily criticised by the quality gurus (see, for example, Crosby, 1979; Deming, 1982a). Crosby (1979), for instance, suggests that to reward an individual’s commitment to quality with financial incentives is to risk demeaning them by attaching a price tag to their efforts. The arguments against incentive pay schemes are congruent with the issues outlined earlier on staff appraisal in Chapter Nine (‘Feedback and Appraisal’). To reiterate, such schemes are, as Deming (1982a) points out, one of the “deadly diseases” of Western management. It is asserted that by focusing on the individual, these type of payment schemes undermine cooperation, creativity, innovation and commitment that are prerequisites for a quality culture (*ibid.*). Deming’s concern is that the individual will work for the reward itself rather than for the sake of providing a quality product or service (see also Marcum, 1995). In short, the suggestion is that rewards elicit a temporary compliance and do not create an enduring commitment of any value or action (Kohn, 1993; Deci and Ryan, 1980). The theoretical basis for this proposition is supplied by goal-setting theorists, who focus on the goals defined in terms of individuals’ accomplishments, rather than rewards. They posit that when employees begin to view the reward as an indicator of how well the employee is doing in relation to their peers it may encourage a transient ‘performance goal orientation’ as opposed to the more desirable, deep seated ‘learning goal orientation’ (Landy, 1989).

It is worth acknowledging that the quality gurus' arguments against any form of financial incentive preceded a time when such incentives like performance related pay (PRP), bonuses and profit sharing were increasingly encouraged throughout the 1980s and 1990s (Wilkinson *et al.*, 1998). From an HRM perspective, it was assumed that these forms of inducements were key levers for change and their employment was witnessed in a growing number of public sector organisations embracing quality initiatives (Pendleton, 1995, on pay and 'quality of service': 224; Sinclair *et al.*, 1995: 258-261; Walsh, 1995). Despite such trends, a consistent line has been towed by the 'newer' wave (Bendell, 1991) of quality gurus, as exemplified in a statement by Oakland (1993) who, in the second edition of *Total Quality Management*, postulated,

One approach that should definitely not be used... is financial incentive - it does not form part of the TQM culture, and would defeat many of the objectives. Recognition and the chance to participate are the only incentives (p. 437).

The need for recognition is also underlined by Crosby (1979), who stipulates that organisations should present 'quality awards' and 'prizes', not necessarily of great financial value in themselves (see also Oakland, 1993)¹. The QMS literature notes that rewards have been tied with processes like the 'employee suggestion scheme', for instance Radford (1992) notes how special awards 'for outstanding suggestions' were meted out to workers at Dunlop Tyres, and Imai (1986) comments that it is not uncommon for top companies to present awards and rewards "based on predetermined criteria" (p. 15). In the LIS literature, such awards have been given scant analysis. A 'Distinguished Service Award' had been applied at the Georgia Tech Library, a library with a less formalised version of

¹ It is worth noting the existence of the JUSE-sponsored Deming Prize, an annual award in Japan that is given to organisations, as well as individuals, for outstanding contribution to quality improvement.

TQM called CQI (Continuous Quality Improvement), where library staff nominated from their ranks fellow workers whose performance had made a significant contribution to customer service (Stuart and Drake, 1993). Crosby (1979) endorses this form of peer nomination, which is viewed as a valuable method of emphasising the value of staff in terms of recognition and motivation. Stuart and Drake (1993) posit that the publicly displayed plaque and cash award creates a "psychic reward" and helps "create a sense of achievement and fulfilment" (p. 134). In Library A, a psychic reward was created by achieving ISO recognition and, for the public display of the 'ISO plaque', was viewed as a significant reflection and "reward" of a "team effort" (Professional, Library A). A similar psychological process in the LIS is outlined by Penniman (1993). Such initiatives are congruent with Porter and Lawler's (1968) expectancy theory of motivation, which re-examines the psychic role of rewards. Their model of motivation has, at its heart, the provision of intrinsic rewards (in the form of sense of achievement, a feeling of responsibility and recognition) *and* extrinsic rewards (exemplified by salary and bonuses, working conditions and supervision). While Porter and Lawler conclude that intrinsic rewards are more likely to produce job satisfaction, they indicate that there must be a limited level of intrinsic *and* extrinsic reward, which will vary from individual to individual. The Georgia Tech case echoes a shift that is detectable in the MBNQA criteria which suggests that performance reviews, compensation and rewards can be restructured to support quality improvement programmes provided the schemes' motivational impact does not focus strongly on individuals' maximising their output volume, as exemplified by output-based payment by results (PBR) systems (United States Department of Commerce Technology Administration, 1997). The shift is justified, for in Snape *et al.*'s (1996) estimation, there is no evidence to suggest that the implementation of financial rewards necessarily undermine the successful implementation of TQM. This finding highlights a cultural difference that exists in Western organisations and their Far Eastern counterparts. In Kanji *et al.*'s (1995) study on the various

types of motivational measures in Japan, Taiwan and South Korea, it was concluded that financial rewards do not stimulate quality improvement; in Japan, such rewards were even abhorred.

11.2 Investigation Findings

While the investigator had gained a preliminary insight from the question, 'what is the role of staff appraisals in your LIS?'², the investigation showed that award schemes, like the one at Georgia Tech, were not operational in any of the QMS LIS, or in their non-QMS counterparts³. Significantly, despite the growing implementation of financial rewards in public sector organisations, interviewees were not too dissatisfied that rewards were not forthcoming. This was mainly because the interviewees did not *expect* to receive such incentives. On the whole respondents appeared to be pragmatic and pointed to the problem of applicability and the belief that academic LIS have not traditionally given such rewards. One professional, while responding to the growing number of 'fat cat' stories in the City, that had been popularised in the press during the course of this study, acknowledged that "bonuses" were "creeping into higher education" but were only the preserve of very senior members of the university. The following statements were indicative of the feelings on rewards in academic LIS,

In addition to your salary do you receive any rewards for your efforts?

² It has been asserted that one of the key functions of staff appraisal is to determine the level of bonuses, or salary, an individual is to receive (Thomson, 1998).

³ When QMS was first being discussed by information professionals, it was revealed that the issue of 'staff motivation and rewards' was debated at the EUSIDIC spring meeting on 'TQM and the Information Sector', however, the minutes do not appear to have been published (cited in Porter, 1992).

I've never received such a reward. I don't think it's something that's been talked about and it's certainly not occupied my mind.
(Professional, Library B)

I don't receive any rewards, nor really expect to. I genuinely enjoy my job, even though it's not the best paid work available...
(Paraprofessional, Library B)

I'm not sure how a reward would work in this library. You could give me 'Monopoly' money, but I don't think my efforts would be any less diminished. I expect I would work with the same determination.
(Paraprofessional, Library D)

One respondent, aged in her fifties, believed age had much to do with attitudes to rewards,

I'm from a generation that just believes in rolling up your sleeves and getting on with the job. I don't need a reward to help me in this regard. I suppose I would find it a bit strange to work for a 'reward'.
(Paraprofessional, Library H)

Her comments were, however, almost universally shared by younger members of staff who also reacted negatively, or nonchalantly, to the idea of rewards,

I would be aghast if a reward was introduced here. How would it be executed? If you paid someone extra for cataloguing *x* number of books, or tidying *x* number of shelves or dealing with *x* number of people per hour, it would be just like working in a factory, and I don't think most people here would stand for that.
(Professional, Library A)

I'm a librarian; I don't sell mobile phones!
(Professional, Library I)

A middle manager jokingly retorted that any further promotion would be rewarded with a "car parking space [he had] always secretly pined for." There

were no comments on the universities' pension schemes, paid holidays or annual leave, perhaps reflecting the feeling that these were basic 'perks' of the job and not necessarily rewards in themselves.

In many of the interviews, the focus turned away from the allocation of material rewards to psychological rewards (see p. 259). There were further recommendations that senior managers needed to communicate with all levels of staff and continue to encourage and recognise or acknowledge staff for their efforts. While rewards did not *appear* to be forthcoming to almost every interviewee, it is worth pointing out that financial rewards are forthcoming to professional members of staff becoming Chartered members of the LA, or any other members of staff who have the propensity to progress up the hierarchy. For instance, in the 11 September 1997 edition of the LA's *Library and Information Appointments* (vol. 1, no. 19) in an advertisement for an 'Assistant Subject Librarian' in a post-1992 university, the salary range is quoted as, £12,512 to £15,761 with "a minimum £14,346 for Chartered Librarians." As expectancy theorists of motivation will deduce from this, rewards attained through the achievement of Chartered status will be a potent motivator if it is desired by the individual, and that they can identify behaviours that will lead to higher payment, assuming they feel capable of performing those behaviours (Vroom, 1964). Furthermore, achieving Chartered status can also satisfy the need for self-esteem (Maslow, 1943), for as Fisher (1994) deduces, "the acquisition of Chartered status is a benchmark in the career of an information professional" (p. 167). In the light of this synopsis, paraprofessional members of staff are the most disadvantaged. As noted earlier, opportunities for promotion are more limited. Unlike their professional counterparts, they receive no financial incentives for any qualifications pursued,

NVQs have just been touted. I think I'd only want to consider studying for one if I knew I could really progress my career, or received extra cash in my pay packet.

(Paraprofessional, Library H)

In many academic LIS, pay is set according to the universities' Administrative and Clerical staff pay scale. There was a correlation between status in the LIS and pay and satisfaction and age and satisfaction with pay. While not conclusive, because of the relatively small sample, younger members of staff, especially those aged below twenty-five, were more dissatisfied with their salaries⁴. As far as status was concerned middle managers were not despondent with the level of pay they received, believing that their salary was commensurate with their responsibilities. This was partly of surprise to the investigator, as it had been reported that other groups of senior staff in higher education were less satisfied with their level of pay (Thomson, 1996). Despite the incentives of achieving chartered status, and additional bonuses, a greater proportion of professional staff showed some discontent, but dissatisfaction was highest amongst paraprofessional members of staff. An analysis of salaries quoted in the aforementioned edition of *Library and Information Appointments* indicates that paraprofessionals can earn up to £4,000 less than their professional counterparts. Thus the status distinction and professional 'apartness' which prevails in LIS is also emphasised in terms of pay, and in the words of Locke (1984), money, in this instance, assumes a "symbolic value" (p. 105). The investigation's findings substantiates Thapisa's (1989) conclusions. While eliciting the attitudes on the "satisfactoriness of pay as an incentive for motivation" (p. 110) among paraprofessionals in academic libraries, Thapisa noted that dissatisfaction was most apparent on this issue. In his thesis he records that paraprofessionals did not consider themselves to be well paid or thought that their pay encouraged hard work. A majority believed that their pay did not compare well with that of non-library jobs and, as Thapisa concludes, the final verdict held that paraprofessionals deserved more (p. 110). While only

⁴ A total of nine interviewees under the age of twenty-five participated in the study (see Appendix F, 'Profile of Participants').

implicit in Thapisa's study, this investigation has noted that the responsibilities of paraprofessionals appear to be growing at an exponential rate, especially since the restructuring towards converged services. There is a view that the growing number of tasks, and progression towards multi-skilling, has not been rewarded in terms of increased pay. Dissatisfaction was therefore magnified as paraprofessionals considered themselves to be at the fulcrum of the LIS and the first point of contact with the library user. The term "undervalued" was a common refrain amongst paraprofessionals in many of the interview transcripts and further accentuated when the topic of pay was discussed. It has been acknowledged by Oldroyd (1996) that such members of staff are, in many cases, the most dedicated members of the academic LIS and committed to the organisation in ways sometimes totally disproportionate to the level of payment they receive. One can apply Adams' (1965) equity theory of motivation to have a better grasp of the feelings described above. In general terms, the theory posits that individuals' evaluate their social relationships in a manner akin to buying or selling an item. Individuals will expect certain outcomes in exchange for certain contributions, or inputs. In short, individuals are constantly evaluating how fairly they have been treated in comparison with the treatment received by others (Lawler, 1990). Adams concludes that a feeling of inequity causes tension in the workplace (see also Lawler, 1971). Where inequity exists an individual may resort to decreasing their level of effort, however this course of action was not conclusively substantiated in this investigation.

While an emotive issue, the topic of pay and rewards gave the investigator an insight into the other reasons why many library staff choose to work in academic LIS. The question relating to pay and rewards was posed at the end of the interview schedule. It gave the respondents the opportunity to reflect on its importance to other cultural, or intrinsic, issues that had been discussed earlier. A consistent conclusion was reached in *every* LIS, that working in an academic LIS

environment for most people is something of a vocation. Social reasons, especially the interaction between co-workers and interaction with users appeared to be a significant motivator and ranked higher than pay. Others referred to the conditions they worked in and compared their jobs with others which attracted similar salaries and that library and information work was an extension of one's life interests. Perhaps significantly, as far as this investigation was concerned, front line staff derive much satisfaction from providing a "quality service",

I have no plausible explanation for being a librarian other than I like working with books! When I'm not here, I spend just as much time in the local Waterstones - I know, my friends and family think I'm mad, wondering why I would want to go anywhere near a book at the weekends! So money, while important to me, is not the sole reason for working here.

(Paraprofessional, Library D)

The pay is not brilliant! I have a daughter who is starting university, but whilst I enjoy what I do, I don't think I would encourage her to become a librarian, certainly if you wanted the financial rewards. But financial rewards aren't everything. There's a great bunch of people here, my job is very interesting and I don't constantly look at the clock, so things can't be that bad!

(Professional, Library G)

I'm sure most people here are dissatisfied with their pay, but you look at other things. I derive a lot of satisfaction working with the people here, some of whom are my best friends *out of work*. I enjoy the interaction with the users and providing a service to the best of my abilities. Yes, it's very stressful at times, but there are worse jobs you could be doing for similar rates of pay

(Paraprofessional, Library C)

There's always been an element of frustration, as far as pay is concerned, but that's the case in every other organisation that I've worked in. Pay is *the* perennial problem, a matter of organisational life!

(Professional, Library H)

If I won the (National) Lottery I would still work here. I think the job, the team and friends I work with, offers something money can't buy...

(Professional, Library H)

Generally, I would have to conclude that what I do is challenging and rewarding but I do have my reservations. I derive a lot of job satisfaction until I think about the money and career prospects and, for me, there doesn't appear to be anywhere to go, unless I changed my career completely, which is something I've contemplated, but not really with any seriousness.

(Professional, Library I)

The opinions expressed above correlate with the view borne out by the literature, and the tacit acceptance, that if pay was the most important criterion then most LIS staff would be working elsewhere (Farmer, 1992). There is an issue of gender too. All but one of the views expressed above were cited by female respondents and, to Parry (1994), the preponderance of women in librarianship perpetuates the notion that relatively low pay is justifiable reward for work that scores highly on satisfying factors such as providing a quality service or working with people (p. 152). It is worth underlining the make-up of participants in this investigation; a total of ninety-one interviews were administered, and the percentage of female participants amounted to 74.7 per cent.

While a consensus was reached that librarianship is not a profession which accrues great financial returns, respondents spoke of stability. According to Locke (1984) "employees value *job security* which really means pay security" (p. 105). The investigator observed that a large proportion of interviewees had many long standing financial commitments, especially to their families or to mortgages. The responses are congruent with Maslow's assertion that pay is a motivator for individuals functioning at the lower levels of the hierarchy of needs (Maslow, 1943; 1970). It is worth noting that this study was conducted at a time when there was a feeling of increasing job insecurity in the workplace (C. Brown, 1996;

The Independent, 1996). Thus it is probable that a 'carrot and 'stick' prognosis (Brown, 1954) may be in operation here. If a positive incentive among the interviewees is 'pay security'; the main negative issue is the fear of unemployment. In relation to the respondents' reasons for continuing to work in an academic LIS, if social issues were equally important, then unemployment is feared because it cuts people off from their society. While not a pertinent issue in this investigation, a growing number of employees in higher education are employed on short term contracts, thus eliminating the sense of stability (Thomson, 1996). In a survey on 'casualisation' conducted by the Association of University Teachers (AUT) in 1999, it was reported that job insecurity has become progressively worse, with casual bar staff having greater job security than senior academic staff in British universities, and that it is a trend that would continue to intensify (cited in Smithers, 1999: 7). As noted earlier in this study, the growing ethos of accountability has led many higher education institutions to shed jobs, and this 'downsizing' had occupied the minds of some LIS staff interviewed. As one professional, who had worked at her library for just under ten years, conceded, "there is no job for life these days... it seems we're constantly under the cosh" (Library C). These comments from the librarian at Library C were particularly significant as the university where he worked in had been heavily criticised, by the AUT, for sacking a number of academic staff in an attempt to cut costs.

11.3 Conclusion

Proponents of QMS urge organisations to abandon or refrain from issuing financial rewards. This stance is problematic, and contradictory, given that culture is central to TQM and that experts on culture, such as Schein (1985), have argued that the deployment of organisational rewards (and punishments) is a primary mechanism for affecting culture. In the study there were no 'psychological scars' in the QMS LIS investigated, because the institutions had no track record and

history of meting out such rewards. There was no evidence of any LIS issuing, or planning to issue, other 'psychic' rewards, as exemplified by the 'Distinguished Service Award' of the CQI strategy at Georgia Tech. While the meaning of work was beyond the remit of this investigation, the topic of rewards and pay gave the investigator an insight into why individuals choose to work in an academic LIS. A clear and consistent picture was evident in both QMS LIS and non-QMS LIS that extrinsic factors, such as pay, appear to have lesser significance to many staff and is not a panacea for motivation, thus substantiating Kanji *et al.*'s (1995) data of motivational measures in QMS organisations in the Far East, and Armstrong's (1996) prognosis that very few people leave organisations for pay reasons alone. However, in common with the findings of Thapisa (1989), the evidence has indicated that pay has accentuated the 'apartness' and inequity many paraprofessionals feel in relation to their professional counterparts. It was noticeable, during the course of the study, that even some professionals, who professed to be satisfied with their income, were hesitant when talking about their paraprofessional colleagues, in relation to pay, by suggesting that there was "probably discontent [amongst paraprofessionals]" (Professional, Library D). While there was agreement that salaries in LIS compare unfavourably to those in other careers, the investigator was surprised that many of the interviewees seemed to accept their lot (for example, "Nobody enters the profession thinking it's going to be well paid, do they?" Professional, Library F). At the time of this investigation there were indications of a trend away from national pay and conditions bargaining as the employers' representatives in universities, the University and College Employers' Association (UCEA), proposed a radical change on these issues. McDonald (c.1995) stated that the UCEA proposals amounted to an abolition of national pay grading and the scrapping of automatic increments for academic-related staff and concluded that this represented "the thin edge of a painful and undeserved wedge [for academic librarians]" (p. 2). During the investigation an undercurrent of discontent was apparent among non-

apparent among non-academic-related staff too. Academic LIS are undergoing far-reaching structural changes and the increased roles and responsibilities undertaken by paraprofessionals are a reflection of these changes. It is possible that the pace of change coupled with these growing responsibilities, without apparent reward, may intensify this discontent.

Chapter Twelve

Conclusion and Postscript

Today, the bewildering array of fads poses more serious diversions and distractions from the complex task of running a company. Too many modern managers are like compulsive dieters, trying the latest craze for a few days, then moving relentlessly on.

(Byrne, 1986: 40)

TQM is an illusion that will pass, like other management fads.

(Crosby, 1995: 6)

The purpose of this chapter is to integrate and summarise the broad themes discussed in this thesis. Given the general approach adopted by the investigator there is scope for further research that will also be identified during this chapter.

This investigation revolved around the following proposition,

◇ *to consider the relationship between QMS and motivation.*

In considering this relationship, the investigation has;

- ◇ identified the effects of QMS intervention, and
- ◇ discussed how staff have been motivated to follow QMS.

As far as the latter theme was concerned, it was evident that the experience of QMS was more durable and extensive in some LIS than others: clearly some senior managers were more successful in interweaving QMS with the culture of their LIS. Many of the findings are not exceptional and corroborate recommendations outlined in the general literature on QMS implementation and in the management of change. There were good and bad practices from which the investigator has been able to determine the following criteria. First, senior management commitment is the cornerstone to quality motivation, it must be visible and durable. Second, the more successful LIS were those that did not treat front line staff as if they were barriers to change: the least successful LIS were those that ignored employees' needs when change was planned. Third, creating the conditions that allow staff to accept change is critical and this investigation identified involvement, communication and training and development as the key conditions. Senior managers must enter into a dialogue with their staff, involve them and not present change as a *fait accompli*. Corral (1995b) advises senior management to get staff to see the wider context, the external environment in which they are working and the longer-term implications of recent developments and current trends. Successful motivation to QMS is supported by the appropriate training. Experience in LIS like Library D demonstrated that effective communication, participation in QCs, training and development can provide an awareness of the need for change and provides the means whereby change and development can be accomplished.

In relation to the effects of QMS intervention, as a framework for enhancing motivation, there was evidence that staff derived meaning in QMS. In the light of users' experiences of consumerism and prominence of accountability, to both users and funders, QMS was relevant and timely to many participants. Thus, as a strategy for cultural change, QMS raised a number of questions about existing organisational values and beliefs. Meanings were shaped by the demonstrable improvements in the service as interviewees considered themselves to be more 'focused' and 'proactive' and generally better equipped to deal with the growing demands of increasingly diverse users.

The focus on involvement and participation has been acknowledged as a radical aspect of systems like TQM (Kirkpatrick and Martinez Lucio, 1995a: 4). There were examples of involvement in quality-related activity, such as *ad hoc* problem-solving groups, like QITs, QCs and other quality improvement programmes. As indicated earlier, in motivational terms such forms of collective problem-solving, from those closest to the process, have been proven to serve as a vital means by which change could be accepted in the LIS (Stuart and Drake, 1993: 133-134; see also Seaker and Waller, 1996). Furthermore, the utilisation of employees in this way develops the self-confidence and competence of those involved and these attributes are the key causal variables in determining motivation and job satisfaction, in addition to levels of performance (Hackman and Oldham, 1976; 1980). There was evidence that QMS had generated a common set of behaviours, including the propensity of staff: to interact with others through collective problem-solving and to add their contribution and expertise to the development of the services and; to build 'high trust' relationships between colleagues and break 'inter-departmental' barriers, especially when examples of cross-functional teamwork were recounted. From this, Line's (1994) view that LIS can reap many benefits *vis-à-vis* communication, stemming from the incessant

interaction between internal customers and suppliers was also borne out in some LIS.

The concept of the quality chain also has ramifications on learning in the workplace. The process of interrogation at every interface by internal suppliers/customers builds an exchange of mutual knowledge and understanding of the immediate work environment. The 'learning organisation' is further validated by a workplace and culture that supports innovation and creativity through participative decision-making.

The investigator isolated the meanings individuals had attached to the quality-related roles and responsibilities from the general duties undertaken in the workplace. Where applicable, academic LIS staff responded positively to the extra quality-related roles and responsibilities, which were more pervasive in the QMS LIS than in their non-QMS counterparts. The roles and responsibilities generated feelings of value and pride and, in a few cases, served to build confidence in individuals. This was especially strong to those members of the organisation who had not previously been imbued with such responsibility, and to those members of staff who had been actively encouraged by senior management to assume the roles. These were the key conditions for the acquiescence of individuals into their respective roles, in addition to being able to utilise their skills and knowledge. The quality-related roles and responsibilities were not an anathema to staff, with many subscribing to the view that the 'extra' duties were consistent with the 'professional' ethos within each of the LIS and hence viewed as a form of job enrichment, rather than enlargement.

The investigator was also able to determine aspects that limit QMS as a framework for motivation. Although some interviewees were able to derive meaning and 'relevance' in QMS, others were less convinced of its validity. In

some LIS, there were no discernible changes in the quality of service, suggesting that QMS was largely rhetorical. Other areas of concern included its close association with the ideology espoused by the New Right, which was unpalatable to some respondents; the feeling that 'quality' had been a cornerstone of the LIS *before* QMS intervention; the managerialist mode through which quality was pursued and; suspicion that systems like TQM were just another long line of management fads which were best suited to business than academic LIS.

While there was agreement that participation and involvement were the hallmarks of their approach to quality at most of the QMS LIS, the cumulative evidence demonstrated that this takes place within a strict management agenda. The notion of 'empowerment' and 'ownership' are often touted when QMS is proclaimed (Peters and Waterman, 1982); this study could only confirm that a more sober form of consultative decision-making (i.e. that there is no *de jure* sharing of authority and power) was the norm. However, interest in empowerment is continuing to rise (Wilkinson, 1997) and *further research, perhaps encompassing methods of observation, may wish to consider how empowerment is identified and pursued in academic LIS.*

There were many ideological issues that serve to limit QMS as a framework for motivation. The central problem is the nature of 'quality' itself. The findings support the assertion that the concept can be exploited by senior managers to legitimise all sorts of measures and changes in the name of a self-evident good. For instance, it was noted that staff accepted their extra quality-related roles, believing they were natural elements of their job. The investigator detected widespread compliance and this possibly suggests that in preference to resisting the enlargement of their jobs, employees have become morally bound to QMS and displaced such thoughts by a solidarity with the interests of management. In times

of insecurity, which was a much reported topic during this investigation, it is possible that resistance will be minimised.

Continuing this theme it was noted how the legitimating device of quality had exerted control in the workplace. On the evidence of the experiences of one professional at Library E, it was noted that management control was extended by the inclination of the individual in question to resist being a “black sheep” for fear of creating an adversarial relationship with her peers, who were more receptive toward QMS. Thus, while the rhetoric is about increased participation and involvement, the reality is one of emasculation and ‘management by stress’ (Delbridge and Turnbull, 1992).

The suggested positive impact of QMS is also diluted when compared to the experiences of staff in non-QMS LIS, perhaps indicating that the ‘cultural transformation’ (see Kehoe, 1996) much pined for by proponents of quality management was also evident in non-QMS cultures. While there was widespread belief that the level of participation had increased since QMS intervention, it was observed that a collaborative form of management was in the ascendancy at the non-QMS LIS. Significantly, participants affirmed that the character and personality of the Chief Librarian was the catalyst behind such style of management. The widespread commitment to the regime suggests that employees want to be led and not necessarily subscribe to a management system.

The emphasis on involvement and participation in some QMS LIS had created the impression that communication had improved. Here, for instance, there was consensus that there was greater “structure and formality” to the communication process (Professional, Library E). However, in general, QMS and non-QMS LIS were similar. Both sets of LIS are exploiting new forms of communication, but uneasiness was apparent in both LIS. Despite the growing media there were still

indications of apprehension, particularly in relation to the control of media, as one interviewee suggested they were unable to identify objectively valid data, “you’re never entirely certain you’re being told everything, senior management will still withhold information, that’s a fact” (Professional, Library F). *Communication was highlighted as a problem area and may merit further investigation.* In this study only one LIS were attempting to tackle the issue by administering a ‘communications audit.’

There was greater congruence between the QMS and non-QMS LIS over issues such as autonomy, training and development (T&D), appraisals and pay and rewards. While the investigator noted that there were no apparent deficiencies in the level of T&D provision, with satisfaction with the T&D activity itself at high levels, more deep-seated issues were revealed, particularly in relation to career progression. Staff in academic LIS appear to be acquiring the knowledge, skills and qualifications which are pulling ahead of job descriptions. The pockets of discontent, that were detectable in the investigation, may become more widespread and it is possible that academic LIS may encounter problems recruiting and retaining their staff in future years. *This is another area that merits further study.*

There was also little difference of experience *vis-à-vis* the staff appraisal. However, it was noted that the schemes were in the process of being extended to all members of staff and *further research may wish to consider the impact and value of the staff appraisal in the workplace.*

A clear and consistent picture was evident in both QMS LIS and non-QMS LIS that extrinsic factors, such as pay, appear to have little significance to many staff and is not a panacea for motivation. This substantiates Armstrong’s (1996) prognosis that very few people leave organisations for pay reasons alone.

However, the investigation was conducted at a time when: an increasing number of paraprofessionals were undertaking roles traditionally undertaken by their professional counterparts and; their roles and responsibilities were changing as a consequence of restructuring and convergence. *Further research may wish to test the investigator's assertion that the pace of change coupled with the growing responsibilities, without apparent reward, may intensify discontent.*

Finally, equality was an ever-present theme in the study. It was evident from the data that paraprofessionals are denied the same opportunities as their professional counterparts. *Further research may wish to consider the roles and attitudes of paraprofessionals in the LIS.*

In the process of eliciting the above conclusions, the investigator responded to the insights and concerns of those commentators who have taken a detached and reflective consideration of QMS. The approach was fashioned by a desire to reach beyond the seductive nature of 'quality' or QMS and, as a result, a critical understanding of QMS as a contemporary managerial and organisational phenomenon has been developed. It has illuminated our perception of the 'new' working arrangements and its relationship and nature to the labour process within academic LIS. The study has also shown how QMS was appropriated and developed within such organisations. As a consequence, a substantial gap in the research has been filled.

The fieldwork was conducted during a period when QMS, like TQM and ISO 9000, had reached its peak, certainly as far as the output of LIS literature was concerned. However, as indicated in the ground clearing study, the take up of QMS in the academic sector had failed to match this trajectory (Mistry and Usherwood, 1995). It should be stressed that the majority of the QMS university

LIS were investigated during this study, hence this investigation *is reflective* of the manner in which QMS was identified and pursued in such organisations.

A qualitative or interpretive approach was adopted, and this enabled the researcher to be more receptive to people's own understandings as seen from their own local frames of reference. The investigation therefore responded to the assertion that systems like TQM represent a significant paradigm shift in the way it has generated "new meanings" and "ways of understanding the world" (McCabe and Wilkinson, 1998: 18), or a "new set of organisational metaphors" (Tuckman, 1995: 58) for front line staff. In an attempt to enhance our understanding of QMS, semi-structured interviews were carried out in non-QMS LIS, and efforts were made to compare and contrast the two situations. The decision to sample in non-QMS LIS was partly prompted by the small sample of QMS LIS but also because of the *post hoc* rationalisation among some chief librarians that the principles of systems like TQM were already being pursued in their organisation. By using these institutions, the investigator was well placed to determine the differences in, and influences upon, motivation in a 'formal quality culture' and 'non-formal quality culture'. In keeping with the objectives of the study, the investigator was also well placed to determine the 'rhetoric' from 'reality'. A total of ninety-one interviews was administered to middle managers, professional and paraprofessional members of staff from nine QMS and non-QMS LIS.

While a series of insightful organisational 'snap shots' were generated, *future research may wish to consider the veracity of employing a longitudinal approach when similar management systems are touted*. Although they have been described as "the best type of research" (Furnham, 1992: 20), the approach was beyond the scope of the investigator because it has been conceded that longitudinal studies in organisations can be "difficult, expensive and time consuming" (*ibid.*: 20). Nevertheless, there have been some useful insights emanating from the Center for

Effective Organizations at the University of Southern California. They administered three surveys, in 1987, 1990 and 1993, to the top 100 Fortune organisations in the USA. The initial focus of the study was limited to approaches to employee involvement, but this was subsequently modified to reflect the changing, and growing, importance of TQM practices. The last survey examined TQM practices and their effect (Mohrman *et al.*, 1995; 1996). Another compelling exposition is provided by Griffin (1988) in his account of the trajectory of quality management processes, like quality circles. His longitudinal assessment, conducted in the manufacturing sector, indicated that factors like motivation and job satisfaction had increased during the first eighteen months of implementation but declined subsequently. Three years on, commitment to sustain quality circles had subsided altogether. As far as this investigation was concerned, although interviewees were asked to comment on change since QMS intervention, the study fails to fully appreciate and embrace the wavering attitudes and long-term attributes of a QMS strategy (see Chapter Two, 'Definitions and Context of Study'; for example, Carr and Littman, 1990). This long-term progress of a typical TQM initiative has been graphically illustrated by Brockman (1992b: 61) in Figure 12.1,

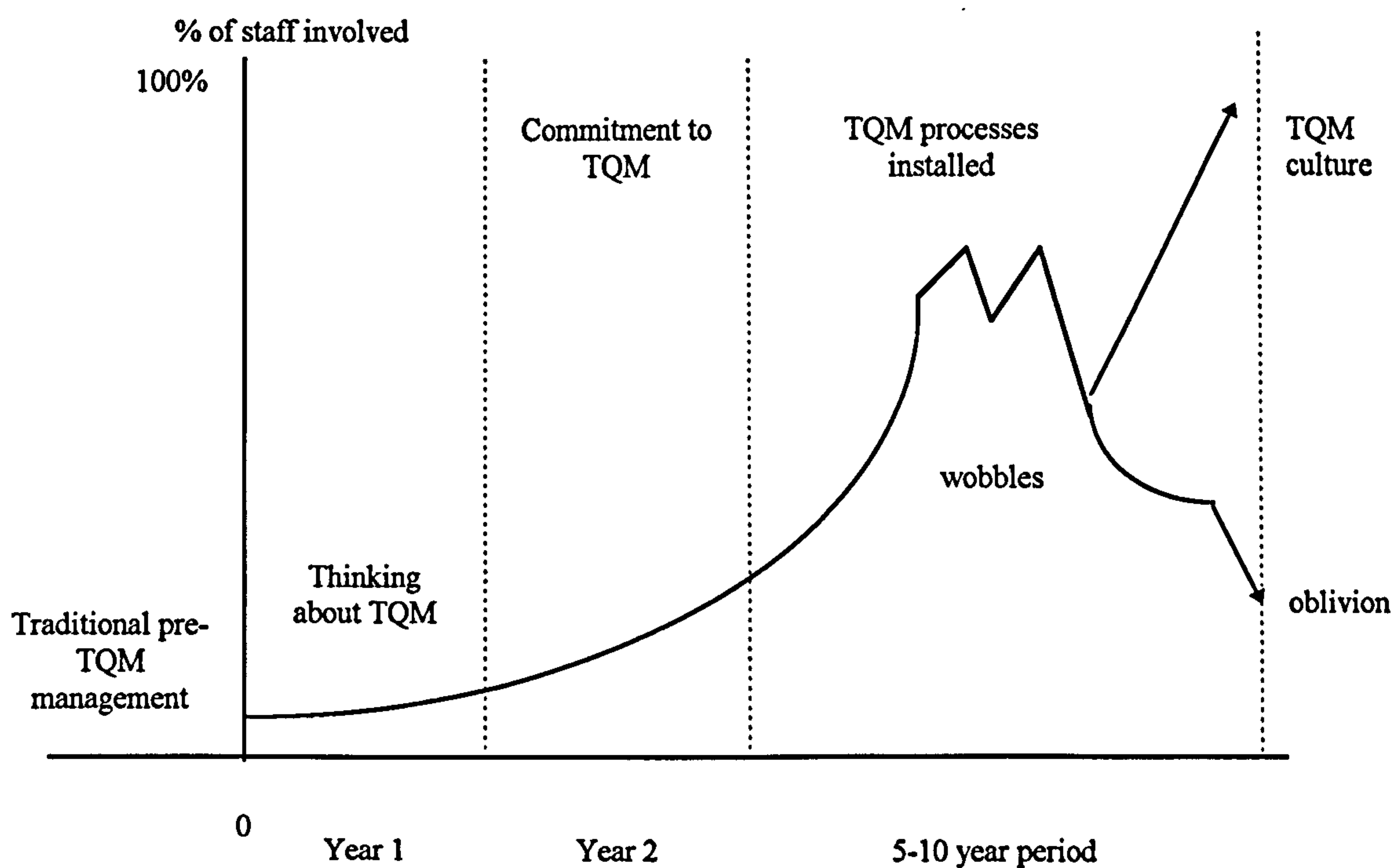


Figure 12.1: Progress of a typical TQM initiative

Well designed, planned and executed longitudinal studies enable the researcher to assess QMS over a period of time and to record major changes that have occurred in the LIS. In this investigation, ongoing external factors as exemplified by, for instance, the HEQC's negative assessment of TQM at Library D, industrial action at Library C (see below) and the gradual decline of QMS in the LIS literature, played a crucial role in both the perception and commitment to QMS. A longitudinal approach may have proven to be more successful in providing a proper assessment of the development of quality motivation, taking into consideration the 'changing contexts', as stated by Jones *et al.* (1998),

There needs to be a debate on the impact of quality on staff and how they can be motivated to achieve quality [especially] if the goal posts, and the context in which these goal posts are set, are constantly changing (p. 12).

Related to the above, as Wilkinson *et al.* (1998) report, because TQM is a long term strategy (or, in the words of Brophy *et al.*, 1993: 248, committing one's library to an explicit quality approach "reminds one of those car stickers that proclaim, 'a dog is for life not for Christmas!'", it takes a while for QMS to embed into the organisation. Wilkinson *et al.* (1998) conclude, it is therefore appropriate to investigate and evaluate such initiatives which have been ongoing for some time. This was somewhat difficult given the relatively recent arrival of QMS in LIS and the very small take up of QMS in academic LIS.

Interviews were conducted with middle managers, professional and paraprofessional members of staff but doubts must be raised in relation to the choice of participants. With hindsight the investigator wished he had interviewed chief librarians, particularly as the subject of leadership is so central to QMS (Deming, 1982a; Miyashiro, 1996). In Webb's (1995) estimation "the final verdict [on QMS] depends on the role and intentions of senior managers" (p. 107)¹. Chief librarians would have been well placed to shed light on their efforts to motivate staff, as well as other topics, like the LIS's recruitment policy. In Wilkinson *et al.*'s (1998) estimation, the development of quality motivation begins at the recruitment stage, and managers may be compelled to select 'already motivated' employees with the "required attitudinal and behavioural characteristics" (p. 41). Had potential employees of a LIS been questioned on their attitude and motivation to 'quality' during the selection process?

The investigator wished he had targeted trade unions. What influence do they have over their members? In Library C, where the fieldwork was carried out in the immediate aftermath of industrial action by the AUT, there were signs of

¹ Or as Deming (1982a) famously remarked on the state of leadership, "The basic cause of sickness in American industry and resulting unemployment is failure of top management to manage" (p. ix).

solidarity in the LIS with the plight of some sacked lecturers. Could the subsequent lack of commitment to TQM there be linked to the mismanagement of the university, as publicised by the AUT? This may be a very pertinent question given the fact that the subject of union commitment to QMS has taken different courses during the 1990s. For instance in a report to the Transport and General Workers' Union (TGWU) on new management techniques, it was reported that,

... the idea of 'better quality' is a difficult one to resist. However 'quality' used under 'Total Quality Management' is much broader and a more dangerous concept.

Unions have been pressing for quality for years - more employees, safer working, more investment, better quality materials, opposition to built-in obsolescence, and so on. However, 'quality' in TQM does not really mean this, it really means *complete flexibility and absence of opposition to management's goals*.

(Fisher, 1991; cited in Tuckman, 1995: 78)

Similar reactions to QMS as 'by-pass' mechanisms and rival channels of communications, where unions have been marginalised and distanced from decision-making and the systems for the negotiation of changes within organisations have been observed by E. Heery (1993), McArdle *et al.* (1995: 167), Roberts and Corcoran-Nantes (1995: 213) and the TUC (1991), who, in the same vein of the above TGWU document, expressed anxiety "about the way in which [QMS] 'worker empowerment' schemes have been foisted onto often disquieted, over stretched and underpaid workers" (p. 21). However, in the latter part of the 1990s, there were indications that unions were not necessarily opposed to QMS, and have since striven to engage in a constructive partnership with management (Marchington, 1995). This trend towards partnership has been noted, especially in the development of QMS like IIP (Goulding *et al.*, 1999). In summary, *any future research, particularly in areas such as change management, has to consider the views of those individuals, or groups, who have the potential to exert influence in the organisation.*

With hindsight too, the investigator wished he had access to documentary evidence in order to make a more thorough assessment of topics like communication strategies or training and development opportunities. The investigator was unable to comment on issues like the 'style' of newsletters, e-mails and bulletins and relied on personal accounts. In general, documentary evidence would have served to corroborate information supplied by the interviewees.

In relation to the questions that were asked, an error was visible in relation to the theme, 'roles and responsibilities'. It will be noted that many respondents were happy to fulfil their extra roles and obligations; the investigator failed to gauge the opinion of those members of staff who were not employed to take on these extra responsibilities. Did they feel ostracised by such events? It is possible that a more discordant picture would have emerged had this line of enquiry been pursued.

Systems like TQM were in apparent decline as the fieldwork began,

>Date sent: Fri., 4 Apr. 1997 12:41:17
>From: X@Post-1992 University
>Subject: Re: Interviews
>Message:

Dear Mistry

I think the best time to do the interviews would be some time after the examinations in the summer (towards the end of June)... I hesitate to ask you to come over however, because 'TQM' has taken a back seat of late, and is so infrequently mentioned in meetings and memoranda these days. I shall keep my fingers crossed and hope, for your sake, that it is still a 'seasonable' issue in two months' time!

Thus, with hindsight, the investigator wished he had included the question, 'where do you think QMS progresses from here?' *Further research may wish to consider*

whether front line staff have the motivation to continuously improve the services in LIS that once adopted QMS. Is there 'initiative fatigue'? Have the various experiences with QMS primed the minds, and hearts, of front line staff to commit themselves to successor initiatives like IIP? What aspects of QMS are retained? Is QMS reshaped and modified in any way?

As intimated above, the pursuit of TQM or ISO 9000 is no longer a potent issue in British academic librarianship. Like many other fads before it, senior managers have succumbed to new manifestations of QMS as researchers in library and information studies have focused their attention on systems like the Business Excellence Model (BEM) or IIP (Goulding *et al.*, 1999; Jones *et al.*, 1998) as senior managers look to invigorate their existing quality processes. The far from spectacular growth of TQM and ISO 9000 in academic LIS had been identified in the ground clearing exercise (Mistry and Usherwood, 1995; Appendix A) and the investigator's analysis of the declining volume of literature on QMS from LISA *Plus* from 1996 (see Chapter One). This trend complements evidence found elsewhere. *The Economist* (1995), in an article entitled 'The straining of quality', reported that the registrations for the MBNQA, which itself was based on the TQM philosophy and methodology, was in decline². 'The straining of quality' article suggested that 'downsizing' had resulted in the demise of TQM, because senior managers believed that cutting jobs could reduce costs faster. *The Economist's* conclusion therefore supports Wilkinson's (1992) hypothesis that,

The context of change should be considered. TQM introduced in a climate of recession and associated with job losses and intensification is likely to be perceived in a negative way by employees (p. 289).

² The first sign of disinterest in the MBNQA was reported by Jacob (1993), who predicted that 'TQM burnout' would continue apace (p. 54).

It is perhaps apposite that *The Economist* made the association between 'employee motivation' and the demise of TQM;

The snag is that downsizing undermines a cornerstone of TQM: employee motivation. To achieve perfect quality, said Deming, companies must 'drive out fear, so that everyone may work effectively.' Yet downsizing fosters fear, as Xerox, the world's biggest photocopier maker (and a Baldrige winner in 1989), has discovered... the firm has been through "eleven years of wrenching change" since it adopted TQM... Xerox is in the process of cutting its workforce by another twelve per cent... (which has) damaged motivation and made it harder to sell the TQM message.

(The Economist, 1995: 65)

There were signs, preceding this article, that the benefits of QMS were not being realised to an increasing number of organisations, or that there was only partial success (Mathews and Katel, 1992: 48-49). The international management consultants A.T. Kearney (1992) deduced that as much as eighty per cent of the TQM programmes failed to produce any tangible benefit, principally because senior management had failed to set realistic goals or look for measurable benefits at the outset. Of the twenty per cent of organisations that claimed to have implemented a successful TQM programme, it was discovered that they were imbued with a greater focus on the customer and aimed to empower front line staff to make decisions. They also retained ownership of the programme instead of relying upon outside consultants and had a clearer commitment from senior management. Cruise O' Brien and Voss's (1992) study, which assessed forty-two organisations against the MBNQA criteria also detected a problem as far as leadership was concerned. Although it is conceded that many of the organisations in the sample were in the early stages of QMS, the survey discovered that too few organisations had adequate 'quality leadership' at the top, and of those that did have good quality leadership, some displayed problems ensuring the same level of commitment to the QMS programme among middle management (1992: 17). Finally, in their assessment, most of the firms in the sample would have rated

poorly against the MBNQA criteria. Pessimistic findings were revealed by the marketing consultancy Abram, Hawkes, in their survey of Britain's five hundred largest companies. Their report described the TQM practices as 'half baked', with two-thirds of the organisations failing to set quality performance targets. According to the managers of these organisations the TQM schemes did not seem to be delivering any of the supposed financial benefits. Although most of the companies surveyed indicated that TQM had increased customer satisfaction, only one-third noticed an increase in sales and only half reported higher profits. The managers of the quality programmes condemned external consultancies, who had no interest in the long-term success of the schemes, for selling TQM to them. They also highlighted middle management intransigence as a major obstacle to effective implementation (cited in Kellaway, 1993: 10). Binney's (1992) analysis of QMS in fifty companies reported resentment and cynicism among both senior managers and front line staff. Like the article in *The Economist*, employees' sense of insecurity was increased and, in addition, their involvement in the process was minimal. Besides being viewed as an imposition from above, it was found that the application of QMS did not promote coöperation between departments and the programme had a tendency to focus on internal processes rather than customers. Binney concludes,

The most common barrier to effective implementation is failure to take the subject seriously. There are management teams which have a TQ initiative because they believe they are required by head office to have one. They feel they have to show they are doing something; but they see TQ as yet another management fad. They acquire a simple first level understanding of TQ but they see no reason to invest time and effort in going any further. The realities of business have not changed. It is merely necessary to humour the bosses until they grow tired of TQ and go on to the next thing (p. 50).

Equally negative conclusions were reached by the Institute of Management study by Wilkinson *et al.* (1993). In their survey and interviews, which was

administered to 880 organisations, fewer than half of the sample claimed that QMS had led to any improvement in sales or profitability: only eight per cent reported a major improvement and forty-two per cent a minor improvement in sales as a result of QMS intervention, with corresponding figures of eleven per cent and forty-one per cent for profitability.

In many respects this thesis is a historical account of a management system that had very limited appeal in academic LIS. It is fitting that the demise of TQM was confirmed by one of the quality gurus. In his response to *The Economists*' 'The straining of quality' article, Philip Crosby wrote,

TQM is an illusion that will pass, like other management fads. Quality standards, such as ISO 9000, will not die so swiftly, even though they are viruses that destroy what they are supposed to enhance. Executives believe that achieving certification will result in the production of higher-quality products and services. This is much like believing that giving people driving licenses produces safe roads. Reality will dawn when managers discover that quality standards, along with the Baldrige award, produce only books of procedures, and not quality.

(Crosby, 1995: 6)

Crosby later concedes that *Total Quality Management* collapsed because it had "good intentions, but no philosophy." However, it is fascinating to note that there is the belief that "quality management" is very much alive. Similarly, some library and information professionals have tried to keep the TQM flame burning, as exemplified in an article by St. Clair (1996). Like Crosby's letter to *The Economist*, it is also interesting to note that as St. Clair's article progresses, the acronym 'TQM' gives way to 'quality management'. He asserts that systems like TQM can still be customised to suit the library and information profession, if they embrace "the best characteristics" (p. 15).

From the data it was palpable that the 'purist' or orthodox versions of TQM were not necessarily evident. As one participant intimated, TQM may have been customised to address the particular needs within the LIS,

Can you tell me what Total Quality Management means to you?

I think it can mean all manner of things. Over here? Well, we've applied it to meet our own special requirements...

(Professional, Library D)

Further weight to this prognosis was borne out by the discovery that performance appraisals had been maintained, or extended, in the workplace in defiance of Deming's (1982a) assertion that they are not commensurate in a quality culture. At Library C, the fact that the QMS philosophy and practices had not permeated to other front line staff, but instead "remained firmly in the hands of the VC and Chief [Librarian]" (Middle Manager, Library C), suggests that the experience was one of PQM - Partial Quality Management - rather than TQM (Kanji and Asher, 1993; Wilkinson *et al.*, 1998). Also, at Library E, it was noted that membership in the QITs, which was central to the TQM strategy there, was on a voluntary basis. One of the key attributes of TQM, and which marks it out against the QC movement, is the insistence that membership in such innovations is compulsory and not voluntary (Wilkinson *et al.*, 1998). Finally, as indicated earlier, TQM was still in the throes of development in most of the LIS; given their long-standing commitment to quality processes, Library D was probably the closest LIS with 'full blown' TQM. In conclusion, the experiences underscore Spencer's (1994) assertion that systems like TQM are not applied on the understanding of the system, but "on [managers'] own conceptual frameworks concerning the nature of organisations" (p. 448).

On a personal note there were many valuable lessons learnt during the course of this investigation. While the earlier methodological flaws were regrettable, the

experience was invaluable and similar mistakes were not repeated in the BLRIC-funded project on IIP undertaken by the investigator (see Goulding *et al.*, 1999). As indicated in Chapter Three ('The Research Methodology'), this enquiry was not viewed by the investigator as a study into QMS *per se*; it was also viewed as a study in data collection and analysis. Many of the insights from this thesis were applied in the above project but, most importantly, the whole process imbued the investigator with many personal skills which were also utilised. These included the ability to communicate, listen, negotiate, empathise and present findings. It is hoped that the pride and self-confidence generated by completing this PhD will whet the appetite of the investigator when other opportunities for research arise.

Although systems like TQM and ISO 9000 are now considered to be "outdated" (IDS, 1998: 1), or no longer 'on the menu of the consultants café' (Oliver, 1993), as Crosby (1995) and St. Clair (1996) correctly predict, interest in management systems that purport to make organisations "leaner", "fitter" and more competitive, by reducing waste and delay, will continue apace. So long as the issue of accountability persists, and universities continue to operate within "an artificial market economy"³ (see Deem, 1998: 7), senior managers will *always* be seduced by management fads and fashions because their needs are rarely satisfied (Huczynski, 1993; Micklethwait and Wooldridge, 1996). It is also evident that, in an ever-increasing competitive climate, a predictable cycle from infatuation to disillusionment will be enacted, especially when there are no discernible or immediate results (Caulkin, 1993; Micklethwait and Wooldridge, 1996). For academic LIS managers,

The fascination ... with the latest managerial techniques may be seen positively as reflecting the necessary secularisation of libraries - no longer venerable temples for the cult of the book, but dynamic vehicles for the exchange of information in all its

³ With acknowledgements to Mr. David Allen, Lecturer, Department of Information Studies, University of Sheffield.

forms and states. The devil's advocate might see it differently, for instance, as the mark of a bewildered profession rapidly losing its traditional identity and uncritically casting around for any new device or symbol which appear to give it relevance in the present age.

(Cotta-Schonberg and Helsted, 1994: 208)

It follows that ideas in good currency are taken up as a method of signaling management competence and, because services cannot be measured and academic LIS are not obsessed with 'bottom line' results as their private sector counterparts, the nature of the management system itself becomes a mark of effectiveness. Recently completed research on IIP has picked up on this point (Goulding *et al.*, 1999). While there are clear indications of a revival of interest in quality initiatives, as exemplified by the interest in the BEM in public LIS in response to demonstrating 'Best Value' (Jones *et al.*, 1998), one must not lose sight of Wilkinson *et al.*'s (1998) observations, that all the fads of the 1980s and 1990s have attempted to restructure the environment to one of greater flexibility and customer responsiveness: it is possible that while we may be witnessing the development of *different* approaches, they are being implemented to address the *same* organisational transformation and phenomena (*ibid.*). Given this prognosis it is hoped that this investigation will provide a template for further investigation as new manifestations of TQM or ISO 9000 come to the fore.

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Glossary

QMS Terms and Organisations

Audit: A formalised system of examination and review to check for compliance with procedures and to determine whether the procedures are still appropriate (Porter, 1992).

Benchmarking: Benchmarking, or best practice benchmarking (BPB) is defined as a structured and rational method of measuring performance against the best. Jurow (1993: 120) has described a benchmark as “something that serves as a standard by which others may be measured.” According to Jurow (1993) there are two types of benchmark; competitive or performance benchmark and functional or process benchmark. The competitive or performance benchmark is when an LIS examines the practices at other LIS and then compares its services to theirs; the functional or process benchmark is employed when the LIS seeks outside help to aid them with a particular function or process, for example, Martin (1993: 43) recalls how the library at the University of Hertfordshire liaised with Tesco “to explore ways of reducing workloads and improving efficiency connected with shelf order and shelving with counter services.” Camp (1989) identifies an internal benchmark, in which an organisation seeks uniform good practice through internal comparisons and a generic benchmark, in which all processes or functions are measured against the best (see also Allan, 1993; Peischl, 1995; Town, 1996).

British Quality Foundation (BQF): The BQF, formerly the British Quality Association (BQA), was founded in 1991 and was created to enhance the performance and effectiveness of organisations in the UK through the promotion of total quality management practices, including running the UK Quality Award. Its role is similar to that of JUSE in Japan.

British Standards Institution (BSI): BSI is responsible for preparing British Standards which are used in all industries and technologies. It also represents British interests at international standards discussions to ensure that European and world-wide standards will be acceptable to British industry. The standards in the quality field, that have been published by the BSI include BS 4778 (Quality Vocabulary); BS 6143 (Guide to the Economics of Quality); BS 7850 (Total Quality Management); and BS EN ISO 9000 (Quality Management Systems).

BS 5750: The former name of BS EN ISO 9000 (renamed in 1994). It is the standard for Quality Assurance.

Business Excellence Model (BEM): see European Quality Award (EQA).

Business Process Re-engineering (BPR): The successor to TQM (Valentine and Knights, 1998) and hailed as “the biggest business innovation of the 1990s” (Mill, 1994: 26). It became popularised in articles by Davenport and Short (1990) and Hammer (1990), who argued the case for a radical transformation of business processes, sometimes creating new ones, rather than an incremental improvement of business processes, as witnessed in TQM. It was viewed by Kehoe (1995) as “the approach to fundamentally redesigning the business process rather than simply improving the operation of existing processes” (p. 108). Success was limited, as Micklethwait and Wooldridge (1996) reported that a vast majority of organisations adopting BPR had not seen any improvements in performance and productivity.

Charter: A list of service elements or levels to which the customer is entitled by right. This can include specific levels of service (e.g. times, quantities, percentage success rates) or general definitions of service quality (e.g. speed, courtesy, tidiness) (see Bulpitt, 1996).

Citizens Charter: The brainchild of the Major administration (HMSO, 1991a). Its publication was heralded as “the most far-reaching programme ever devised to improve quality in public services” (Conservative Party, 1992: 13). The core themes of the *Citizens Charter* were listed as: quality; choice; standards; and value.

Company-Wide Quality Control (CWQC): The Japanese used the term CWQC (Ishikawa and Mizuno, 1985), as a logical development of Feigenbaum’s (1954) Total Quality Control (TQC). It is asserted that ‘TQM’ was the West’s answer to CWQC (Dahlgard *et al.*, 1994; 1998).

Continuous Improvement: According to Jurov and Barnard (1993), continuous improvement is defined as trying to do better all the time. In TQM, it is a *philosophy* which encompasses a variety of statistical tools, techniques and problem-solving processes and shifts the mindset of the organisation from “If it ain’t broke, don’t fix it” to “Continue to improve, even if it ain’t broke” (*ibid.*: 4).

Continuous Quality Improvement (CQI): According to O’Neil (1993), CQI is one of the popular programme labels for TQM; CQI is a fundamental element of TQM but the two are used

interchangeably. In the case of the Harvard College Library, CQI was used instead of TQM, partly because of the problematic jargon of TQM (Clack, 1993); O'Neil (1993) has suggested that for some, using CQI eliminates the word "management" and drives out fear and scepticism.

Cost of Quality (COQ): A measurement of what an organisation spends for its overall quality, and is usually divided into three groups: prevention, appraisal and failure.

Crosby, Philip B.: Described by Bendell (1991) as one of the new Western wave of quality gurus, who have embarked on raising quality awareness in the 1970s and 1980s. Crosby's key contribution is his concept of 'doing things right first time' and 'zero defects'. Operating from the position that quality is 'conformance to requirements', Crosby has put forward his own 'absolutes' of quality management: 1. Quality is defined as conformance to requirements, not as 'goodness' nor elegance; 2. The system for causing quality is prevention, not appraisal; 3. The performance standard must be Zero Defects, not 'that's close enough'; 4. The measurement of quality is the Price of Non-conformance, not indices. These absolutes are supported by 'Fourteen Steps to Quality Improvement': 1. Make it clear that management is committed to quality; 2. Form quality improvement teams with senior representatives from each department; 3. Measure processes to determine where current and potential quality problems lie; 4. Evaluate the cost of quality and explain its use as a management tool. 5. Raise the quality awareness and personal concern of all employees; 6. Take actions to correct problems identified through previous steps; 7. Establish progress monitoring for the improvement process; 8. Train supervisors to actively carry out their part of the quality improvement programme; 9. Hold a Zero Defects Day to let everyone realise that there has been a change and to reaffirm management commitment; 10. Encourage individuals to establish improvement goals for themselves and their groups; 11. Encourage employees to communicate to management the obstacles they face in attaining their improvement goals; 12. Recognise and appreciate those who participate; 13. Establish quality councils to communicate on a regular basis; 14. Do it all over again to emphasise that the quality improvement programme never ends.

Customer: The customer can be both internal or external to an organisation (see Oakland, 1989). A customer is defined as anyone who receives a product, information, or service from another individual or department. In a QMS environment, attention must be paid to both internal and external customer requirements, as argued by Hand (1992),

Total quality embraces more than the external customer. It recognises that everyone in a business provides a service. Some services happen to be provided to external customers, some to an internal customer. If the needs of an external customer are not met, he (*sic.*) is likely to take his business elsewhere. If the needs of an internal customer are not met, he (*sic.*) has to spend time putting things right. Either way, the business loses. In a total

quality company, everyone strives to meet the needs of their customers (internal and external), and then to improve continuously the efficiency and effectiveness of the service (p. 27).

Customer Care: A structured approach to management which emphasises the importance of the customer (both 'internal' and 'external').

Deming, W. Edwards: Acknowledged to be the founding father of the modern quality revolution (Morgan and Murgatroyd, 1995), his ideas became the benchmark for TQM (Bendell, 1991). Deming enjoyed a renaissance after the transmission of a documentary on NBC in 1980 entitled, 'If Japan Can... Why Can't We?' Deming's doctrine is underpinned by the belief that statistical sampling methods, which aims to reduce scrap and re-work, could be applied to both manufacturing and non-manufacturing activities, in the pursuit of increased productivity. His ideas were more receptive in the climate of post-war Japan, rather than his native USA, where he encouraged managers to focus on variability and understand the difference between 'special' causes and 'common' causes, thus developing Shewhart's doctrine. The 'common' causes of variation were particularly revolutionary, in the sense that he urged managers to think that defects in quality were due to processes rather than employees. The systematic approach to discovering this variation was known as the Deming Wheel or P-D-C-A (Plan, Do, Check, Action) cycle. 'Deming TQM' is enshrined in the Fourteen Points: 1. Constancy of purpose: create constancy of purpose for continual improvement of product and service; 2. The new philosophy: adopt the new philosophy. Organisations can no longer live with commonly accepted levels of delays, mistakes, defective workmanship; 3. Cease dependence on mass inspection. Require, instead, statistical evidence that quality is built on; 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 the 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 to pride of 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 thirteen points. Deming asserts that organisations must embrace all the Fourteen Points and embrace the whole of the philosophy; they cannot pick and choose those pieces with which they feel most comfortable. In addition to the Fourteen Points, he identified Seven Deadly Diseases, which act as barriers to a Total

Quality culture; 1. Lack of constancy of purpose; 2. Emphasis on short-term profits and short-term thinking; 3. Regular evaluation of performance, merit rating or annual review; 4. Mobility of management: job hopping and lack of consolidation; 5. Management by use of visible figures, with little or no consideration of figures that are unknown or unknowable; 6. Excessive medical costs; and 7. Excessive costs of liability (Deming, 1982a).

Department of Trade and Industry (DTI): The DTI promoted quality management as part of its 'Managing in the '90s' programme.

European Quality Award (EQA) Assessment Model: Framework for TQM, equivalent to the Business Excellence Model (BEM). The EQA self-assessment model recognises that 'processes' are the means by which an organisation harnesses and releases the talents of its people to produce 'results'. Moreover, the processes and the people are the 'enablers' which produce 'results'. The enablers are: leadership; people management; policy and strategy; resources; and processes. The results are: people satisfaction; customer satisfaction; impact on society; and business results (European Foundation for Quality Management, 1995). A joint project between the Universities of Loughborough and Sheffield, funded by BLRIC, has examined the veracity of the BEM model in public LIS (Jones *et al.*, 1998)

External Customer: Within the academic LIS setting, this may include stakeholders outside the organisation like, students, academic staff, the research community or government and funding bodies.

Failure Mode Effect Criticality Analysis (FMECA): A statistical tool used to determine potential failures and their effects (Neave, 1990).

Feigenbaum, Armand V.: A quality guru who, like Deming and Juran, was first prominent in the 1950s. Like Deming and Juran, his background was in manufacturing but although much of his philosophy is rooted concerned with statistical and technical concerns, he emphasised management methods and considered human relations as the basic issue in quality control activities (Feigenbaum, 1983). His ten benchmarks for 'total quality success' are; 1. Quality is a companywide process; 2. Quality is what the customer says it is; 3. Quality and cost are a sum, not a difference; 4. Quality requires both individual and team zealotry; 5. Quality is a way of managing; 6. Quality and innovation are mutually dependent; 7. Quality is an ethic; 8. Quality requires continuous improvement; 9. Quality is the most cost-effective, least capital-intensive route to productivity; 10. Quality is implemented with a total system connected with customers and suppliers.

'Hard' TQM: A form of TQM with heavier reliance on the use of statistical evidence. It is implied that a vast majority of the earlier studies on TQM concentrated on the 'hard' version of

TQM because of the earlier quality gurus preoccupation with statistics (Wilkinson and Willmott, 1995).

Institute of Quality Assurance (IQA): The IQA represents the UK in the European Organisation for Quality. Training aids and information is provided to organisations and study programmes through which academic qualifications are attainable are also organised.

Internal Customer: Internal customers are employees inside the organisation “who receive the output of the organisation’s processes” (Jurov and Barnard, 1993: 4). By being suppliers, they become aware and sensitive of the requirements of fellow workers, or the next person in the quality chain (Oakland, 1989).

International Standards Organisation (ISO): The ISO is a non-governmental organisation and worldwide federation of national standards bodies from over 100 countries, established in 1947. The mission of the ISO is to promote the development of standardisation and related activities with a view to facilitating the international exchange of goods and services, and to developing cooperation in the spheres of intellectual, scientific, technological and economic activity.

Investors in People: Investors in People (IIP) was formally established as a national standard, in October 1991, for organisations to exploit the skills of their employees and set a framework for training and development (IIP UK, c.1997). There are four principles of the Standard: first, there needs to be a public commitment from the top to develop all employees to achieve business objectives; second, a regular review of training and development needs of all employees in line with business objectives; third, action to train and develop individuals on recruitment and throughout their employment; and finally, evaluation of the investment in training and development to assess achievement and improve future effectiveness. (For a discussion of how LIS have been affected by IIP see Mistry and Goulding, 1998; Goulding *et al.*, 1999)

Ishikawa, Kairu: Ishikawa is best known for his commitment to get front line employees to understand and practice ‘quality’ by being involved in ‘quality circles’. He was a key quality guru in the development of the company-wide quality control (CWQC) movement in Japan and argued the case for total participation, ‘quality’ from senior management to rank and file workers (Ishikawa, 1982; 1985). It is suggested that greater employee involvement and motivation is generated through: an atmosphere where employees are continuously seeking to resolve problems; greater commercial sensitivity and awareness; and a change of shopfloor attitude in aiming for ever increasing goals.

Japanese Union of Scientists and Engineers (JUSE): Organisation set up in the 1950s responsible for marketing and promoting the works of Deming and Juran.

Juran, Joseph: Like Deming, Juran was initially popular in Japan in the 1950s. His ideas emphasised that quality control should be conducted as an integral part of management

leadership and control. 'Quality' must, he asserted, be planned for and his 'Trilogy' (quality planning, quality control and quality improvement) the philosophy which underpinned his approach. As far as this investigation is concerned, Juran's key contribution was in the identification of 'internal' as well as external customers. He emphasised the need for continuous awareness of the customer in all functions and this is reflected in this 'quality planning road map' of Nine Steps: 1. Identify who are the customers; 2. Determine the needs of those customers; 3. Translate those needs into our language; 4. Develop a product that can respond to those needs; 5. Optimise the product features so as to meet our needs as well as customer needs; 6. Develop a process which is able to produce the product; 7. Optimise the process; 8. Prove that the process can produce the product under operating conditions; 9. Transfer the process to Operations. Like Deming, Juran asserts that the majority of quality problems are attributable to the fault of poor management rather than by poor performance of the worker and believed that management controllable defects account for over eighty per cent of all quality problems (Juran, 1989).

Just-in-Time (JIT) Manufacturing: An approach where the inputs to processes arrive as they are needed by the process for production activities. The overall aim is to reduce costs and improve work flows.

Kaizen: Japanese term that means continual and gradual improvement by taking well-focused evaluative steps towards higher standards. Can also mean involvement of all employees in organisational problem solving.

Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award (MBNQA): A framework for TQM, which inspired the Business Excellence Model. It was introduced in 1987 in recognition of the fact that TQM is a broad culture change vehicle with internal and external focus. The award criteria are built upon a set of core values and concepts: customer-driven quality; leadership; continuous improvement and learning; employee participation and development; fast response; design quality and prevention; long-range view of the future; management by fact; partnership development; corporate responsibility and citizenship; and results orientation (United States Department of Commerce Technology Administration, 1997; see also Keiser, 1993 and Penniman, 1993 for applicability of the MBNQA to LIS).

Møller, Claus: Identified by Bendell (1991) as one of the 'new wave' of quality gurus, Møller (1987) is an advocator 'personal quality'. Motivation lies at the heart of personal quality, it is made up of two strands: ideal performance level (IP) and actual performance level (AP). The IP level is the employee's personal quality goal, and is a value influenced by experiences in later years. In other words, the IP level will vacillate in early years and stabilise later. It is asserted that the IP level has a decisive effect on the individual's development and future opportunities

(Bendell, 1991). The AP level is influenced by the individual's self-esteem, or the acceptable feeling experienced with the AP level matching the IP level (*ibid.*).

National Accreditation Council for Certification Bodies (NACCB): see UK Accreditation Services.

Oakland, John: Considered by some to represent the new (British) wave of quality gurus (Wilkinson and Willmott, 1995), Oakland is significant in the development of 'soft' TQM. His approach emphasises the importance of 'soft' factors, like 'teamwork', in delivering quality goods and services (see Oakland, 1993; 1995).

Partial Quality Management (PQM): Term coined by Wilkinson *et al.* (1998) to describe the fragmentary way TQM has been applied in the UK.

Performance Indicator (PI): A combination of two or more performance measures (see below) to give a meaningful assessment of the performance of a service

Performance Measure(ment) (PM): Quantitative data which reflect the performance of a service.

Peters, Tom: Like Crosby, Bendell (1991) describes Peters as one of the new Western wave of quality gurus responsible for popularising 'quality awareness' in the 1980s. He is noted for researching the 'secrets' of the most successful companies in *In Search of Excellence* (Peters and Waterman, 1982) and *A Passion For Excellence* (Peters and Austin, 1985) His contribution to TQM has been to endorse a type of leadership, which he identified as 'leadership by walking about', and give prominence to customer orientation. Peters' (1989) twelve-point plan for quality in *Thriving on Chaos* contains the added dimension that quality is a virtue to be sought for its own sake.

Plan-Do-Check-Act (PDCA): Otherwise known as the Deming Wheel, it is a systematic approach to problem solving. Plan - work out changes based on actual data; Do - make the change; Check - evaluate effects, gather results; Act - study outcomes, draw conclusions (Deming, 1982a).

Quality: As outlined in this thesis, quality is a nebulous and "slippery concept" (Garvin, 1988: ix) (see Chapter Two). A wide variety of approaches to defining quality are evident. For example, Feigenbaum (1983) suggests quality equates to 'value'; Crosby (1979), conformance to requirements, standards or specifications; Juran (1989), fitness for use; Peters and Waterman (1989), excellence; Parasuraman *et al.* (1985), meeting or exceeding customer expectations'; and delighting the customers (Peters, 1989). The investigator asserts that the seduction of quality to managers is evident because of its "slippery" nature and also its positive connotations.

Quality Assurance (QA): A structured approach to management which aims to guarantee that a service or product continuously meets a specified level of quality. It has been defined in BS 4778

(Quality Vocabulary) as “the totality of features and characteristics of a product or service that bear on its ability to satisfy stated or implied needs.”

... an attempt to guarantee the quality of service offered by a library and information service (LIS) - the aim is to decide, in advance, what quality of service one can afford, and then to achieve that degree of quality... quality assurance is an attempt to define how well you want to perform.

(Taylor and Wilson, 1990: x)

... a generic description of an approach leading to a state of affairs (i.e. a high degree of confidence that quality requirements will be met).

(Tedesco and Sputore, 1994: 371)

Information professionals like Melling (1996a: 36) have assessed QA to incorporate four key elements, saying what you do; doing what you say; recording that you've done it; and improving it for the next time.

Quality Chains: First coined by Oakland (1989), this is the proposition that in every organisation there is a series of 'quality chains' consisting of customers and suppliers. Oakland (1989) contends that 'failure' usually finds its way to the interface between the organisation and its outside customers, and the people who operate at that interface usually experience the ramifications. He posits that “the concept of internal and external customers/suppliers forms the core of total quality” (Oakland, 1995: 7). People must be aware of their immediate customers, both internal or external, and ensure that the chain is never broken, if quality is to be maintained.

Quality Circle: Promoted heavily by Ishikawa (1985), it is a team that meets voluntarily, on as frequent a basis as necessary, to improve the quality of a product or service. The National Society of Quality Circles defines it as “a group of four to twelve people from the same work area who meet voluntarily and regularly to identify, investigate, analyse and solve their own work-related problems. The circle presents solutions to management and is involved in implementing and late monitoring them” (cited in Speakman, 1994: 51). They were popular in Japan in the 1960s, while the USA began to implement the concept in earnest, having realised their potential in the 1970s and 1980s. Ishikawa (1985) asserts that teamwork and lower-level employee involvement are critical parts of the process and that effective teamwork is critical to the team's success. The key rationale of the circle is that quality is more likely to improve if those closest to the process are involved. Forerunner to Quality Improvement Teams (QIT), Corrective Action Teams (CAT) etc.

Quality Control: Quality Control was prominent during the 1920s and championed by Shewhart (1931). It involves the employment of control systems, product testing and

documentation control to ensure greater process control and reduced non-conformance (Kanji and Asher, 1993).

Quality Function Deployment (QFD): A system that employs a method of design based upon the input of all members in the chain (e.g. from marketing, designing, engineering etc.) to the customer and supplier.

Quality Gurus: As Morgan and Murgatroyd (1995) have outlined, the development of the TQM philosophy has come together over a period of thirty-five years by *different* authors, sometimes referred to as the 'quality gurus' (Bendell, 1991). They include the early Americans who took the message of QMS to the Japanese in the early 1950s (W. Edwards Deming, Joseph Juran and Armand V. Feigenbaum); the Japanese who embraced and applied this message (Kaoru Ishikawa, Genichi Taguchi and Shigeo Shingo) and the new Western wave concentrating on 'quality awareness' in the 1970s and 1980s (Philip B. Crosby, Tom Peters and Claus Møller) (Bendell, 1991: 5). Other influential British quality gurus, like John Oakland, have also been identified by Wilkinson and Willmott (1995).

Quality Management System (QMS): Within the context of this study, QMS is a generic term used to include ISO 9000 and TQM.

Quality Revolution: A term coined by Oakland (1989) to describe the period (1970s to 1980s) when Japan embraced the principles of TQM and began to dominate world markets with other 'tiger economies'.

Quality of Work Life (QWL): The overall quality of the workplace for employees. It is the degree to which the organisation provides employees with not only a comfortable work environment and the necessary tools to perform their tasks, but also the responsibility, authority, accountability, information, knowledge, recognition and rewards that enable and encourage them to perform to standards of excellence while they maintain a sense of worth.

SERVQUAL: Developed by Parasuraman, Zeithmal and Berry (1988), the SERVQUAL model identified five dimensions of service quality: tangibles (physical facilities, equipment, appearance of personnel); reliability (ability to perform the promised service, along with dependability and accuracy); responsiveness (willingness to help customers, and to provide prompt service); assurance (knowing customers' needs, and being courteous and able to inspire confidence); and empathy (caring individual attention). These five dimensions developed from other dimensions that were originally proposed: tangibles; reliability; responsiveness; communication; credibility; security; competence; courtesy; understanding; and access. An alternative SERVPERF model, advanced by Cronin and Taylor (1992; 1994) is less widely acknowledged but was developed as a critique of the SERVQUAL model. Other approaches to assessing service quality have been formulated by Bolton and Drew (1991), Brown and Schwarz

(1989) and Murfin and Gugelchuk. The application, and applicability, of SERVPERF and SERVQUAL in LIS have been assessed by Edwards and Browne (1995), Rowley (1996) and White and Abels (1995).

Shewhart, Walter: A key mentor of Deming and Juran. Shewhart's (1931) work, encapsulated in *Economic Control of Quality of Manufactured Product*, at the Bell Laboratories in the 1920s concentrated on the use of applied statistics ('Shewhart Cycle') to control processes, limit variation, and thereby improve quality.

Shingo, Shigeo: Shingo's key contribution was his development of *poka-yoke* and source inspection systems. The basic premise was to stop the process whenever a defect occurred, define the cause and prevent the recurring source of the defect. Morgan and Murgatroyd (1994) believe Shingo's "essential concepts look to have adaptive possibilities of transfer to service and public sector provisions" (p. 39).

'Soft' TQM: A form of TQM which emphasises the importance of cultural factors like the development of staff (Wilkinson and Willmott, 1995a).

Statistical Process Control (SPC): Developed by Shewhart (1931) to study the variations in a process over time.

Strategic Quality Management (SQM): A framework proposed by information professionals like Riggs (1992). It is a process designed to establish strategic goals at the executive level that defines the methods and resources required to reach those goals.

Taguchi, Genichi: A Japanese quality guru whose methodology is concerned with concepts of quality and reliability at the design stage, that is prior to manufacture. The Taguchi methodology is fundamentally a prototyping method that enables the engineer to identify the optimal settings to produce a robust product that can survive manufacturing time after time, piece after piece, in order to provide the functionality required by the customer (Morgan and Murgatroyd, 1994). As observed by Wilkinson (1994) "[Taguchi] has little to say about human resource issues" (p. 276).

Total Quality Control (TQC): A term devised by Feigenbaum (1956; 1983), defined as "an effective system for integrating the quality development, quality maintenance, and the quality improvement efforts of the various groups in an organisation so as to enable production and service at the most economical levels which allow for full customer satisfaction" (Ishikawa, 1985: 90).

Total Quality Management (TQM): There is no clear definition of TQM, because it is a philosophy that has emerged over thirty-five years from a variety of authors (Morgan and Murgatroyd, 1995), although the British Standard Institute (BSI) suggest that TQM is,

... a management philosophy embracing all activities through which the needs and expectations of the customer, the community and the objectives of the organisations are satisfied in the most efficient and cost effective way by maximising the potential of all employees in a continuing drive for improvement.

(BS 4778 Part 2: 1991)

While five concepts can be gleaned from this definition, within the context of this thesis there are *eight* TQM insights and concepts. The *approach*, is management led; the *scope* is organisation-wide and long term; in terms of *scale*, quality is everyone's responsibility; it has a *philosophy*, that is distinct from QA, which focuses on prevention rather than detection; the underlying *standard* is to 'get it right first time'; which is underpinned by the *theme* of continuous improvement; the ultimate *goal* is to delight the customer; and the *methodology* can be scientific and statistical (see also 'soft' TQM and 'hard' TQM).

Total Quality Paralysis (TQP): A condition when senior management commitment for TQM is either patchy or fails to be reflected on the ground (see Melling, 1996b).

UK Accreditation Services (UKAS): The successor to the NACCB, responsible for auditing organisations pursuing ISO 9000.

Zero Defects: Promoted by quality gurus like Crosby, a term used to describe a defect-free product or service, and regarded as the ultimate aim of quality management.

Appendix A

Ground Clearing Exercise

A ground clearing exercise was carried out, in the first year of the investigation, to determine the magnitude of QMS in academic LIS. The results were published on the web pages of the Department of Information Studies (Sheffield) and in *Information Research*.

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INTRODUCTION

This issue of *Information Research News* contains three papers. The first of these, by Owens *et al.*, summarises some of the main features of the Diploma/MSc in Electronic Information Management that was put on in the Department in 1994/95 with funding from the IMPACT 2 programme of the Commission of the European Communities. Then, Greene and Loughridge describe an ongoing project in the Department to investigate the management needs of academic heads of departments in sixteen English universities. Finally, Mistry and Usherwood discuss the background to a PhD project on the use of quality management systems in academic library and information services.

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Total Quality Management, British Standard Accreditation, Investors In People And Academic Libraries

V. Mistry and Bob Usherwood

Introduction

Organisations, be they public or private, have been touched by a rhetoric which promises a new order of things; quality management systems (QMS) like Total Quality Management (TQM) and BS EN ISO 9000 (formerly BS 5750 and hereafter referred to as ISO 9000) are imbued with this rhetoric. There has been much in the library and information services (LIS) literature on the merits or otherwise of such systems; for *quality* is accepted generally, or as Chase [1] declares, "quality is no longer an option - it is a positive requirement for the 1990s." However, there is much conjecture over the *means* to this end. With regard to academic LIS, the debate has rubbed shoulders with the, separate, quality debate in higher education over quality assessment. Thus, are initiatives in the academic LIS influenced by their parent organisation? Alternatively, are academic LIS more likely to adopt QMS in the light of the Follett [2] report, which called for a more integrated view of customer service and *quality* amidst the rapid change in universities and technology?

This paper was produced after a 'ground-clearing' exercise which began in March/April 1995 and formed the first phase of a PhD. The PhD will examine the impact of QMS, particularly with regards to motivation, on front line staff in academic LIS. It is hoped that a series of 'organisational health checks' and case studies will be generated in approximately a dozen academic LIS. Prior to this time the only survey which examined the popularity of QMS in the LIS context was Lydia Porter's [3], but that did not exclusively concentrate on academic LIS. The paper is a 'snap-shot' of the situation at present. It aims to identify what type of academic LIS have QMS, whether they are 'new' or 'traditional' or 'large' or 'small', establish whether the initiatives are part of a university-wide initiative and seek to identify any future trends. The paper will concentrate on three systems; TQM, ISO 9000 and Investors in People (IiP).

Data Collection

Scope of the study

Only 'university' libraries were considered. A listing of the libraries was obtained from *The World of Learning 1994* (the 44th edition) and the *LA Directory 1995*. All the colleges of Oxford and Cambridge were approached as were most of the institutions that make up the University of Wales and the University of London. In total 197 academic libraries were approached. In the final analysis an aggregate of the Oxford and Cambridge figures was produced. With regard to London the larger institutions were treated as separate 'universities' and similarly an aggregate of the small London institutions was produced. The colleges that

make up the University of Wales were treated as separate 'universities'. Thus in total 100 'universities' were approached.

Methodology

A closed questionnaire, loosely based on Porter's questionnaire [3] was sent out in March 1995 and respondents were given approximately ten days to a fortnight to reply. The questionnaire asked the Chief Librarians: to identify which systems had been installed, e.g., TQM, BS EN ISO 9000 etc.; to state when the systems had been introduced; to indicate whether they were initiated within the library only or were part of a university-wide initiative; and whether the library was likely to adopt a QMS in the future and if so which one.

Stratification

Stratifying the data enhances the understanding of a study. In examining UK universities it is clear that a number of options for sampling are available. The Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE) [4] identified universities by 'sector' based on chronology as follows:

- *Old Foundations* - Oxford, Cambridge, St. Andrews, Aberdeen, Glasgow, Edinburgh;
- *Victorian Expansion (Red Brick)* - Belfast, London, Wales, Bristol, Manchester, Dundee, Leeds, Sheffield, Birmingham, Durham, Newcastle, Liverpool;
- *20th Century London-based Colleges* - Nottingham, Reading, Hull, Exeter, Leicester, Keele, Southampton;
- *New Universities / Green-field (including the "Shakespearean Seven")* - York, Lancaster, Warwick, Sussex, East Anglia, Essex, Kent, Stirling
- *New Universities / Upgraded Colleges of Advanced Technology* - Aston, Bath, Bradford, Brunel, City, Loughborough, Strathclyde, Surrey, Heriot-Watt, Salford.
- *Post-1992 / Former Polytechnics*
- *plus Miscellaneous*, (which was not identified by the HEFCE Circular) - Buckingham, Cranfield, Open, Ulster.

This kind of stratification makes us consider whether we assume the traditional universities are less likely to embrace new managerialism than their more contemporary counterparts.

The other option is to stratify by size based on student numbers. In her study of QMS and special libraries, Webb [5] noted that the larger organisations were more likely to implement QMS. Similarly, other studies have shown that the smaller organisations, bases on turnover, are unlikely to implement systems like ISO 9000 [6]. The details of student numbers was obtained from a HEFCE publication and from *The World of Learning 1994*.

The sample

The questionnaire provoked strong interest with 134 of the 197 academic libraries approached responding. This represents a response rate of 68%. A total of 72 questionnaires were returned from 100 'universities' (72%). The response rate by sector was: Old Foundations 83%; Victorian Expansion 75%; London-based 86%; Green-field 38%; Upgraded Colleges 80%; Miscellaneous 75%; Post-1992 71%.

The resulting sample (n=72) comprises 45 pre-1992 university libraries (62%) and 27 post-1992 university libraries (38%). The average size of university that returned questionnaires was 10,559 part-time and full-time students. The following categories were constructed:

- small: less than 5250 students;
- medium/small: 5250-10500 students;
- medium/large: 10501-15750 students;
- large: more than 15750 students.

Of the sample, 11 belong to small universities (15%), 25 to medium/small universities (35%), 25 to medium/large universities (35%) and 11 to large universities.

ISO 9000

ISO 9000 is a standard for quality assurance. To obtain the Standard: procedures have to be established and then documented; staff trained to follow the procedures; the service measured using performance indicators and evaluated against predetermined standards; and the firm audited by a recognised external body. Upon successful assessment a firm can display the British Standard logo which demonstrates to the customer that the organisation is committed to quality. The benefits claimed for ISO 9000 include 'Increased efficiency, improved consistency, better-motivated employees, cost savings, fewer mistakes, less rework, less waste, wider market opportunities, increased customer satisfaction, increased competitiveness, increased profits, better use of time and resources and improved communications' [8].

Only two university libraries reported having ISO 9000. Of the overall total, barely 3% have British Standard accreditation. Of these libraries, one had ISO 9000 and TQM, and the other just BS EN ISO 9000. As noted by Ellis and Norton [9] it is possible for an organisation to gain ISO 9000 *en route* to TQM or *vice versa*.

In one of the libraries, the British Standard initiative was a library-led initiative; in the other, a university-led initiative. The results concurred with Webb's study [5], in that the initiative has not been taken up by the smaller organisations, as one library was based in a large university and the other in a medium/large university. The Standard attracted criticism. One library (pre-1992) had examined the system but did not like the jargon associated with it and another (also pre-1992) did not feel that accreditation offered the library an ideal framework on which to develop. Although both of the libraries with ISO 9000 are in the post-1992 category, thus ensuring that a larger proportion of LIS in this sector have ISO 9000 (7%), the data suggests that ISO 9000 has run out of steam and its influence has been nugatory, for no respondent indicated a desire to seek British Standard accreditation in the future.

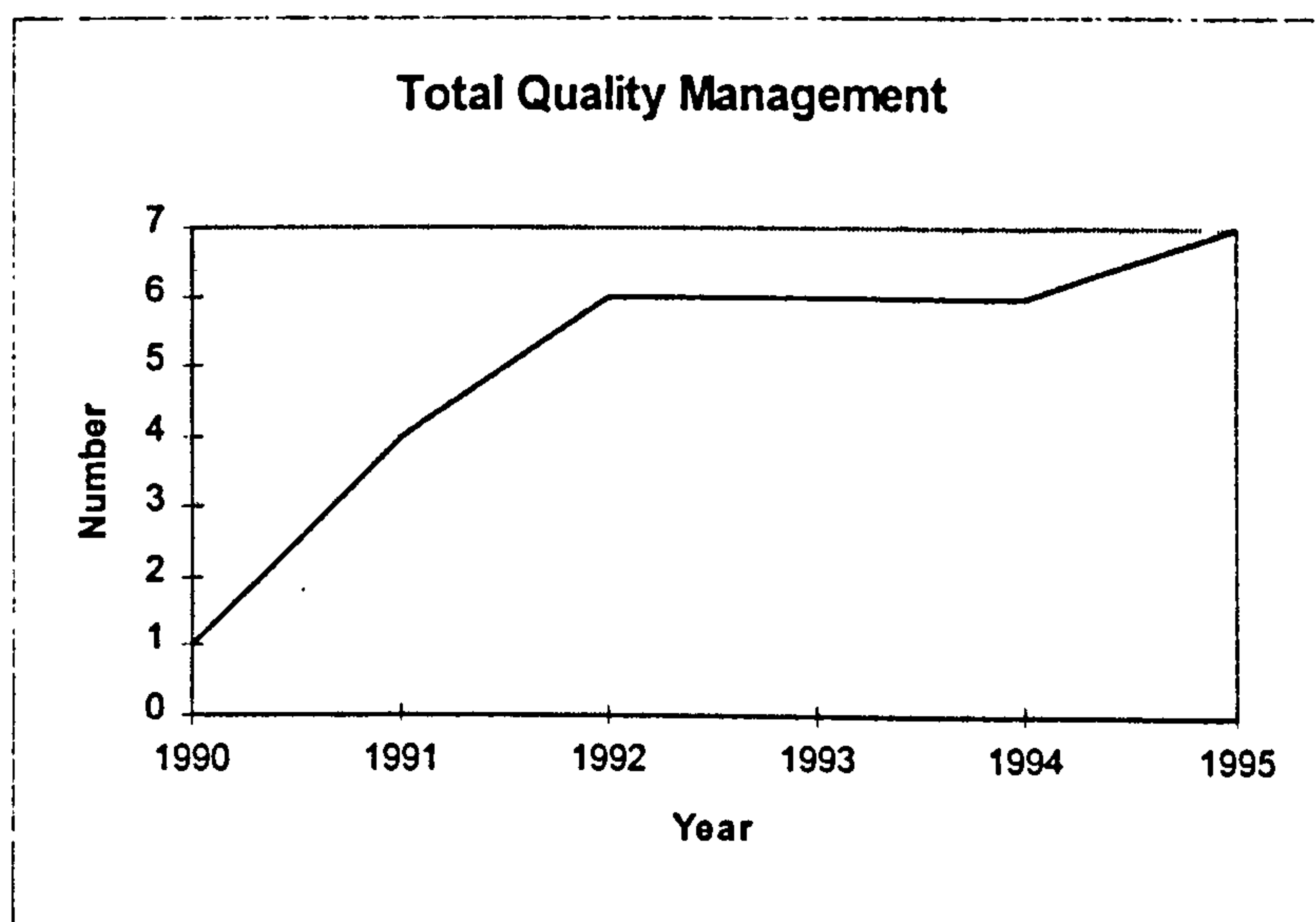
The failure of ISO 9000 to make any inroad in the academic sector could be due to one or more of the following reasons. First, the language of production and manufacturing does not translate very well in service activities, despite some valiant efforts (see [9]). As noted previously, the jargon can be baffling and off-putting. Second, there is the question of cost. British Standards Institute suggest that an organisation with ten staff will pay on average £4090 for the application fee, initial assessment, licence and consultancy [10]. Third, some reports and articles have cast doubt over the usefulness of ISO 9000, for instance, Pengally [11] cites an Economist Intelligence Unit Report that warned of a possible reduction in competitive strength for British Standard holders and a similar conclusion was reached by Vanguard Consulting [12]. At times the criticism has been almost vitriolic, for example *The*

Economist condemned ISO 9000 as, "little more than a documentation flow system which leads to time, human energy and physical resources being squandered on the management of form-filling rather than real improvements." [13].

Total Quality Management

TQM is a management philosophy devised by an American (W. Edwards Deming) but first embraced by the Japanese. It is a philosophy that focuses relentlessly on the needs of the customer, both *internal* and *external*, realigns the organisation from detection to prevention and aims to improve continuously via the use of statistical monitoring [14].

A total of eight academic LIS have TQM in place, of which one has both TQM and ISO 9000. Thus from the sample (n=72) 11% have either TQM or TQM and ISO 9000; The results indicate a steady interest in TQM, but the growth is not as great as might be expected, especially in the light of the interest generated in the United States [15-21] plus the added bonus of a government sponsored TQM 'prize' on the lines of the Malcolm Baldrige award [22, 23]. The graph below highlights the steady growth of TQM (only one respondent failed to identify when the initiative had been introduced);



In contrast to Investors in People (see below), the TQM approach tends to be a library-led, rather than a university-led, initiative, as six of the eight respondents (75%) indicated that it had been initiated and installed in the library only. With regard to the type of LIS more likely to adopt the TQM approach, it appears that the post-1992 LIS are more inclined towards the system: of the total with TQM (n=8) five are in this category (63%). In other words, of the total post-1992 LIS (n=27) 19% have TQM. If we consider the size of LIS, then 18% of the LIS belonging to small universities (n=11), 8% of the LIS belonging to medium/small universities (n=25), 12% of the LIS belonging to medium/large universities and 9% of the LIS belonging to large universities (n=11) have TQM.

The less-than-startling rise of TQM in academic LIS may be a result of the feeling that it is a fad. Brockman [14] and Jurow [24] have noted that this may be felt by some LIS managers but they believe that the lessons learnt today from such systems will bode well for the future. The 'faddish' feeling of TQM is problematic for the manager, for such formalised systems can

be costly to install and be even more expensive if they go 'out of vogue'. Byrne [25, p. 40] notes that:

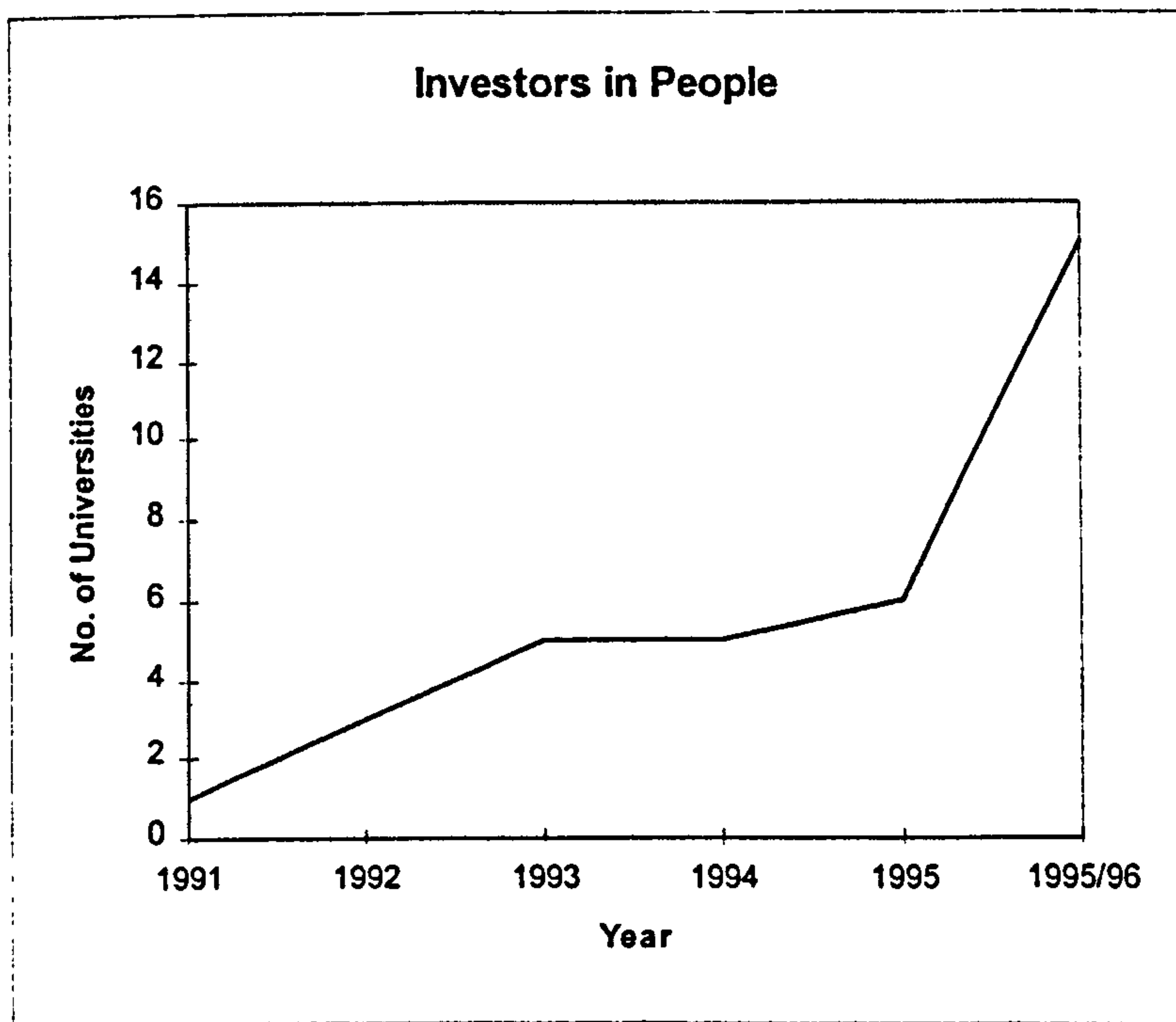
"Today, the bewildering array of fads pose more serious diversions and distractions from the complex task of running a company. Too many modern managers are like compulsive dieters, trying the latest craze for a few days, then moving relentlessly on. Huczynski [26] concurs and suggests that managerial needs are rarely satisfied for the nature of organisational life in present capitalist economies ensures that the cycle of management fads will continue. A recent survey by *The Economist* [27] would suggest that the recession and subsequent downsizing in many American firms has made it very difficult to sell the TQM message hence the reduction of applications for the Malcolm Baldrige awards. In reply to this survey one of the TQM gurus, Philip Crosby [28] asserted that 'T(*Total*)QM is an illusion that will pass, like other management fads'; but quality management itself was not dead.

Investors in People

IiP is a national quality standard developed by the former Department of Employment in 1991. It is based upon four key tenets: first, that there is a public commitment from senior management to train all employees in order to achieve the organisation's business objectives; second, implementation of regular reviews of the training and development needs of all employees; third, commitment to train and develop employees while employed; and finally there must be procedures for the evaluation of the investment made in training to assess achievement and future effectiveness [29-31]. Assessment is made by the local Training and Enterprise Council (TEC) or Investors in People UK who also sponsor and market the award - if an organisation passes the assessment they are entitled to display the IiP logo. As its name implies the emphasis is on human resource management (HRM) and the underlying philosophy is that the development of people should be at the heart of any management strategy [29].

The survey revealed that Investors in People could be present in up to 25 academic LIS, making it the most popular QMS. A breakdown of the results indicate that ten have already installed IiP (14%), nine other respondents indicated that IiP was "in progress" or "in the process of being introduced" (13%), and six others reported that the system was "under investigation." (8%). Also noticeable was the fact that IiP tends to be a university-led, rather than library-led, initiative. For instance, of those that stated that IiP was already in place (n=10), nine indicated that this was a university-led initiative (90%) and one did not indicate whether it was a university or library-led initiative. Of those that indicated that IiP was "in progress" or "in the process of being introduced" (n=9), seven stated that this was a university-led initiative (78%) and two failed to indicate whether this was to be initiated by the university or library. Finally, all (100%) of the remaining six respondents who identified IiP as being "under investigation" stated that it was part of a university-led initiative.

Of the ten respondents who identified IiP as being in place, only six stated when it had been installed. Assuming the nine respondents who claimed IiP was "in progress" install the system during the present academic year (1995/96), we could be witnessing a period which marks the exponential growth of IiP.



What accounts for the interest in IiP? It should be noted that firms with IiP, as noted by Rix *et al.* [32], do not see it as an instant panacea. Nevertheless Cheeseman and Tate [30] suggest five benefits. First, IiP provides a framework for reviewing HRM strategy and development priorities which is agreeable to labour intensive organisations like universities whose main expenditure is on staff. Mackay proffers the view that enthusiasm for IiP in universities symbolises a willingness of such organisations to re-evaluate training and development because they are aware of the costs of not taking a longer term view of their staff [33]. Second, IiP can bring coherence to existing processes which may have evolved independently from other initiatives. Third, it can prove to be a catalyst for changing existing management structures. Fourth, IiP can act as a counterbalance to, what Cheeseman and Tate consider, is an inevitable focus on budgetary controls and financial management. Finally, and most obviously, IiP can bring credibility to an organisation and national recognition in terms of HRM. These benefits have been clarified by the Institute of Employment Studies [34] who generally concur with Cheeseman and Tate's interpretation of IiP. In addition to the above, IiP is perhaps palatable to the service industry. As noted previously, systems associated with manufacturing and production are not easily transferable to the service industry; a QMS which addresses and focuses on the way people behave, as IiP purports to do, may be more readily acceptable to labour-intensive organisations like universities.

Conclusions

In the university sector there is a stark realisation that poor quality is causes waste through rework and that distinction in the market place must be attained to boost one's profile or arrest any possible decline. Duke [35] affirms that universities operate in an "unstable and confusing environment" which has seen the loss of the sedate style of traditional university management (see also [36]). Although the term is loathed, universities and academic LIS cater for *customers* (students) (see Butcher [17] on the resistance felt by some as the focus of the library's attention shifted from 'the collection' to 'the customer') and such customers demand *quality*. For instance, in a recent case, two students withheld their fees to a university

because they were unhappy about the changes made to their course [37, 38]. Students, or the public in general, are more aware of *quality* since it has become a high profile issue in domestic politics [39, 40]. LIS are therefore compelled to be more accountable.

In addition to TQM, ISO 9000 and IiP, a large portion of the respondents had other QMS⁺ like Quality Assurance, Quality Improvement, Customer Care or Continuous Quality Improvement (n=26) . Thus, in total, 45 academic LIS (62.5%) have QMS at present and 27 (37.5%) do not.

The questionnaire that went out to the various LIS also asked the Chief Librarians to disclose whether they had installed various processes in their library (e.g., service level agreements, customer charters, performance measures, customer feedback mechanisms and service audits). A few LIS stated that the above processes had been installed and may have come to a *post hoc* rationalisation that they had Quality Assurance, for example. Other LIS also stated that the processes had been installed but denied that they had a QMS. There is therefore a problem of definition associated with quality management. A subsequent paper, which will be produced in due course, will attempt to analyse quality management with regard to the particular processes in LIS.

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⁺ It must be noted that the respondents who had stated that ISO 9000, TQM or IiP had been installed also indicated that other systems like Quality Assurance (QA) were in operation. As noted by Brockman (1992) TQM also encompasses QA. Thus those that had other QMS in their LIS are those *without* ISO 9000, TQM or IiP.

* The total number with no QMS (at present) is 27

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Appendix B

E-mail to Chief Librarians

E-mail addresses of chief librarians were obtained from the details submitted by respondents during the ground clearing exercise.

Date sent: Day, 00 Mnth Year [time]
From: v.mistry@sheffield.ac.uk
Subject: PhD Study
Message:

Dear [Chief Librarian]

Thank you for completing my questionnaire on 'Quality Management Systems and Processes in Academic Libraries'. The results will be published very shortly.

The questionnaire formed the preliminary phase of my PhD study, which is entitled 'Quality Management and Motivation: The Impact of Total Quality Management and BSI Accreditation on Front Line Staff in Academic Libraries' and is funded by the Department of Education and Employment. I am writing to enquire whether you would be willing to help me complete the next phase of the study.

I have chosen your library because you indicated that Total Quality Management has been implemented there since [year]. I would like to interview twelve front line staff and ask them a few questions relating to TQM and how it has affected their perception of their work. I would like to interview a mixture of staff, perhaps two middle managers, five professional and five paraprofessional members of staff. The pilot phase of the study has just been completed, and the interviews were timed at forty-five minutes. If possible I would like to interview over two consecutive days.

I can send you an outline of the study, which you can disseminate to your staff. It should be stressed that the interviews, which will be tape recorded, will be conducted under British Psychological Society guidelines, and anonymity and confidentiality of the interviewees, and library, will be assured.

If you would like to speak to me, please do not hesitate to contact me on 0114-222 2678, or my supervisor, Dr. Bob Usherwood (Senior Lecturer at the Department of Information Studies), on 0114-222 2630.

Your cooperation will be greatly appreciated. I look forward to hearing from you soon.

Yours sincerely

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Appendix C

Outline of the Study

In accordance with British Psychological Society (1995) guidelines, information on the investigation was distributed to prospective interviewees. It was hoped that the exercise would encourage people to take part in the study, allay fears and elicit an open and frank response when the interviews were carried out (see Chapter Three, 'The Research Methodology'). There were many positive remarks made on the information that was disseminated to respondents beforehand, for instance, one interviewee during the pilot phase commented,

it enabled me to think carefully about my experiences here, so often studies are 'sprung on' you, and you never seem to do yourself any justice when answering the questions.

THE UNIVERSITY OF SHEFFIELD



Department of Information Studies

**Quality Management and Motivation: The Impact of Total
Quality Management and BSI Accreditation on Front Line Staff
in Academic Libraries - A Brief Overview**

PhD funded by the Department for Education and Employment

**Proposal for PhD Study at the Library and Information Services
at X University**

[Date]

The PhD is entitled *Quality Management and Motivation: The Impact of Total Quality Management and BS EN ISO 9000 on Staff in Academic Libraries.*

The study is funded by the Department for Education and Employment and the British Academy until September 1997 and is supervised by Dr. Bob Usherwood, senior lecturer at the Department of Information Studies, University of Sheffield.

Introduction

Organisations, be they public or private, have been touched by a rhetoric which promises a new order of things. Quality Management Systems (QMS) like Total Quality Management (TQM) and BS EN ISO 9000 (ISO 9000) gained prominence in recent years, as they offered firms the prospect of increased efficiency and effectiveness.

The library and information services (LIS) seemed to be slow in adopting QMS as had been demonstrated by the Ministry of Defence librarian, John Brockman (1992). Brockman had observed that *before* 1991, there had been a surge of literature on TQM in specialist management databases like ABI/Inform; 1988 was identified as the exponential growth of systems like TQM (see Figure D.1). A simultaneous study using specialist LIS databases revealed that QMS had very little coverage (see Figure D.2). Since Brockman's analysis, debate within the LIS profession has been characterised by the outpouring of articles and books on QMS. The proliferation of material on the subject was the primary reason why the researcher undertook to examine QMS. The heightened awareness of LIS and QMS is also reflected in the growing projects on the subject, as exemplified by the British Library funded work undertaken by; the University of Central Lancashire

Liverpool John Moores University (1994-1995); and Loughborough University (1994-1995).

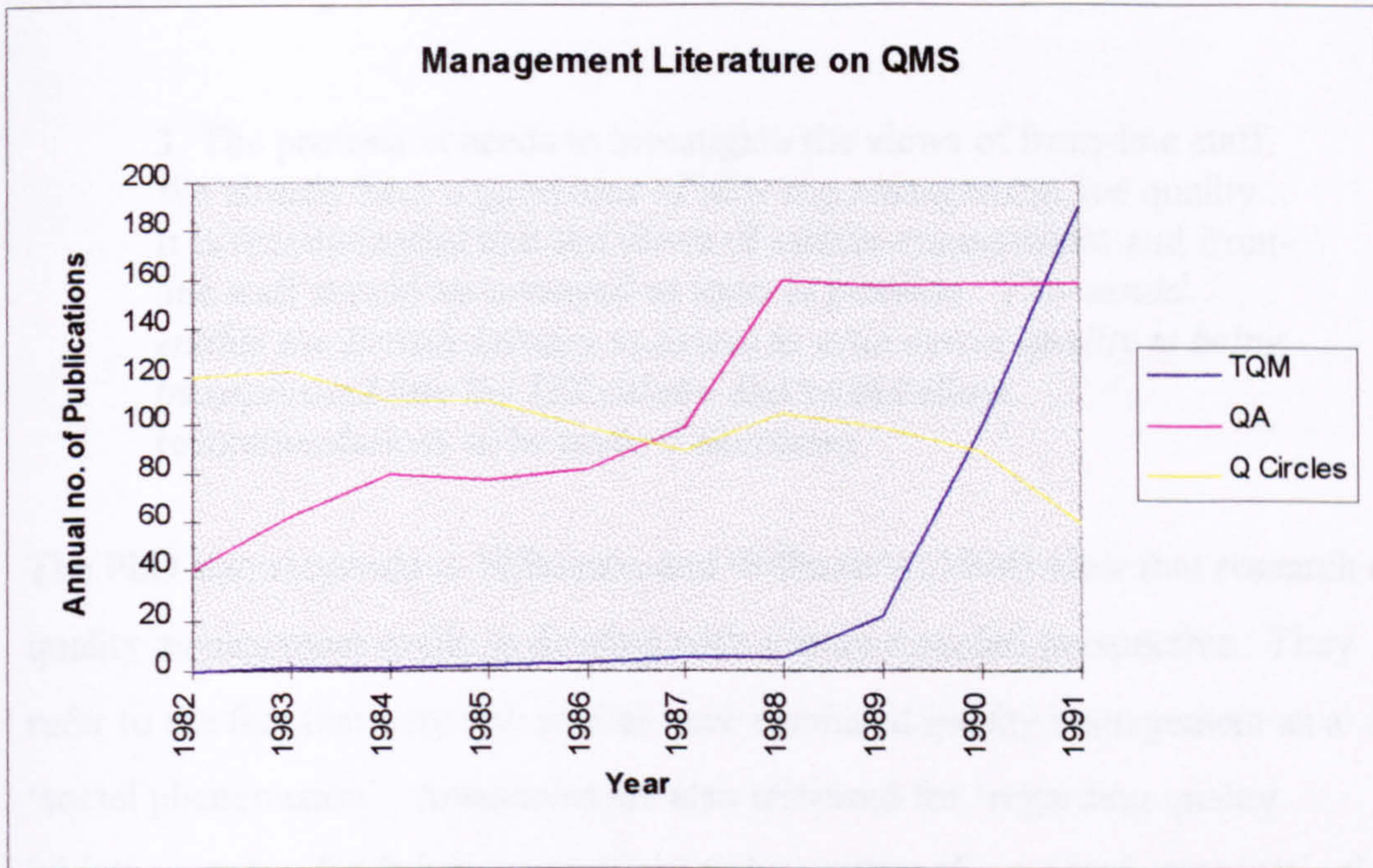


Figure D.1: Brockman's review of the management literature (by output)

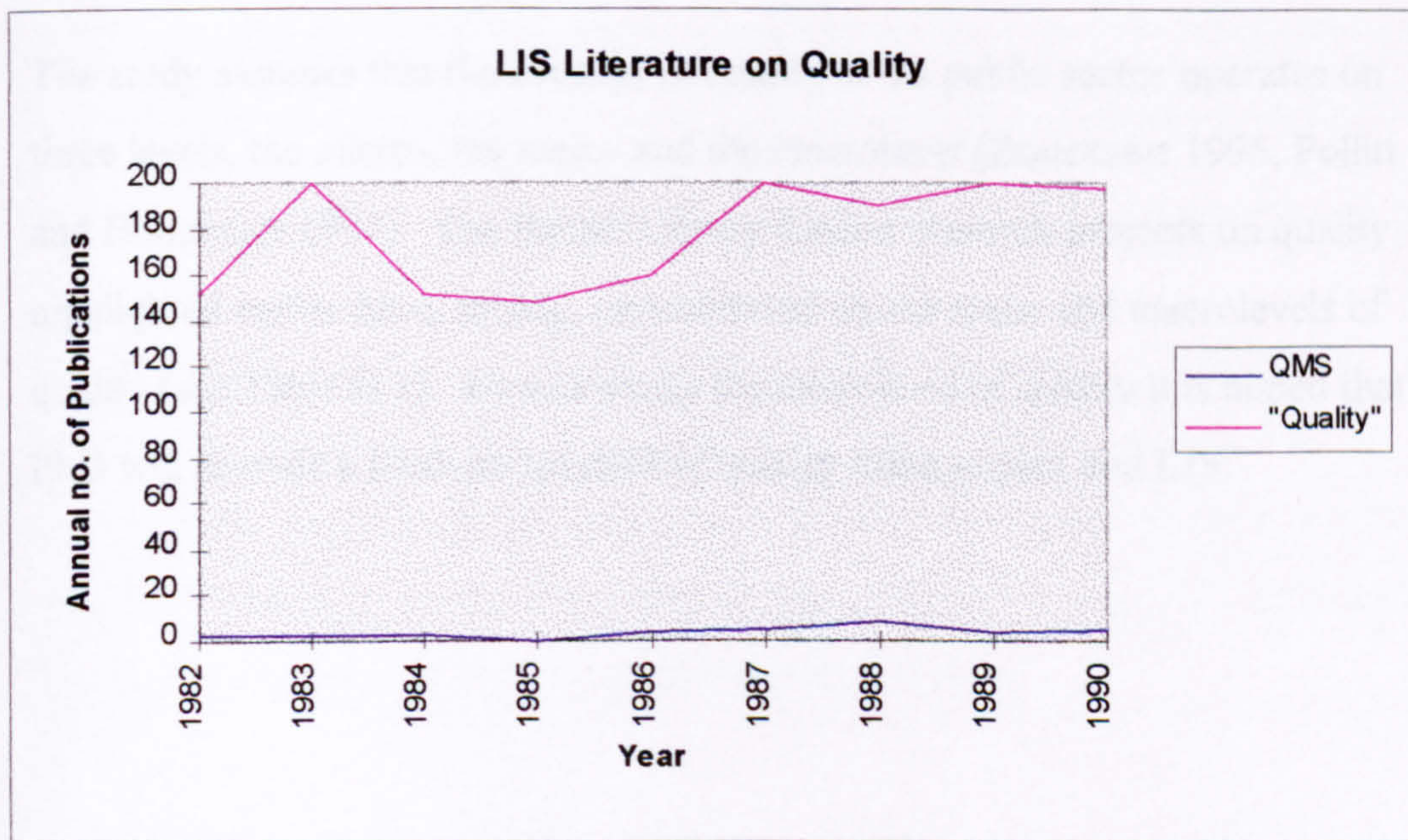


Figure D.2: Brockman's review of the LIS literature (by output)

The PhD is a partial response to a report prepared for the British Library by Lydia Porter (1992). Whilst analysing whether QMS had taken root in public, special and academic libraries, Porter made three recommendations. Her third recommendation provided the main inspiration for the PhD;

3. The profession needs to investigate the views of front-line staff. We already have a good idea of how top management see quality... It is recommended that the views of middle-management and front-line staff should be surveyed as soon as possible. *This would enable the British Library to assess to what extent quality is being incorporated into the LIS culture* and would allow recommendations to be made if necessary.

The PhD also responds to Wilkinson and Willmott's (1994) view that research on quality management needs to develop with a more rounded perspective. They refer to the fact that very few studies have examined quality management as a 'social phenomenon'. Academics are also criticised for 'regarding quality initiatives as too faddish and superficial to be worthy of sustained examination' (*ibid.*: 1).

The study assumes that the concept of quality in the public sector operates on three levels, the micro-, the meso- and the macrolevel (Bouckaert 1995; Pollitt and Bouckaert 1995). The British Library funded research projects on quality highlighted earlier have, mainly, concentrated on the meso and macrolevels of quality (see Table D.1). By examining the microlevel of quality it is hoped that the PhD will provide a fresh perspective of quality management and LIS.

FEATURES	MICROQUALITY	MESOQUALITY	MACROQUALITY
Emphasis	Internal	Internal	Generic and institutional
Purpose	Quality of Work Life	Quality of service	Quality of societal life
Trade off: Quality and	Efficiency	Cost	Externality
Focus of attention	Human resources	Goods and services	Citizens
Ultimate purpose	Performance	Performance	People's trust and support
Method	e.g. Quality Circles	e.g. TQM	Social contract
Assumption	Shared interest of 'principal' and 'agent'	Shared interest of service and public	Shared interest of rulers and ruled
Potential	Exploit workers	Manipulate users	Justify rulers

Table D.1: Micro-, meso- and macrolevels of quality

The research is only as good as its sample. The study will not just focus on those libraries with TQM or ISO 9000. This is because it is felt that more would be understood by comparing those LIS with QMS and those without. With regard to the sampling process the following scheme has been adopted;

Sampling Scheme			
<i>Hard Systems</i>	<i>Soft Systems</i>		<i>No System</i>
<i>ISO 9000</i>	<i>TQM QA</i>	<i>Investors in People</i>	<i>No System</i>

Table D.3: Sampling scheme

It is hoped that a dozen LIS will be visited. Twelve members of staff will be interviewed in each LIS, ideally comprising of; five paraprofessionals, five professionals and two middle managers. The interviewees will be asked a series of questions relating to certain job characteristics they may, or may not, experience. The typical themes that will be explored are listed below* .

* The themes that will be discussed in the interview have emerged from case studies on LIS and QMS, and the literature that pertains to motivation and job satisfaction.

- ◇ Empowerment
- ◇ Autonomy and Bureaucracy
- ◇ Roles and Responsibility
- ◇ Training and Development
- ◇ Feedback on performance
- ◇ Participation and Involvement
- ◇ Communication
- ◇ Ownership
- ◇ Meaningfulness
- ◇ Rewards
- ◇ Pay

The interviews, which will be tape recorded, have been timed to last approximately 45 minutes. The interview process conforms to the guidelines of the British Psychological Society (1995). To summarise the key points of the BPS guidelines;

- ◇ interviewees are not compelled to answer all the questions;
- ◇ the tape recorder can be switched off at any time; and
- ◇ anonymity of the organisation and individual are assured.

I hope this document provides a suitable introduction to the research project. For further information or clarification of the research objectives, I can be contacted on (voicemail) 0114-222 2678, or can be e-mailed at v.mistry@sheffield.ac.uk. Thanking you in advance for your help. Alternatively, you may also contact my supervisor, Dr. Bob Usherwood (r.c.usherwood@sheffield.ac.uk, 0114-222 2000)

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Appendix D

Interview Schedule

Preamble

Good afternoon/morning, my name is Virendra Mistry and I am a PhD student at the Department of Information Studies, University of Sheffield.

I am examining the impact of Quality Management Systems, like Total Quality Management and ISO 9000 on the motivation of staff in academic libraries. The study itself is being funded by the Department for Education and Employment.¹

Before proceeding with the interview;

¹ Funded by the British Academy in 1997.

- ◇ I hope you have had the opportunity to read the outline of the study. Do you have any further questions?
- ◇ Please note, you are under no obligation to answer every question, especially if you have any anxieties or reservations. I will be willing to skip any questions you do not wish to answer;
- ◇ Your answers can be as brief, or as detailed, as you wish. The interview will last approximately thirty to forty-five minutes.
- ◇ I am interested in *your* beliefs and feelings, so there are no 'right' or 'wrong' answers.
- ◇ Please interrupt me if there are any phrases or words you do not understand, I would be happy to provide you with any definitions;
- ◇ It is imperative that you feel at ease during the interview so if, for example, you wish to take a break, you are free to do so;
- ◇ As you can see, I am using a tape recorder. Please do not feel alarmed by its presence, it is there to help me collect my data and nothing more;
- ◇ The tape recorder will be turned off at any time, should you request this, and I will resort to taking manual notes;

- ◇ The data I am collecting will remain confidential. In the final study neither yourself nor the institution will be named;

- ◇ Finally, I would like to thank you for your time and for agreeing to help me.

Date	
University	
Interview Number	

Part One (Introduction)

- ◇ Can you tell me about yourself? How old are you? Male/Female?

- ◇ What do you do in the library/ what is your job description?

- ◇ How long have you worked in this library?

- ◇ Do you have a professional or academic qualification in librarianship or information science? Please state the type of qualification you have attained.

- ◇ Do you have a management or management related qualification? Please state the type of qualification you have attained.

Part Two (Perceptual Data)

Thank you, I would now like to ask you some questions about the management system and processes you have in your library.

- ◇ First of all, can you tell me what 'Total Quality Management' [ISO 9000] means to you?
- **[To Non-QMS LIS] First of all, can you tell me how the quality of service is maintained in this library?**

- ◇ What are the benefits, if any, to you?
- ◇ What are the disadvantages, if any, to you?
- ◇ What are the benefits, if any, to the user of the services?
- ◇ What are the disadvantages, if any, to the user of the services?
- ◇ What are the benefits, if any, to the library as a whole?
- ◇ What are the disadvantages, if any, to the library as a whole?

Part Three (Experiences)

- ◆ Can you remember how TQM [ISO 9000] was first introduced to you?
- ◇ What are your thoughts on the manner in which TQM [ISO 9000] was introduced to you? [Nature of Communication? Training and Development?]
- ◇ Were you involved, at any stage, in the implementation process? If yes, how do you feel?
- ◇ If not involved, how do you feel? Why do you think you were not involved? [Status? Competence? Experience? Timetabling at work?]

- ◆ Do you have a specific role or responsibility as far as TQM [ISO 9000] is concerned?
- **[To Non-QMS LIS] In relation to maintaining the quality of service, do you have a specific quality-related role or responsibility?**
 - ◇ Can you tell me what you do?
 - ◇ Are these extra roles and responsibilities, i.e. in addition to what you already do?
 - ◇ What are your impressions of these roles and responsibilities?
 - ◇ How are you supported? [Management encouragement? Self-motivation? Training and Development?]
 - ◇ What are your impressions of the support you receive?
 - ◇ If not supported, how do you feel?
- ◆ What are your experiences of involvement or participation in the library since the implementation of TQM [ISO 9000]?
- **[To non-QMS LIS] What are your experiences of involvement or participation in the library?**
 - ◇ How do you feel about your level of participation or involvement?
 - ◇ How important is participation and involvement to you?
 - ◇ What degree of participation and involvement do you experience? (i.e. involvement in decision-making? active or passive?)
 - ◇ [To Middle Managers] What impact has increased participation and involvement had on their authority in the workplace?

- ◆ What are your thoughts on communication since TQM [ISO 9000] was introduced?
- **[To non-QMS LIS] What are your thoughts on communication at the library?**
- ◇ How pervasive or widespread is communication?
- ◇ Does communication ever breakdown?
- ◇ If so, how do you feel? Why does this breakdown? [Status? Personalities?]

- ◆ What are your experiences of training and development since TQM [ISO 9000] was introduced? [How do you learn about the quality techniques?]
- **[To non-QMS LIS] What are your experiences of training and development?**
- ◇ What are your impressions on the level of training and development? [Does it meet your requirements? Quality of training and development: Appropriate?]
- ◇ What are your impressions on your career development? [What are your aspirations? Are there opportunities for promotion?]
- ◇ How do you feel about your [lack of]/mobility in the library?

- ◆ Are you able to get any feedback on your performance?
- ◇ What mechanisms exist? (e.g. formal staff appraisal, informal feedback from supervisors)
- ◇ What are your impressions on the feedback you get?

- ◆ In addition to your salary, do you receive any rewards for your efforts?
- ◇ If not, how do you feel?
- ◇ If you do, what type of rewards you receive? [financial? non-financial?] and how do you feel?

- ◆ Within the context of what we have discussed this morning/afternoon, can you tell me your opinions on the pay you receive? [How important is pay to you?]
- ◇ How satisfied are you with your pay?

- ◆ Finally, is there anything you would like to add, that we have not discussed this morning/afternoon?
- ◇ Alternatively, would you like to clarify any points or issues that you have raised?

Closing remarks

I would like to thank you for your time and for your coöperation in this study. It is very much appreciated.

Appendix E

The Meaning of Quality Management

Responses to the question², *Can you tell me what Total Quality Management means to you?*

- ◇ Well it involves a lot of measurement! We measure and monitor everything, and I mean *everything*, and improve. As it's applied to [this library] it's a never-ending and continuous cycle.
- ◇ It's Total Quality *Rubbish!* *Why do you say that?* Because we don't offer 'quality'. The queues at the counter are very long, and appear to get longer by the week, while the people get irate, rowdy and very abusive - I've even been

² The comments listed in this appendix only represent the 'gut', or immediate, reactions to the question *What does TQM, or ISO 9000, mean to you?* Further meanings to QMS were uncovered during the course of the interviews.

spat at. It's a hostile environment and I just wish the library management gets back to basics.

- ◇ I'm afraid I haven't a clue! I tend to distance myself from the administrative and management aspects of the library. It is of very little interest to me.
- ◇ Well we're a bit different from other academic libraries because we serve so many other clients, be they civil servants... other than those at [the college]. We also have a growing number of international users too. So it's important to demonstrate that we have a quality system in place.
- ◇ I'm not certain, but I suppose it's concerned with addressing the needs of the user and giving them a 'quality' service.
- ◇ It brings together many management techniques and practices which, ultimately, enable us to provide a service that exceeds the needs of our users.
- ◇ I don't really have an opinion on 'TQM'. *Why do you say that?* Because I'm not sure that I know what TQM is about.
- ◇ It's a process of consultation, with our user, that allows us to develop and improve service standards.
- ◇ Total Quality Management just confirms what we are doing, that we continue to provide the best service possible.
- ◇ I don't know because we haven't attained it yet, but I know we're getting there... only a matter of time!
- ◇ Pass! I wasn't aware we had it until I saw your proposal.
- ◇ It's just another gimmick. I'm glad that you came because I've been wanting to get this off my chest for some time now. [Interviewee hands the investigator a sheet of paper with the following remarks]

We trained hard... but every time we were beginning to form up into teams, we would

be reorganised. I was to learn later in life that we tend to meet any new situation by reorganising... and a wonderful method it can be for creating an illusion of progress, while producing inefficiency and demoralisation.

Petronius (died AD 66)

- ◇ I see it as a 'wake up' call. It enables us to be less complacent about the way we deal with our users, especially at a time when we are working to very tight budgets. We can be set in our ways, but TQM allows us to interact with the users and really be proactive. That way we can use the budgets more effectively.
- ◇ It's faded in the background of late because the person responsible for TQM, who was actually responsible for training and personnel issues, has since left. Mind you, I've seen management ideas come and go in my time. It's like painting the Forth Bridge, by the time you begin to implement the plans and procedures, you have to start all over again and acquaint yourself with another 'big idea'.
- ◇ I suppose it helps to look at what we do, to be reflective, and reassess what we do. It's certainly helped me think about things more deeply.
- ◇ An attempt to try to get the service right. To try to get the staff motivated to provide that service.
- ◇ Oh hell! I knew you were coming but I'm afraid I didn't get a chance to read up on TQM beforehand!
- ◇ I think it is an attempt to improve standards and quality at *all* levels.
- ◇ It is a process which enables us to run an efficient and effective service to the benefit of the students and staff.

- ◇ Absolutely nothing! I know there are these 'quality improvement teams' but that's about it.
- ◇ Well it's just the fashion, isn't it? And I suppose we've joined that bandwagon. So to me personally, it doesn't mean anything.
- ◇ I don't think it means very much to be honest. I don't think we practice 'quality' at all, it's just papering over the many holes in our service.
- ◇ You have a certain standard or benchmark to work towards... and everyone else works towards that benchmark, so it reduces any grey areas in the library. Mind you they might not always be aware that they are working to this end. It gives you an extra focus, but what's really important is that you don't think all the time "I am doing this to achieve that" it becomes second nature after a while.
- ◇ To provide a service that has realistic standards. For instance, if it's an enquiry that can't be handled immediately, we give the enquirer details of the member of staff, with their extension, and when they can expect to receive a response. It's not exactly rocket science. In practice it works reasonably well.
- ◇ It's a series of management operations and procedures which result in minimum, but acceptable, levels of service.
- ◇ It's Total Madness! I'm not a believer because I think 'quality' comes with experience.
- ◇ We have limited resources, and I see TQM as an attempt to make use of those resources in the most effective and efficient manner possible. In truth there hasn't been a great amount of difference.
- ◇ I've no real knowledge of TQM, as it was already here when I joined. I've just got on with my work and, having spoken to the other library assistants, I don't think not knowing about it has been a real obstacle or hindrance.

- ◇ Continuous improvement. Do you want more? Because apart from that I'm a bit stuck.
- ◇ Well obviously it's about improving the service, providing a quality service within the budget or resources we have at our disposal, which we did before anyway. But I think the main difference now is that there is a greater attention to detail than before.
- ◇ It's 'Total' in the sense that everyone is involved. 'Quality' is our ultimate aim, and the whole process is carefully maintained or 'managed'.
- ◇ I'm not suggesting that this happens here, but TQM is a framework which allows an organisation be more dynamic in the way it deals with its users. It encourages dialogue and consultation between ourselves and our users.
- ◇ To provide a quality service, because the user is 'King'...or 'Queen'.
- ◇ Well we have QITs. *What are QITs?* They're 'Quality Improvement Teams'. Someone may decide one day, that 'this' needs looking into and sends the idea around the library. We think about it in the meantime, then in the staff meeting we decide if it is worth examining. A group may volunteer to get together and see how the problem may be tackled. I think it works quite well really. I'm certainly satisfied.
- ◇ I think it can mean all manner of things. Over here? Well, we've applied it to meet our own special requirements, in short I think these are satisfying the needs of the user as efficiently and effectively as we can.
- ◇ You know, we've probably always had 'Total Quality Management', so there is no extra meaning to me personally. I think it means more to the people 'upstairs'.
- ◇ For a start, everyone works together, and that includes the library staff as well as the students. We aim to provide a service that is expected of us and,

incidentally, we have a library charter that outlines what we do. Our standard is to continually improve the service in any way we can.

- ◇ It's about rethinking the way we work and about the way we provide a service.

Can you tell me what ISO 9000 means to you?

- ◇ Although we have ISO, we really apply the principles of TQM. (*Can you tell me what TQM means to you?*) Well first of all, ISO is not about 'quality', it merely documents what we do. But it acts as a springboard for us to then develop a service with TQM, and by that I mean being responsive to what the customer wants, as opposed to just documenting what we do.
- ◇ We have two manuals which outline what we aim to do in [the library]. Ultimately we strive to provide a service that meets the demands of our users.
- ◇ It demonstrates that we take customer care very seriously indeed.
- ◇ I think we should provide as good a service as we can within the resources available (we don't always have the resources). But I suppose ISO 9000 has given us a goal, a set of standards and that's been good. Overall, I personally don't think it's done anything, or that much. I've always worked to very high standards. I've had ten years' experience prior to coming to [this library] and we never had 'quality management'. I think if one uses their common sense, it is totally unnecessary, but I accept that in this day and age management need to make sure that we are doing our job correctly and properly.
- ◇ We have procedures and a manual, it serves as a point of reference. It ensures that everyone works to the same goal, in our case BS 5750.

- ◇ It's trying to standardise the procedures that we have. I know that some members of staff use it for training purposes. I suppose, if I were to be highly cynical, it's trying to improve efficiency, trying to get more out of us.
- ◇ BS 5750 tries to standardise everything so we are all doing the same thing... and, what we are doing, meets a particular requirement.
- ◇ There are various 'parts' but I couldn't reel them off to you... It means a great deal to some people, especially those who were involved from the start - I only got involved some eighteen months after the decision was made that we should try to go for it. My involvement has been 'low level', so to speak, but I'm proud that we've achieved something. There are people here who have worked very hard over many years but with little recognition so from that point of view it is a good thing.
- ◇ There are some who argue that we don't really need a quality system, which is correct to a point, but I think it validates what we have done, or what we currently do. I appreciate what is involved, especially all the hard work that goes into an initiative like this. Say, for example, I see the logo in a company's advertisement it gives me confidence. Hopefully, the students will react the same way especially now the building works are nearly complete.
- ◇ For one thing, it's tremendous PR! It's not everyday that we get the Vice-Chancellor to visit the Resource Centre. It's put us very firmly 'on the map' in this university, and I think its generated a lot of interest elsewhere.
- ◇ It enshrines what we have achieved and acts as a mission statement to whoever uses the library, I think it tells them, "this is how we do things; this is what we can do for you."
- ◇ My only experience of ISO came when I joined the library and during my first week here. I remember being told that we had it, I don't really remember what it actually was. I became more aware of it during induction, when the manual was used to train me. It just lists what we do, and how to do things.

Overall, I'd say, it's been really useful and helpful. But I can't say how useful it is for the library because I wasn't around when they didn't have ISO.

Appendix F

Profile of Participants

	Middle Managers	Professionals	Paraprofessionals	Total
QMS	9	20	21	50
non-QMS	8	17	18	41
Total	17	37	39	91

Table F.1: Composition of sample by status (no.)

	Middle Managers	Professionals	Paraprofessionals	Total
QMS	9.9	22.0	23.1	55.0
non-QMS	8.8	18.7	19.8	45.0
Total	18.7	40.7	42.9	100.0

Table F.2: Composition of sample by status (percentage)

	Male	Female	Total
Number	23	68	91
Percentage	25.3	74.7	100.0

Table F.3: Composition of sample by gender

Age	< 20	20-25	26-30	31-35	36-40	41-45	46-50	51-55	56-60	60+
no.	0	9	7	21	7	16	12	15	4	0
%	0.0	9.9	7.7	23.1	7.7	17.6	13.2	16.5	4.4	0.0

Table F.4: Composition of sample by age

Tenure	< 1 yr	1-5 yrs	6-10yrs	11-15yrs	16-20yrs	21-25yrs	26-30yrs	30+ yrs
no.	12	30	17	8	11	7	4	0
%	13.2	33.0	18.7	8.8	12.1	7.7	4.4	0.0

Table F.5: Composition of sample by tenure