

Chapter 23

Winning Minds

Changing Employees' Mental Models

***Winning Minds* forges among employees a common understanding of the organization's purpose, roles, goals, values, beliefs, and situation. Together, employees create new mental models of where the organization needs to go and how to get there.**

..... **I**n Madison, Wisconsin, in the mid-1980s, the chief of police started talking with his top managers about changing the organization's way of doing business. Chief David Couper drafted a document called "Quality Leadership," in which he spelled out the major principles of a new management style. Further discussion with his management team led to the development of 12 principles for supervisors and managers, many of them derived from Edward Deming's 14 points for quality management.

Within a few years, Couper embedded the principles firmly into the organization's consciousness by requiring police officers to attend a two-week course on quality leadership to qualify for promotion. His police officers learned specific values for leading people in the agency because their career advancement depended on it.

Values and beliefs are ideas about how things should be or are. Quite often the words *value* and *belief* are used interchangeably, although they mean different things. A value is a statement about desired behavior. You can value innovation, telling the truth, teamwork, or compliance with rules. A belief is a statement about how you think the world works. For example, many teachers believe that "all children can learn."

Our values and beliefs come from our parents, our religions, our schools, our peers, people we admire, and our culture, notes Charlotte Roberts, a consultant with Innovation Associates. "Many go back to childhood; we take on others as adults." For all practical purposes, values and beliefs lead to the same



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MADISON'S 12 QUALITY PRINCIPLES

1. Improve systems and examine processes before blaming people.
2. Have a customer orientation and focus toward employees and citizens.
3. Believe that the best way to improve the quality of work or service is to ask the employees who are doing the work how and listen to their responses.
4. Be committed to the problem-solving process; use it and let data, not emotions, drive decisions.
5. Be a facilitator and coach. Develop an open atmosphere that encourages providing and accepting feedback.
6. Encourage creativity through risk taking, and be tolerant of honest mistakes.
7. Avoid top-down, power-oriented decision making whenever possible.
8. Manage based on the behavior of the 95 percent of employees who do not cause problems, not on the 5 percent who do. Deal with that 5 percent promptly and fairly.
9. Believe in, foster, and support teamwork.
10. Through teamwork, develop with employees agreed-upon goals and a plan to achieve them.
11. Seek employees' input before you make key decisions.
12. Strive to develop mutual respect and trust among employees; drive out fear.

place: to behavior. As James Kouzes and Barry Posner say in *The Leadership Challenge*:

Values help us determine what to do and what not to do. They're the deep-seated, pervasive standards that influence every aspect of our lives: our moral judgments, our responses to others, our commitments to personal and organizational goals. Values set the parameters for the hundreds of decisions we make every day.

Most public sector organizations have strong bureaucratic values: obedience to authority, compliance with rules and procedures, and deference to hierarchy. These values are built into the design of bureaucratic control systems. Although they may clash with some people's personal values, they have great power throughout the public sector. People take them to be givens, like the air

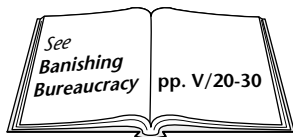


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they breathe. They adapt to them. Bureaucratic values stimulate and reinforce a host of behaviors—waiting for the boss’s orders, avoiding risks, ignoring the benefits of collaboration.

In Madison and in many other places around the globe, reinventors have worked aggressively to instill new values and beliefs, because they hold the key to changing organizational culture.

.....
**THE POWER OF
GOVERNING IDEAS**



Values and beliefs are two of an organization’s “governing ideas,” the compelling concepts that guide its behavior. Others include the organization’s mission; its vision; its assumptions, or “givens”; even its language. As we explained in *Banishing Bureaucracy*, governing ideas have power because they become part of people’s “mental models.” Everyone has mental models—their understanding of how the world works. Through these inner models, we perceive and make sense out of reality.

To change an organization’s governing ideas, you must change its members’ mental models—one by one. This involves a process of inquiry, discovery, and reflection. Sometimes the shift takes a long time, particularly if many people are involved. But for individuals, it often occurs suddenly—as if the scales have fallen from their eyes.

Consider the experience of Bob Stone at the Office of the Secretary of Defense (OSD). When he was appointed deputy assistant secretary of defense for installations in 1981, Stone says, “I was a believer in centralized management.”

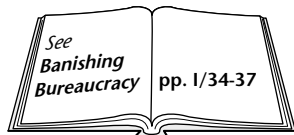
I’m not sure that I thought very much about centralization versus decentralization; I just thought that if you were in trouble, you added more management, more controls, more briefings. So I got the deputy secretary of defense, Frank Carlucci, to direct my boss to design and evaluate a central command that would own and operate all military bases.

This would move all military bases and depots into one organization, where Stone and his staff thought they could introduce more professional management and economies of scale. But it flew in the face of what General Bill Creech was preaching and practicing in the air force. “The services hated it,” Stone recalls.

The air force went really ballistic. So they hijacked me. My predecessor had badgered the air force into setting up a mini version of what I was trying to do in San Antonio, Texas, because it has four major air force bases and one major army base. I wanted to visit San Antonio and see how it worked. So the air force offered to fly me down there. And I was really surprised by that, because they weren’t really trying to help me at all.



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When Stone boarded the plane at Andrews Air Force Base, his escort, Colonel Bud Ahern, informed him that they had to make a stop at Langley Air Force Base in Virginia, headquarters of Creech's Tactical Air Command. When they got to Langley, the plane developed mechanical problems. So Ahern suggested they have a look around. Creech was away, but Ahern ushered Stone into the office of his vice commander, Lieutenant General John Piotrowski. And Piotrowski proceeded to give Stone what he later came to know as "the Creech briefing." Complete with charts and graphs, it showed the TAC's decline through the 1970s, then its abrupt turnaround after Creech arrived and began decentralizing the command, breaking up functional silos, giving the pilots and mechanics ownership of their planes, empowering them to make their own decisions, and comparing squadron performance. Piotrowski described Creech's philosophy of empowering teams and holding them accountable for results, Stone recalls, "in almost magical terms."

He said, "We believe in having pilots with red scarves flying airplanes with red tails, maintained by mechanics with red caps." Creech had the red squadron, the blue squadron, the green squadron, and so on. Piotrowski also showed me the numbers. The safety record was up, flying hours were up, average hours to fix a broken airplane were down. You looked at their data—hours between accidents tripled, time to get a part from supply into a plane down from four hours to 11 minutes—it was just obvious they were on to something. I was just sold. I saw the future, and it worked.

Stone experienced a classic paradigm shift.

I just saw that it was right. It was a gestalt. I've had experiences in engineering: I once made a discovery that was very important in a very, very narrow and specialized field of heat exchanger design. In its world it was important. And it just hit me in the face. I was working, and suddenly there it was. I showed it to my boss, and he was amazed by it, and then pretty soon we couldn't understand how we could not have always known it, because it was so obvious. That's the sort of feeling I got.

Stone returned to the Pentagon and told his deputy, Doug Farbrother, who was conducting the study to justify their centralized installation command, what he had found.

And he started yelling at me. He said, "Mechanics in red caps and pilots in red scarves—have you lost your mind?" He was quite angry.



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But Creech did a frontal assault on Doug. He invited Doug down to Langley, or summoned him, as I think Doug put it.

Like Stone, Farbrother was a scientist by background and a centralizer by habit. “My training is as a mathematician,” he says.

I was an operations research person when I first came to the Pentagon—which is all about mathematical modeling. So I was very much dependent on analytical solutions and numerical analysis. And I had never had a job outside of Washington, so all of my natural thinking, plus the people I was surrounded with at headquarters, led me to be an advocate of central control and economies of scale. We had also been rewarded for being tough on our subordinates. What we were famous for, both Bob and me, at OSD, was coming up with clever reasons for why what the services wanted in their budgets was nonsense.

Farbrother had just been to England and Germany to look at their centralized installation commands.

In both countries I saw the same thing: When I talked with the people from PSA or STOV [the British and German installation commands], they talked in theoretical terms about the advantages of this kind of organization, but had no numbers to prove that things were cheaper or more efficient. When I talked with the military commanders who were being supported by them, their jaws would redden and their faces tighten and they would spit as they spoke about the support they were getting from these organizations. One cornered me in a hanger and stabbed me in the chest and said, “Don’t do this to my American friends.”

Still, Farbrother gave little credence to the base commanders’ views. “I’m sure it was a classic example of evidence being right under my nose, and me not being able to take it in,” he says. But Stone had given him Tom Peters and Robert Waterman’s *In Search of Excellence*, which he happened to read on the way down to Langley to see Creech. And it had begun to open his mind.

Farbrother had been told that Creech “was the most powerful general in the air force—the only reason he wasn’t chief of staff was because he didn’t want to be in Washington; politics wasn’t his game. So I was intimidated before I got there.”

Creech, while he’s not a large man, or charismatic, is meticulous in his appearance and bearing. And I showed up in my usual slovenly attire.



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It was an intimidating experience, walking down there and going into his presence. And the first thing he said to me was, “You’ve got the dumbest damned idea I’ve ever heard.”

So here I am, feeling like a punk kid in the presence of the most powerful general in the air force. He’s spending all his time trying to convince me my idea was the dumbest thing that ever came around. And he had a briefing that really would move an analyst. He called it his slippery slope briefing. It was a series of trend charts showing the years before he took over and the years since. It was a V-shape.

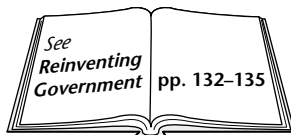
He had gone to lengths to explain why it wasn’t other factors—was it more money; well no it wasn’t. Was it more training for pilots; well, no, it wasn’t. They all showed that in the years he had been there, he had doubled TAC’s capability to fly and fight, without adding resources.

He said, “The key is pride. Pride is the fuel of human accomplishment, so you’ve got to give people something to be proud of.” And that’s why he was such a nut on great-looking buildings and grounds, and had the airmen fix them up themselves. And he used competition—breaking up what he called “communist maintenance” into three units and having them compete.

In that one and a half hours, I had a humbling emotional experience, and some convincing charts shown to me. It changed the way I looked at everything. I heard years later the words paradigm shift, and I think that’s what happened. I could see all this evidence that I couldn’t see before. And I understood why numerical analysis is so lacking, in a way I couldn’t see before.

Stone and Farbrother proceeded to kill the centralized installation command and began spreading the gospel according to Creech. They took their staff off on retreat and together crafted a values statement called “The Principles of Excellent Installations,” which they circulated in every way they could dream up, worldwide. They collared influential people and dragged them down to Langley for the briefing and tour. They addressed every military group or class they could find. They eliminated thousands of pages of regulations and set up a “Model Installations Program” and a “Unified Budget Test” to give base commanders the flexibility they needed to improve their operations. In other words, they did everything they could to spread the new paradigm they had learned from Creech.

We have told this story at length because it illustrates almost all five elements we have found in the process of shifting mental models:



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1. Opening minds by dislodging old mental models.
2. Introducing new mental models.
3. Collectively building new mental models.
4. Creating new touchstones.
5. Spreading new mental models through teaching.

Creech and Piotrowski used performance data to pry open Stone's and Farbrother's minds—the first step in the process of conversion. Often, new experiences do the trick, but as Farbrother's experience in Europe showed, someone with a strong paradigm will ignore or deny the validity of contradictory experience. For some people, rational processes such as briefings or benchmarking data are necessary.

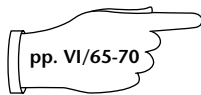
Creech and Piotrowski didn't just open Stone's and Farbrother's minds, however; they then laid out a new mental model, the second element. As Stone says, "It was numbers, and they really hung on a picture, which is this pilots in red scarves, flying airplanes with red tails, maintained by mechanics with red hats. I not only had the data, but here's the theory: these guys are all one team with one product." There are many tools one can use to introduce new models, from briefings and courses to learning groups and site visits.

The third element is probably the most important part of converting an organization: a collaborative process to create new mental models. This is what Stone and Farbrother did when they took their staff off to write a values statement. It can also be done through the collective creation of mission and vision statements or through critical mass events, like large scale, real-time strategic planning.

This step is so important because an organization's culture changes when its members change their minds *together*. It is not enough for a few leaders to change their mental models—the rest of the organization must, too. Leaders must learn how to bring their members together so that many minds will be working on the organization's challenges, not just a few.

As you create new shared mental models, often you will want to codify them in ways that provide new touchstones for everyone in the organization. Mission, vision, and values statements play this role after they are written—although this role is not as important as the one they play in shaping the collective culture as employees help create them. Many leaders also create new language, as a way of providing new touchstones. This is because the very words we use are inextricably linked to our mental models. Unless we change what they mean—or better yet, use new words—we cannot communicate about new ideas.

Finally, most successful leaders of culture change do not stop at creating the new governing ideas. They work hard to *spread* them, through tools such as in-house schoolhouses and orientation of new members.

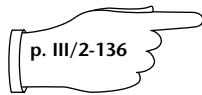


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The point is not to unfold these five elements in order. Changing culture is a process of person-by-person conversion. Different people will change at different times, for different reasons. So you need to keep using these and other tools continuously.

Often one tool will perform several functions. When Stone and Farbrother made their site visits to Langley, for instance, Creech and Piotrowski both opened their minds and introduced them to new mental models. Learning groups can do the same thing.

Whatever tools you use, there are two fundamental instructions to keep in mind. First, you must get employees genuinely involved in changing their minds; you can't really do it to them. The point is to create mental *commitment* to new ideas, not just *compliance* with them. Second, the new governing ideas must be connected to behaviors. It isn't enough to simply espouse the ideas; they must be lived. To help along the process of turning thought into action, reinventors should use the tools of the Consequences Strategy to reward the behaviors they want.



RESOURCES ON WINNING MINDS

Joel Arthur Barker. *Paradigms: The Business of Discovering the Future*. New York: HarperBusiness, 1992. The seminal work on shifting paradigms.

James M. Kouzes and Barry Z. Posner. *The Leadership Challenge*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1995. A good book on leading cultural change, with useful treatments of visioning, values, rewarding new behavior, and many other topics.

Peter Senge, Charlotte Roberts, Richard B. Ross, Bryan J. Smith, and Art Kleiner. *The Fifth Discipline Fieldbook: Strategies and Tools for Building a Learning Organization*. New York: Doubleday, 1994. A tool book that amplifies the basic ideas of Senge's *The Fifth Discipline*. It contains an entire section on changing mental models.

Douglas K. Smith. *Taking Charge of Change: 10 Principles for Managing People and Performance*. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1996. Contains useful insights on changing an organization's mental models.



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TOOLS FOR WINNING MINDS

Benchmarking Performance compares the performance of different organizations, in this case to dislodge outdated mental models by undermining faith in the old ways of doing business. See below.

Learning Groups and Site Visits change employees' minds by helping them learn new things together. The groups undertake disciplined study processes and site visits—identifying what they want to learn, who they will learn with, and what they will do with what they learn. See p. VI/109.

Creating a Sense of Mission develops a widely shared understanding of an organization's basic purpose. It captures this understanding in a brief statement that serves as a beacon for the organization, guiding its people's decisions. See p. VI/113.

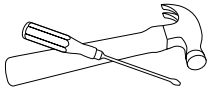
Building Shared Vision develops a “picture in words” of the future that employees seek to create through the organization—their collective image of what the organization is there to accomplish. See p. VI/116.

Articulating Organizational Values, Beliefs, and Principles allows organizations to create and adopt nonbureaucratic standards for behavior that guide their members' actions in the workplace. See p. VI/119.

Using New Language replaces the language of bureaucracy—its phrases, metaphors, and vocabulary—with a language that reinforces more entrepreneurial assumptions and ideas. See p. VI/123.

In-House Schoolhouses educate and train change agents to become carriers of the new culture. See p. VI/125.

Orienting New Members teaches incoming employees the organization's mission, vision, and values—the basic mental models that are shared throughout the agency. See p. VI/126.



BENCHMARKING PERFORMANCE

When Bill Creech and John Piotrowski converted Stone and Farbrother, their best weapon was data. Several years earlier, when Creech took the helm at the TAC, he quickly began setting up decentralized models, measuring their performance, and comparing it to the rest of the TAC. He used this data to undermine the mental models of Defense Department officials who supported the centralized approach he was trying to change. The data showed huge variations between the performance of different wings that performed the same functions. The centralizers, who assumed that as long as the resources and training were the same, performance would be about the same, couldn't explain it. “That attracted lots of attention throughout the nationwide organi-

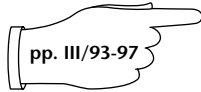


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From *The Reinventor's Fieldbook*, by David Osborne and Peter Plastrik. ©2000 by Osborne and Plastrik

zation,” Creech reports. “Everyone was scratching their heads, trying to explain it. . . . The old conditioning began crumbling.”

Benchmarking has many forms and functions, and one of those functions is to undermine old mental models. It’s hard to defend current practices when data proves they are inferior to the alternatives. Phoenix, which was named one of the two best-managed cities in the world a few years ago by Germany’s Bertelsmann Foundation, has for years benchmarked against 10 other southwestern cities, including Dallas, Houston, Albuquerque, and San Diego. Whenever they want to improve a city service, the auditor’s office or department heads check to see how it compares to the same service in the other cities. They do it so often that many units have begun to do it themselves, just to keep track of where they stand and how they could improve. It is one of many tools that make Phoenix’s city government a learning organization.



RESOURCE ON BENCHMARKING PERFORMANCE

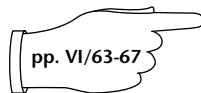
Patricia Keehley, Steven Medline, Sue MacBride, and Laura Longmire. *Benchmarking for Best Practices in the Public Sector*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1997. A useful guide to performance benchmarking in the public sector.

LEARNING GROUPS AND SITE VISITS

***Learning Groups and Site Visits* change employees’ minds by helping them learn new things together. The groups undertake disciplined study processes and site visits—identifying what they want to learn, who they will learn with, and what they will do with what they learn.**

In the U.K., the West Midlands office of the Employment Service often sends employees on site visits. In 1992, four employees traveled across America for nine days, studying how public agencies and businesses were using Total Quality Management (TQM) to improve their performance. They met with nine organizations and logged more than 6,000 miles in the air—in the U.S. alone. Already in their third year of implementing TQM, they needed to learn more than they could in the U.K., where it was not in wide use in the public sector. During one visit, they unexpectedly learned about another tool—large-scale, real-time strategic planning—that became an important part of their change effort.

Every year, the City of Charlotte, North Carolina, takes up to 100 community leaders to another city for a site visit. They focus on a problem or op-



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portunity they face in Charlotte, and they visit a city that has dealt with it successfully. They take business leaders, city government managers, community leaders, and elected officials from the city, county, and school district. The bonding they do while traveling together is one of the site visit's most important benefits, says former mayor John Belk. "You get to know people much better," he explains. "You get everybody talking the same language."

In the London borough of Bromley, Robbie Stokes, the director of leisure services, uses site visits *within his agency* to help employees percolate ideas. "We have 'away days,' in which people will visit other areas, where they will present what they're doing," he says. Library staffs visit recreation programs; landscape specialists visit libraries. During the visits, "People will start asking, 'Why can't we do that in our area?'"

Hampton, Virginia, sends "venture teams" to other cities that are on the cutting edge. Phoenix, Arizona, has a study tour budget, so it can send a team on a site visit whenever it needs to. Palm Springs, California, set up a regular "Palm Springs Pirates" group, which visited a new place every month and stole as many good ideas as it could.

Taking people to see something for themselves is always more powerful than telling them about it or having them read about it. People are not only exposed to new concepts, they *experience* those concepts in action. They talk to leaders, employees, customers, and stakeholders. They get a visceral feel for the new reality. As Jim Flanagan says about Phoenix's study tours, "Lots of times when you read it, it's one thing—but when you go there, it's another."

According to Bob Stone, General Creech's ideas "jumped species" to the army because General Carl Vuono, then commander of the army's Training and Doctrine Command, next door to Langley, Creech's headquarters, wondered why so many people who visited his command stayed over at Langley. The reason was Creech's fanatical commitment to quality facilities and quality equipment. The guest quarters at Langley were immaculate, the best in the military. Vuono finally drove over to see for himself. "He got a tour," says Stone, "and he became a believer."

When Stone became director of Vice President Gore's National Performance Review, he fought hard to make sure Gore's first trip was to Langley. "It was wonderful," he remembers.

General Loh had an awful lot of charts that he briefed Gore on. I was afraid Gore was going to be irritated, but he was really captured by them. And then they walked around, and Gore and his staff talked to young pilots and mechanics. I think he was there a total of maybe three and a half hours. He started talking about it a lot. When we had our reinventing government summit with corporate CEOs, he insisted on



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having Mike Loh there. He wanted Loh to be the last person to speak in the last session of the day, because he wanted to punctuate the day with the Air Combat Command, which he saw as an example of government working well.

Stone believes the site visit is the single best way to convert people. “It’s showing people examples of success,” he says.

Group site visits have several benefits. First, they expose people to new ideas and, sometimes, to whole new paradigms. Second, they give people an opportunity to analyze and discuss what they are learning—and its relevance for their organization—as they are learning it. And third, they help people bond as a team. Done well, a site visit not only gives people powerful images of alternative futures they could create, it also gives them the emotional bonds necessary to take on the job.

Sometimes leaders use site visits to teach their employees about the challenges they face rather than about models of success. Doug Ross took his top managers at the U.S. Employment and Training Administration (ETA) to world-class companies to see firsthand the kind of skills ETA’s customers—unemployed workers—would need to get good jobs.

The success of site visits depends on selecting the right place to visit, selecting the right team, and preparing the team and visit. When 100 people from Charlotte visit another city, for example, an enormous amount of preparation is necessary. “You can’t afford to have that many people go and then screw it up,” says Belk.

Debriefing is also critical. It gives team members a chance to figure out just what they have learned and what they could apply back home—and to begin making plans to do so.

Site visits are time-consuming and expensive; fortunately, they are not the only way to introduce groups to new ideas. Joann Neuroth used a learning group to bring TQM to the Michigan Commerce Department. She led a team of 18 employees, who met for one hour a week for many months to learn the tools of TQM and group facilitation. They read and discussed articles and books, tried small projects, and received training. As a result, she and some of her group became the quality champions who convinced much of the organization to try TQM.

The U.K.’s Inland Revenue Department uses what it calls “action learning” courses for senior managers. Each course starts by bringing roughly 20 managers together from different places in the organization, for three days. Led by a consultant, they use the Myers-Briggs assessment tool to profile their work styles, then discuss their strengths, weaknesses, and the like. Then comes the “action” part: they break into groups of six, which meet monthly to discuss



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books, videos, and ideas. Each group defines a research project focused on some challenge facing the organization.

Steve Banyard, who described this tool to us, was in a group that studied cultural change in large, dispersed organizations. They visited large private companies, especially those that had been recently privatized, to find out what they had done to change their cultures.

“The point is to study it, but not too academically—very much with a bias for action,” says Banyard. Part of the “idea is to take these people who are specialized, like engineers, and give them a broader focus—to get them to look at what we do and why. It usually leads to a more participatory leadership style.”

Tips for Learning Groups and Site Visits

Make it clear that the organization is willing to invest in the learning group—and expects a return on its investment. Organizations should give learning groups permission to work together during paid time, to signal that the learning is valued.

Define clear deliverables for each learning group. Organizations must be clear that the group is not, as Neuroth puts it, “just out to entertain itself.” It should have clear deliverables—new knowledge that other members of the organization want. Many organizations ask learning groups to write reports for the rest of the employees. That’s a good idea, but it’s even better to ask them to make presentations to top management and other employees (using “brown bag” lunches, for example). This puts pressure on the group to get very clear about what it has learned.

Study something that is likely to transform your thinking. Don’t go on fishing expeditions. Figure out what you really want to learn—what might help you improve your services or reinvent your organization.

Learn things you can put to use. Neuroth advises that groups focus on learning things that would change their own practices. All too often, she cautions, they learn interesting things but then conclude that “no one in the organization will let us do it.”

Ensure diverse participation in study groups. Neuroth’s group drew volunteers from many different units in the department. The West Midlands team included the regional director, a local office manager, a quality facilitator, and an employee with frontline experience. This kind of diversity enhances a group’s learning, since different people bring different perspectives and skills to the study process. It also increases the group’s credibility with the rest of the organization.

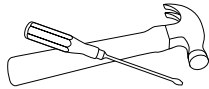
Be disciplined about your course of study. Learning about something that is important to the organization is worth doing well. Plan carefully how



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you will go about it. Spend time mapping out your agenda—identifying topics, resources, and methods for learning.

CREATING A SENSE OF MISSION



***Creating a Sense of Mission* develops a widely shared understanding of an organization’s basic purpose. It captures this understanding in a brief statement that serves as a beacon for the organization, guiding its people’s decisions.**

When Doug Ross became head of the U.S. Education and Training Administration (ETA), he asked most employees he met what their mission was.

Most of them described their individual jobs to me. They had no sense of what the organization was supposed to make happen on the outside. They were not connected to their customers’ needs. They existed solely within their walls.

Unfortunately, the ETA was more the norm than the exception; tunnel vision is pervasive in public organizations. It is a legacy of the bureaucratic model, which assumes that workers need only know their jobs, while managers worry about higher-order concerns.

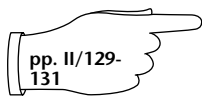
Lack of knowledge is hardly the only problem, however. As we discuss in Chapter Three, many government agencies receive ambiguous, confusing, or conflicting missions from elected officials. Hence it is difficult for anyone to pinpoint their real mission. And even when leaders try to clarify the mission, employees often don’t internalize what they are told. If they are handed the mission from on high and expected to memorize and repeat it back, they usually don’t make it their own. They may learn to *espouse* it, but not to *embrace* it.

The main vehicle for creating a shared sense of mission is to develop a mission statement—new language that conveys the organization’s purpose. Although the words are important, it is the process of creating them that makes the difference. You can hang an eloquent statement on the walls and even print it on employees’ business cards, without getting employees to use it as their own. To do that, you must involve them in creating, testing, and using it.

There are several keys to tapping the full power of a mission statement:

Focus only on what is most important. Many authors and practitioners have taken a crack at explaining the purpose of a mission statement. Peter Drucker writes simply that “a mission statement has to focus on what the institution really tries to do.”

Make it brief. “It must be succinct enough that people can hold it in their minds,” says Joann Neuroth. If you can keep it under 20 words, do it.



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Make it inspiring. What can be memorized must also be worth remembering. “It’s got to really excite you. It has to have some passion in it,” says Neuroth.

Make sure it provides guidance to employees. “It must be specific enough that you can steer by it—figuring out which things to do and which not to do,” says Neuroth. To illustrate the point, she tells a story from a Michigan school district.

During a workshop in the fall of 1993, teachers in the Lakeview schools decided that one purpose of their organization was to help students become “thoughtful learners.” Those two words grabbed their attention. Ensuring that students thoughtfully steered their own learning “was a goal worth achieving. It excited them; it lit them up,” says Neuroth.

And it provided guidance. “They said, if we *really* thought that was what mattered, almost everything we do in schools would have to change.” On the spot, they started thinking about their work as if the mission did matter. The curriculum would have to change; so would student assessment practices. Teachers couldn’t just cover the material in textbooks; they would need new instructional practices.

Involve employees in crafting the statement. When General Michael Loh wanted to create a new mission statement for the 150,000–employee Air Combat Command, he took his top 90 officers on a three-day retreat. “I wanted to come out of there with a shared common mission, and I wanted our people to create it,” Loh says. Before they convened, Loh asked participants to send him their versions of the new mission. His staff synthesized them into 16 different statements. At the retreat, Loh broke the participants into four

MISSION STATEMENTS: PITFALLS TO AVOID

- **Plain-vanilla statements.** If it’s uninspiring, if it doesn’t differentiate the organization from others, if it has become what Drucker calls “a hero sandwich of good intentions,” don’t use it.
- **Statements that are too global.** If it’s too general and vague—if just about any decisions or actions could fit the mission—it won’t provide useful guidance.
- **Statements that are too narrow.** If some employees cannot see themselves and their work in the mission statement, it will make them feel unimportant and unneeded.
- **Statements that are too wordy.** If it’s too long, if it fails to boil the mission down to its essence, no one will remember it.



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groups and gave each of them all of the statements. “You can use these, or you can throw them away and come up with your own,” he told them, “but each group should come up with a mission statement.” As the groups worked on the task, each boiled their ideas down into one statement. Then they discussed the final four as a whole group. Overnight, Loh took the four statements and synthesized them into a single statement. He took this back to the officers:

I said, “Okay, here’s a version that I think captures what we think all of you wanted.” They kind of tinkered with that a little bit, and then I said, “I want to take one more step. This is 90 percent [completed], but take it back to your people and show it to them and see if you get any people saying ‘bullshit.’”

After getting some feedback from the units, Loh adopted the statement:

Air Combat Command—Our Mission

*Air Combat Command professionals
providing the world’s best combat air forces
delivering rapid, decisive airpower
anytime, anywhere*

A top-down process like this can work, as long as employees get a real opportunity to provide feedback. But in smaller organizations, you can let the employees write the mission statement themselves.

This is what the Michigan Department of Commerce did in 1989. Its leaders asked a group of employees—professionals and secretaries, veterans and relative newcomers—to tackle the assignment. Initially, employees were bewildered by the task. Finally a manager asked them, “What is the one word that, if it were true about our department, would make you feel really good about working here?” That broke the logjam: there were many responses, including *community*, *flexibility*, *innovation*. Gradually the team warmed to the task and began drafting a statement. Then it invited other employees to join in. After several months, the group brought a draft back to the top managers, who liked it and said they would market it to the rest of the organization. But the rank-and-file team insisted that *it* wanted to lead the process of getting feedback, because it would have more credibility with the organization.

The team met with individual units to share the statement, answer questions, and listen to suggested changes. Then they surveyed the organization, asking people to rate several features of the statement—its clarity and accuracy, for instance—on a scale of 1 to 5. Before conducting the survey, they decided that if at least two-thirds of the employees rated the statement a 4 or a



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5, it would be adopted. They did, and it was. At an all-employee ceremony several weeks later, the team distributed T-shirts with the new mission statement printed on the back:

We support and promote an economic development environment that increases business investment, job creation and retention, and the state's overall economic competitiveness. We do so to improve the standard of living and quality of life for the people of Michigan.

Use your mission statement in day-to-day management. You want it present in the *minds* of your people—not just in their line of sight, on the walls. The best way to make sure this happens is to use the mission statement to drive the development of organizational goals, indicators, and plans.

Periodically revisit the mission statement. Ask your organization if it still reflects the basic purpose and motivates employees. If not, have them update it. Treating the mission statement as a living document keeps employees engaged with the question of organizational purpose.

BUILDING SHARED VISION

***Building Shared Vision* develops a “picture in words” of the future that employees seek to create through the organization—their collective image of what the organization is there to accomplish.**

Some leaders are famous for their visions, their sense of direction for their community. Thomas Jefferson, Abraham Lincoln, Franklin Roosevelt, and Martin Luther King Jr. come to mind. They painted pictures of what America—and the world—should become. Other politicians, such as former President George Bush, became famous for not having any compelling vision.

Expecting our government leaders to have a vision of the future is nothing new. But the notion that a public *organization* should have a vision is. In the bureaucratic paradigm, it doesn't matter whether an organization's employees share a sense of direction or not. To do their jobs, they need only know the organization's rules and procedures. Thus, most public employees are never invited to dream about what their organization might accomplish or become.

“A vision is a mental picture of what tomorrow will look like,” explain James Kouzes and Barry Posner in *The Leadership Challenge*. Visioning creates concrete images of what the organization will look like, be doing, and accomplish some span of years ahead.

James Eason, mayor of Hampton, Virginia, points out that many athletes try to improve their performance by “picturing the successful completion of moves they want to make.” A golfer pictures the shot she wants to make; a bas-



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From *The Reinventor's Fieldbook*, by David Osborne and Peter Plastrik. ©2000 by Osborne and Plastrik

ketball player pictures the free throw going in. Organizations do the same thing, collectively, when they build shared visions.

A vision is an ideal and an aspiration, not a prediction. Why is this beneficial? One reason is that shared vision inspires people. The idea of achieving something worthwhile motivates them.

A second reason is that vision disturbs the status quo. The picture of an organization's desired future stands in contrast to the organization's current reality. People see the gap and—as long as the distance does not seem impossible to bridge—begin working to close it.

A third reason to build shared vision is that it gives focus to people's energies. When people share a vision, they align their diverse activities to achieve a common future. When an organization's energies are focused in this way, it is much more likely to achieve its goals.

How to Build Shared Vision

In many organizations, a leader provides the vision. He or she goes off somewhere to think and write down the vision, then comes back and tells everyone what it is. The problem with “telling the vision,” as consultant Bryan Smith notes in *The Fifth Discipline Fieldbook*, is that it rarely becomes deeply shared by the organization's members.

Many leaders go beyond merely telling the vision, Smith adds. They also negotiate, sell, and test their vision with employees. They invite people to raise concerns about their vision or even to offer amendments. Or they consult with people about what they like and don't like about the vision and then revise it accordingly. In these ways, leaders build broader buy-in for their visions. But there is a much more powerful way for a leader to build a truly shared vision: start the visioning process with the employees, not the leader. Co-create a shared vision.

Co-creating a vision is an enormously challenging process, particularly for leaders who assume that their role is to *provide* the vision. They must shift their paradigm of leadership to one in which leaders *help* organizations develop collective visions that speak deeply to their members. The process is also quite challenging for employees, because it is often unlike anything they have been asked to do before.

The process begins by asking employees to articulate their deepest desires for their own future. What do they dream of achieving? What do they want, and why? What, in other words, is their personal vision? This matters because, as Senge explains, “If people don't have their own vision, all they can do is sign up for someone else's. The result is compliance, never commitment.”

When groups of people do this work, they usually find that they share many of the same personal aspirations: happiness, having good families and



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communities, making a difference in the world, and so on.

In the next step, employees build their shared personal visions into a vision for the organization. To do this, they must first develop key information about the organization. They must be clear about the organization's mission. They must know key trends that may influence the organization's fate. They must study the organization's past and its future. And they must have some awareness of alternative ways of organizing to accomplish their work. Otherwise, their imaginations will be limited by the bureaucratic paradigm they have experienced.

Given this information, employees begin to picture a future organization that will be true to its mission *and* will help employees realize their common personal visions. Integrating personal visions with organizational vision is neither simple nor quick, but it is crucial. "When a shared vision starts with personal vision, the organization becomes a tool for people's self-realization, rather than a machine they're subjected to," says Smith. "Only then can they wholeheartedly participate in guiding its direction."

Out of this process emerge concrete pictures of the organization's desired future. These images should answer questions like the following: How does the organization produce value for its customers and stakeholders? What is its unique contribution to the world? What is the impact of its work? What does the organization look like? What do its people do? How are decisions made? What incentives are in place?

At this point, the emerging vision should be put on paper. The task is to imagine that it is some time in the future—perhaps 5 or 10 years forward—and the organization you desire has in fact been created. Now write a description of it. Then write a short summary or even a slogan that captures the future organization's essence. (For example, Hampton's vision is to become "the most livable city in Virginia.") The full vision statement should appeal broadly to the organization's many stakeholders, and it should keep people focused on the future. Test it with stakeholders, then embrace it publicly as an organization.

Finally, *use it*. Decide how you will measure progress toward the vision and how you intend to make that progress.

Other Tips for Building Shared Vision

Make sure the vision is relevant to people throughout the organization. Employees must be able to see themselves participating in and benefiting from the future organization.

Tell the truth about the organization's current reality. "Anything less than the truth can destroy credibility," warns Bryan Smith. If, for instance, leaders try to squelch negative information about the organization's situation, employees will conclude that they are not serious about the exercise.

Paint concrete details, but not too many. Don't write a full-scale novel, just enough detail to give people a motivating picture.

Honor the organization's past. Show employees how the vision builds on



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the organization's history or why it must depart dramatically from the past. If you don't, they may feel that the vision demeans their current work and performance.

Link the visioning process with the development of organizational mission and values, if those don't exist. A vision does not stand in isolation. It can't be created without knowing the organization's mission. And it calls into question what the organization's values are—what standards should guide behavior. “A vision not consistent with values that people live by day by day will not only fail to inspire genuine enthusiasm,” Peter Senge warns, “it will often foster outright cynicism.”

RESOURCES ON VISIONING

John P. Kotter. *Leading Change*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press, 1996. One of the best books on leading organizational transformation, this contains two excellent chapters on creating and communicating organizational vision.

Peter M. Senge. *The Fifth Discipline: The Art and Practice of the Learning Organization*. New York: Doubleday, 1990. Chapter 11 is a masterful account of the art of visioning and its value to organizations.

Peter Senge, Charlotte Roberts, Richard B. Ross, Bryan J. Smith, and Art Kleiner. *The Fifth Discipline Fieldbook: Strategies and Tools for Building a Learning Organization*. New York: Doubleday, 1994. A tool book that amplifies the basic ideas of *The Fifth Discipline*. It contains many exercises and tips for vision building.



ARTICULATING ORGANIZATIONAL VALUES, BELIEFS, AND PRINCIPLES

Articulating Organizational Values, Beliefs, and Principles allows organizations to create and adopt nonbureaucratic standards for behavior that guide their members' actions in the workplace.

In the late 1980s, Don Forbes, then head of Oregon's state highway division, called the state police in to investigate what he suspected was unethical behavior. The investigation led to the indictment of almost 20 low-level employees and managers for petty theft. The experience was traumatic enough that the organization's leaders began looking for ways to rebuild the culture around a commitment to common values.

In 1991, Forbes was promoted to director of the entire Department of Transportation. He decided to define the organization's values and train all employees in how to use those values as guideposts when making decisions. He



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called the initiative “Pride in Public Service,” and it became one of the four pillars of his philosophy of “shared leadership,” along with performance management, team-based management, and an employee development program.

“As teams are out there having to make more decisions, people have to have skills to deal with that,” Forbes told us. “Otherwise, you have chaos.” One of those skills is knowing what is permissible and what is not. “In the absence of that values guidance, you could have teams out there making what they think are very good decisions, but [those decisions] could get us in very serious trouble, because they didn’t consider the legal context or whatever.”

Forbes hired a consultant, who helped the organization put together “a fairly straightforward decision-making model and an acronym that goes with it, as a memory device for people. We came up with Decision PLUS”:

P is for policies

L is for legal

U is for a universal set of ethical principles

S is for self

The organization trained all employees to ask themselves if their decisions were consistent with departmental policies, with the law, and with a list of key ethical principles such as honesty, integrity, fairness, excellence, and accountability. If a decision passed those tests, Forbes says, then the final question was, “Does it pass the butterfly test? That is, do you feel good about it yourself?”

Forbes says this approach has penetrated at least through the organization’s management: “I’ve found now, after some reinforcing, that whenever we get together, once a month, someone will say, ‘I was looking at this, but it didn’t pass my PLUS test, so I didn’t go with it.’”

Craig Holt, who ran Forbes’s Office of Productivity Services, goes further:

Pride in Public Service is our backbone. I used to think measurement was; now I think values are. They’re the golden thread that you can hang everything on. Because enabling the mission is about making decisions and carrying those forth. And values are all about enabling people to make the decisions. If you know all the values of the organization, then you know you won’t get fired for making the decision. So it allows you to move real quickly and not spend a whole lot of time wondering about the ramifications.

When organizations align their collective values with their members’ values, they experience a significant payoff. Citing their 15 years of research in-



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volving thousands of public and private sector managers, Kouzes and Posner identify the following impact that shared values can have:

- *They foster strong feelings of personal effectiveness.*
- *They promote high levels of company loyalty.*
- *They facilitate consensus about key organizational goals and stakeholders.*
- *They encourage ethical behavior.*
- *They promote strong norms about working hard and caring.*
- *They reduce levels of job stress and tension.*
- *They foster pride in the company.*
- *They facilitate understandings about job expectations.*
- *They foster teamwork and esprit de corps.*

Making Values, Beliefs, and Principles Effective

Creating an organization's statement of values or principles has to start with its leaders, but it cannot end there. Employees must have a chance to participate—to think about, discover, discuss, test, and refine these values, beliefs, and principles. This is a lesson that Kouzes and Posner learned the hard way:

Many senior executives have taken the shared values message to mean that they should go off on a week-long retreat to formulate a corporate credo, then return home and announce it to constituents. We confess to having once been advocates of this exercise. Experience has taught us, however, that no matter how extensive top management's support of shared values is, leaders can't impose their values on organizational members. Consensus about values is more difficult to achieve than clarity, and without consensus it's hard to get consistent implementation of values throughout an organization. Leaders must be proactive in involving people in the process of creating shared values.

In their book *The Reengineering Revolution*, Michael Hammer and Steven Stanton describe what happens to most values statements created by management alone:

First, management distributes a memorandum communicating the new values. When this goes the way of all memos, the next phase centers on plastering large posters and wall banners everywhere. In the terminal phase, the values statement is printed on wallet-size laminated cards



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that are distributed to everybody in the organization. . . .

We have a collection of these cards, which we have gathered in our travels over the years. They represent a touching affirmation of management's belief in the power of cliches to alter and modify behavior. . . .

Sometimes, at our seminars, we take out our laminated cards and read these bits of wisdom aloud. The response is always the same—gales of laughter from the audience. And when we ask the attendees why they are laughing, once again the response is uniform: “They are so empty.” “It’s all mush.” “They don’t mean anything.”

*These are very serious indictments, but it is also notable what people are **not** saying. Nobody is saying that these values are wrong. Quite the contrary, the thematic consistency suggests that their authors are onto something. In fact, customer focus, teamwork, personal responsibility, speed, innovation and the like are **exactly** the values required. . . . No, the little laminated cards are not wrong. . . . The problem is actually much worse. The weakness is, as our attendees recognize, that’s all they are—laminated cards. The noble principles printed on them are empty words, backed by nothing whatsoever.*

How do leaders go beyond the laminated card stage? There are a number of critical steps:

Get employees to articulate and discuss their own personal values and beliefs. As with vision, people who are unclear about their personal values are not likely to feel a strong commitment to any organizational values.

Have employees identify which personal values and beliefs they share broadly. Usually some common values will be readily apparent.

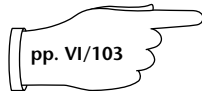
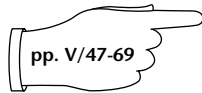
Identify the key behaviors that the shared values or principles imply. This is where the rubber meets the road. Employees must articulate which kinds of behaviors are now valued and which they want to see disappear.

Assess how well the organization follows its values and beliefs. Ask employees to what degree actual behavior in the organization reflects the shared values and behaviors they desire. Use this assessment to make people conscious of the key behaviors that need to be improved and as a benchmark for measuring progress. You can do this as part of a broader organizational assessment.

Identify important organizational barriers to real adoption of the shared values. Sometimes individual managers undermine the shared values because they don’t walk their talk. Sometimes the organization’s administrative control systems undermine them: budgeting, personnel, procurement, and auditing. Unless you are able to change these managers’ behaviors (or remove



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them) and change the offending administrative control systems, all your work on values will be in vain. In fact, it will be worse than useless, because it will create cynicism about your motivations and sincerity.

Reinforce the values. Some organizations use rewards to promote their values—celebrating the desired behaviors. Others, like the Oregon Department of Transportation, train their people in how to make decisions in line with the organization’s values. The Madison Police Department requires such training for promotion.

Connect values and behaviors to real consequences. If people can get away with behaving in ways that violate the organization’s shared values, then articulating these values will make little difference.

Don’t forget about the customers and stakeholders when you articulate values. Some organizations just look inward, at how employees should treat one another, when they think about their values. This is a mistake. It ignores values like customer service, which can transform an organization’s mental models.

RESOURCE ON ARTICULATING VALUES AND BELIEFS

James M. Kouzes and Barry Z. Posner. *The Leadership Challenge*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1995. A good book on leading change, with an excellent chapter on values.

USING NEW LANGUAGE

***Using New Language* replaces the language of bureaucracy—its phrases, metaphors, and vocabulary—with a language that reinforces more entrepreneurial assumptions and ideas.**

Many organizations find that working with new ideas requires them to develop new language, because the very words they use are inextricably linked to their mental models. As Ted Gaebler once said, “Our words will think our thoughts for us, so we’ve got to change our words.”

When Doug Ross became director of the Michigan Department of Commerce in 1984, the state’s economy was in terrible shape. The collapse of the auto industry had triggered prolonged double-digit unemployment. To Ross, economic development was an exciting, noble calling, a challenge that required risk taking and innovation on the part of government. But the Commerce Department he inherited was a classic bureaucracy. Like most public employees, Ross says, the department’s workers had “a bit of an inferiority complex.” They thought of themselves as bureaucrats.



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One way to change people’s mental models, Ross thought, was through their language—the words they used to describe their world. He decided to invent a new language for the department. “We needed some analogies, to help us figure out which behaviors were important,” he remembers. “That’s when we came up with the metaphor of Michigan economically being an industrial park.” Using this image, Ross told the organization that its role was to manage the “industrial park” on behalf of its stockholders, the citizens.

This made it clear that we weren’t the ones that created economic value; that we didn’t run the businesses in the park. Our responsibility was to make sure that the occupancy rate in the park was high enough [and] that it was filled with good-paying jobs so that residents who also lived in the park could be gainfully employed.

As the metaphor took hold, it led to new thinking. “It quickly became clear that we had very specific customers: current tenants of the park and prospective tenants. And therefore, to succeed, we had to become very customer focused.” The department came to see itself as a supplier to businesses; it redesigned its offices “to look more like other businesses that served our customers.” It adopted a slogan—“Our customers are our reason for being”—and put it up on the wall, in huge letters, in the place where people entered the department. It consulted with private development firms to find out how they kept real industrial parks full.

Ted Gaebler used language in exactly the same way when he was city manager of Visalia, California. He wanted people to think more like entrepreneurs than bureaucrats, to ask themselves, “If this were my money, would I spend it this way?” So he talked about the city as a corporation, himself as its CEO, and the council as its board of directors. He used terms like *product lines*, *profit centers*, *business reports*, and *annual corporate report*. “It was important to talk a different language—very important,” he says. “You’ve got to get yourself rid of the tar baby of bureaucratic words and images—get that stuff off of you—before you get more entrepreneurial behavior.”

Total Quality Management and performance management often have a similar impact. People start talking about *customers* and *value-added work* and *outcomes* and *outputs*.

Tips for Using New Language

Don’t impose new language; help the organization develop it. As with any new approach, people will buy into new language far faster if they help develop it themselves. Leaders often need to catalyze this process, but they should seize on and reinforce new words and phrases that employees come up with. They can even devote group sessions, such as parts of retreats, to mutual



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explorations of new language.

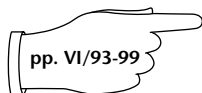
Change the titles people use. In Region 9 of the U.S. Forest Service, employees signed their letters and memos with their team name. The Michigan Commerce Department changed the name it uses to refer to staff members who work with businesses from “industrial agents” to “account representatives.”

Use slogans and mottoes. Just a few well-chosen words can convey deep meaning. In the U.K.’s Employment Service, former chief executive Michael Fogden explained, “We have a phrase: ‘We own the business now.’ Not the bureaucrats or the ministers. It’s our business. We actually made a video called ‘It’s Our Business.’”

Change the organization’s visual language. In 1985, the government of Bromley, a London suburb, created a new visual image for itself. The old image “used a lot of symbols like the coat of arms, which our customers said gave us an old-fashioned and bureaucratic look,” public officials explained. So they had a new corporate logo designed—a bright green brush stroke they call “the Bromley splash.”

Publish a glossary or owner’s manual. The Surrey County Council in England gave employees a glossary about managing change that included 44 unfamiliar words and terms. It included definitions of terms such as *accountable*, *business plan*, *customers*, *mission statement*, *proactive*, *strategic direction*, *values*, and *vision*.

Name the beast. The flip side of this tool is using new language to put names on facets of the organizational culture that people are afraid to discuss. For example, in many organizations distrust is rampant, but most employees consider it too dangerous to discuss, at least with management. Fear is another common taboo, racism a third. When leaders bring taboo subjects like these out into the open, they can make it safe to confront them. Once people begin talking about these things, they lose some of their power and become far easier to change. It is a basic principle of psychology that a person can’t change an aspect of their personality unless they first recognize it and accept it. The same is true of organizations.



IN-HOUSE SCHOOLHOUSES

***In-House Schoolhouses* educate and train change agents to become carriers of the new culture.**

Many organizations train their employees, even if only slightly. But only a few organizations train them to become cultural change agents. This is the purpose of the “in-house schoolhouse.” It is a transformational tool. It does more than provide professional development or job skills training, although both are important. It reorients employees’ thinking about the organization and its work—and prepares them to spread the gospel.



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One of the most impressive examples we know is the Quality Center at the Air Combat Command (ACC). The ACC school has trained thousands of change agents in TQM and leadership. In 1995, for example, more than 600 senior officers attended two courses: a one-day immersion in the organization's leadership philosophy and a two-day session to learn the team approach to quality improvement. A much smaller number of employees spent a week in "train the trainer" classes designed to help them conduct quality training throughout the organization. At least 85 people performed this training function. After they took the courses, they returned to their units and conducted courses.

The in-house schoolhouse was a crucial part of General Michael Loh's effort to change the ACC culture. "We're talking about 150,000 people out there," he said. "You don't do this overnight."

Smaller organizations also create this kind of capacity. The city government in Madison, Wisconsin, ran a series of courses intended, among other things, to make quality improvement principles and practices a part of daily work life for its employees. Although many courses involved basic skill building, others taught the organization's values and quality principles and methods.

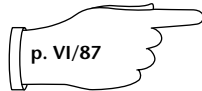
ORIENTING NEW MEMBERS

***Orienting New Members* teaches incoming employees the organization's mission, vision, and values—the basic mental models that are shared throughout the agency.**

In bureaucratic organizations, new employees usually receive some sort of orientation to familiarize them with their job and its duties. Sometimes they get an employee handbook that lays out the organization's rules. But the organization usually makes no effort to familiarize the employee with its governing ideas—its mission, vision, and values.

In entrepreneurial organizations, governing ideas are crucial touchstones for employees new and old. Organizations such as the Phoenix Fire Department, the Sunnyvale city government, and the U.S. Forest Service invest heavily in preparing incoming employees to fit in with the culture they are entering. Some organizations use a formal orientation process—for instance, a day of training on the organization's thinking. Others assign mentors to show new employees the practical and mental ropes of their new workplace. As Chapter Fourteen describes, Phoenix's fire department turns its orientation into a formal ritual.

The best time to shape an employee's mental models is on his or her first day. This is probably the best investment you can make in culture building. Given normal attrition rates of 5–10 percent a year, every seven years you bring in close to half of your employees.



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Notes

All quotations that are not attributed in the text or in these endnotes are from interviews with the authors or their associates. Only in cases where there might be some confusion about the source of a quotation have we indicated in a note that it came from an interview.

Chapter Twenty-Three

- P. VI/100: Roberts quotation: Charlotte Roberts, “Checklist for Personal Values,” in Peter M. Senge et al., *The Fifth Discipline Fieldbook* (New York: Doubleday, 1994), p. 209.
- P. VI/101: Kouzes and Posner quotation: James M. Kouzes and Barry Z. Posner, *The Leadership Challenge: How to Keep Getting Extraordinary Things Done in Organizations* (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1995), p. 212.
- P. VI/109: Creech quotation: Bill Creech, *The Five Pillars of TQM: How to Make Total Quality Management Work for You* (New York: Dutton, 1994), p. 128.
- P. VI/113: Drucker quotation: Peter F. Drucker, *Managing the Non-Profit Organization: Principles and Practices* (New York: HarperBusiness, 1992), p. 4.
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