

Exploring the Link between Performance Information Use and Organizational Performance: A Contingency Approach

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Abstract

This article contributes to a still relatively small body of empirical literature on the relationship between performance management on organizational performance. In particular, it will focus on the effects of performance information use for managerial and oversight purposes. It uses a contingency perspective, arguing that the effect of data use on performance is dependent on other contextual factors. On the one hand, the article finds support for this claim, showing that the impact of managerial information use on performance is stronger if organizations have adopted a prospecting strategy, whereas this effect tends to vanish for reactors. On the other hand, the article finds that the relationship between a principal's data use for oversight purposes and the agent's performance is not contingent on whether the principal is perceived as a monitor or trusted partner. Implications for theory and practice are discussed.

Introduction

Performance management is on the rise. Worldwide an increasing number of public administrations on the local, state, and federal level are adopting performance measurement practices (Bouckaert & Halligan, 2008; Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2011). These include defining efficiency, effectiveness, quality goals and indicators as well as collecting, analyzing, and reporting performance information that allows comparisons over time and with other entities. The idea behind this approach is that performance measurement will make deficits more transparent and that an active management of how to close target-performance gaps will make organizational improvements more likely (Hatry, 2006; Moynihan, 2008; Van Dooren, Bouckaert, and Halligan, 2010).

Though there is a vast literature on output and outcome oriented reforms and the adoption of performance management systems, we know surprisingly little about their actual effects. This led Boyne (2010, p. 217) to conclude that “despite the vast literature that has emerged on performance indicators and performance management, few researchers have sought to test the links between these activities and organizational performance.” There are a handful of very recent studies (all of them appeared after 2010) which explicitly examined the relationship between performance management and organizational effectiveness and which found mixed results (Hvidman & Andersen, 2013; Nielsen, 2014; Poister, Pasha, & Edwards, 2013; Sun & Van Ryzin, 2013; Walker, Damanpour, & Devece, 2011).

One commonality of prior research is that it has mainly focused on the effects of performance measurement. However, there is a growing stream of research putting forward the argument that it is not measurement per se that matters, but whether the reported performance data are incorporated in decision-making. Though these studies focused on data use as the dependent variable, none of them tested the implicitly made assumption that using

performance information actually leads to organizational improvements (Ho, 2006; Kroll & Vogel, 2013; Melkers & Willoughby, 2005; Moynihan & Pandey, 2010; Taylor, 2011; Van Dooren & Van de Walle, 2008). In this respect, Bryson (2012, p. 106) points out that “authors have explored what leads to performance information use, but not the connections between use and actual performance.”

This article aims at bridging these literatures by addressing the following question: Does performance information use for managerial and accountability purposes have an effect on organizational performance, and is this effect contingent on other organizational factors? The article will contribute to the literature by separating the factors “performance measurement” and “information use by decision-makers” and studying their impact on organizational effectiveness.

The utilization of a contingency approach makes this paper unique as it proposes that the effectiveness of performance data use by the managers of an organization is dependent on that organization’s strategy. Data use will have stronger performance effects if an organization focuses on prospecting and, thus, strive for innovation and change. In this case, performance data will be particularly useful because indicators can help operationalizing change and empirical data will help evaluating its success. A different contingency is expected for reacting organizations which aim to be responsive to changing preferences of key stakeholders. Here, the positive impact of performance information is supposed to vanish, because formal performance management practices might be too rigid, bureaucratic, and backwards oriented for organizations which need to be flexible in order to reroute quickly in a dynamic environment.

The second proposition this article puts forward is not related to the data use by an organization’s managers but to the data use by the oversight body which holds that

organization accountable. The argument is that a principal's information use has a positive effect on the agent's performance, but I expect different effects dependent on whether the oversight body has the role of a monitor compared to as a trusted partner.

To test these arguments, the article will use data from a survey of museum managers in Germany, Austria, and Switzerland.¹ It will be a valuable addition to findings mainly drawn from the field of education and schools, and its findings will be transferable to other principal-agent settings outside of a government hierarchy, including the steering of quasi-autonomous agencies and similarly professionalized nonprofit organizations. The article proceeds by sketching a contingency model of performance management. An explanation of the data and methods will be followed by a presentation and discussion of the results before drawing major conclusions at the end.

A Contingency Model of Performance Management

This section will develop a model of how performance management can affect organizational effectiveness. As the article's title indicates, it will to a good extent be explorative. My model will be based on the conceptualization of public organizations as entities that are autonomous but partially accountable to oversight bodies in principle-agent relationships. This is why performance information can be used within organizations for managerial purposes as well as by oversight bodies to hold agents accountable. This section will begin by looking into the effects and contingencies of internal managerial use, followed by a theorization of external use for the purpose of accountability.

¹ The data for this study were collected in a collaboration between the Department of Public and Nonprofit Management at the University of Potsdam (Germany) and Syncwork AG.

Managerial Data Use and Performance

Organizational performance is a complex phenomenon that can be influenced by a number of variables. This is why we could question if organizations' top-level managers have any kind of critical impact. There is qualitative (Ban, 1995; Behn, 1994) and quantitative (Meier & O'Toole, 2009; O'Toole & Meier, 2011) evidence that they do. Meier and O'Toole (2009) reported that top-level managers can account for about 20% of the variation of the output and outcome performance of U.S. school districts. Good public management seems to make a difference. The following paragraphs will review the evidence for the impact of performance management practices, particularly the use of data by public managers.

The idea behind performance management, if we put it simply, is to generate data about the work of public organizations and to use them to improve decision-making. These efficiency and effectiveness data are collected based on ex-ante defined indicators which were chosen to measure the achievement of set goals. Data collection and reporting routines follow this systematic logic. They are supposed to foster communication about goals, and they generate aggregated and time-series target-performance evaluations. Systematically produced performance data can improve and enrich the informational basis for public managers and therefore might lead to better-informed, more accurate decisions (for a conceptual discussion, see Behn, 2012; Hatry, 2006; Van Dooren et al., 2010).

Though most studies included in this review are in agreement with the mechanism described above as to how performance management can foster organizational enhancements, they present conflicting empirical evidence regarding the significance of the performance-management effect. Put differently, after controlling for alternative impact factors, some studies found that performance management has an impact, whereas others reported that this effect vanishes, or that there are even negative side-effects that need to be considered. Boyne

and Chen (2007) have studied target systems in English local education authorities and found a positive effect on performance. Examining variation across time, they have concluded that authorities with targets performed better than those without them and better than themselves in the pre-target period. A similar effect was found by Sun and Van Ryzin (2013) who examined a sample of New York public schools. They discovered that performance measurement practices helped schools to increase the number of students who met the set standards and the number of the lowest third of the students making progress. More positive evidence comes from a study of the U.S. public transit industry which found that the adoption of performance measurement increases ridership and productivity (Poister et al., 2013). A study by Walker et al. (2011), which has examined performance effects in English local government, corroborated such a positive impact, suggesting that performance measurement is an important mediator of other exogenous variables.

However, there are also conflicting empirical results. In a longitudinal study of public and private schools in Denmark, Hvidman and Andersen (2013) have examined differences in student test scores between adopters and non-adopters of performance measurement as well as differences before and after the adoption. They found that performance measurement only has a positive effect for private schools and argue that this is due to differences in incentives, capacity, and goal clarity between both sectors. This null finding is in line with what Moynihan (2008) concluded while studying the Correction Administration in the U.S. – Performance measurement is probably less important to performance than many other organizational factors. But there is even evidence for a negative performance effect. Based on different case studies, Hood (2012) pointed out that target and ranking systems can harm public service performance due to ratchet and threshold effects as well as output distortions. Similarly, Boyne and Gould-Williams (2003) reported that, studying local authorities in

Wales, target setting was found to have a negative impact on several performance dimensions.

Thus far, there seem to be conflicting research findings on the effect under investigation. Considering that performance *management* is the sum of planning and measurement on the one hand (= adoption) and data use on the other (= implementation), it is interesting that studies which found no or a negative effect mostly focused on the adoption part, whereas most of the positive findings were based on measures that incorporated at least one or two items of actual data use (Poister et al., 2013; Sun & Van Ryzin, 2013; Walker et al., 2011). This seems to be a vague indication that the variable “performance information use” might play a critical role in discriminating positive effects from other findings. More evidence for this hypothesis comes from the following two studies. Walker and Boyne (2006) have shown that the adoption of information systems and target regimes is not sufficient to enhance organizational performance, as long as managers have not taken ownership of targets and indicators. Hanushek and Raymond (2005) have analyzed longitudinal data of schools in the U.S. and similarly concluded that accountability systems only have an impact, when managerial consequences are attached to performance reports.

Drawing on this empirical literature, we can infer that there is mixed evidence on the effect of performance measurement. However, this evidence seems to become less ambiguous, when we do not hypothesize the effect of performance measurement but of data use. Using performance information for managerial purposes is likely to be linked to performance improvements more closely than planning, measuring, or analyzing which seem to be necessary but not sufficient conditions of performance improvements.

H₁: Managerial data use has a positive effect on organizational performance.

The Moderating Role of Strategy

Studies which were able to explain differences in organizational performance have suggested that the effect of performance measurement is contingent on several factors. The study by Hvidman and Andersen (2013), mentioned above, has argued that the effect of measurement is dependent on the existence of certain organizational properties, and it found support for the importance of structural differences between public and private sector organizations. Other studies further specified such a contingency hypothesis. Nielsen (2014), who used data from Danish schools, argued that the relationship of measurement and performance is moderated by the authority that is given to managers. Only when they have discretion over human resources in their departments, will they be able to change structures and processes in ways significant enough to improve organizational performance.

The assumption that the success of performance measurement is dependent on several organizational or managerial contingencies seems to be similarly relevant for the case of performance information use. Bryson (2012, p. 106) was probably the first who speculated about one important contextual factor, when he asked: “Should we expect strategy to make a difference in performance information use?” There is reason to believe that it does, and that performance data have a different impact when public organizations pursue different strategies.

A straightforward way to distinguish different strategic stances is to focus on three types of organizations – prospectors, defenders, and reactors (Miles & Snow, 1978, for a review of applications to the public sector, see Boyne & Walker, 2004, 2010). Prospecting describes organizations which actively seek to improve their services through the implementation of innovations and change. Defenders, in contrast, aim for stability and try to deliver their core services efficiently and reliably. Reactors do not pursue an internally

developed strategy but are very much receptive to signals from their environment and to preferences of important stakeholders. Though these strategies are not completely mutually exclusive, organizations tend to follow one of these approaches more distinctively than the others (Boyne & Walker, 2004). Empirical research has shown that prospectors and defenders can be positively associated with organizational performance, whereas reactors were found to be less successful (e.g., Andrews et al., 2005, 2009; Andrews, Boyne, & Walker, 2006a; Boyne & Walker, 2010). However, there are also indications that these effects are contingent on factors, such as organizational centralization or environmental stability (Meier et al., 2007; Meier & O'Toole, 2009).

Performance information might be particularly helpful to organizations which pursue prospecting strategies. Prospectors systematically plan and implement change, and performance management systems are known to be useful for this purpose. They require the analysis of the status quo, the formulation of goals, the identification of indicators to measure goal achievement, and the collection and evaluation of performance information (Hatry, 2006; Van Dooren et al., 2010). We also know that public organizations which strive for innovation value performance data a great deal, because these data highlight problems and provide feedback on how well change projects are going (Johansson & Siverbo, 2009; Moynihan & Pandey, 2010). Prospectors search for new approaches for doing old things, and performance management allows systematic trial-and-error learning (Moynihan, 2008). The long-term tracking of results makes it possible to try out different strategies on how to improve outcomes and to sort out which way is the most effective. Prior research has shown that prospectors (in the public sector) are successful when their organizations are highly centralized and their environments largely stable because in such settings managerial decisions can be made more efficiently (due to less transaction costs) and planning becomes easier (since many variables become constants) (Meier & O'Toole, 2009). Such settings also

seem to be ideal for the implementation of performance management practices. Centralization ensures that performance indicators are integrated and related to an organization's strategic plan, and stable environments make it is easier to develop accurate logic models about program causalities. This I why I hypothesize that using performance information and prospecting strategies are a good fit.

Performance information can be similarly important for defenders, but the reasoning is different here. In practice, a large amount of performance data is on efficiency and internal processes (Boyne, 2002). Performance measurement has even been criticized for being too narrow and organization-centered (Wichowsky & Moynihan, 2008). Defenders benefit from collecting internal information, as this will be useful for them to implement their strategy of optimizing core services and improving on their strengths.

This is different for reactors, because such a strategy seems to be at odds with the performance management logic. To be successful at reacting, predefining goals and tracking their achievement is counterproductive. Reactors need to remain flexible, when they make operational decisions, so they can scan their environment for relevant signals and revise action plans quickly when stakeholder preferences change. Though these organizations also seek for feedback information, it is unlikely that they will find this in "historical" information systems (Mintzberg, 1973). Instead, they might be interested in "nonroutine feedback" (Kroll, 2013a), which is most likely to be verbal, ad-hoc, and often not actively pursued but passively received. In other words, getting relevant information through networking could be more important for reactors than analyzing quantitative data from benchmarking or scorecards. This is why the effect of performance information use on performance should be significantly weaker for reacting organizations.

H₂: The effect of managerial data use on performance increases when organizations pursue a prospecting strategy.

H₃: The effect of managerial data use on performance increases when organizations pursue a defending strategy.

H₄: The effect of managerial data use on performance decreases when organizations pursue a reacting strategy.

Data Use by Oversight Bodies and the Role of Trust and Monitoring

Performance information is not only used by managers but also by stakeholders, such as politicians, citizens, or interest groups (Van Dooren & Van de Walle, 2008). This section will focus on the organization-external use by oversight bodies for the purpose of accountability. Prior research has argued that just the production of performance reports can already increase the accountability of public organizations because this “keeps public servants honest” (Pollitt, 2006, p. 49). However, accountability will further increase if oversight bodies do not only file their agents’ performance reports but actually use them for controlling purposes (Van Dooren et al., 2010). Performance data can help principals track how agents do, and they can serve as a basis for well-informed interventions. For example, one great challenge for oversight bodies is to determine whether agents perform as well as possible or whether there is still potential for improvement. Here, performance information is useful for creating points of reference: How has the agent been doing over the past five years, and how does the agent perform compared with benchmark organizations (Hatry, 2006)? Hence, I assume that agents will perform well if oversight bodies pay serious attention to their performance data.

Using a contingency perspective, we could expect this effect to vary based on the existence of other factors. One critical variable that might be able to moderate the effect of data use is the nature of the relationship between principal and agent, usually modeled using either agency or stewardship theory (Van Slyke, 2007). Agency theory assumes information

asymmetries and therefore opportunistic behavior on the part of the agents. To correct this, principals need to set up hard contracts and strict monitoring mechanisms (Eisenhardt, 1989; Jensen & Meckling, 1996). Stewardship theory, in contrast, assumes that principals and agents share collective goals, and that the latter are motivated by higher values and intrinsic rewards. The relationship between principals and agents is therefore determined by trust and reputation (Davis, Schoorman, & Donaldson, 1997).

Applying these theoretical lenses, we would expect performance data to be more critical where an oversight body takes on the role of a monitor. To avoid moral hazard on the part of a self-interested agent, oversight bodies can use performance information to tightly monitor goal achievement and intervene quickly when problems arise (Merchant & Van der Stede, 2007). This might be different where the relationship between principal and agent can be characterized as an equal partnership determined by trust and collective goals. Though oversight bodies will still be responsible for controlling their agents, they might make use of different mechanisms, and formal performing reports are likely to play a minor role. Instead, principals will affect agents' behavior through "belief systems" (Simons, 1995) and "clan control" (Ouchi, 1979), where an informal information system "grows up as a natural by-product of social interaction" (Ouchi, 1979, 839).

H₅: External data use by oversight bodies has a positive effect on performance.

H₆: The effect of external data use on performance increases when the oversight body takes on the role of a monitor.

H₇: The effect of external data use on performance decreases when the oversight body takes on the role of a trusted partner.

Data and Methods

Sample

The data for this study are taken from a survey of museum managers from Germany, Austria, and the German-speaking part of Switzerland which was conducted in 2011. The population consisted of all museums in cities with more than 50,000 inhabitants – except for the museums of local history and galleries. The questionnaire was not addressed to the museum directors but the chief administrative officers, because the latter are in charge of all internal management issues, except marketing-related questions. The population of interest included 397 chief administrative officers, and the response rate reached a level of 45%. Not all of these respondents could be considered for the statistical analysis because of missing data (list-wise deletion was applied). Due to differences in country size, there are more museums in Germany than in Austria or Switzerland, which is why the vast majority of responses (more than 80%) in the sample is from German museums. Most museums are in public ownership (80%) and are therefore held directly accountable by public oversight bodies on the federal, state, or local level. The other 20% are either in mixed or private ownership.

The surveyed population is an interesting sample for many reasons. First of all, most research in this area has been based on data from schools and students. Using a different setting will help separate the idiosyncrasies of one policy field, such as education, from findings which can be better generalized for a theory of performance management. Secondly, this sample will offer insights about the role of performance information in principal-agent relationships outside of a government hierarchy. Considering that steering nonprofit organizations, agencies, and quasi-autonomous non-governmental organizations (QUANGOS) has become a hot topic (Van Slyke, 2007; Verhoest et al., 2011), the museum

case seems to become even more interesting. Thirdly, the sample consists of data from three European countries which differ in terms of administrative culture, rules, and governance arrangements. That is, effects that hold across all three countries are likely to have good external validity.

This paragraph will briefly provide some context about the management of museums in Germany, Austria, and Switzerland. Due to budget constraints during the past couple of years, it has become more and more difficult for museums in all three countries to acquire public money. To avoid budget reductions, museums needed to increase their funding coming from donations and sponsoring and show that they have been using their funds efficiently and effectively. In particular, the attempt to make results transparent led to the adoption of performance measurement. Important metrics include the number of newly acquired art objects, number of restorations, quality and quantity of the portfolio, number of special exhibitions, or the quality of educational services (Proeller et al., 2012). With regard to the differences among countries, Switzerland is known to be an early adopter of performance-management practices, compared to the other two countries – though there is also a good amount of variation among the sixteen German states.

Measures and Controls

All measures can be found in the appendix, but the more complex ones will be explained here. Organizational performance was measured based on perceptual items (for similar approaches, see Brewer, 2005; Brewer & Selden, 2000; Moynihan & Pandey, 2005; Pandey & Moynihan, 2006). Though perceptual measures are usually associated with the problem of subjectivity, they are not necessarily inferior to archival indicators (Andrews, Boyne, & Walker, 2006b). Advantages of a manager-based perceptual measure of

performance are that “it relies on the views of those who know the agency best, and does not extrapolate organizational performance from highly specified programmatic measures or rely on one set of stakeholder perspectives to extrapolate organizational performance” (Pandey & Moynihan, 2006, p. 137). Another advantage of rather abstract, subjective measures is that they are more inclusive: They are better able to pick up on performance changes that are difficult to capture by very specific, quantitative indicators and are thus less cognitively biased towards targeted areas at the expense of non-targeted ones.

The museum managers were asked to rate the success of their museum regarding the four dimensions collecting, preserving, researching, and exhibiting on a 5-point Likert scale.² These dimensions were chosen because they were established by the International Council of Museums (ICOM) as important performance dimensions, and most museum managers are familiar with them. The scales’ endpoints were labeled “1 = improvement potential is great” and “5 = improvement potential is fully exhausted”. Thereby, labels like “very poor versus very good performance” or “completely ineffective versus completely effective” which have strong normative connotations and might trigger a social-desirability bias were avoided. This procedure resulted in a fairly good statistical variation of all performance dimensions. All means scatter around the middle category of three (2.70 – 3.50), and the standard deviations of all performance variables seem to be not essentially different from those of other variables measured on a 5-point scale.³

² For more details, please see the appendix.

³ This measure could be biased due to the fact that some managers might be more reflective and self-critical than others. To test whether variation in perceived organizational performance can be explained by differences in respondent characteristics, the following regression model was presented to the reviewers. Performance was regressed on four available individual variables: risk aversion, educational background in business, business-related additional qualifications, and work experience. The analysis showed that these individual-level variables explained 0% (Adj. R²) of the variance in performance. Though this does not prove that there cannot be any respondent-related bias in the subjective measure of performance, it at least indicates that we can expect this bias to be small rather than large.

[Table 1]

To construct an overall measure of organizational performance, I used a factor score that accounts for all four performance dimensions (eigenvalue: 2.12; explained variance: 53%). Its Cronbach's alpha of 0.62 indicates that all items are only moderately correlated, which makes sense if we consider that improvements in one performance dimension do not automatically lead to improvements in other dimensions but could even be achieved at the expense of each other. The factor score takes each item's uniqueness into account and weighs them according to the loadings reported in the appendix.⁴

There are different means by which to measure performance information use. Previous studies found different purposeful data uses to be highly correlated, indicating that it is possible to reflect this behavior by just using single items (de Lancer Julnes & Holzer, 2001; Moynihan & Pandey, 2010). The broadest form of data use is to consider this information when making decisions. Following this understanding, taking performance information into account but deciding not to act on it is still considered data use. Such a "performance-informed decision-making" (OECD, 2007, p. 21; Pollitt, 2006) is based on the assumption that performance reports are only one management source among others and are not likely to contain all decision-relevant information. Thus, managers should consider these data, but we cannot expect that they guide every single of their decisions (Kroll, 2013a). To measure whether museum directors and managers as well as their oversight bodies use performance data to inform their decisions, the survey respondents were asked how they assess the demand for performance data by these different actors. The results of a factor analysis in the

⁴ We can see there that the first three items reflect the shared latent factor quite well, whereas the fourth one has been weighed much lower. This can be explained by the fact that most museums ranked their own "exhibiting" performance relatively high, which is why this item is only partly useful to distinguish between good and bad performers.

appendix show that internal data use by managers and directors on the one hand and data use by oversight bodies on the other are statistically different from each other. The strategic stances were measured using three single items adapted from Andrews, Boyne, and Walker (2006). To capture different control mechanisms, the museum managers were asked to evaluate the role of their oversight body.

To robustly test the proposed hypotheses, I will control for a number of variables which were found to be relevant in prior research (Boyne et al., 2006; O'Toole & Meier, 2011; Walker, Boyne, & Brewer, 2010). In order to separate the effect of managerial data use from a broader measure of performance management, I will control for the sophistication of the measurement system. Further controls are the adoption of several "modern" management tools, the existence of support resources as well as differences in size (see appendix). To account for broader cultural differences, I will include a widely used item from Zammuto and Krakower's (1991) scale, which has proven to discriminate well between more and less innovative organizations (Kroll, 2013a; Moynihan & Pandey, 2005). The variables "support resources" and "organization size" both were included as ordinal measures to avoid information loss and multicollinearity. However, the results in table 2 would not change if we included all variable categories as dummies. All interaction terms were generated as the multiplied scores of the mean-centered individual variables.

Estimations

All models in table 2 are based on ordinary least square regressions. The first model shows the results of the main effects, while the others provide the findings of the moderated effects models, beginning with managerial data use which is followed by oversight use. The moderated effects can be interpreted as follows. For each one-unit increase in the moderator,

the slope relating performance information use to organizational performance increases/decreases by the reported coefficient, while holding all other variables constant (Whisman & McClelland, 2005).

Since it is possible (and quite realistic) that museums engaging in prospecting also engage, at least to some extent, in defending or reacting (the correlations of these variables are 0.21, 0.27, and 0.44, see table 1), the effect of one strategy can only be properly tested, while controlling for those of the other two. This is also true when testing these variables' interaction effects, meaning that we always need to simultaneously include all related interaction terms in our regression equation, if we want to get proper estimates for each individual moderation (Jaccard & Turrisi, 2003). The same applies to the two variables which measure perceptions of the oversight body; they are not mutually exclusive and thus need to be statistically controlled. Effects were fixed at the country level but turned out to be insignificant. This indicates that the results hold across all three countries.

One concern with models which are based on moderate samples sizes is that they might not have enough statistical power to detect effects of smaller magnitudes to be significant and thus are prone to so-called type-II errors. This is because standard errors are in part a function of the number of observations and increase with smaller samples. To avoid dismissing effects as irrelevant, just because they have not reached a significance level of 0.05 in a small sample, the article will make use of a more relaxed threshold of 0.1 (which is appropriate as it still corresponds to a 5% chance of being wrong when using a one-tailed test).

Results and Discussion

Table 2 displays the results of the analysis. Hypothesis 1 cannot be supported. Museums where managers have reported intense use of performance information do not perform better than others. Across all models managerial use as well as the variable performance measurement have no significant effects. This is interesting, as it does not lend support to the argument that data use is more closely linked to good performance than data production. At the same time, this null finding is not entirely surprising when taking the mixed results for the effect of performance measurement seriously, which I summarized in the literature review. Though I do not want to overstate this null result, I think we can cautiously suggest that measuring performance and making use of the reported data for managerial purposes is not sufficient to explain differences between better and worse performing museums.

The next three hypotheses deal with the contingencies of this effect when taking different strategic stances into account, and they are tested in model 2. Hypothesis 2 can be confirmed. The second model shows that the effect of managerial data use on performance significantly increases when organizations pursue a prospecting strategy. In technical terms, this means that with each one-unit increase in prospecting, the effect of managerial data use on performance will increase by 0.28. This gets even more interesting when we consider that such an interaction does not hold for defending organizations, which is why hypothesis 3 cannot be validated. Both findings together seem to indicate that to be successful, performance management requires to be paired with a strategy that emphasizes a new vision, better outcomes for clients or, simply put, substantial change. It is less successful when only used to cut costs or to optimize existing processes without challenging the assumptions behind established activities.

Hypothesis 4 finds support – museums pursuing a reacting strategy are significantly less likely to be successful when their managers engage in performance management practices. This is, again, evidence for the importance of including contingency factors when studying complex control regimes, such as performance management. Rational planning, measuring, and data using activities seem to be harmful to organizations when these have to be receptive to fast changing input by multiple stakeholders. In these cases, formalized performance management routines might be too inflexible and thus counterproductive.

Model 3 and 4 provide further specifications in order to test the robustness of these results. Model 3 indicates that the model fit (difference in F values) improves significantly ($p < 0.1$) if we add the prospector and reactor interaction terms, while neglecting the defender variable which did not provide clear results. Model 4 is based on a more parsimonious regression equation. In order to conserve observations and minimize the number of missing values, it only focuses on managerial data use and includes those controls which turned out to be significant in prior models. It provides evidence that the moderating effects of prospecting and reacting are still significant, even for this larger sample of museums.⁵

[Table 2]

⁵ Examining the marginal effects plots (not displayed but shown to the reviewers) for the interactions reveals some additional information. Levels of prospecting do not only increase the effect of data use on performance, the marginal effect actually changes its sign. For low levels of prospecting (2 on a 5-point Likert scale), the effect of data use on performance is significant negative, whereas for high levels (5 on a 5-point Likert scale) this effect is significant positive. A significant amount of museums (about 40%) scored either 2 or 5 on this scale. This is a little different for the moderating effect of reacting. Though we can be certain that a reacting strategy decreases the effect of data use on performance, this effect's change in direction is not significant. That is, when the level of reacting increases from 1 to 2 or from 2 to 3 (on a 5-point Likert scale), the slope relating data use to performance decreases significantly but remains positive (this is relevant for about 55% of the museums). When the reactor score increases from 3 to 4 and from 4 to 5, the average marginal effect of data use decreases further and becomes negative, but its confidence interval includes zero.

Turning to hypothesis 5, we get a surprising result. Contrary to what was expected, the relationship between data use by the oversight body and the museums' performance is significantly negative across all models. This could mean that more intense information use on the part of the principals makes the agents perform worse, but the following reading seems to be more plausible. Looking at this relationship from a reversed perspective, we could conclude that when museums perform poorly, oversight bodies will increase their performance data use and control the museums more tightly. Though such control behavior has already been reported elsewhere (Jensen & Meckling, 1992; Merchant & Van der Stede, 2007), an interesting finding is that public administration actively uses performance information for that matter and does not limit itself to more established mechanisms, such as steering through rules and standards, personnel controls, the re-allocation of decision rights, or belief systems and values (Simons, 1995). This is particularly noteworthy when we consider that this result holds across three continental European countries, where performance management is not as common as it is in the Anglo-American world.

Hypotheses 6 and 7 do not hold – the relationship between performance and data use by oversight bodies is not significantly moderated by the nature of this relationship (see model 5). Though this disconfirms some of the theoretical ideas presented earlier in this article, it still offers relevant empirical insights. Performance information is not more relevant for monitoring purposes as it is in trust-based partnerships. Some studies have even suggested that the positive effects of the “soft” use of these data for trial-and-error learning can only occur when there is an open dialogue between equal partners (Moynihan, 2008; Van Dooren, 2011). Though my results do not provide clear support for the moderating role of either type of principal-agent relationship, it is noteworthy that museums generally perform significantly better when their oversight body is perceived as a partner compared to as a monitor (this refers to the direct effects of both variables and holds across all models).

A look at the control variables indicates that performance management – may it be measurement, use, or the contingencies of use – does not make all the difference. Instead, we shall not forget that there are many other factors that can come into play and have a significant influence. Support resources necessary to ensure that management information is of reasonable quality and is needed to analyze and make sense of raw data. A similarly positive effect was found for an innovative organizational culture. Organization size is negatively associated with performance, which might indicate that larger museums might also have greater expectations of what they need to achieve (e.g., in terms of research collaborations or the quality and quantity of the portfolio).

This study has some limitations which need to be kept in mind when generalizing the results. One of these is that managerial data use was conceptualized as individual behavior by the museum director or the chief administrative officer. However, there is prior research from which we could infer that data use is likely to make a difference, when it has become collectively internalized as an organizational routine (Argyris & Schön, 1996; Levitt & March, 1988). Capturing such a routine, however, would require using a multiple informant survey in order collect reliable data which goes beyond the scope of this particular study.

Another limitation is that this study's data were all collected from the same source which could lead to common method bias. Though such a bias might always be to some extent existent, research on this phenomenon has shown that it is unlikely to fully inflate or deflate the results (Crampton & Wagner, 1994). Moreover, several indicators suggest that a common source bias does not dominate this article's findings. Perceptual measures most likely to be prone to such a bias, like organizational performance, performance information use, or the strategic stances, are only marginally correlated. Even when including all interactions in one model, the variance inflation factors do not exceed a level of 2.68 (values below three are usually treated as unproblematic). Another reason why I think we can trust

the statistical analysis I presented in this article is that we do not have to reject the OLS assumptions about normality ($p=0.90$) and homogeneity ($p=0.59$, IM-test).

Conclusion

This article has explored the relationship between performance management and organizational performance, and it thereby contributes to a growing literature on one of the most relevant but still least understood causalities in this area. It has been novel as it separated the effect of data use (implementation) from data collection (adoption) and theorized how managers and oversight bodies use performance information. It has also provided empirical data from three European countries on the management of museums, from which we can draw lessons for principal-agent relationships between public administration and other service providers which are similarly autonomous and professionalized. The article used a theoretical perspective that is based on the assumption that managing public organizations is complex, and that causalities are highly dependent on context. It found that a performance effect of managerial data use is contingent on the strategy organizations pursue, meaning that this effect increases for prospectors and decreases for reactors.

In a broader sense, this article contributes to an ongoing performance management debate as it provides empirical evidence against a one-size-fits-all logic. Though others have argued before that the success of performance management is likely to differ among organizations, this article further qualifies such a hypothesis. It might be true that every organization's idiosyncrasies matter, but in order to move towards generalizable theories, it seems to be promising to develop and test contingency hypotheses which are supposed to hold for more than one organization. This article showed that strategy matters and that the effectiveness of performance information use is contingent on an organizations strategic

stance. One purpose of the article is to encourage research on other contingency factors, such as environmental turbulences, organizational structure, or resource dependencies.

There are some conclusions for the practice of public management. Performance management seems to be particularly effective, when public organizations have chosen a strategy striving for change. Adopting and implementing these systems is more likely to pay off, when they are used to track the achievement of innovative, stretching, and meaningful goals. They will be less effective if only used as a new way to manage old objectives, without using this tool as an opportunity to question established assumptions and routines. The results further indicate that performance management can harm the success of reacting strategies. This does not mean that reactors do not need performance data, but they might need a different type of feedback. Kroll (2013a) explains that “nonroutine performance information” is more timely and richer than “routine management data” and thus might be appealing to decision-makers who act in a dynamic, pluralistic environment. Simons (1995) emphasizes the importance of “interactive control systems” which are less static than hierarchical planning-and-monitoring-based systems and rather aim for dialogue and learning, while involving organizational members from several hierarchical levels.

Overall, this article suggests the following to practitioners. First, managers have to determine what their strategy is and which type of information they will need to implement and evaluate it. Then, they will need to decide whether performance management is able to provide the needed information, or to what extent standardized measurement, analysis, and reporting practices have to be adapted in order to serve the specific needs of their organization. In cases where organizations are not free to decide whether they will collect performance data, measurement is most likely to have positive performance effects, when organizations are able to find ways how to make externally initiated systems usable for internal management purposes (Kroll, 2013b; Moynihan, 2008).

The article also pointed out that we need more research on performance information use in principal-agent relationships. Data utilization for managerial purposes has received most of the attention thus far, but we could probably think of at least as many relevant examples where performance information is mainly used by stakeholders to hold public organizations and their managers accountable. The fact that the article's findings regarding the relationship between principal and agent as a contingency of a performance management system's effectiveness were inconclusive should encourage research on this issue rather than end it. Sorting out which of the two variables, a principal's performance information use and an agent's performance, is exogenous or endogenous particularly calls for longitudinal research which would include panel data analyses but also case studies. After all, studying the effectiveness of performance data use means to examine the purposes of internal management as well as external accountability, and prior research has rather focused on the former and neglected the latter.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

	Mean	SD	Min- Max	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)
1. Organizational Performance	11.99	3.02	4-20	1.00											
2. PI Use by Manager	8.55	1.74	2-10	0.10	1.00										
3. PI Use by Oversight Body	6.34	2.52	2-10	-0.08	0.29	1.00									
4. Prospector	4.04	0.88	1-5	0.09	0.25	0.11	1.00								
5. Defender	3.73	0.86	1-5	0.16	0.23	0.08	0.21	1.00							
6. Reactor	3.43	0.83	1-5	0.03	0.23	0.01	0.44	0.27	1.00						
7. Oversight Body Monitor	4.10	0.90	1-5	-0.02	0.15	0.21	0.04	0.11	0.16	1.00					
8. Oversight Body Partner	3.06	1.12	1-5	0.26	0.10	0.15	0.20	0.19	-0.04	-0.01	1.00				
9. Modern Management	9.12	2.71	1-14	-0.05	0.26	0.27	0.02	0.00	-0.03	0.18	-0.04	1.00			
10. Performance Measurement	12.79	3.94	4-20	0.03	0.51	0.56	0.28	0.19	0.14	0.21	0.06	0.49	1.00		
11. Support Resources	1.73	0.79	1-4	0.06	0.03	0.18	0.00	-0.07	-0.10	0.08	0.09	0.26	0.23	1.00	
12. Innovative Culture	3.33	1.13	1-5	0.27	0.20	0.13	0.43	0.26	0.37	-0.02	0.14	0.12	0.31	-0.01	1.00
13. Organization Size	2.44	1.38	1-6	-0.07	0.03	0.12	-0.03	-0.05	-0.13	0.18	-0.01	0.26	0.17	0.62	-0.11

For a better illustration, all factors have been treated as additive indices in the first three columns of this table.

Table 2: OLS Regressions of Organizational Performance

	Main Effects (1)	Moderated Effects			Oversight Use of PI (5)	
		Managerial Use of PI		(4) Parsimonious Model		
		(2) Full Model	(3) Significant Moderators			
Performance Measurement	0.04 (0.17)	0.05 (0.18)	0.04 (0.18)	-0.12 (0.14)	0.02 (0.17)	
PI Use by Manager	0.12 (0.12)	0.12 (0.12)	0.13 (0.11)	0.04 (0.06)	0.10 (0.12)	
PI Use by Oversight Body	-0.28** (0.10)	-0.24** (0.10)	-0.24** (0.10)		-0.26** (0.11)	
Prospector	-0.05 (0.15)	0.01 (0.15)	0.01 (0.15)	0.07 (0.12)	-0.04 (0.16)	
Defender	0.09 (0.13)	0.06 (0.12)	0.06 (0.12)	0.14 (0.11)	0.11 (0.13)	
Reactor	-0.11 (0.17)	-0.14 (0.16)	-0.14 (0.16)	-0.16 (0.15)	-0.13 (0.18)	
Oversight Body Perceived as Monitor	0.10 (0.12)	0.11 (0.12)	0.11 (0.12)		0.06 (0.12)	
Oversight Body Perceived as Partner	0.23** (0.09)	0.26** (0.08)	0.25** (0.08)		0.19* (0.09)	
Controls						
Modern Management	-0.05 (0.04)	-0.06 (0.04)	-0.06 (0.04)		-0.05 (0.05)	
Support Resources	0.42** (0.20)	0.48** (0.18)	0.48** (0.18)	0.28* (0.17)	0.42** (0.20)	
Innovative Culture	0.34** (0.11)	0.34** (0.11)	0.34** (0.11)	0.26** (0.09)	0.34** (0.11)	
Organization Size	-0.23** (0.10)	-0.26** (0.09)	-0.26** (0.09)	-0.14* (0.08)	-0.24** (0.10)	
Intercept	-1.22 (0.99)	-1.25 (0.95)	-1.25 (0.95)	-1.57 (0.84)*	-1.00 (1.00)	
Interactions with PI Use						
PI Use Manager X Prospector		0.28** (0.12)	0.28** (0.12)	0.11** (0.05)		
PI Use Manager X Defender		-0.03 (0.12)		-0.01 (0.07)		
PI Use Manager X Reactor		-0.25** (0.12)	-0.25** (0.12)	-0.15** (0.06)		
PI Use OB X Oversight Body Monitor					-0.17 (0.12)	
PI Use OB X Oversight Body Partner					-0.07 (0.08)	
	<i>n</i>	101	101	101	130	101
	<i>Adj. R</i> ²	0.178	0.201	0.210	0.079	0.177
	<i>F</i>	4.26**	4.57**	4.89**	2.94**	4.07**
	$P(F_{moderated} - F_{main} > 0)$		0.14	0.06	—	—

Unstandardized coefficients; robust standard errors are reported in parentheses; * p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05 (two-tailed tests); effects were fixed at the country level.

Appendix: Measures

Variable	Operationalizations			
Organizational Performance (factor)	How successful do you think your museum is? Is there potential for improvement?			Loadings
	• Collecting (e.g. number of newly acquired art objects, stringency of collection conception)			0.717
	• Preserving (e.g. number of restorations, quality and quantity of the portfolio)			0.765
	• Researching (e.g. number of scientific publications, participation in research projects)			0.715
	• Exhibiting and knowledge transfer (e.g. number of special exhibitions, quality of educational services)			0.521
	(1 = improvement potential is great, 5 = improvement potential is fully exhausted)			
Performance Measurement (factor)	To what extent are the following types of performance data measured, analyzed, and reported in your museum?			Loadings
	• Cost accounting data			0.678
	• Information on target-performance evaluations			0.806
	• Output data			0.768
	• Data from visitor surveys			0.650
	(1 = not at all; 5 = a great deal)			
Performance Information Use by Managers (M) and Oversight Body (OB) (factors)	To what extent do the following actors demand performance information?			
	• Museum Director	0.937		0.094
	• External Oversight Body	0.066		0.852
	• Internal Oversight Body	-0.055		0.901
	• Chief Administrative Officer of the Museum	0.851		0.123
	(1 = not at all; 5 = entirely)			
Strategic Stances	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • We have focused on change and have tried to evolve. (Prospector) • We have concentrated on our strengths. (Defender) • We have reacted to the demands of our environment and adapted to them. (Reactor) (1 = not at all; 5 = entirely)			
Perception of Oversight Body	We perceive our oversight body as a ... <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • partner • monitor (1 = not at all; 5 = entirely)			
Modern Management (formative index)	Has your museum adopted the following instruments? accrual accounting, cost accounting, internal budgeting, human capital accounting, external target agreements, benchmarking with other museums, performance indicators, Balance Scorecard, internal target agreements, reorganization of organizational structure or processes, mission statement, strategic planning, action planning, strategic analysis instruments (SWOT, portfolio, stakeholder, or scenario analysis) (0 = no, 1 = yes)			
Support Resources	How many people work as management support staff in your museum? 1 = <2, 2 = 3-5, 3 = 6-10, 4 = >10			
Innovative Culture	Our museum is dynamic and entrepreneurial. People are willing to stick their necks out and take risks. (1 = not at all; 5 = entirely)			
Public Ownership	Who owns your museum? 1 = the public, 0 = others			
Organization Size	How many people work for your museum? 1 < 20, 2 = 20-50, 3 = 51-100, 4 = 101-150, 5 = 151-200, 6 = >200			

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