Foreword

Foreword by Mark Goodwin, member of COMEX and founder of the change management practice in Solving Efeso.

Often, as many companies and organizations seek to improve performance in their challenging environments, they adopt various improvement techniques. However it is all too common for these approaches to be less successful than desired, because the behavior in the organization has not sufficiently changed.

In this book, Neil Webers addresses the link between behavior and performance. As he states "we want to be able to influence our performance even though we are not completely sure what the relationship is between our behavior and the performance we wish to achieve". The gap in understanding of our own behavior, as well as that of the organization, creates different performance losses which he illustrates.

Neil demonstrates that whereas companies may be able to deploy their overall goals into more specific objectives, they often miss the crucial link to translate the deployed strategy into the necessary behaviors to realize and safeguard the achievements. So, he highlights the need to identify what behavior is needed for the achievement of the desired performance. This is addressed both generally and specifically (such as in the functioning of the meeting system).

With a number of excellent examples the subject is well explored and will invite naturally the more open organizations to reflect on, and explore more, what the behaviors are within their culture (as well as individually) and how to understand them so that they can be improved. Neil's work also shows the direct correlation between behavior and performance.

Mark Goodwin

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Preface

The pace of organizational change increases: the lifespan of products becomes increasingly shorter and this causes strategic cycles to become shorter. Change and improvement are no longer a temporary process, but instead take place continuously.

Many organizations struggle with the question of how they can convert continuous improvement structures and systems into different behavior. Behavior that actually results in the expected performance, which gives both the employee and the manager more authority and control over their work.

This requires a specific approach that links behavioral development directly to expected performances in an embedded system. This approach also has consequences for the way in which organizations handle the development of people: behavioral development as a continuous process requires a radically different hr-model. Most organizations have found out that their current job appraisal system, in which job performances are appraised once a year, is not suitable to steer performances appropriately. However, they don't possess any alternatives. Therefore, they attempt to make personal development measurable with "personal objectives", "values" and "competencies".

This development is a dead-end. The development of behavior has to be aligned with the performance and this behavior has to be measured and steered in the same frequency as the delivered performance. Here, it is important that the employee gets maximal space within his own performance responsibility area. In this way, the responsibility and authority will lie at a lower level within the organization and the desired performance is achieved at each level within the organization. This is what performance behavior does.

The past years, I have worked on the continuous development of the performance behavior concept with joy. Each day, new insight is added to the concept and I hope that you, as reader, will also contribute to further developments of performance behavior in your practice.

Many of the things you will read in this book will be common sense. So ask yourself the question: "If they are so common sense, why aren't they common practice?" I hope that reading this book and practicing it, will help you formulating the answer...

1

WHAT IS PERFORMANCE BEHAVIOR?

In this first chapter we introduce you to performance behavior. What is performance behavior? The terms behavior and performance are important here. What does behavior in organizations look like and how is it brought about? How is performance in organizations brought about? And what combination of behavior and performance do you need to achieve performance behavior? In short, the chapter outlines the context of performance behavior.

Behavior

Behavior is the sum of visible and invisible actions of a person, a group of people or an entire company. This book is concerned with the behavior of an employee, a group of employees, or an entire organization. We talk about individual behavior when we discuss an employee and we talk about organizational behavior when we discuss an organization or group. The behavior of an employee might deviate from the behavior of a department and the behavior of a department is not necessarily equal to the behavior of the organization.

When we know what behavior we display ourselves and if we understand the origin of certain behaviors, we are better able to recognize and effectively deal with these behaviors. We can also handle the behavior of others better when we know what behavior we can expect from others and when we know which "ingredients" this behavior contains.

Performance

Performance is the result of all efforts; all desired, but also all undesired results. Performance behavior makes a distinction between personal performances, which concern the performance of an individual, and organizational performances, which concern the performances of a group of employees within an organization.

When we know which actions we need to perform to achieve a performance, we are better able to effectively steer these actions, so that the result is actually achieved. This is both true for steering our own performance as well as steering the performance of others.

Performance behavior

Performance behavior means that a measurable connection is made between result and the behavior that is required to achieve that result. It specifies and measures the behavior that is needed to achieve the desired result. When this connection meets a result or quality standard that was defined in advance, then

the performance behavior is secured. Because the performance behavior is secured, the result is guaranteed. There is a difference between performance behavior and performance-oriented behavior. For performance-oriented behavior, the direction is clear, but the result is not secured.

An example of performance behavior is the behavior of Dutch ice skater Sven Kramer. In an interview prior to his golden five kilometers at the Olympics in Vancouver in 2010, he was asked why he had a good chance of becoming Olympic champion. He answered by explaining that he completely controlled all factors he needed for a good time: the starting technique, the lap times, the buildup of the race and his technique. Sven is known for dividing the total performance into manageable parts. He did not only map per component which performance he needed to achieve, but also in which way he had to deliver the performance (behavior) to win. Where his competitors spoke of "performing maximally", Sven had secured his total performance. He broke it down and established a performance and behavioral standard he worked towards in a disciplined way. That is performance behavior.

For Sven Kramer, it was self-evident that he would win. With the aid of performance behavior, performance should become equally self-evident in organizations as it is for Sven Kramer. When all performances at each level within the organization are linked to the necessary behaviors, achieving results is secured.

It is important to secure performance behavior because there are a lot of factors we have little influence over. Sven discovered this during the Olympic ten kilometers in Vancouver when he was sent on the wrong track by a disastrous error of his coach Gerard Kemkers and was subsequently disqualified (despite the fact that he had the best time in the classification round).

1.1 Relationship between performance and behavior

In this subsection, we first examine the relationship between performance and behavior in practice, and subsequently we further elaborate on the definitions of performance and behavior.

"But why didn't you call me?" team leader Peter asks the operator on duty. "The packing machine has not been operating for half an hour which means that we will not be able to pack the amount of products to achieve our objective today!" Paul, the operator, looks at Peter and after taking a deep breath he answers: "Can't you see what a mess it is? I was glad to have some time to tidy the place up."

This conversation between Peter and Paul illustrates a common situation on the work floor: a problem arises and the employees involved all handle the problem in a different way. Everyone has their own interpretation and therefore chooses their own solution, resulting in misunderstanding or incomprehension about the chosen solution.

For efficient management and a maximal result, we prefer as few misunderstandings as possible, especially regarding the solution of daily problems. To realize this, it is necessary to see the causal relationship between performance and the behavior of people.

The example contains multiple layers of information. The first layer is the layer we see and perceive: Paul, the operator, is tidying up while his machine is turned off. He produces nothing. The second layer, the one we cannot perceive directly, is the trade-off Paul made to arrive at his choice: do I call my team leader because I have no products to package, or do I tidy up?

When we refer to behavior within performance behavior, we refer to all actions a person performs. This "performance" can be subdivided into external actions and internal actions. The fact that Paul trades-off the possibilities and makes a choice is an invisible process that takes place in his head, but this internal action is part of his behavior. That he does not call his team leader is visible behavior. Therefore, this belongs to the category of external actions.

Let us look deeper into this situation and wonder what the basis is for the visible behavior of Paul, the operator. The behavior Paul displays at work has an underlying reason. His response "I was glad I had the time to tidy up" shows that he presumes he was doing the right thing by tidying up. He perceived his environment with his senses (in this case his eyes), he evaluated this environment (there are items that do not belong here) and checked this evaluation with his inner standard: it is too messy here. How did this standard arise? Is Paul also this neat at home? Does Paul have a neat character? Is he trained by the company to be neat? Was it a conscious decision? Or was it subconscious? The standard he developed to evaluate his own environment is determined by his genetic makeup, character, education and social factors.

Let's take a look at what happens after Paul judged his environment to be "too messy". The situation starts with a telephone call Paul receives from his colleague who tells him he has to wait a little longer for the product he needs to pack with his machine. Via his ears, he perceives the situation: I have to shut down my packing machine for a while. Since his colleague gives no indication regarding duration and Paul also does not inquire after this, Paul does

not know how long he has to wait. He also has no idea what the reason is he will not receive products to pack. Paul had already ascertained it was too messy in the morning, so the phone call from his colleague is very convenient. On the basis of two signals that Paul receives (no products to pack and a messy department), he makes a decision in a matter of seconds: he takes a broom and trashcan and tidies up.

From this example, we can learn that behavior is influenced by the context. We perceive something and interpret it. Sometimes we leave out information and sometimes we supplement it ourselves. Paul immediately assumes that it will be at least an hour before he will receive products, although no one told him this. He assumes this, because such situations often take an hour to solve. He interprets the signal he receives from his colleague in his own way and on the basis of this he decides to take half an hour to tidy up because in this half an hour he has to wait anyway. Paul also intends to call Peter, his boss, after he is done cleaning so that Peter can take action to make sure the products are received again.

The result of the behavior that Paul displays is largely influenced by the ideas Paul has about certain events, based on previous experiences. He has a "mental representation": the idea that Paul has regarding a tidy department and the idea that Paul has regarding "no products to pack". These ideas determine how Paul interprets the situation and the choices he makes. Figure 1.1 shows what this looks like in a schematic way:

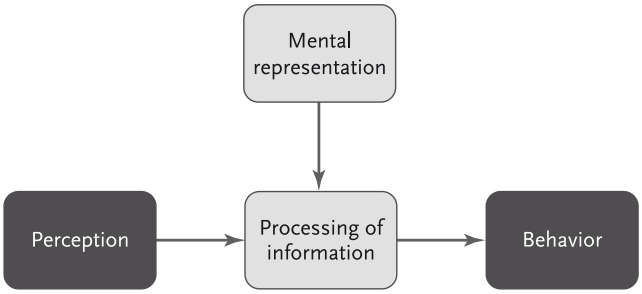

Figure 1.1 *From perception to behavior*

Everyone processes received information on the basis of his own mental representations and makes conscious and subconscious choices that are partly visible and partly invisible to others.

This information processing does not stand alone. It is influenced by colleagues,

experiences, managers, instruction signs, e-mails, Internet, newspapers, television and other sources of information. Besides that, there is not always a strict separation between work and private. If Paul has a neat personality ("Even as a child he cleared away his own toys"), he probably needs less structure at work to clean up than someone who has a more chaotic personality. Also, there is a good chance he has everything neatly stored away in his garage at home.

Paul's behavior is largely determined by who he is (personality, intelligence, experiences and interaction), by social factors (the people in his private and work environment), by how he feels (when he spent his entire life in a wheelchair, he will function differently from someone who is a marathon runner), by cultural and geographic factors (if Paul has Asian roots, he will have different values than when he comes from West-Europe) and finally by spiritual factors such as faith and convictions.

Figure 1.2 shows which factors influence information processing.

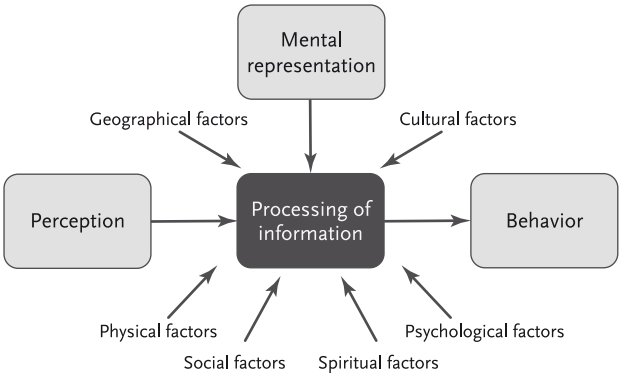

Figure 1.2 *Factors that play a role in the realization of behavior*

There are four basic elements that play a role in the realization of behavior:

1 The physical action needed to allow the behavior to take place;
2 The emotion someone experiences when he displays the behavior;
3 The psychological response that belongs to the behavior;
4 The thoughts that accompany the behavior.

Behavior is under normal circumstances stable and steady, that is: in case of stable environmental factors. However, this may change to a greater or lesser extent due to altering factors in the environment, such as death, emigration or a changed work situation. The effect of changed circumstances and the role the

environment plays differs per person. Because everyone interprets the circumstances in a different way, the actions, emotions, psychological reaction and thoughts will also differ per person.

Moreover, the behavior of people, but also their thoughts and feelings, is greatly influenced by situational factors. When these situational factors change, the behavior will usually also change (either temporarily or more permanently). In addition to situational factors, personality also plays an important role in the realization of behavior.

Paul's personality determines the unique way in which he will behave in most situations. This can differ depending on the situation (work or private), because his priorities are different in his private and his work life. Furthermore, in his work situation he will be surrounded and influenced by different people than those in his private situation. Paul might display different behavior at home than he does at work. Subsection 1.2 elaborates more on personality and behavioral profiles.

When you are able to explain behavior, you are also better able to identify the factors that bring about this behavior. The better you can identify behavior, the better you can predict it. The predictability of behavior is directly related to the result of the behavior: the more predictable the behavior, the more predictable the result.

Ideally, the results of an organization should be as predictable as possible. Since the people who work there largely influence the results of an organization, having predictable behavior in employees is an important factor in the predictability of the company results.

An employee's performance is the sum of his efforts and the organizational results are the sum of the performances of all individual employees.

Back to the example of Paul, the operator, and team leader Peter. Paul thought he had achieved the desired result: he tidied up his department. Team leader Peter had a different idea: he assumed the packaging machine was running well and his only purpose in visiting Paul was to have a short talk. When Peter arrived at the machine, he discovered that Paul's result differed from the result he had in mind. Their "result expectations" were clearly different.

1.2 From processing information towards behavior

When people who work together are not in agreement regarding expected results (both vertically: between manager and employee, and horizontally: between employees), everyone will try to achieve the results in their own way. They will each work towards the result they assume to be most desirable. From the example with Paul and Peter, we can see that result expectations can differ greatly. This has to do with the way in which people process new information, as will be clarified below.

Organizing the world with schemas

Do employees work towards their performance consciously, or is this subconscious behavior? A study by psychology professor Ap Dijksterhuis shows that our conscious mind can process no more than 60 bits per second. In contrast, our subconscious mind can process approximately 11 million bits per second. We have a tendency to place our consciousness on a pedestal, believing ourselves to be capable of rational thinking and making autonomous choices. This study shows, however, that the processing capacity of our subconscious mind is approximately 200.000 times as large as that of the conscious mind.

Perhaps that is for the best. Our body is a complex chemical factory and we do not want to be constantly thinking about whether our heart continues to beat or whether our lungs continue to breathe. We assume that our bodily functions "simply" continue to function. Our head works the same way. Our brain carefully filters everything our eyes see. If we have already seen information before, it will not be stored a second time; after all, it is already stored on our "hard disc". When we receive a lot of information all at once, our brain prioritizes for us without us knowing what we do and do not remember. In fact, the brain determines what it wants to remember and what it does not want to remember.

That is why the traumatic childhood event that one tries to forget always manages to resurface. And when I ask you now not to think of a pink elephant, your brain will automatically show you a pink elephant. You cannot "turn off" your thoughts. Your brain does what it wants when it wants to. It does so for a reason. It is in this way that we build up an enormous collection of images, which we "label" from the moment we are born.

For everything, we apply one or more labels that each represent a value. That value can be a feeling (emotion) but can also be an opinion (a standard). When I see a banana peel on the floor, if I have already labeled it as such, I could perceive this as dirty. Someone else, who has just been on a tropical island, eating

delicious bananas, could associate it with “holiday”.

The world is so complex that our brain classifies all the images, tastes, scents, sounds and other stimuli that our body processes during life. And that is not all: we also build up experience about social interaction with people and things in certain situations. We use this to explain and estimate how certain behavior happens. We call this knowledge of each social interaction a script. The more often a specific social interaction occurs, the more scripts we have for it. For instance, it is likely that we have many scripts for a person who is nervous, but less scripts for someone who walks around naked, since we do not encounter the latter situation as often as the first.

These scripts lead to schemas that provide us with information about how we should interpret our observations. The schemas lead to a “guidebook” for the interpretation of events around us. These schemas are influenced by the culture we live in, our upbringing, our education and the experiences we have over the course of our entire life. This “guidebook” is an important guide in our life, because this continuously provides us with information to help us understand and interpret the rest of the world. There are social schemas, event schemas, specific schemas such as travel schemas and sports schemas and of course work schemas that say something about the way in which we should interpret the activities we perform at work.

It is possible that the schema for “taking the kids to football on Saturday” consists of the schemas “packing up”, “loading the car”, “driving to the football field”, and “arrival at the field”. The schema “driving to the football field” has many similarities to driving to work. It is likely that the schemas “driving to work” and “driving to the football field” arose from the same kind of script. It deviates on some points as well. The script “running into an acquaintance in the town centre” occurs more often on Saturday and is more likely part of the schema “driving to the football field” than of “driving to work”.

You will be surprised when you run into another parent during work and at a random place. Under normal circumstances, you would only greet him during your kid’s football practice on Saturday. This person does not fit in to the “driving to work” schema. He is not a very nice person (label: “rude”) so during work it is suddenly hard to say a friendly “good afternoon”.

Labels, scripts and schemas subconsciously influence the result of behavior and with that they can influence performance both positively and negatively.

Schemas influence what we remember

Problems can arise when we label our stored observations. In the example in which you drive to the football field, you perceive something that does not match the schema in which you have stored a previous experience. Person x is part of the schema "football field" and not of the schema "work". In this case, it is difficult for us to remember what we have actually perceived.

There are three types of schemas:

1 Consistent schemas;
2 Inconsistent schemas;
3 Irrelevant schemas.

When we find ourselves in a situation we have experienced before, we perceive it as "normal" and therefore know what to expect. This is a consistent schema. Our brain's first response with a consistent schema is: "Right, I already know this: I don't have to process this information."

When we find ourselves in a situation that is "abnormal" and deviates from what we expect, this is an inconsistent schema. This schema does not match the situation we find ourselves in and our brain's response will be to reject it, because the situation is different than we expect.

Finally, we can find ourselves in a situation that our brain can barely make sense of. With such a situation, remembering information is particularly difficult.

This phenomenon is very common with people who have experienced an assault and have seen the attacker. Because most people have never experienced such a situation before and the event occurs completely unexpectedly, vital information is not stored. Eyewitnesses who already have a script of an assault (because of a movie or experience) usually do remember more outstanding details, but the brain does not always store these details correctly. This is because the situation is completely irrelevant to the schema they were occupied with at the moment of the assault.

Different people who experienced the same assault often have different images of the same attacker. Huge variation can occur. Did the attacker wear a red hat or a black one? Did he wear a black or a green coat? Did he have blonde or dark hair? People do remember the event itself, but most details are barely stored or not stored at all, while in other cases several specific details are stored. Our brain largely determines what it does or does not want to remember.

The scripts we build are not actively turned on or off by our brain. They are usually only activated at the moment of perception. If I have just seen a picture of a banana, the script of a banana is turned on. All scripts connected to bananas, such as holiday, monkey, hunger and fruit are also activated in our brain to a lesser extent. The further away other scripts are from the banana script, the less they will be activated in our brain. This mechanism clearly shows why two people can have completely different associations with the same object. The connected scripts are activated in one person because of his specific knowledge and experiences whereas this is not the case for someone else.

Knowledge of situations or problems that are not very common is difficult to activate in situations where we need this knowledge. This can be illustrated by the following example: when steersmen on a ship are surrounded with the most advanced systems, they appear to be the weakest link in case of accidents. More than 80% of shipping accidents are caused by human error (Butter, 2000). In situations that are not-common, the brain tends to have difficulties coping with the situation and keeping focus. For instance, let's look at a captain who makes a bad decision. As long as the next decision is made correctly, the consequence of the bad decision is small and insignificant. However, when a series of situations occur in which the brain is insufficiently capable to reproduce stored information (because the situations concerned are new, do not occur often or because someone is distracted at the moment, or had to go to the bathroom for instance) this series of seemingly insignificant events can eventually end in catastrophe. Usually, not one but multiple causes can be found in case of accidents. The disaster of the Herald of Free Enterprise in 1987, which lead to the death of 193 people, is such an example. Employees were insufficiently trained and therefore no one felt responsible for safety. This resulted in bow doors that remained open. Additionally, a system to ensure that the bow doors closed automatically was not present. The ship was late and wanted to leave as soon as possible. This caused a high bow wave that flowed inside the open bow doors at the stern. Moreover, the Herald of Free Enterprise was not sailing its regular route and the ship did not fit to the loading bridge at the dock. The ship was much too high. The captain managed to compensate for this by filling up the ballast tank with seawater. This deviated from the normal procedure, but did allow the passengers and their vehicles to drive up to the ship via the bridge, so the ship could depart quickly to catch up on lost time. Not one factor but all these factors occurred at the same time, causing the enormous ship to capsize.

Our memory functions within the structure of schemas. As soon as we attempt to store deviations from these schemas, we experience problems. By storing within the structure of schemas it is much easier to recall information at the moments we need it again. The more often we use a schema, the easier we can recall this schema. However, we do not recall all information from the schema, only the information we need at a particular moment. The information we do

not need remains unused and stored away in our brain, to slowly fade away and eventually disappear. If we do not need information on a regular base, it becomes increasingly difficult to recall.

We use our schemas not merely to categorize the world, but also as frameworks within which we perceive the world so we can make sense of it. We perceive and interpret all new information on the basis of our current schemas. Because of this, schemas partly determine how we view the world. When we encounter information that is at odds with our convictions (read: schemas), we prefer not to store it since this would mean we would have to adjust our convictions. Information that matches our convictions is much more easily stored since it matches our already existing schemas. In a way, we see and remember mainly what we (subconsciously) want. You hear what you want to hear because this is easier and costs less energy.

When you do not consciously look for a framework or new point of view, it is practically impossible to change your opinion. You have to consciously want this before you are able to do so. This also means that the older you are, the more opinionated and rigid you become and therefore, the more difficult it is to change your point of view. The younger you are, the easier it is to influence your schemas. When you are young, you need more sleep to process all the images you have experienced during the day; older people generally need less sleep because they have added fewer new schemas to the existing collection in their mind.

Learning and developing: adding new schemas

We naturally have a defense mechanism that makes sure our development mechanisms get closed as we grow older.

The defense mechanism will work faster and more effectively as we become older and know more, since the knowledge and experience we have built resulted in the life we live right now, accompanied by all the schemas we have consciously and subconsciously created. This makes it easier to add experiences and knowledge when we are relatively unwritten (younger). We can also turn this defense mechanism on by ourselves, consciously or subconsciously. Our mind is in development mode when we think it could benefit us.

Moreover, research shows that our brain, just like our senses, reacts best to a shift in stimuli. When we are in a warm room, we get used to the warmth, but when we go from a cold room to that same warm room, it feels much warmer. Our brain can also better remember when we vary between information that

falls within a schema, for instance French words during French class, and information that falls just outside the schema, such as a French term of abuse. Our brain unfailingly registers that the term of abuse does not really belong in the schema and therefore it pays more attention to it.

As we add schemas, it becomes more difficult to add information to them. This is due to the fact that schemas consist of situations in which certain behavior has been shown to (in the past) yield the same result. That result provides a certainty we prefer to hold onto. That is why we prefer to exhibit the same behavior. We wish to achieve the same result again. Employees who have performed the same activities for a longer period will generally have more difficulty learning new things than people who have just started working. This is a question of age: older schemas are used more often. It is also a question of experience: despite being younger someone can still have more work experience than someone who is older. And finally, it depends on the various behavioral profiles: someone with a behavioral profile that shows more stability and certainty will have more trouble adding new information to schemas than someone with a behavioral profile that shows more curiosity and entrepreneurship.

1.3 Behavioral profiles

Back to the example of team leader Peter and operator Paul. Peter is 52 years old and tried and tested. Paul has been working as an operator for 23 years, and has been on the packing line for over 15 years. Both have a lot of experience in the work they do. Because they have worked at the same organization for such a long time, many of the images they have perceived, and therefore the work schedules they have built up, have probably arisen from the same sources. As they work in the same department, for the most part, they see and hear the same things every day. How is it possible that they do not have the same point of view? Paul decides to tidy up, while Peter would like him to make sure the machine is running.

Apparently, Peter and Paul have interpreted the same information in different ways. Since their environment is nearly the same, you can conclude that the cause of this difference in interpretation lies within the individual. Research shows that the way in which we convert perceived images into behavior is largely determined at birth. During our life, all we can do is refine this process.

In 1921, the psychologist Carl Jung conducted revolutionary research and to this day, we continue to base the way in which we conduct personality tests and assessments on his research. Jung described four behavioral styles, based on how people interact with their environment: *intuition, feeling, thinking and sensation.*

In the 1930's, psychologist William Marston used Jung's work as the basis for further development. He was one of the first psychologists to describe the behavior of healthy people; before, only the behavior of mentally ill people was researched. On the basis of Jung's behavioral styles, Marston established four stable characteristics (profile factors) that can be used to map the behavioral profile that is already present at birth:

1 *Dynamic*: Task-oriented, competitive and fast behavior. Prefers to be goal-oriented and direct. Wants to achieve results and looks for challenges. Is competitive and expects direct answers.
2 *Inspiring*: People-oriented, extraverted and fast behavior. Is very convincing. Likes to make contact with people and is open. Likes to work in a team.
3 *Social*: People-oriented, sensitive and thorough behavior. Prefers to work in a well-organized and structured environment. Is a good listener and enjoys doing things for others.
4 *Correct*: Task-oriented, cautious and thorough behavior. Makes high demands on himself and on his environment. Wants to know what to expect before he starts. Likes to analyze thoroughly.

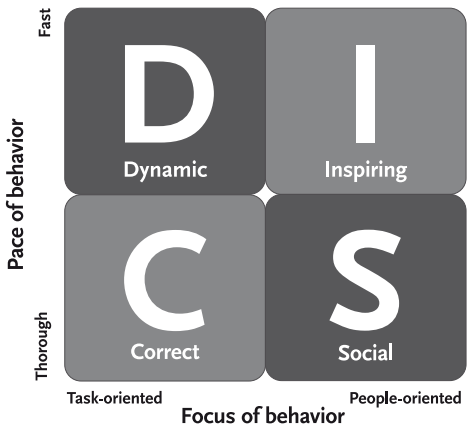

Figure 1.3 *The four profile factors alongside the axes 'pace of behavior' (thorough and fast and 'focus of behavior' (task-oriented or people-oriented)*

Pace and focus

The basis of individual behavioral profiles stems from two different motivators: focus and pace. Focus consists of two components: decision making on the basis of tasks (rational) and decision making on the basis of people (emotional). Someone who focuses on tasks makes rational decisions, is goal-oriented and

often finishes his tasks. Someone who focuses on people makes decisions on the basis of relational, human considerations. Relationships are important to these people; "together" is an important word.

Pace as a motivator determines the pace of actions. People with a high pace are active, speak quickly and respond and decide quickly. People with a slow pace are thorough, investigating, walk and speak slower and calmly make their decisions. People with a fast pace are called extraverts according to Jung's behavioral profiles; people with a slow pace are introverts.

Determine your own behavioral profile via www.profile4free.com.

People with a fast pace and driven by tasks are goal-oriented and direct. They are also dominant, because they want the task to be finished at any cost. They are described as dynamic.

People with a fast pace and people-oriented are described as brisk and easy-going. Such people are often amiable and influential. They are described as inspiring. "Dynamic" and "inspiring" are both extravert profile factors.

People with a slow pace who are people-oriented are social types. Such people are often more passive, but also more stable and resolute. Sensitivity is also an important characteristic.

Correct, calculating and conforming to rules are characteristics belonging to people who are task-oriented and have a slow pace. They are often described as correct and conscientious.

Figure 1.4 uses an axes graph to show typical characteristics per behavioral profile.

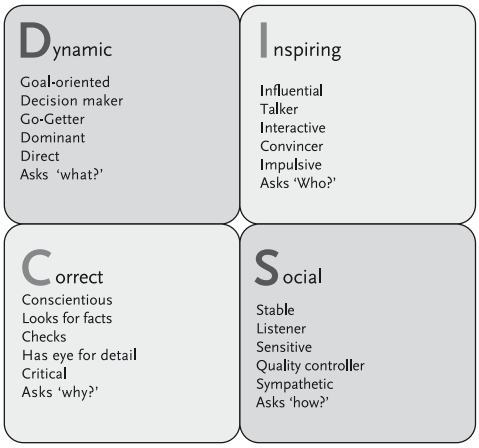

Figure 1.4 *A number of typical characteristics per profile factor*

Combination of profile factors

Everyone has at least one, but no more than three, profile factors. Together, in combination and through interaction with each other, these determine an individual's behavioral profile. You cannot have them all, since you cannot be "everything" at the same time. For example, a thorough method excludes a quick one. And being an introvert person excludes one from being an extravert person. Nevertheless, this does not mean that someone is incapable of displaying different behavior temporarily. However, when the behavior that is inconsistent with the behavior profile lasts too long, tension and even stress can occur. Everyone prefers to display behavior that is consistent with his personality, both at work and in his private life. Our own measurements conducted over a period of ten years also prove that these characteristics are highly constant.

Most people have two profile factors. The extent to which a profile factor is present, but also the combination of other profile factors and a person's awareness of his own behavior usually determine the behavior the person displays.

Team leader Peter has a behavioral profile that contains a certain level of dominance; the profile factor "dynamic". He also prefers to check whether his people stick to their agreements and he is highly critical. These last characteristics are due to his "correct" profile factor. According to his behavioral profile factors, Peter is neither "inspiring" nor "social". Therefore, he tends to exaggerate his

critical attitude, which means he does not always take the feelings and opinions of others into account.

Paul, the operator, enjoys entering into discussions with Peter. He is easily distracted, which means he often sees too many things he perceives as important. This is a result of his "inspiring" profile factor. Additionally, Paul appreciates a fixed work place in which preferably no change occurs. He definitely does not want to be transferred to another department, as Peter had planned to do last year. The very thought makes him nervous. This is caused by Paul's "social" profile factor. He derives his self confidence from the experiences he has; this

Daniel D. Ofman (2006). 'Core qualities gateway to human resources.'

gives him confidence, since he knows what to expect. If he does not know what to expect and suddenly finds himself in a new situation, he becomes nervous and will try to get out of the situation as soon as possible.

Research has shown that in Western cultures, the majority of people prefer the profile factor "dynamic" in other people's behavior. This profile factor is seen as most appealing because people with this factor, just like Peter the team leader, are more likely to be leading and steering than the other profile factors. In Asian cultures, the more introvert profile factors are preferred. No profile factor is better or worse than another. Each profile factor has its own qualities and pitfalls. The pitfall is an exaggerated quality. Figure 1.5 clarifies this.

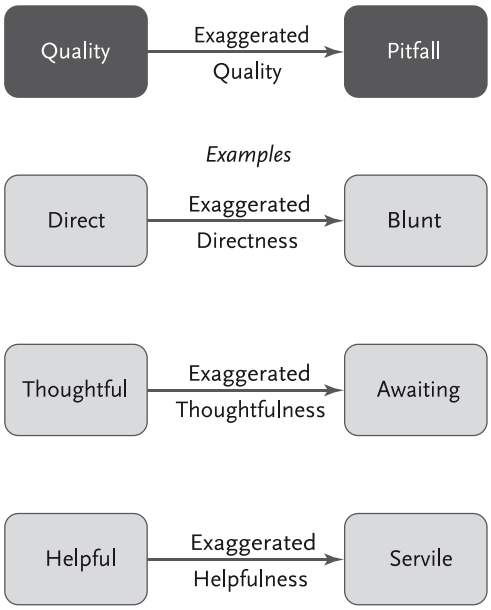

Figure 1.5 *Exaggerated quality as pitfall*

Our own investigation of profiles of over five hundred managers shows that many managers have the profile factors "dynamic" or "inspiring", and in most cases both. Additionally, employees that fulfill roles that require a lot of extraversion, such as management roles, often have more dominance and influence in their behavior profiles. And employees who fulfill roles that require more introversion, such as supporting roles, more often have "social" and "correct" in their behavior profile.

Genetic predisposition

The behavioral profile is already established at birth, or shortly after. Statements such as "I used to be "dynamic", but now I only have "social" in my behavioral profile" are untrue. We have a natural tendency to display predetermined behavior in a certain situation. However, we can learn to handle the qualities and pitfalls in our behavioral profiles. When we know which behavioral profile we have and can understand what brings about certain behavior, we are better able to recognize this and handle it effectively. Moreover, we are better able to handle the behavior of others when we know what we can expect of them and what "ingredients" their behavior contains. It makes the behavior of others predictable, and with that, it becomes easier to influence.

We cannot change the tendencies we get from our behavior profile, but we can influence the way we express these tendencies in our behavior. We can develop the way in which we handle our behavioral profile, without striving to change our behavioral profile to make it better suited to the role we would like to fulfill in life or at work. However, it is a question of intelligence whether people are capable of adjusting their behavior in such a way that they avoid the pitfalls in their behavioral profile.

In order to be able to talk about intelligence, it is important that we understand exactly what intelligence is. We should realize that intelligence and behavior are separate from each other. Two people can have exactly the same behavioral profile, but due to a difference in intelligence can fulfill completely different roles.

Often, intelligence is viewed as a competency in its own right. In reality, intelligence consists of a number of subdivisions that can each be developed in their own way. Intelligence is the capacity to solve problems. This problem solving can take place in four ways:

1 We need analytical intelligence for problems that require decomposition and abstraction. An engineer who wants to build a bridge needs this form of intelligence to determine the right spot for the underwater support pillars;
2 We need creative intelligence for problems that require originality or creativity. The inventor of a new, electrically driven vehicle with which we can drive as far and as comfortably as our current car needs this form of intelligence;
3 We need epistemic intelligence to solve problems that require specific knowledge. A vascular surgeon needs this form of intelligence when he finds more severely clogged vessels during open-heart surgery than he had previously estimated on the basis of the scan;
4 We need facilitating intelligence to combine the previous three intelligence areas. A pilot needs this form of intelligence during an emergency landing where he has to manage the cockpit staff, needs to keep the plane in the air, comfort the passengers, communicate with flight control and keep his own emotions under control.

1.4 Organizational performances

Individual behavior of employees, which is determined by behavioral profiles, plays a crucial role in achieving the organization's results. We define the performance of an organization as follows:

> *"The performance of an organization is the sum of all desired, but also undesired results, which were brought about by all efforts that were made pos-*

sible within the organization, with the resources that were employed for this purpose. Here, people, machines, materials, methods and management are referred to as resources."

The desired performances of an organization are all the results that add value to the product or the service for the customer. The customer is prepared to pay for this. All undesired performances are the gains that required effort, but that the customer does not really need and is not prepared to pay for. However, these undesired gains cost resources, without adding value. They belong to the category "waste".

Organizations should strive, as much as possible, to achieve only the results that add value and limit waste, or rather: eliminate waste. To be able to achieve only results that add value, the organization can follow the following steps:

1 First, the organization has to make sure that an individual employee knows exactly in which way he can influence the performances and how these performances add value;
2 Subsequently, the department or team in which the employee works also needs to know exactly what the team performance or department performance is and how the team or department can influence this performance. Here, primary activities that directly influence the performance level directly are most important. Secondary activities that have a less direct influence on the performance level (being on time, using a certain standardized work method) are also important, but do not have an immediate impact on the results;
3 Finally, it is necessary to define the goal values and behavioral standards in a clear way.

In performance behavior we distinguish between indicators, goal values, behavioral standards and the standard(s).

Indicators are used to monitor whether or not the organizational objectives will be achieved. These can be qualitative or quantitative. This can be illustrated with the example of an apple producer who monitors his organizational objectives. He could use the qualitative indicator 'quality of apples' for this. However, in addition to the qualitative indicator, the apple producer could also use a quantitative indicator such as production-efficiency. By monitoring these, and possibly more indicators, the apple producer is able to track its performance with regard to the organizational objectives.

Subsequently these indicators are used to derive clear goal values. With goal

value we mean the specification of a certain value, for example for the indicator production-efficiency: a specific number of kilos per hectare of apple trees.

A behavioral standard, on the other hand, specifies a behavioral value. For instance, the standard for the value "being on time for a meeting" can be determined by the organization as: "being present at least two minutes before the start of the meeting".

Finally, we define the standard(s) as the standardized way in which work is performed by the employees at the different levels in the organization. In performance behavior the use of standards is fundamental to achieve a performance behavior organization in which continuous improvement is possible. To achieve this state the process of establishing, safeguarding, improving and renewing the standard(s) is critical. We elaborate on this topic further in chapter 2.

In the example of the packing machine, team leader Peter had a specific objective to pack a certain amount of products that day. One possible indicator to monitor the amount of packed products is the downtime of the packing machines. However, the organization has no predetermined specified goal value for the downtime of the packing machine. So Paul has no specific goal value he can work towards. Furthermore there is no standard in place which clarifies what Paul should do in case of downtime. Subsequently Paul starts to employ his own goal value and behavioral standard. He starts cleaning to achieve his own goal value: a tidy work environment. The way in which Paul determines his own goal value and behavioral standard stems from his frame of reference, his behavioral profile, his schemas and other external influences, such as the clutter around him. This usually happens subconsciously.

This example shows conflicting goal values and a lacking standard; employees will set their own goal value when an organization does not establish clear goal values that are derived from indicators that monitor the organizational objectives.

Other examples of conflicting goal values or behavioral standards are:

- The goal value with regard to the time customers have to wait until they are serviced is five minutes at a specific company. Yet, the customer service switchboard operator says to the customer: "You've only been waiting for 10 minutes? That's not so bad; they have staffed too few people today and other customers have had to wait much longer."
- The behavioral standard to pass for your driving license is that you may never drive through a red traffic light. Yet, a road user says after driving through

a red light : “But I was in a hurry, and there was no traffic”

- The goal value with regard to the number of customer complaints at a food manufacturer is zero. Yet, a manager who accounts for his performances is saying: “But isn’t it logical that the customers’ complaints will increase when we speed up production?”

These examples show that organizations need specific goal values and clear behavioral standards to be able to steer on result. However, many organizations state that they have clear goal values. They work towards “satisfied customers”, “higher production” or “as few errors as possible”. These goal values might seem very concrete but are, in fact, highly abstract.

In the example we used earlier, an apple producer can use the ‘quality of apples’ as an indicator for the organizational objectives. However, if the apple producer strives towards the goal value ‘the highest quality’ of apples, this is a very abstract goal value. This needs to be translated to a specific goal value. High-quality apples can be measured by the physical characteristics of the apple. This could be the number of deviating spots on the apple. So the specific goal value for the quality of apples should be: no deviating spots on the apple. This makes the goal value concrete. Additionally, a goal value should never be “the maximum achievement” even though this is what every manager strives for. The reason for this is that “the maximum achievement” is not a specific goal value. And when this goal value is not completely clear, how is it then possible to steer when there are deviations on the path towards the goal value? Right: it is not possible to steer in that case.

By clarifying each goal value on each level within the organization, we focus on achieving results. And hereby we prevent that a justification is given in hindsight when the results were not achieved. With “hindsight justification” there usually is a “very good reason” that is given for not achieving the desired result. However, there is always a good reason. People are great at explaining, in hindsight, why something went wrong or why something did not work out. But the key to maximizing the performances of organizations is not hindsight clarifications of failure. Organizations should create preconditions and success factors that allow all employees within the organization to proactively focus on an objective that is set by the organization. The employees should be familiar with these. Organizations should steer on deviations in advance instead of explaining the deviations in hindsight, irrespective of the reason for the deviation.

The reality is however, that in organizations, deviations are usually explained in hindsight and that the deviations are not steered upon in advance. This is caused by the following:

1 The explanation of the performance deviation is not compared to a specific goal value, but to a maximum achievable value (the value the manager has in mind) that can "always be higher". This results in a deviation that is insufficiently measurable, and without a specific deviation it is hard to relate possible solutions to the deviation;
2 The goal value is determined on the basis of a performance indicator that is used too high up in the organization. This means that the performance deviation derived from this goal value can't be explained at the lower levels of the organization. An example of this is the number of apples per barrel with a bad spot. The goal value that is derived from this indicator is not clear enough for the employee; how does this relate to his own production? Using goal values that are derived from indicators that are used too high up in the organization will always mean that the check on performance will take place with a lower frequency than the frequency at which the performance comes about. Due to this, it is only possible to explain deviations in hindsight and not to steer on these deviations during the process. A concrete indicator that could be used to derive a concrete goal value for the employee could be: "How many apples need to be checked per fifteen minutes". Now it is possible to steer on these checks and thus to influence the performance: the "number of bad apples per barrel".

Figure 1.6 visualizes cause 1. An imaginary, non-measurable goal value has been established as "maximum value"; as a result, no specific deviation is registered and no specific root cause can be established. Therefore, the only action that is taken is a corrective action; however, this only fights the symptoms.

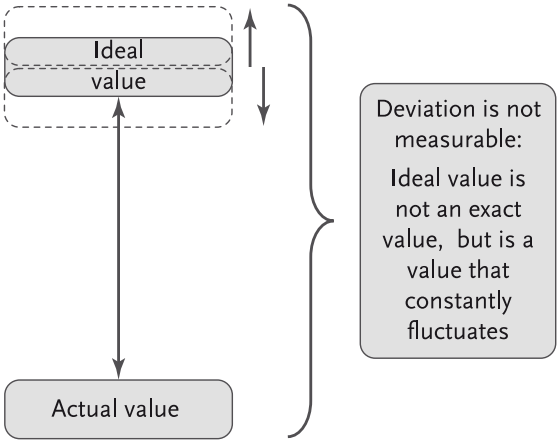

Figure 1.6 *Non-measurable deviation, because the goal value is an ideal value that continuously fluctuates*

Figure 1.7 visualizes the desired situation concerning the establishment of goal values. Here, the desired goal value is not "the highest achievable", but a specific goal value. With this specific goal value it is possible to measure the deviation exactly.

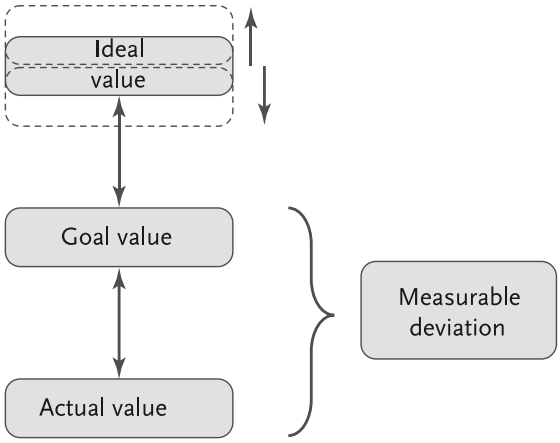

Figure 1.7 *A measurable deviation, because the goal value has a specific value*

Stretch causes development and therefore results

The fewer resources we need to achieve our objectives, the more efficiently we achieve the desired result. This is called result efficiency. Naturally, we strive for a result efficiency that is as high as possible. In theory, the maximum result efficiency is a situation in which we do not need any resources to achieve our objective: the objective is already reached at the moment we formulate it. When this happens, we have to increase our objective so tension arises between the goal and the resources to achieve this new objective. In performance behavior, this tension is called stretch. In this way, we ensure that the bar is raised every time and, within performance behavior, it forms the basis for our continuous improvement system. In this way, continuously creating tension within the organization leads to continuous development and increasing results.

When objectives and resources are balanced, people experience a comfortable state of mind. If the objectives are too high to be realized with the resources available, people who try to achieve these objectives can experience stress or a sense of panic because the objectives are not achievable.

When the goals are so easily reachable that not all available resources are need-