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TEAMWORK: RE-ENGINEERING THE DIVISION OF LABOUR FOR NEW ZEALAND'S WORKPLACE OF TOMORROW.

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ABSTRACT

Conventional workplace structure in New Zealand is based on a Fordist specialist division of labour that fragments and isolated the workforce, reinforcing the individualistic nature inherent in society. Changes in the economic circumstances (primarily deregulation, internationalism and the Employers Contracts Act) have manifested into extensive organisational, cultural, social and political workplace re-engineering. Understanding the transformation of the division of labour from a Fordist separatist hierarchy to a flexible team-based cooperative system details the orchestration of social labour in the multiplication of industrial organisation. The rationalisation of unskilled mass labour has been replaced with the concept of the flexible multi-skilled labour force and the ability to transform the human element in production. By adapting new team-based methods of work composition, companies are able to internalise continuous quality improvements through individual self-empowerment. Encouraging the highest degree of satisfaction for the individual and the most effective work performance for the organisation, teamwork is able to provide the basis for productivity improvements while simultaneously delivering better work conditions to all team members. Organisational innovation and revitalisation are deeply implicated in the shape of uneven development, so rather than analysing a specific plan of workplace reform, the interpretation of key factors of work systems will be addressed to provide a framework of change; an unsettling period for internal politics between employees and employers, as they must reorganise themselves in line with new forms of interactive working. An empancipatory team environment improves communication and employee participation, re-aligns New Zealand's economy with the requirements for success in the modern global market as detailed by the sustainable advancements made by the Dairy Processing Board, BHP New Zealand Steel, Interlock Industries, MacPac Wilderness Equipment Ltd, Weddel Tomoana, Thames Toyota and Christchurch Parkroyal.

INTRODUCTION

Throughout the last century New Zealand's predominantly European population has held traditional beliefs about the work ethic and the centrality of employment as the dominant way of working. Like others who become dependant on getting a job, New Zealanders have found it difficult to change their thinking about employment and work structure, and to realise that radically different economic and social circumstances demand different patterns of living and working. The maintenance of the status quo - the traditional pattern of comfortable existence - is being increasingly encroached by a revolution: the normalisation of organisational structures, business practices and people systems which implement policies of rigidity are being exposed. The source of the growing recognition is that tighter controls, greater pressure, job demarcation, and increased supervision have run their course in their ability to provide society with the productivity gains required to compete effectively in the world market place. The days of the rigid job description are limited as organisations begin to emerge from an era of conflictual industrial relations and pyramid hierarchies, and progress toward a society of human resources and the networked company.

There are three powerful interrelated levels in every workplace that can fuel change: purpose, relationships and structure. Purpose (what business one is in) embodies future visions on which security and meaning depend. Relationships (connections between co-workers) require cooperation across lines of hierarchy, ethnicity, gender and function. Structure (who does what) affects self-esteem, dignity, learning and motivation. Articulating purposes develops attractive future goals by mobilising team-based responsibility and ownership, providing a powerful exercise for any organisation facing a strategic turning point as it creates awareness and resolve throughout a company.

Rather than generalising that is contained under the subject of workplace reform, teamwork is focused upon to establish a consultative process that can help identify and address the re-engineering process. Workplace reform is a model which recognises patterns of practice and theory that are able to be reproduced, while teamwork is the philosophy which governs value laddened strategic and management styles and the paradigm that provides the specific framework to bring about change. Relationships situated within a team culture provide the best environment for learning to maintain innovation faced with continual change. The specific team advocated depends upon developing awareness, skills and cooperation against the backdrop of the individual social and business situation. Evolving to a team-based structure involves the re-engineering of work design to create rewarding jobs, higher output and quality at lower costs, greater system flexibility and increased self-control (in terms of personal autonomy); compelling people from all functions and levels to re-think how they operate in light of the increasing pace of change.

This teamwork re-engineering thesis is structured in four sections: revitalisation - recognising the need for change, creating a new vision, institutionalising change and resistance to change. Revitalisation centres on the challenges companies encounter as a result of globalising economies and consumer behaviours. Need for change, often triggered by external environmental pressures, must be perceived and responded to in order for the transformational process to begin, with the felt need for change providing the impetus for transition. Creating a vision involves the process of focusing organisational attention on an image of the future that is positive, motivating and rewarding. It needs to be readily accepted by all team members as a desirable change for the company and communicated in such a form that is congruent with the company's overall philosophy and style. The third section focuses on the institutionalisation of the changes, brought about

by the reforms during the re-engineering, which requires a culture that reinforces and encourages the revitalisation of the company. If teamwork is so advantageous to companies as this thesis advocates, why is there resistance to change? The final section addresses this issue, postulating that within New Zealand's economy, patriarchy, individualism, politics and legislation combine to influence company decisions of whether to embrace teamwork or distance themselves from change.

SECTION ONE

REVITALISATION - RECOGNISING THE NEED FOR CHANGE

Revitalisation centres on the challenges encountered when introducing teamwork in an attempt to initiate change, contained within the ever developing modern environment of industrial organisation. Need for change, often triggered by external environmental pressures, must be perceived and responded to in order that the transformational process can begin. The felt need for change provides the impetus for transition.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF NEW ZEALAND'S TRADITIONAL WORK ORGANISATION

In New Zealand's capitalist economy, the pursuit of profit shapes economic decisions and events. This has direct implications for the social character of work, the organisation of production and the motives and experiences of all those involved in the work process (Brosnan, Smith & Walsh,1990), as strategies of workplace revitalisation function within the wider framework of general business, marketing, economic and political structures. Connecting broad societal and industrial patterns, New Zealand's shift to post Fordism reflects a deep structural change in production processes from the Fordist Industrial era of mass production and accumulation. This form of surplus value production and realisation, supported by particular types of production and based on economies of scale, standardisation, assembly line production and scientific management is also known as Taylorism.

Major influences on conventional workplace reform practices can be traced back to the writings of Adam Smith (1723-1790) and Charles Babbage (1792-1871).

"For two hundred years people have founded and built companies around Adam Smith's brilliant discovery that industrial work should be broken down into its simplest and most basic tasks. In the post-industrial business age we are now entering, corporations will be founded and built around the idea of reunifying those tasks into coherent business processes." (Hammer & Champy, 1993;2)

Central to Smith's and Babbage's arguments is the concept of the division of labour, which they envisaged as providing the means for greater material output per staff hour worked. Division of labour refers to the system of specialisation that runs through all human societies creating differentiation in society. It is an active force in social ordering, economic development and incorporates the lived experiences of individual participants. Smith and Babbage asserted that division of labour would result in economies of production from reduced training times, less material wastage in the learning process and increased levels of activity through the skills acquired by process repetition. Throughout history, examples of traditional division of labour have shown that job design follows one key principle, the

"...disassociation of the labour process from the skills of workers ...removing from work all elements of craft and the individual worker's personal tacit knowledge. The labour process thus no longer depends for success upon the abilities of workers but upon the practices of management." (Blackler & Brown, 1978;5)

The multitude of specialised products division of labour creates is the basis for exchange in markets, with the hierarchies of administration and knowledge it generates contained within the social labour processes deeply etched in the historical development of modern companies. In essence, it is a doctrine of de-skilling jobs by reducing their complexity - fragmenting the workforce - into simplistic component tasks. Re-thinking the division of labour (and hense the basic principles on which work is organised) means attempting to normalise new systems of capitalist organisation to change the 'landscape' of the social economy; creating new production systems and styles of industrial relations, adopting new marketing and management systems. Those concerned with the human factor in the division of labour are of the opinion that traditional divisions of labour ignore the unity of humans by considering them essentially as a mechanical factor (Semler,1993).

Although Fordism, defined as a "...mode of regulation, in which mass consumption absorbs the output of mass production, thanks to productivity-related wages for core workers..." (Sayer & Walker, 1992; 194), takes a variety of forms and its developments are not inevitable, its key features can be summarised in Braverman's (1974) three principles: the disassociation of labour processes from the skills of the workers, the separation of conception from execution and management's use of monopoly knowledge (an overall organisational awareness of the 'big picture') to control the labour process. Work is disassociated from the skills of workers to create a normative reproduction of hegemonic structures (which can be analysed to uncover its constituent elements). Management techniques like job evaluation and resource allocation are used to detail the skills required to reach the desired results and to systematise the steps involved so that tasks can be performed by the least skilled worker. Planning and design is given to specialists, so that workers are reduced to implementing pre-determined decisions (over which they have no control). In this way, management controls each stage of the labour process because conception is divorced from execution. Taken together, these principles reflect management's desire to control labour and reduce their dependence on the cooperation of workers, as the understanding of the whole process withdraws to a selective few.

These features of workplace design have both objective and subjective consequences for the workforce as a whole, and the individuals who comprise it. The objective impact of management de-skilling some groups (reducing strategic power) while enhancing the relative power of others, creates a new distribution and composition of workers. A two-tiered system of discretionary levels emerges with one level of occupants attaining responsibility, freedom and autonomy, while the lower level remains regulated, and constrained by rules, supervision and procedural work designs. The subjective psychological and physical impact of

these features upon individuals is management's prescription of execution stifling all intrinsic motivation and initiative.

"The existing pattern of the division of labour, either society-wide or in any workplace, is a consequence of historical struggles. The present pattern at any point in time is the result of forces working to change the pattern and to maintain it. Any change in the balance of forces at the economic, the political, or the cultural/ideological level can lead to a change in the existing division of labour." (Krause, 1982;93)

A pattern, no matter how long it has been in place, should never be taken as eternal or basic to society; division of labour is a patterned arrangement created by people, and therefore can be changed by them.

The economic level of workplace reform refers to the ownership pattern of the means of production and the distribution of capital, where as the size and comprises organisational power structure the political level. The cultural/ideological level details formalised ideological statements; values and goals pertaining to the existing economic and political systems in place. Economic ownership of the setting infers power over socio-political attempts to change the setting, even when the workforce demands justification for the values and laws supporting division patterns (Krause, 1982). Ownership supports the preservation of existing ideology and culture. Attempts at cultural/ideological change, without political action that supports change in ownership dimensions, are likely to lapse back to original patterns. Yet, simple changes at the economic level (ie. replacing State ownership with capitalist ownership) will not suffice, without accompanying change in the determination of new values and ideologies.

Traditional work design has resulted in a number of adverse consequences for both organisations and their employees. Organisations face high levels of absenteeism and attrition rates, rigid job structures and an inflexible workforce

(Deeks et al,1982). Confrontational industrial relations generally means that productivity levels are below that of major trading partners, with goods and services of an inferior quality. Employees have limited career opportunities, minimal participation in decision-making and have limited access to training and skill acquisition (as labour is seen as a cheap and easily available raw material). Features of the traditional system tend to encourage demarcation whereby different areas of the company are specialised for particular operations, with staff separated by tasks of expertise. Technical divisions of labour are thus created, resulting in individuals being compartmentalised into monotonous, alienated jobs that reinforce a strict vertical hierarchy and maintain the distinction between supervisory and manual labour.

"Attempts to push specialisation to the extreme, eliminating all overlap in activities or competition between internal divisions - sometimes termed 'hyper-rationality' - has frequently been found to be false economy as it encourages empire-building, poor coordination between activities, inflexibility, and a lack of competitive stimulus."

(Sayer & Walker, 1992; 168)

Specialisation in the workplace divides people experientially, organisationally and ideologically, hence socially fragmenting today's culture. Traditional division of labour patterns are changing as the present situation implies a future society increasingly organised around the difficulties associated with specialist and individual divisions; problems of separation and difference, patriarchal domination, hidden agendas and wider divisions between socio-economic groups. Unfortunately, as the technologies of segregation become socialised into our cultural roots it creates a social hierarchy based on the 'individual'.

Given the historical conditions, the level at which change may begin to effectively pressure the existing pattern varies. Current global economic crises are reflected in the workplace, contained within the political and economic relations between owners and workers. Politically, groups are reorganising to challenge unobserved 'official' ideologies of automatic authority positioning (like minority groups of ethnicity and gender). However, without an organised attempt to establish the changes in new directions, the most common response is "...an attempt on the part of the class or group that dominates the situation to re-phase the situation back into some degree of harmony." (Krause, 1982; 101) Attempts to reduce owner's control and steer the company in directions ideologically opposed to current patterns, will find owners reasserting their economic and political power to stop all change. Associated with this is the possibility of skill monopoly; providing certain individuals with greater power to control the division of labour placement process and limiting training to a select few, decreases group solidarity and ultimately results in friction. By officially recognising the need to change legitimate work patterns to a team orientated system, occupational groups would become more congruent with transformational work philosophies to produce an effective setting. Employer skills become less of an entity for the social division of labour as a factor in upholding and maintaining the quality levels of the company.

By the late 1970s, New Zealand's Fordist production systems had become expendable as they no longer sustained economic growth due to changing market conditions and fracturing of the foundations of predicability on which Fordism was based. Boyer (1988) theorised that the four main reasons for this involved *counter productive rationalisation, world markets, social expenditure costs and consumer demands*. Watson (1996) supported this by emphasising customer demand for quality and global competitiveness as the pragmatic forces of the movement. Increasing rationalisation reached the point where the limitations of Just-In-Time (JIT) production; simplifying jobs to single standardised tasks to lower costs (Perry, Davidson & Hill, 1995), forced workers to mount formal attacks on

assembly line production and management systems. Growth of large scale impersonal enterprises and the extensive division of labour in these organisations increased the gap between management and workforce, accelerating overt forms of conflict. Formal approaches to improve work conditions have included work-to-rule (eg. Auckland Fire-fighter 1995 and Air Traffic Control 1996) and striking (eg. Telecom NZ Ltd 1996 and NZ Teachers Association 1996). Attempting to improve conditions in New Zealand involved the workforce in an average of three hundred and twenty six stoppages a year in the 1980s, representing 1.76 percent of the employed population (New Zealand Official Yearbook:1993), and focused on two sets of demands:

- "(a) for higher pay to compensate for the psychological deprivations imposed by the nature of the work, and
- (b) for increased job control, that is increased control by workers and their organisations of staffing levels, of allocation and design of work tasks, and of the speed of the moving track." (Deeks, Parker & Ryan, 1994;155)

1

Mass production creates global markets as economies of scale expand the market to international realms of export and foreign investment. The New Zealand Government's approach to the economy since the 1984 election has involved change in four general areas: internationalisation of the economy, deregulation (removing tariffs and quotas), reducing the role of the government and a change from direct to indirect tax (Brosnan, Smith & Walsh:1990). Fordism accelerated social expenditure costs as, in order to sustain consumer expenditure, the State had to provide adequate base levels of education, health, housing and retirement funding. This expenditure proved difficult to maintain as such continuing costs are not susceptible to productivity gains of mechanisation. Coupled with the stock market crash of October 1987 and the economic recession, the Labour Government could not afford to sustain its ideology of a welfare state. As the

population mix widened to encompass wealth, status, ethnicity and gender differentiation, standardised product lines were unable to meet the varying demands.

As the crutches (inherent faults and inadequacies) that support Fordism become less viable in changing industrial setting, new paradigms of workplace organisation emerge revising production systems which have become dependent on the mass worker they have created. These new models have to address the unskilled (an individual as changeable as a robot), and divisions between labour and management that have become so vast that the phenomena of high staff turnover, shop floor resistance and absenteeism have become commonplace.

"It is the elite of the white collar technostructure who are called upon to prepare memoranda for top policy decision making in the corporation and who have some prospects of upward mobility. For blue collar and most white collar workers, theirs is less to reason why the corporation functions than to accept or reject decisions and working conditions taken for them by others in the management hierarchy."

(Holland, 1987;301)

Industrial relations in the 1990s operate in a different climate from that which existed at the beginning of the decade, as a direct consequence of changes in the international economy and the reforms introduced by the government in New Zealand. As protective regulations are reduced or removed altogether, companies are facing challenges of greater competition, and are constantly searching for methods to achieve greater efficiency to enable them to adjust to, and take advantage of, the increasingly deregulated economy.

An amendment to the Industrial Relations Act 1984 attempted to enforce fairness and equity, changes in job content, skills and duties/responsibilities, increase productivity through new technology and balance the supply and demand of labour skills. The amendment made changes in five areas: *institutions, union*

coverage, personal grievances enforcement and bargaining (Brosnan, Smith & Walsh,1990). The intention of this legislation, governing labour relations, was to push organisations towards integration and the adoption of a decentralised structure of collective bargaining. Unionism was rendered powerless as its membership monopoly was disbanded in favour of the concept of contestability (Brosnan, Smith & Walsh:1990;36) where unions became regulated as workers could choose to change unions.

The new labour relations framework was designed to encourage a wider choice of bargaining arrangements. Employers and unions had a variety of structural agreements already available to them - collective, national or industry-wide - encouraging the adoption of a decentralised system appropriate to the specific enterprise. Employees were not so well off as adequate representation in a decentralised bargaining environment (through collective bargaining) requires employees to be effectively organised at the workplace level. While legislation provides '...a detailed code for the legal regulation of the relationship between collective parties,...[it does]...not specifically address the individual employee-employer relationship." (Harbridge, 1993;9)

Current changes in New Zealand's economy centre on the Employment Contracts Act 1991, which arose out of the strategic problem of attempting "...to find ways of managing an unprecedented degree of economic uncertainty deriving from a need for continuous rapid adjustments to a market environment that seems to have become permanently more turbulent than in the past." (Streeck,1987;285) Despite the previous Labour Reforms Act 1987, a number of businesses and employer groups continued to agitate for further change in the employment system because, without a fundamentally new deregulated bargaining structure, they did not believe that the provisions of the reform could be realised (Boxall,1990). The

Employment Contracts Act deregulated the process of contract negotiation, by disestablishing mechanisms which regulated trade union representation and contract negotiation. On the other hand, the Act retained specialist labour law jurisdictions, thus continuing the State's traditional role of mediation and arbitration; justified as reflecting societal values. As a result,

"...assisted with the wider role of regulation within the economy, unions were encouraged to believe that they were able to exercise a power of veto over all change within the workforce. This has led...to an ossification of thinking within the labour movement and trade unions, which grew and developed as organisations of change became protectors of the status quo." (Douglas, 1993;158)

Traditionally, New Zealand's labour relations system has been built on the assumption that the nature of the employment relationship requires State involvement in regulating the limits of that relationship. In essence, it has assumed that the employee and employer have differing bargaining powers which need to be balanced to prevent the exploitation of workers. An alternative view that came into precedence mirrored Hayek's (1980) philosophy that "...the employment relationship is a private contractual relationship between two parties, involving the buying and selling of labour services..." (Deeks, Parker & Ryan, 1994;83); the reasoning behind which follows the neo-classical belief that the market can regulate employment to gain optimal employment results (Brook, 1990). By detailing areas in which industrial reforms should be sought, employment policies can be interpreted as seeking to make labour procedures flexible in order to meet marketplace conditions (Walsh & Ryan, 1993) which promote decentralised bargaining and a move away from collectivism - both of which fit the economic agenda pursued by the National Party of the time (National Party Manifesto, 1990).

In its undertaking to make union membership voluntary, bargaining rights contestable and blanket coverage provisions void, the multi-employer was empowered to dominate the collective bargaining scene. The Employment Contract Act provides two types of employment contracts - individual and collective. Individual employment contracts may be negotiated at any time but may not be inconsistent with applicable collective employment contracts, whereas collective contracts may be negotiated between employer and any number of the employees (or authorised representatives) and must be in writing containing an expiry date for renegotiation. Governmental assumption was that collective bargaining would give way to individual contracts (Harbridge, 1993) reinforced by strengthening minimal legislative standards enforced within the new environment. As such, the Employment Contracts Act 1991 pertains to "...the de-collectivisation of the labour relations system, encouraging enterprise bargaining over multi-employer bargaining and promoting individual rights as equal to those of any collective." (Harbridge, 1993; 45) In the process, the Act has established a dual labour market in which a core labour market benefits, such as management whom once removed from a collective agreement receives individual settlements, while a secondary, low-skilled manual workforce suffers pay cuts as a result of being unable to secure a reliable collective agreement (Boxall, 1990).

The flexibility debate (Alkinson,1985) emphasised changes in labour and employment patterns with Government concerns focusing on reducing labour market rigidity and increasing organisational flexibility, while employers' concern highlighted job flexibility and multi-skilling. New systems based on flexible technology and working methods emphasised the inappropriateness of homogeneous employment patterns and contracts when trying to respond to fragmenting consumer tastes and the opportunities provided within the deregulated market of product differentiation. The drive for flexibility can be seen as,

"...a response to a fundamental change in the business environment. The tightly integrated, hierarchical cooperation was a response to a stable and predicable environment in which the corporation was able to control its market; and in which, as a consequence, long-run planning was feasible and heavy financial commitments to particular products were encouraged. The new environment is much more unstable and uncertain. Markets can no longer be effectively managed and controlled. The organisation must therefore be able to respond quickly and 'flexibly' as market conditions change." (Piore, 1986;162)

Alkinson (1985) suggests that there are three types of labour flexibility: numerical, functional and financial, while Treu (1992) proposes four: numerical, working time, functional and pay. By discussing five aspects of flexibility: numerical, contractual, job, work-time and pay, all major issues can be encompassed within a definition of flexibility. Numerical flexibility refers to employer's ability to increase and decrease their workforce size in response to market conditions. Contractual flexibility allows employers to determine individual employment relationships; full-time or part-time, permanent or temporary. Job flexibility provides the scope for employees to transfer from one job to another if they are multi-skilled and fulfil the task requirements, reducing traditional demarcation within the workplace. Work time flexibility offers employees the chance to determine individual work hours with minimal penal rates: staggered work start time is an option, as is shift work (when there is the demand for round-the-clock production). Pay flexibility provides an avenue for employers to change pay levels corresponding to market supply and demand. This form of flexibility is periodically interrupted by general wage increases to match inflation, "...legislation has played some part in reducing certain forms of automatic wage increases particularly indexations." (Treu,1992;501) Controlling the drive for labour flexibility, employers encourage the design to make management easier and operations cheaper through lower cost labour units.

A flexible firm (Perry, Davidson & Hill, 1995) utilising a JIT Production

(JIT) system emphasises quality, rather than price or quantity, through competitively creating small output batches to match the fragmented demands of a diverse international market. Based on three principles; flexibility in utilisation of facilities, minimisation of quality problems as they arise in production and minimisation of production flow buffers, a competitive advantage is realised through intensive staff power utilisation rather than being based on technological replacement of the human element (Wood, 1989). This is achieved through building automatic quality controls into production systems (rather than testing for idiosyncrasies of operator faults or system failures like faulty machinery and materials) to eliminate unproductive time (Schonberger, 1982). Employee involvement and motivation is kept high through internalised self-regulation programmes (rather than the imposition of completed final product checks by management for problems) so that all begin to share a sense of ownership in output and workplace. Conceptualised as a 'semi-horizontal operational co-ordination method' (Aoki, 1986), the system requires both internal flexibility and external supplier flexibility to ensure minimal inventories, supported by devolution of job demarcation and increased job rotation.

"The objective of the JIT system is to increase productivity not through super-exploitation of labor but rather through increased technological efficiency, heightened utilisation of equipment, minimal scrappage or rework, decreased inventory and higher quality. It thus increases the value extracted in production, decreases materials consumed per unit and minimises circulation time, making the actual production process much more efficient." (Kenney & Florida, 1988; 136)

This argument fails to address one critical point in the search for time economies in that it contributes to a more intensive use of labour. The pursuit of stockless production is based upon the elimination of all wasteful motions of performance - so that production is less humanistic than Taylorism (Sconberger, 1982), as the false valorisation of labour simply becomes the increased task appropriation by each individual worker. Although JIT provides an efficient system to achieve

quality within the workplace (ie. the international marketplace), my emphasis in this thesis is teamwork as the vehicle for transforming organisations into competitive quality productions rather than for producing cheaper quantity goods.

Since the 1992 Workplace New Zealand - Design the Future conference, a number of organisations have furthered new ways of working the process of providing services and producing goods (Ryan, 1995). Supporting these new ways is the survey results that present a portrait of general trends in New Zealand workplace reform during the 1990s. Two hundred manufacturing and public sector companies were surveyed to establish a workplace data base (facilitating the exchange information between 'leading edge' workplace change organisations). Conclusions drawn by Ryan (1995) should employee participation followed an evolutionary path progressing from inclusion in quality issues, to operational job design concepts and teamwork, and finally involvement in long-term strategic planning issues. Predetermining this development is the flattening of management structure, reducing hierarchies and encouraging the development of teamwork. It is possible to argue that those practices associated with commercial and competitive success (such as improved organisational climate, workplace health and safety, and consumer awareness) are most likely to be adopted at an early stage of the organisational development, while implementations of skill development, pay-for-performance systems and equity in outcomes are likely to be somewhat more fragile, and therefore later, changes.

CREATING A VISION

Creating a vision involves the process of attempting to focus the organisation's attention on a picture of the future that is positive, motivating and rewarding. It needs to be readily accepted by all as a desirable change for the company and communicated in a form congruent with the overall team philosophy and style.

DEFINITION OF TEAMWORK.

There are many definitions of teamwork, but typically most are a variation on a set of common themes, such as commitment to a common purpose, complementary skills, limited numbers, mutual dependence, open communication, effective group decision-making, continual training and company wide organisational improvements (Katzenback & Smith, 1993, Brookes, 1993, Clemmer, 1993). Differences in explanations are usually a reflection of the purpose of the team and the nature of the organisation of which individuals are a part. Despite the differences, a working definition emerges that distinguishes a team from a mere group of individuals with a common assignment to convey a concrete description of teamwork. A team incorporates a group of people working together to achieve a common goal and/or objective (like a project or functional responsibility) where a common approach facilitating economic, administrative and social aspects, combines to accomplish joint team purposes. Important to this infrastructure is a shared view of the future, clear goals and objectives and commitment to achieving results. Collective responsibility, mutual accountability and collaborative working practices reinforce the sense of team alignment and cooperation (ensuring that every person assumes responsibility for their own action simultaneously with that of the team effort), with concepts of mutual

reliance suggesting a certain level of support and complementary skills among team members.

According to Alderfer (1977;4) real teams contain "...intact social systems, complete with boundaries, interdependencies among members and differentiated member roles." Embedded within the concept of teamwork he says, is a philosophy which supports the value of a collective understanding of team needs, sharing and a willingness to sacrifice individuality - describing teamwork as a core competency, with a mechanism for continuous learning. This implies that teamwork is flexible enough to provide the degree of diversity necessary for accumulating the unique skills of multi-functional people (capable of harnessing the power of difference). Team results therefore, are an agglomeration of all individual performances.

Wickens (1989) suggests that teamwork initiates efficient and meaningful workplace experiences: "...while individual worker participation is important, the most effective means of delivering it is through the work group or team." (Wickens,1989;49) In saying this, he implies that workplace reform can improve the quality of working life for those employees previously devoid of any enjoyable work experience. A positive team-based workplace reorganisation impacts on workers' lives if it successfully meets six principles of good design (as noted by Perry, Davidson & Hill,1995). The first principle is *regulation*, which refers to self adjustments made according to individual requirements in terms of methods, efficiency, speed and sequence. The second is *task variety* which implies an all encompassing understanding of the whole work system through multi-skilling, job rotation and education programmes. A principle of *closure* is also included which relates to the fact that one team member should be able to do something from start to finish to ensure a sense of completion, satisfaction and accomplishment. The

fourth principle is *interaction*; a job should permit social interaction and cooperation within the constantly changing network of interactions and relationships - creating a social dimension that enhances the economic and administrative aspects of work. Individuals should be able to assume *responsibility* and ownership for quality and reliability and the final principle is *continual* learning, where the work environment should encourage on-the-job training and challenging educational courses to provide feedback on which to base future needs and results.

Wickens (1987) also postulates that decisions are more effective when they are made by a range of people within an organisation, all of whom share ownership of that decision and play a part in the implementation of it. For example, Nissan New Zealand Ltd takes the view that "...managing is all about providing the practical means for all employees at all levels to contribute effectively to the principal objective of quality improvement." (Owen,1990;55) As such, rather than simply paying lip service to the politically correct concept of teamwork, this design of team membership increases individual responsibilities across functional boundaries, changing the shape of the organisation. All team members actively seek to achieve joint optimisation between technical and social systems, creating a communal perception of the problem and the nature of the solution

Costing human resources enforces teamwork because it explains that replacement costs (including recruitment, training and development expenditure, together with the income foregone during the training process) in terms of the company's investment in its employees is high. Using human resource accounting a company is able to reflect its investment by attaching dollar estimates to behavioural outcomes produced by working in a company. "Asset models assess the value of employees, treating them as capitalised resources (ie. the economic

In a Utopian world, teamwork (galvanising groups of individual staff members into teams) would centre on the complex interdependence between workplace, health and productivity (Deeks et al,1982). As the nature of work shifts from physical labour to creative invention with high technology, this interrelationship of health and productivity intensifies and the role of the workplace in maximising both becomes central. The specifics of society's definition of workplace reform would be reviewed (in an ideal society) to assign equal value to personal health, environment, self-enlightenment, cultural enrichment and the measurement of productivity. The most important lesson for industry to learn is that change will continue - companies need to utilise teamwork re-engineering as an opportunity to establish structures and processes that allow for the continuing and effective implementation of reforms.

WHY CHANGE TO TEAMWORK?

Workplace reform is favoured by many on the basis that it reflects prevailing societal values with respect to the need for redesign (Green & Baker,1991, Batstone,1984), and companies are realising the advantages to be gained from diversity. Popular rhetoric postulates that the performance of teams is invariably superior to that of solitary employees or traditionally supervised work groups and the use of teams is one mechanism for tapping into the diverse skills, perspective's and knowledge of a variety of individuals. Rather than denigrating the significance of individual thinking and creativity in solving problems, teamwork utilises individual uniqueness to ensure that the sum of the parts far exceeds individual parts. Teams can be strong, binding agents that help to hold together a labour force (Rosen, 1989); they can also be reservoirs of potential energy which, if

properly harnessed, can be of great benefit to any organisation. But, if they are improperly treated or left entirely to their own devices, they can develop organisationally damaging patterns and behaviours (Rosen, 1989).

What is needed is an understanding of how to structure, develop and reward both teams and individuals without detriment to either. Answering the question 'which will we celebrate: individual heroes or teams?' (Reich,1987) captures an essential truth that can mobilise people to action and can affect behaviour and organisational structures by teaching individuals that economic success comes through the talent, energy and commitment of a team - through collective entrepreneurship.

To the extent that we continue to celebrate the traditional myth of the individual entrepreneurial hero, we will slow the progress of change and adaptation that is essential to our economic success. If we are to compete effectively in today's world, we must begin to celebrate collective entrepreneurship, endeavours in which the whole of the effort is greater than the sum of individual contributions. We need to honour our teams more, our aggressive leaders and maverick geniuses less." (Reich, 1987;78)

In this paradigm of team synergy, entrepreneurship is not the sole province of the company's founder or top managers, but a capacity and attitude that is diffused throughout the entire company. Some companies in New Zealand use teams because of an inherent belief that teamwork allows and promotes both flexibility and adaptability thus ensuring appropriate resources are fully utilised (Brown,1992). Experimentation and development become continuous (production emerges as a process of reinvention resulting from the change to a supportive team environment) as the company searches for new ways to capture and build on the knowledge already accumulated by its team members.

Overturning the temporal and spatial traditional division of labour, that structures today's workforce, requires reforms based on the development of team performance: where partnering on the change process is the only viable antidote for the re-engineering poison (Byham & Cox, 1989). Organisationally, the 1980s and 1990s have provided examples of both the best and the worst of restructuring; the worst, because it has become clear that traditional work practices have slowed down many companies and made them too inflexible to compete in a modern economy (as a result of artificial barriers to individual growth and contribution). Examples include New Zealand Government agencies of public health and education, which have come under increasingly heated attack for waste and inefficiencies caused by bureaucracy at its very worst. The rapid introduction of new technology, diversifying worker expectations and customer demands have not merged well with either the restrictive boxed job descriptions within status-laden hierarchies, nor with the narrowly defined functions of traditional corporate structures (Alkinson, 1985). Perhaps because of this, the best has also emerged as companies are forced to seek solutions to stimulate new effective workplace systems; modifying Fordist strategies, human resource practices, information systems and organisational structures. Companies need to realise that organisational design is a temporary, flexible structure that continually undergoes modification and improvement, rather than being characterised as a stable end state. Survival of a company relies on the adaptation of micro-economic reforms with respect to product, production markets and systems, an introduction of career paths, multi-skilling and improved training accessibility, along with the reduction of internal classification and demarcation.

To understand why traditional organisational systems have failed, the underlying forces that support such systems need to be exposed as the patriarchal contract they are - the origin of dependency. Signing on to work for a company

involves agreeing to four core elements that control behaviour: submission to authority, denial of self-expression, sacrifice of personal time, values and opinions for future unnamed rewards (for example a possible promotion or bonus) and the belief that the aforementioned are just (Clemmer, 1993). The result of this patriarchal cycle is the normalisation of short-sighted self-interest, manipulative tactics and total dependency, all of which combine in a cumulative effect giving rise to negative internal politics and a bureaucratic spirit of hierarchy.

Transforming companies into systems of positive politics requires an alternative entrepreneurial teamwork-based cycle where individuals are empowered to be their own authority; encouraging self expression and commitment. In order to do this, individuals need to take responsibility for their actions and to create an organisation of their own choosing by, for example, introducing self-managing teams, encouraging all team members to call meetings if they so have the need and reversing the performance appraisal process so that it becomes a two-way system. Improvements in internal collaboration (through structural and role changes) reinforces open communication and increases the motivation of the workforce. Achieving this forms the basis to nurture autonomy over dependency and provides the elements of an empowering environment.

Company-wide processes of continuous quality improvement can reduce costs, while retaining productivity and efficiency (Cooke,1990). Reducing costs in New Zealand's increasingly international economy is assuming greater importance because, as a nation, it has a relatively small domestic market which cannot provide sufficient economies of scale. So the issue for teamwork is, how to introduce and maintain continuous quality improvement systems which will provide the basis for cost reductions and productivity improvements necessary to sustain the business while delivering better work conditions (remuneration,

environmental, structural and political) to all employees as a result. Implementation depends on a company's ability to fundamentally restructure the way in which people within the organisation work, involving team members, in the achievement of company objectives. Generally this requires significant changes to management and supervisory practices, employee attitudes and practices, and a restructuring of labour relations to achieve a set of commonly agreed objectives and work practices capable of supporting a strong company culture based on self-regulating improvement and mutual cooperation. "As the organisational model based on hierarchy and conformity has increasingly revealed its inability to meet evolved." competitive challenges, environment has new team (Hirschhorn, 1991; 102)

Teamwork systems and culture can aid the workplace reform process by preparing people and developing policies that are consistent with the objectives set forth in re-engineering agendas. This shows that the fundamental objection raised in the allegation that, despite all the hopes for significant changes, workplace reform should be regarded as an unobtrusive control device that restores and confirms the legitimacy of conventional organisational arrangements, is unfounded and based possibly on past negative experiences with failed team development schemes. An example of this includes traditional companies choosing to use teams to control employees and maintain the status quo and thus, deliberately setting out to corrupt the intentions of positive teamwork efforts by selecting leaders whom management trust to carry on traditional norms and values. Often the manipulation is subtle, with organisational control effectively wearing people down with rhetoric about teamwork that is not followed up with meaningful rewards or ensuring that team solutions project established kingdoms (Cauldron, 1993).

"Conventional organisational theory has focused almost exclusively on the individual as the main building block of the organisation and has tended to ignore the problems of groups or teams and their development. Changes that have affected organisational life over the last twenty five years have forced students and practitioners alike to re-examine their trends. Certainly, a strong strain of individualism is alive in all of us nurtured in the spirit of democracy. However, the complexity of the environment and the goal structure of the enterprise create a situation in which it is no longer possible to comprehend or conduct the operation of enterprise without some form of teamwork and team building."

(McGreggor et al,1967;181)

Perhaps the most essential component of a workplace reform is a vision of the future desired state. Transformation requires a mutually accepted end goal and a work environment that inspires individuals to be something better collectively; changes in behavioural patterns occur as a direct result of attitudinal adaptations (a catalyst of cultural change). Problems tend to occur in galvanising groups of aggregated staff into team members and maintaining momentum once teamwork is established. Inconsistencies between expectations and reality in teamwork accrue negative perceptions of team-based reform programmes, which enforce the disengagement of the advantages of teamwork and individual's emotive opinions of operational teamwork.

CULTURE.

Abercrombie et al (1988,59) define culture as

"...a collective noun for the symbolic and learned non-biological aspects of human society including language, custom and convention by which human behaviour can be distinguished from that of other primates."

From this, Abercrombie et at postulates that human behaviour can thus be described as more culturally determined, as opposed to biologically determined. An organisation's culture defines that which people perceive as possible and

transforms abstract beliefs into a 'natural' system that expresses ideology in concrete form to team members. Culture's power thus lies in its pervasiveness of tacit assumptions.

There is little doubt that organisations of high performing teams have similar cultural characteristics (Martin,1992) which emerge out of their process of development. Four re-occurring themes emerge from discussions concerning the developmental stages (Allen et al,1995); even temperament (a culture structurally geared towards amiability and no hidden agendas), unity and dedication (high levels of support and coercion within the culture), customer focus (a desire to improve quality, service and systems, as well as the encouragement of productivity, initiative and problem solving) and task/business focus (where a culture is characterised by achieving goals to support the development and improvement of the company). Prominent features of successful team cultures include training to support and reinforce the cultural values, diversity of team members to ensure flexibility and a low individual recognition in favour of team recognition and reward (Allen et al, 1995).

Although culture is not changed so much by carefully planned, visible events as by focusing on individual actions in the day-to-day activities of work, the wider framework of external macro forces (such as the political and economic climate) should be recognised as influential peripheral elements. Examination of traditional patterns of workplace norms usually uncovers

"...residues of cultural ideas and practices that originated at earlier points in its history to deal with anxieties that may no longer exist. Even though these historical residues are buried under current preoccupations...they can still have powerful effects in guiding current behaviour."

(Trice & Beyer, 1992;655)

Using the term differentiation, culture can be understood in terms of its

inconsistencies and lack of consensus. Inconsistencies occur when a culture's ideology is not congruent with actual practice and when symbolic meanings are inconsistent. Accordingly, work harmony can be reached through the understanding that teamwork brings a healthy working order to the conflictual relationship. For example, culture at Nissan New Zealand is contained within their philosophical statement which reads; "We recognise that all staff have a valued contribution to make as individuals but in addition believe that this contribution can be most effective within a teamwork environment...Our aim is to build a company with which people can identify and to which they feel commitment." (Wickens, 1987;76) In simple terms, teamwork culture details the desire of having all team members committed to the same aims and objectives - consolidation enhances team ability to innovate. Teamwork philosophies could be likened to socialism; proving that worker involvement does not mean that leaders lose power, teamwork simply strips away irrational authoritarianism that diminishes productivity, while refraining from persuing Japanese family-like ties to the company and the automatic veneration of elders. The empowered culture of teamwork supports advancement of people through competence, rather than congruity or conformity.

A team may come to be emotionally attached to a set of ideologies in a strong work culture environment and as a consequence, its culture will have a strong position in the relationship between employee and employer/workplace (Schwartz,1983). Collectively, members may come to distrust, fear and dislike groups and structures with different value systems and withdraw to become centred on the team. Egocentrism can characterise such cultures, especially when their ideologies (contained within the workplace culture) carry a sense of superiority which culminates in narcissism. By analogy, the narcissistic organisational culture (Schwartz,1983) is one in which all members believe that

value that it produces for others, team members believe that the company's 'wonderfulness' justifies its existence and claim on resources, losing sight of the team's broader functions and purposes. To facilitate the reparative process, an organisation must limit its narcissistic tendencies by creating a climate in which members view the company as an instrument for achieving value ends, which helps its members focus on creating value for customers, rather than on the internal structures and politics of organisation.

MOTIVATION

Individuals can be motivated by offering them a vision of how positive tendencies will serve their own best interests, rather than restricting individuals with external rules and authorities to refer to in order to keep people from doing the wrong thing (Kaufman, 1996). To create value within a company, individuals need to be collectively motivated by the team values to achieve company objectives. This task is not a simple one. Outside work people are individuals with their own values and attitudes and their own sense of what is important to them in their lives, so whatever the constraints of the workplace, they are the same people there. Personal values will affect how they react and are motivated in particular situations. Organisations must not only diagnose their strengths and weaknesses to match them against the environmental opportunities, but they must also find ways to inspire employees to meet these challenges. A vision of the future must be formulated in such a way that it will make the uncertainties of change worth the effort. It must provide a conceptual paradigm with which to understand the organisation's purpose plus an emotional appeal (the motivational pull that people can identify with). Motivation involves a holistic view of the future that stimulates the masses - "...participative company cultures that incorporate high trust and nonadversarial relationships are seen as the most appropriate to motivate people to excel." (Hill, 1991;339)

Motivation should encourage the highest degree of satisfaction for the individual and the most effective work performance for the organisation. Herzberg's Two Factor Theory centres on *motivators* and *dissatisfiers*: "...the causes of satisfaction at work lie in the contents of the job itself, the causes of dissatisfaction lie in the working environment..." (Herzberg cited in Manchester Open Learning, 1993;18). Because job content factors can create positive satisfaction (and hence motivation) Herzberg called them motivator factors. Arising from components of the job content itself, people are motivated if the job gives them opportunities for achievement, recognition, growth and advancement, and a degree of control over the work (variety and chances to use initiative). He also postulated that working environment factors needed to be maintained to a reasonable standard in order to prevent dissatisfaction and so were called maintenance factors. These include working conditions, bureaucracy, colleague relationships, job security, company management (organisation communication) and company policy. The importance of these factors is their power to cause dissatisfaction if they are not adequate. Even where they are adequate, however, employees will only be satisfied, they will not be positively motivated to perform well. Motivation can only occur when both maintenance factors and motivator factors are present in the work situation. This theory highlights an important message in seeking to achieve work gaols through teamwork: that if people are to be motivated towards high performance rather than minimum standards of achieving work goals, then the need for achievement, recognition, responsibility, advancement and growth - which will vary with individuals according to values, temperament, age and circumstances, and so on need to be advanced more readily.

Creating healthy integrated teams is thought to boost company morale and performance. There is, however, a downside to placing people in teams which is

often overlooked. It derives from a behavioural phenomenon known as social loafing (Latane, 1963) where people who know their work will be combined with that of others, don't work as hard as they normally would on their own. In short, the greater the number of people working on the task, the less effort each one puts in. According to Latane (1963) the impact of any social force acting on a group is divided equally among its members so that the larger the size of the group, the less is the impact of the force on any one member. Mental effort is also reduced when people believe that their judgements are being combined with those of others. Further, when participants believe they are part of a large group performing a task, they perceive their own performance to be less significant and therefore more dispensable than when they are operating individually. Given that many employees perform their jobs in large groups, it is important to realise that they may reduce their efforts simply because the size of the group makes them feel dispensable and their contributions less necessary. Fortunately, there are ways of combating social loafing. One possible antidote is to make each performer identifiable. If social loafing occurs when people feel they can get away with it easily - namely under conditions in which each worker's inputs is not identified - identifying each person's performance is a good way of counteracting the problem. Workers are less likely to go along for the 'free ride' when the task they are performing is perceived as highly involving and important. Instead of the usual practice of individual performance appraisals, employees should be rewarded (through set accountabilities and responsibilities) for their contributions to a group effort which may help refocus the emphasis on collective concerns and less on individualistic concerns.

STRUCTURE AND VALUES

"Organisation is people with a purpose working together. Good organisation is effective people working constructively together toward a common goal." (Clifford & Cavanagh, 1985;74)

All systems that form the infrastructure of enterprise require redesigning; pay and other rewards; including career paths, information systems, training and development opportunities, quality controls and scheduling of work (Watson, 1996). High performance organisations (those that effectively contain the essential elements of team culture - style, shared values, management systems; both formal and informal, the correct people mix and the institutional skills that accompany them) employ flexible structures; interpreted as temporary solutions to current problems that seek to adjust structures to fit changes in strategy, tasks and the environment. Work culture should motivate team members to understand organisational positions through tasks, skills and knowledge rather than through the static boxes that occupy positions on an organisational chart - thus violating traditional norms of hierarchal control and boundaries in order to effectively establish environmental changes.

Owing to inappropriate team abilities, some teams fail to achieve company objectives which could either result from a particular individual within the team not having the necessary skills which slows down the remainder of the team, or where the entire team lacks the skill and knowledge base necessary to achieve results. An inadequate skill mix can be attributed to a poor recruitment of team members, high staff turnover - the team loses members thus draining the skill base and empowerment overload - where the team is given a task but has insufficient skills to complete it. Most literature on teamwork emphasises the importance of paying close attention to team dynamics and processes when developing a team (Semler,1995, Green & Baker,1991, Bragg,1992). Scientific research into teams (Campion et al,1993) confirms that heterogeneity in terms of abilities and experiences has a positive effect on the working order of successful team

performance, concluding that all team members must be skilled, but in different areas.

Traditional values are dramatically changing as human conditions improve, with the goals of the company being satisfactory integration and expressing the relevant values and needs of its members. There are six issues that are relatively universal and have implications for the organisational development strategy of any company. They are as follows:

- "1. Man is and should be more independent/autonomous.
- 2. Man has and should have choices in his work and his leisure.
- Security needs should be met. Man should be striving to meet higher order needs for self worth and for realising his own potential.
- If man's individual needs are in conflict with organisational requirements, he may and perhaps should choose to meet his own needs rather than submerge them in the organisation's requirements.
- The organisation should so organise work that tasks are meaningful and stimulating, and thus provide the intrinsic rewards plus adequate extrinsic (money) rewards.
- The power previously vested in bosses reduces and should be.
 With choices in work and leisure, managers should manage by
 influence (appropriate behaviour), rather than through force or
 giving or withholding of financial rewards."
 (Beckhard, 1969;6)

FLATTENING TRADITIONAL HIERARCHY

To introduce performance objective configurations of teamwork it is necessary to change the hierarchal bureaucratic girth (the pyramid - rewarding the few who keep climbing but demoralising a far greater number who reach a plateau or fall by the wayside), the basic organising principle of traditional authoritarian companies. The re-engineering of workplace environments to a team-based organisation suggests that traditional boundaries will have to shift and hierarchies flatten (the kind of authority structure within the group can determine the success

or failure of the company's processes) as they inhibit the multiple skills and perspective needed for optimal results. This requires an empowering attitudinal shift towards self-enlightenment. Teamwork is an integrative method of organising discussions among all members about current development issues in an organisation and thus helps the company to realise a pro-active adaptation within the turbulent environment.

"At the deepest level, the enemy of high-performing systems is the feeling of helplessness that so many of us in organisations seem to experience. We are caught between the need for managers to stand firm for their beliefs and yet realise there are always people who have power over us and can blow out our candle without even taking a breath."

(Block, 1987, 1)

It is generally accepted that re-engineering never happens from the bottom up; the main assumption being that lower level staff are unable to initiate and implement a successful re-engineering effort because newly employed frontliners often lack the broad perspective that institutionalising change demands. Business processes inevitably cross departmental and organisational boundaries (in traditional structures) and only a few have sufficient authority to insist that such a process be transformed. If left to middle managers the process may never occur as change will inevitably transcend their domain of responsibility, diminishing their power, influence and authority. "These managers have much invested in the existing ways of doing things, and the future of the company may be implicitly - and sometimes explicitly - compromised by their own career interests." (Hammer & Champy,1993;208)

As the organisation flattens, advancement opportunities are reduced. Finely graded hierarchies with numerous job titles, each with narrow compensation bands, are discarded once workplace reform systems begin to take effect. A

re-engineered company's composition of individuals with cross-functional responsibilities may mean that career progression steps are not as well-defined as they have been in the past. Many team members will no longer advance via formal promotions, as their skills and abilities will not take them further than their current position. This may result in frustration for individuals who perceive the change as a lack of promotional opportunity, which in turn can lead to companies being encouraged not to take up a team-based workplace reform for fear of compromising advancement.

LEADERSHIP

Reformation through critique provides an assessment of the contribution teamwork makes to the development of a systematic sociological understanding of leadership in advanced, capitalist societies, by documenting the gradual disenchantment with the deterministic and mechanistic conception of leadership which underpins traditional organisational paradigms. The process of teamwork appears to be rational on the surface, fitting the modern ideal of participate management, rather than following the traditional autocratic leadership (defined as a style focusing "...power totally on the leader who has authority for making all decisions and controls rewards and punishments" (Manchester Open Learning, 1992;50)) projection of their sense of agency and authority into a ritualistic process of allocation which exists to function as a social defence (Hischhorn, 1990). Bureaucratic authoritarianism practices split off management's sense of personal authority and agency from their own experiences and project it onto the social defence, for example, the ritual of extensive paper passing reducing the anxiety of face-to-face communication - excusing themselves from the responsibility for personal connections. Using the psychodynamic concept of splitting projection and introjection (Klien, 1986), an interpersonal theory of organisational can be contextualised to interpret the processes that shape work

experiences. Consider the following possible relationship between a manager and a subordinate. Uncomfortable with angry feelings, a subordinate may provoke the manager to feel angry, so that s/he can then experience the anger at a safe distance. Now the manager, not the subordinate, owns the anger and the subordinate no longer feels endangered by it as the subordinate has used the leader to allow feelings of anger. By using these social defences, people retreat from role, task and organisation boundaries, depersonalising workplace relationships and distorting the companies capacity to accomplish its primary task of, for example, increasing profit, teamwork or participative management.

The main managerial consequence of introducing teamwork is that leadership becomes a service, its purpose being to enable, encourage and reinforce achievement of team members. Task organisation and support become the central features of the new role, introducing two complementary criteria. Firstly, tasks have to be *authentic* (the more opportunity given to team members to contribute to business objectives, the more effective they are likely to be self-motivated) and secondly, tasks have to be *motivational* (the more they draw on the motivators the more likely they are to produce an effective contribution to business objectives). Control of the company is achieved through job enrichment (which seeks to improve both task efficiency and human satisfaction by building into people's profession greater scope for personal achievement and recognition, more challenging and responsible work and more opportunity for individual advancement and growth). As the need for continuous on-the-job supervision diminishes, greater organisational flexibility is gained, thus making supervision increasingly superfluous (Paul & Robertson, 1970).

The enterprise leadership involved in teamwork today is concerned with the dilemma of how to fully mobilise the energy of the organisation of human resources toward the achievement of company performance objectives, while at the same time so organising the work environment, communication systems and relations of people that individual's needs are met at work. To resolve this in a rapidly changing environment, new organisational forms need to be introduced. More effective goal setting and planning processes must be utilised and practised teams of interdependent individuals must spend real time improving their methods of working, decision-making and communication. In order for these changes to occur and be maintained, a planned change is necessary - a programme of organisational development centred on teamwork. As a team leader, one takes the position of gatekeeper,"...assuring that the team is effectively linked to the broader corporate environment that shapes its work...[standing]...at the boundary communicating the company's needs to the team and the team's needs to the company..." (Hischhorn, 1991;18).

Successful leadership attributes much of its success to the work culture from which both management and workers derive shared values. Culture emphasises mutuality - a common interest in achieving their organisational goals.

"Transformational leaders, having accomplished the tasks of getting individuals excited about the possibilities that exist in the quest for a new vision must turn their attention to the action of creative destruction, which involves dismantling the old organisation and building one that can accomplish the dream."

(Tichy & Devanna, 1986, 182)

Leadership is like architecture, redesigning outmoded buildings for a new use.

EDUCATION AND TRAINING

A comprehensive education and training programme is the most effective process for advancing performance. "People must see the inter-relationship between social performance and economic performance...to have a world-class

quality and costs and the ability to assimilate new technology, we must have the world's best ability to develop human capacities." (Hoerr, 1989;62)

Traditional work organisational schemes undermine team legitimacy by containing

"...too many cultural barriers; between the shop floor and higher management, between particular jobs, and between entrepreneur and employees. For continual learning, we need entrepreneurs and employees who can themselves break down these barriers. We can achieve the new global standards most quickly if our employees act like entrepreneurs." (Stewart, 1989;15)

Team entrepreneurship can be seen as an activity where behaviour is not pushed by the stewardship of pre-existing resources, but pulled by opportunities for creating new wealth. The best way to leverage a company's human resources is to employ teams of entrepreneurial individuals as empowered resources, involved in habitualising improvements. Teams are not 'born' with all the skills and knowledge required to function perfectly. Fortunately, this base can be taught; through educational team-building developmental activities companies can become highly effective and efficient. Education is the evolution of the team-building system.

Three types of training are required for people to be effective team members: technical, business and personal (Bragg,1992). *Technical skills* are those skills related to the accomplishment of functions and tasks required to perform the day-to-day operations of departments effectively. *Business skills* (also known as administration skills) are those skills required to improve the efficiency of operations, to determine and analyse these improvements and assimilate innovative solutions. *Personal skills* are those individual characteristics and virtues required to enable individuals to be effective team members, balanced against their right and ability to be unique. Examples of this include communication, job skills and implementation of team dynamics. These characteristics are essential if individuals

want the new empowered team environment to succeed. In this sense, education can be viewed as a form of emancipatory learning as it is concerned with a "...critical reappraisal of the taken-for-granted cultural norms and institutions through which we define, know and give expression to ourselves..." (Boxall,1990;138). Advancing the team concept focuses on maximising human potential.

Unfortunately, there has been no strong commitment to human resource development by the New Zealand Government in relation to present economic challenges (Colvin, 1988).

"New Zealand has spent tens of billions of dollars in building an education system without a clear national consensus as to what we expect in return. Our education goals and priorities continue to be developed independently from an understanding of our economy and its future developments." (Crocombie, Ewright & Porter, 1991;138)

To impact on the national competitive advantage the Government needs to assure that the education system transmits motivational and evaluative societal values to continue the improvement and skill levels of all sectors of society. Government involvement in sector-based training programmes needs to be reassessed and upgraded so that the priorities of the education and training systems involve active participation and integrated cooperation of both the public and the private sector, to better align our economy with the requirements for success in the modern team-based global market (Colvin,1988). For example, average skill and education levels need to be raised for planned work flows, individual management of team responsibilities and other demands of a more productive workplace to be introduced. The work world moulds employees; it is (like the home and the classroom) a site for socialisation (Berger & Luckman,1967). "Power in society - and this includes power in the labour market - includes the power to determine

decisive socialisation processes, and therefore, the power to produce reality." (Berger & Luckman,1967,119). While self-directed teams are effective in the workplace, elements of the team concept can work equally well in schools beginning with children being taught the important skills of communal learning and group projects. Our cultural fixation on individual performance prevents New Zealand, as a nation, from teaching our children the art of cooperation and interpersonal skills.

Teamwork education and training provide avenues to claim autonomy through individual empowerment, regardless of the expectations of others. Autonomy is the decision to act on one's own choices and involves verbalising the future one wishes to create for the working unit. Empowerment is expressed through personal commitment to enlightened self-interest; integrity (a willingness to strive to reach the team vision), mastery (commitment to learning and a positive self portrayal) and a positive impact on others (relationships are focused upon to create an authentic and compassionate work culture). It is a function of four variables (Fisher,1993): *authority, resources, information* and *accountability*. To feel empowered, people need formal authority and resources (like budget, equipment, time and training) necessary to achieve the desired results of teamwork. Individuals also need timely, accurate information to make good decisions and a personal sense of accountability for the work. The definition of empowerment can thus be expressed as follows:

"Empowerment = f (Authority, Resources, Information, Accountability)

Empowerment = 0 if Authority or Resources or Information or

Accountability = 0." (Fisher, 1993;14)

This formula shows that empowerment is a function of the four variables and if any of them are missing or equal to zero, then there is no empowerment which is why it is at times a farce. Authority without information and resources is only

permission. Independent accountability is condescending and sends the message that the empowerment is a placebo and only implemented for face value. The team building experience is certainly not the end of the journey, it is the beginning of a variety of possibilities initiated by teamwork to continue the experience of learning and the subsequent improvements in business. "Successful businesses realise that the long term commitment to learning of their workforce is a more valuable asset in their business then the ability to turn over labour in response to short term changes in demand." (Perry, Davidson & Hill, 1995;271) Empowerment humanises work as it provides team members with more control over their work environment, as well as developing a collective identification between all members.

SECTION THREE

INSTITUTIONALISATION OF CHANGE:

CASE STUDIES DETAILING HOW TEAMWORK FUNCTIONS

Understanding and appreciating differences in the workplace forms a critical part of harnessing the skills and expertise of a diverse workforce necessary to achieve the vision. Using case studies as examples, this thesis works towards constructing a practical framework to assist in understanding organisational approaches to encourage diversity and improve business performance. It illustrates how, through introducing teamwork, structurally different companies can successfully respond to current global competitive markets.

The Dairy Processing Industry provides one of the most developed examples of an industry-wide initiative to introduce new work relations and job structures. Pre-workplace reform industrial relations were centred on mistrust, frustrated negotiation and incompatible competition between employees, unions and management. This traditional structure was founded on institutionalised conflict conducted by specialists representing workers and employees collectively. Modern business requires active and genuine collaboration between company members, with the main focus on enterprise. Moves to introduce these new philosophies led to the signing (by the main unions and the Employers Association) of a 'Memorandum of Understanding' (June 1991) which detailed the implementation of training programmes to support the redesigning of job function and responsibilities (Perry, Davidson & Hill, 1996). Unity in support for change (by unions, employees and employers) created a commitment between previously factioning groups to work cooperatively on the provision of training and communal organisation. Concentrations in control and ownership, new marketing strategies, adaptations of traditional managements control and varying employment concentrations (due to automation) have all contributed to the driving

force of new emerging industrial relation and the reform that resulted because of this

The collective employment contract detailed within the Memorandum expanded the content of discussions between the unions and the employer. This created an atmosphere of increased communication, flexible remuneration (linked to the performance and skills of individuals), and allowed for individual negotiation of hours and rostering - creating organisational flexibility (Perry, Davidson & Hill, 1996). Five main commitments were made to enhance flexibility and efficiency in the industry: job security, job redesign (changing to skill-based classifications as opposed to occupational segregation encouraged individuals to increase their skill competency levels and become more involved in the formatting of their specific task requirements and functions), consultation (developing open two-way communication to create trust and understanding between previously 'unrelated' people), training (four percent of wage costs are allocated to training requirements by the company - which equated to a five hundred thousand dollar training centre being resourced to facilitate six to eight hundred people with the skill base required to initiate change (Perry, Davidson & Hill, 1996)) and skill-based progression (qualification of skills structures workers progress within the company) (Perry, Davidson & Hill, 1996; 105 - 106).

New decision-making forums were established as a result of the reform, encouraging a team-based system where all were encouraged to take both responsibility for the improvement and advancement of their specific area, as well as the industry process as a whole. Quality improvement suggestions were encouraged and motivation was kept high with the appropriate consultation given to each suggestion. Obtaining suitable recognition for contributions by management was achieved through retraining so that new supervisory roles were

understood; for example, the importance of devolving decision making processes to empower the whole team with responsibility and accountability for the change. "As an outcome of the commitment to raising work skills and responsibilities, managers requested and obtained the introduction of occupational assessment for recruitment." (Perry, Davidson & Hill.1996;116) Through this initiative, the general level of literacy and numeracy expected of additional appointees raised the skill level of those entering the workforce.

BHP New Zealand Steel's programme of rationalisation began in 1989 to combat previously incurred expansion debt, market developments and viability questions. Between 1991 and 1994 the Business Improvement Programme was introduced, "...designed to eliminate defects, reduce cycle times and achieve over \$50 million of cost savings per year." (Perry, Davidson & Hill,1996;192) To encourage a continuing legacy of employee participation three major components had to be addressed (Perry, Davidson & Hill,1996): domestic market developments, new product development and a programme of workplace reorganisation and reform. These strategic changes were all contained within the non-sale agreement of the Hallow Section Unit (which has since become a profitable division included in the Glenbrook Steel Mill). Joint consultation between management and worker unions provided an eighteen month grace period to illustrate the viability and productivity of the unit.

Building employee involvement to optimise ownership of both the process and the result requires a change in focus of managing relationships and balancing specific requirements of government policy, public good verses commercial interests, bi-cultural aspects and union views. Transforming the Hallow Section unit into a semi-autonomous cross-functional unit with its own financial reporting (to operate independently of the mill) internally integrated functionally-divided

individuals (Perry, Davidson & Hill,1996). From 1989 to 1993 there was a ten percent increase in tonnes produced per work hour (Perry, Davidson & Hill,1996) which resulted from the combination of:

- Reduced surplus staffing levels flattening organisational structure as supervision internalised in individual workers.
- * Reduced demarcation and increased flexibility of labour deployment through employment modifications.
- * Increased plant efficiency through scheduling changes.
- * Increased range and sales in the marketplace through product diversity.
- * Introduced training programmes to support multi-skilling and improved communication systems. (Jenkins et al,1992)

Cooperation between union and management ensured that these changes took place as both were committed to the goal of keeping the unit operational and productive. Confidence in the efficiency of combined efforts detailed a radical move from traditional conflictual relationships.

"Along side the search for cost savings, the Business Improvement Programme introduced a 'social policy' designed to reduce fear of change and encourage maximum employee participation in the improvement process." (Perry, Davidson & Hill, 1996;205)

Employees had the opportunity to contribute to decision making processes in an informed manner. The company utilised the combined experiences and knowledge of team members to bring about change, thereby facilitating a genuine understanding of teamwork participation.

Interlock Industries, a manufacturing 'boundaryless' company (Perry, Davidson & Hill, 1996), aimed through workplace re-engineering to match the productivity gains with quality improvements.

"The company realised that these dual objectives could be achieved only through cooperative work relations built on consultation and increased opportunities for training and job development."

(Perry, Davidson & Hill, 1996; 119)

By acquiring a loan from the New Zealand Development Finance Corporation in the 1970s, Interlock was able to concentrate on foreign, high economic growth markets like Japan, exposing the company to business organisation and practices such as Total Quality Control. It was apparent that without increased production performance, quality and efficiency Interlock products would not meet consumer demands. Changing from Just-In-Case production (where individual workers control one machine or task, with large inventories being the norm) to Just-In-Time production methods expanded product ranges as employees became increasingly multi-skilled and motivated to maintain the productive environment as the demarcation between functional differences lessened to the point where authoritarian dictation became a symptom of the past (Perry, Davidson & Hill,1996).

To further the responsibilities of all employees, the company introduced methods teams, training systems, quality control systems and a team based work structure (Perry, Davidson & Hill,1996;125 - 130). Methods teams educate workers to evaluate problems and understand that different experiences and views can encourage the discovery of the most appropriate approach. Training is more actively supported by having skills related to pay, with the availability of courses offered increased to match the demand for self-advancement. For example, the operator training course (Perry, Davidson & Hill,1996;126 - 127) is taken by all operators at Interlock Industries to ensure core skill levels are constant. These are then assessed in terms of team participation, communication, work procedure quality skills and machine/task skills to assure the quality assurance necessary to compete in internationally competitive markets. Quality control is entrusted to the

individual worker who monitors daily performance and the completion of orders. Formerly, specifically employed inspectors controlled standards as the product left each department which added to the end unit price and production time factor. Trust is introduced into the organisation as responsibility and accountability is given to the worker and reinforced through completed deliveries being sent out to market without external examination. Authority, task, political and identity boundaries are flattened as the team becomes committed to the common goal of quality improvements and productivity gains. The new team based work structure supports these actions as employees are empowered to become multi-skilled in both product and activity areas. As people move between tasks, information between different operators is shared integrating individuals into a more supportive and motivated team.

MacPac Wilderness Equipment Ltd, a privately owned Christchurch company, introduced reforms to counteract pressures of rapid growth, with the aim of "...maintaining profitability and achieving a 'good fit' between the company's business goals and a participative work culture..." (Perry, Davidson & Hill,1996;141). During the 1980s, when export incentives were deregulated, MacPac hired a productivity consultant to increase profitability. Just-In-Case production was recommended - reducing the responsibilities of manufactured units into small batch task operations. This first stage of reform addressed the demands of management with profitability and production the main concern. Automation and monitoring were introduced which created alternative problems with the new system. Communication, motivation and moral of staff became ineffective and limited (Perry, Davidson & Hill,1996).

In 1987 to 1991, MacPac primarily focused on customer and worker requirements, solving the problems of Just-In-Case production. Communication

and reward systems emphasising interpersonal skill training at all levels were addressed to resolve the conflict between the system and individual employee. To create a supportive workplace culture the ASPIRE programme was established with complementary components of performance development and review, a profit-share plan, quality systems and groups, and involvement of staff in planning processes to reinforce the desired aims. The specifics of ASPIRE are set out in staff handbooks that are given to each employee, and are as follows:

"Aspirations We aim to provide opportunities for staff members to develop and achieve their personal goals and aspirations.

Strategies We aim to develop and implement strategies which keep us strong and successful.

Participation We aim to provide opportunities for staff members to participate in making MacPac successful.

Involvement We aim to continue the process of continuous improvement in all aspects of our company.

Reward We aim to encourage and reward excellent performance.

Environment We aim to create a work environment which is satisfying to all staff members."

(Perry, Davidson & Hill, 1996; 147)

Performance development is encouraged through two-way reviews which encourage discussion and understanding between management and staff, reducing functional hierarchies and facilitating skill expansion. Training agreements and common goals are set by all parties during this process introducing mutual responsibility and support for company results. All full-time staff became included in the profit share scheme, reinforcing the cohesive circumstances of MacPac's environment (commitment to future goals of excellence, advancement, productivity and job security). Cohesion can be defined as "...the degree to which group members feel attracted to their group and desire to remain members of it" (Rosen,1989;48). Cohesive teams that are attractive to their members have many important related characteristics. For example, in MacPac activities and interpersonal relationships are carried out with enthusiasm, indicating high internal

morale. Coordinated quality systems to meet customer demands through continuous improvements and product knowledge intrinsically motivate the workforce through a detailed understanding of the implications of their work to both the internal and external customer. To achieve the objectives of MacPac culture, a team based structure was adopted in which demarcation and individualism were replaced by the devolution of accountability and responsibility to team members. Training in communication, problem solving and conflict resolution ensured productive interaction between all personnel. Teamwork aims to clarify the increasingly important relations between members, where cooperation and barriers between functional boundaries and responsibilities are not clear but have to be defined. Cross-functional work teams were thought to better understand the coordination required by all members - planning, order and purchase fulfilment is implemented by the team rather than management, thus personal leadership takes precedence over hierarchal control. Opportunities in the team based system design are available for those participating in skill development because of a more efficient flow of operational information and productive feedback.

In response to external environmental factors, **Weddel Tomoana** (New Zealand's fourth largest meat processing plant) challenged their traditional unviable work culture in an attempt to retain their established market in light of increased competition from reduced tariffs and quotas. Initiating Total Consumer Service was the answer from consultations between specialists, management and employees to maximise plant efficiency and

"...to commit the whole of Weddel NZ to the development of new workplace relations based on greater shared commitment amongst all parts of the organisation to the goals of the company... [and] ...encouraging a shared interest in the performance of the company." (Perry, Davidson & Hill, 1996;88)

Each step of the reform process was detailed to reach consensus - through active participation in reaching consensus joint ownership was generated. Flattening managements hierarchies reinforced the organisation's commitment to change as traditional structures of responsibility, control and discipline were delegated to individual control to elicit cooperation. Owing to the seasonal nature of employment (the meat works operated at capacity for a limited period only and to reduce costs the number of people employed on a killing chain were reduced to mirror seasonal patterns) management found that training staff to take an expanded role was expensive, with temporary employees inadequately motivated to support increasing responsibility through change. In order to modify these traditional industrial relations, unions of the freezing works were negotiated with by management to support the change; education through discussion being one of the mutual benefits of change. In 1992 an employment contract was signed, establishing general work conditions applicable to all (Perry, Davidson & Hill, 1996) so that the work conditions supported an appropriation of commitment by all employed by Weddel Tomoana. Sharing information and consultation with all parties formulated a mission statement to guide the reform process detailing the core values of communication, training, teamwork, cooperation and continuous improvement (Perry, Davidson & Hill, 1992;90). These values linked together the company-wide commitment to improve standards of quality and improvement to excel comparatively with production expansion.

Cooperation between workers became an essential component of increasing task variability to meet the increasing product and job specifications demanded by the customer. Expanding processes to reach customer specifics challenged the traditional entrenched work culture, producing barriers to change that ultimately led to the collapse of the plant. Because much of the focus of re-engineering was on technology and its benefits, the people-related changes were

often given minimal consideration.

"A new workplace structure was heralded in which people will work together in work teams and have a lot more knowledge about the work processes they are doing, including knowledge specifications, costs of production, energy usage and wastage and customer satisfaction. A lot more training will take place, so that people will have a clear understanding of how to do their job and so they know all the factors that affect doing their job well...there will be a lot more consultation with workers, both at the work team level and at plant level." (Perry, Davidson & Hill, 1992;95)

Total Quality principles were introduced to Thames Toyota (NZ) assembly plant ten years ago, demonstrating how continuous quality improvement is sustained through ongoing education and training, consultative committees across functional boundaries creating teams, target setting and measurement. In 1984 the New Zealand Government began restructuring the motor industry to make local assemblers more efficient in light of the decreasing employment population size. In the period from 1976 to 1991 there had been a decline of five thousand, six hundred and five jobs (Britton, 1992) and this was the rationale for the change. To meet the prevailing paradigm shift of national and international attitudes and practices, the industry was deregulated; reducing tariffs and taxing systems, to create a competitive cost and quality system. Simultaneously, "...internally, change was driven by organisational pressures, particularly from on-going confrontational industrial relations, a poor quality of working life and as a consequence, a poorly motivated workforce." (Perry, Davidson & Hill, 1996; 172) The transformation, in work methods, to teamwork confronted a traditional, engrained culture characterised by disputes and division. High costs of production from inefficiencies, large inventory of stock, lack of standardisation and the hierarchal conflicts between differing functions and divisions associated therewith illustrate the nature of traditional industrial relations that were to be re-engineered.

Study teams were established which were responsible for equipment, layout, material utilisation in their areas. Its purpose was to reinforce and encourage improvement through direct team involvement in focusing change, to empower team members. Supporting elements for sustaining the operational incremental improvements in all areas include satisfying the customer, empowering employee involvement, commitment to change, continual systematic improvement in methods and results, communication of strategic objectives, measurement of performance to provide indicators for review and improvement of operations (Leary, 1996). All of these within a team environment of multi-skilled individuals led to a philosophy of continual improvement and universal participation. An enhanced flexibility and reduced demarcation between jobs and isolationary functional responsibilities previously "...the plants Taylorist heritage was reflected in the division of work into forty six different specialist job classifications..." (Perry, Davidson & Hill, 1996;170).

Christchurch Parkroyal's desire to guarantee consistent quality created the adoption of Service First to reform hotel work structure and the problems associated with traditional patterns. Employing two hundred and forty full-time and one hundred and fifty part-time staff (Perry, Davidson & Hill,1996), the five star hotel image is reflected in each individual, and as such, for the operating environment to be successful, standards and enthusiasm for excellence had to be fostered communally. In order to do this, traditional hierarchy and status divisions between temporary and permanent staff had to be coordinated into a total organisational approach "...aimed at making the customer's perception of service quality the driving force for hotel operation." (Perry, Davidson & Hill, 1996;239)

Service First is built around twelve principles that facilitate both staff and customer requirements, and are as follows:

- "1. Know our customers, continually assess their needs.
 - 2. Have customer-orientated front line staff.
- 3. Have a 'moments of truth' focus in the hotel.
- Have a 'whatever it takes' attitude, be prepared to give in or compromise.
- 5. Have a strong, healthy working environment, a good place to work.
- 6. Management are helpers and supporters.
- 7. Everybody in the hotel works together as a team.
- 8. Employees are involved in the decision making process.
- 9. We have one common goal customer satisfaction.
- 10. Continually strive for improvements in our service performance.
- 11. Skilfully recover from inevitable blunders that occur.
- 12. Have systems in place that support customer service and be willing to redesign them to make them more customer-orientated."

 (Perry, Davidson & Hill, 1996;239)

These principles are achieved through five techniques to bring about change. Moments of truth are interactions between client and staff where there is opportunity to better the impression of the hotel. Accountability of the quality of the service is transferred to the individual, through the understanding of the implications of their own contributions. Awareness of the impact of their actions on other team members recognises that staff are internal customers and the same expectations (as given to the guest) should be forwarded so as to create a harmonious work environment centred on collective interests. Communication supports common goals through regular meetings to create a network of continual improvement. Formal avenues of information processing ensures understanding by all and a system centring on trust and support. Devolution of decision making "...implies that staff has discretion to determine how to respond to particular situations rather than, as in the past, simply being instructed on how to behave assuming that everything is running correctly." (Perry, Davidson & Hill, 1996;240) Service First gives the operational responsibility to the individual, creating autonomy and a sense of ownership. Recognising that the first point of contact with customers is frontline staff, the traditional structure is changed to the inverted pyramid to illustrate the growing awareness that the entire team creates quality, not management setting regulations.

Supporting these techniques of change, Christchurch Parkroyal collects guest feedback through questionnaires left in guest rooms, collects conversational comments and the duty manager has 'drink hours' in a private room with selected guests to gather information on the service offered to clients. Training to expand and diversify individual skill bases creates cross-exposure (Perry, Davidson & Hill, 1996) demonstrating a better team understanding of the process as a total package. Providing opportunities for staff to work in different departments educates individuals on how other areas function to create a service of dedicated, Service First culturally aware workforce. Situated learning (Lave & Wenger, 1991) means to learn by practice. This method allows for understanding learning (Lave & Wenger, 1991) as relationships between people, their actions and the environment develop into a continually evolving social process; 'newcomers' in social teams can learn from the 'old timers'. Regular socialising events provide opportunities for the team to understand each other more intimately in informal settings. Involvement by staff is encouraged through the 'suggestion culture' (Perry, Davidson & Hill, 1996) of Service First. Integration between the different areas affect the results of change as performance is improved through understanding and a team spirit to assist others - optimising customer satisfaction.

RESISTANCE TO CHANGE

"The need to yoke together separate but interlinked professional skills has arisen over the past twenty years in response to the growth in the complexity of services, the expansion of knowledge and the subsequent increase in specialisation. One person may suffer from limitations of knowledge or experience, a team of different but inter-related workers can wipe out these deficiencies." (Marshall et al,1979;12)

Resistance to change comes from the recognition that re-engineering involves exchange: people have to break old habits and learn new work methods, establish new norms and values, and assess the status and power structures of traditional organisation (centred on the deeply held value of individualism). Three areas of resistance exist, centring on individual reluctance (Glaser, 1992); a lack of conviction that teamwork better suits personal work styles and capabilities, weak performance ethics in the workplace that discourage team conditions and personal preferences identifying teams as high risk structures. Many people shy away from teamwork out of habit and inertia or because of their fear of the unknown and loss of organisational predicability. "Individual responsibility and self-preservation remain the rule; shared responsibility based on trusting others is the exception. A reluctance to take a risk and submit one's fate to the performance of a team, therefore, is almost inbred." (Katzenback & Smith, 1993;23) This underlying assumption pervades companies that have weak performance ethics as they lack a cultural manifesto that structures work design on team promoting. As mutual accountability and common goals are important prerequisites for a successful team performance, team-based workplace reform can raise people's awareness of new possibilities in life and lead to demands for extensive organisational, political, cultural and social reforms.

Change, whether at the societal, organisational or individual level, means dislocation and discomfort. Companies facing change generally go through a

period of disintegration before regenerating and therefore, regardless of the particular model adopted for successful workplace reform, there is a need to "...include increased job security to facilitate risk taking, ongoing investment in training and development, the incorporation of human resource management within the broader corporate strategy and a much longer term perspective in evaluating performance." (Enderwick,1992;200) As individual team members adapt their behaviour they must struggle to ensure closure on old methods of doing things and learn to establish new routines. If the psychological stages are not completed, there is a tendency to repeat the same mistakes again or a yearning for the past which means that people are unable to make new lives for themselves in the team-based organisation structure. For many, their lives, identities, and their self-esteem are tied to their professional identity.

Problems related to teamwork do not appear to be inherent in all methods of working but seem to be associated with the extent to which functions and roles are clearly defined and complement each other. Ideally, teamwork involves the definition of common goals and the development of a plan to which each member makes a different but complementary contribution towards the achievement of the team's aims. Barriers to effectively functioning teams include uncohesive educational preparation, role ambiguity, incongruous expectations, status differentiation and authority and power structures that support authoritarian leadership styles (Hunt, 1979). A role is learnt within specific educational and training programmes that are designed to teach essential skills and knowledge, reinforced through work experience. The segregated nature of the educational preparation of various professionals such as those in the health services can hinder teamwork - it can provide a limited perspective with exclusive ideologies and jargon, such as communication problems in interdisciplinary situations as those between doctors and orderlies.

Strauss (1962) theorised that professionalism complicates the task of developing teamwork between occupations. Each profession tends to develop a parochial specialised point of view resulting in jurisdictional disputes and systematic breakdowns. Difficulties and confrontations may arise if there are perceptual discrepancies, like the integration of different status members (with status referring to the ranking of individuals on the basis of socially acknowledged qualifications which are ascribed to them).

"The great revolution of modern times has been the revolution of equality. The idea that all people should be equal in their condition has undermined the old structures of authority, hierarchy and deference... but when rights are given to every citizen and the sovereignty of all is established the problem of leadership takes a new form, becomes more exacting than ever before. It is easy to issue commands and enforce them by the rope and the stake, the concentration camp and the gulag. It is much harder to use argument and achievement to overcome opposition and win consent." (Schlesinger in Fisher, 1993;10)

Teamwork draws attention to the concept of division of labour as a learnt and gendered activity (appealing to the authority of women's experiences) to question the assumptions which have led to masculine experiences and perceptions being presented as the authentic one. Analysis of the prominence of patriarchy to understand the acquisition of subject identity provides a feminist rationale as to why all companies in New Zealand have not adopted teamwork. Patriarchal society constructs a coherent narrative of gender relations which assumes the validity of male dominance; "....women's subordination, however emphasised as an honourable, but different role [a separate but equal ideology] can be seen to follow inevitably as an insurmountable bio-historical fact." (Mitchell, 1971;107) Biological differentiation, upon which the division of labour is based, has throughout history been interpreted as an interlocking necessity. Women's lesser capacity for demanding physical work is the crucial starting point for their subordination (Mitchell, 1971). Social coercion has amalgamated with biological based division of labour to create over-determination (Mitchell, 1971).

Traditional work patterns inflict a social weakness of dominating patriarchal ideologies to reinforce the continuation of women's inferior status in society and the workplace (Mitchell, 1971).

Teamwork challenges these patriarchal assumptions, shaking the foundations on which men have secured their positions of authority. The ideal team-based organisation is distinguished by homogeneity, flattened hierarchy, de-unionisation and a communal sense of ownership and responsibility (Byham,1989). Team members are multi-skilled and able to transfer to different functional areas to achieve production and quality goals. Resistance has stemmed from the traditional New Zealand environment of functional specialisation, segregation of the sexes, job classification, the sociology of gender (detailing ".....the ways in which the physical differences between men and women are mediated by culture and social structure. Those differences are culturally and socially elaborated so that women are ascribed specific feminine personalities and a gender identity..." (Abercrombie et al, 1988, 235)), individualism and adversarial management - labour relations (Katz, 1985). Teamwork is encapsulated within that bastion of conservatism - the workplace.

New Zealand's industrial relations system is shorthand for a complex set of institutions, traditions and legislation that determine the relationship between employers and employees, particularly with regard to conditions of employment. When the Employment Contracts Act was constituted it took power from institutions (government agencies, unions and employer organisations) and transferred it to individual workers and employers, facilitating an environment of workplace change. The passing of the Act has been welcomed by employers, notwithstanding the fact that large numbers of them have done little or nothing at

all by way of individual arrangements for their particular workplace

(Douglas, 1993). Having to work in a new environment posed a threat to a number of staff and employers, the competitive market place was an alien place for some, while some had to take on work that they were never originally employed for. Present conditions reflect not so much institutional changes as economic conditions and relative advantages (Amin, 1994).

Douglas (1993) postulates, that through the introduction of the Employment Contracts Act, New Zealand has opted for competitiveness in the form of a low wage economy rather than a high quality system. Reflected in the economic style of industrial relations is the assertion of continuing authoritarian management, de-unionisation and enterprise negotiation (as opposed to industry level negotiation) - all of which represent the short-term least resistance path to economic competitiveness through cost cutting. "The Employment Contracts Act is essentially a cheap labour measure when the challenge of the modern market place is to upgrade quality, improve reliability of supply and speed up adaptability to changing market and technological opportunities." (Douglas, 1993; 198) Such current trends in New Zealand contradict previous studies carried out on production and competitive successful organisations (Dertouzous et al, 1989, KPMG,1995). Organisation factors of integrated work and management organisational systems, devolution of decision-making, increased participation and communication and motivation all combine to impact upon the attitudinal component of success. Human resources collectively promote flexibility through continuous learning and understanding of the logic behind progressive changes. Although teamwork encompasses all of these productive performance measures, according to Douglas (1993), resistance stems from the fact that the increased power of employers through individual contracts (founded in conservative authoritarian management) continues under current conditions. Incentive industry-wide strategies are all but impossible under enterprise coordinated market

development, making quality workplace reform problematic. The Employment Contracts Act has made management the dominant party in the political dynamics of labour relations (Boxall, 1993). Dismantling labour to be as flexible as product market conditions (Streeck, 1987) was used as an argument for decentralised bargaining. Some believe (Boxall, 1993, Cappelli, 1985, Ingram, 1991) that individual and enterprise bargaining are prerequisites for wage cuts and intensification of work loads.

Current legislation diminishes ".......the freedom of workers to choose their own forms of representation and pursue their own interests......"

(Boxall, 1993,154) in order to protect the climate of workplace reform. The powers that be thus retain hierarchal control over any changes. Introducing teamwork into the organisational structure contains ".....measures to improve rights to collective bargaining without returning to the classical trade union rights of compulsory membership, exclusive jurisdiction and blanket coverage." (Boxall, 1993; 155). Such a policy challenges the New Zealand Government's authority in economic conditions and substantially questions the association between power, control and knowledge. It also strengthens opposition to the authenticity of traditional authoritarian hierarchal positioning of the powers that be.

To achieve international competitiveness, change has to be formulated at industry level rather than at enterprise or individual level (Douglas 1993). This makes it difficult to develop strategies for technical and skill advancement, quality standards and coordination, as current policy supports the intensification of enterprise responses to change and specific work practices. Exposing the contradiction of establishing industry standards while disbanding collective agreements of quality reinforces the Employment Contracts Act's main aim of cutting costs at the expense of labour in order to expand New Zealand's

competitiveness. This philosophy underlying workplace reform has quelled the spread of teamwork as an avenue for re-engineering because the dissemination of disputes between decision makers and followers continues. Intensifying jobs at the expense of enriching job design undermines team-based re-engineering attempts because it facilitates a system in which people have to assume a greater work load to match the politically correct organisational structure of flexibility - with the introduction of new technology simply intensifying the process (Sayer,1993).

Stereotypical explanations about the need for and potential of workplace reorganisation are misleading as they reinforce the idea that change simply means becoming more flexible. Efficient workplace restructuring requires more than flexibility because the process influences, and is influenced, by production, ownership, markets, industrial environments and employee composition (Perry, Davidson & Hill, 1995). Fayerbend (1975) presupposes that humanity is self-interested, in that people work in their own best interests. Such a tendency to support individualism continues today - present in resistance to teamwork. The conflict of basic human nature is that people are individualistic and want to be measured on their own merit. Rather than perceiving teamwork as a process of upgrading the overall skill base, individualistic people look at teams as a means of introducing assessment on the lowest common skills and characteristics of others. This draws attention to the connection between work practices and potential; does teamwork foster potential or does it reduce the development of innate potential? The answer comes down to the individual - in that the system structuring the workplace is in place to be taken advantage of and used to further the individual and the company, not an excuse to become complacent and inefficient. Within their environment, team members are accountable and responsible for their production and can thus be assessed in relation to performance.

CONCLUSIONS

In traditional industrial structures conflict is endemic to the relationship between employees and employers, despite cooperation between them on a daily basis to supply demand. Employees conflict with employers over financial matters, concerning not only the amount that they are paid but also the effort they are required to expend in earning it. Both employees and employers attempt to tip the balance in their favour, each attempting to gain control over the production process. Workplace reform represents a reaction against these traditional ways of organising jobs, resulting in a trend towards introducing teamwork. Traditional structurings that shape the division of labour, technological advances, the evolution of systems for work measurement and specialisation are argued to have coalesced in such a way that they have inexorably led to the fragmentation of the workforce. In essence, re-engineering the workplace refers to "...the deliberate attempt to reverse this trend, to organise the work of individuals or groups in such a way as to provide greater complexity with respect to one or more of the following characteristics: variety, autonomy, and completeness of task (carrying out a whole and identifiable piece of work." (Kelly and Clegg, 1982;2) This is clearly reinforced through the introduction of teamwork, altering specific jobs and interdependent work systems with the intent of increasing both the quality of team member's work experience and on-the-job production and satisfaction.

Teamwork illuminates the patriarchal dependency continued in traditional homogenous work patterns that do not allow for difference or provide the for opportunities of flexibility. In order to shed traditional paradigms (of amassed skills, bureaucratic organisational hierarchies and system constraints) workplace reforms need to be put into place. "Workplace reform is not an optional extra for New Zealand. It is essential to our international competitiveness, and our overall economic [and social] prosperity." (Chapman, 1992;158) With the introduction of

teamwork, the definition of a peak performer has changed from the enterprising individualist to the fully participating partner. As such, the pay off from teamwork is the 'evolution of worker participation'; the path to individual empowerment is to attention the shift towards the need for personal ownership and responsibility for the success of the business. Teamwork should be seen as a tool which involves a continuing social experiment, evaluated in terms of business success by economic and social criteria. Teams are a vehicle for managing change - articulating the logic behind why prognosticators of the companies of the future include teamwork in their long term vision. Re-engineering workplace reform is the design of change; a philosophy aimed at perfection through continuous improvement and universal participation (teamwork incites a legacy of human participation). Workplace reform is about working smarter, with team members using, to the best of their ability, the technology and quality programmes available in an environment that provides the support necessary for change and an integrated vision to motivate this.

This thesis legitimises and necessitates the need for continuing, comprehensive, theoretical examination of teamwork and all relative issues that have been advanced (including culture, motivation structure, flattened hierarchies, leadership, education and training). Overall, the findings detailed in the case studies of competitively advancing companies suggest that teamwork is an initiative that has positive benefits for organisations introducing teams. It improves performance and reduces costs. Quality and continuous improvement through education are enhanced, with employees benefiting from higher levels of job satisfaction. For teamwork to succeed, care needs to be taken in selecting team members and then in developing the team; ensuring that it has the necessary resources and support. Teams fail when they are unmotivated, lack direction or focus, or when insufficient attention is paid to team dynamics and processes.

Within each of us is the ability to create an organisation of our own choosing. The commitment we make to ourselves to achieve the team based workplace reform include the following;

"We are the architect of the organisation, choosing its form and future.

We are not just a labourer, following another's plans. We set goals that are unique and that no one else has achieved before in the same way.

We choose the path of high resistance and live with the anxiety that it creates.

We risk all we have. Not for the thrill of it, but because there is no safe path.

We are the place of last resort. There is no one to take care of us.

We are responsible for problems; if we don't handle them, no one will." (Block, 1987; 195)

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