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### **Developing a frame of reference for** *ex-ante* **IT/IS investment** evaluation

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> Investment appraisal techniques are an integral part of many traditional capital budgeting processes. However, the adoption of Information Systems (IS) and the development of resulting infrastructures are being increasingly viewed on the basis of consumption. Consequently, decision-makers are now moving away from the confines of rigid capital budgeting processes, which have traditionally compared IS with non-ISrelated investments. With this in mind, the authors seek to dissect investment appraisal from the broader capital budgeting process to allow a deeper understanding of the mechanics involved with IS justification. This analysis presents conflicting perspectives surrounding the scope and sensitivity of traditional appraisal methods. In contributing to this debate, the authors present taxonomies of IS benefit types and associated natures, and discuss the resulting implications of using traditional appraisal techniques during the IS planning and decision-making process. A *frame of reference* that can be used to navigate through the variety of appraisal methods available to decision-makers is presented and discussed. Taxonomies of appraisal techniques that are classified by their respective characteristics are also presented. Perspectives surrounding the degree of involvement that financial appraisal should play during decision making and the limitations surrounding investment appraisal techniques are identified.

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#### Introduction

Organisational reliance on Information Technology (IT)/Information Systems (IS) continues to grow and is in part reflected by the large sums of money being spent on its adoption. The World Information Technology Services Alliance (WITSA, 2000) reported that the global information and communications industry surpassed the US\$2 trillion mark in 2000, and predicts it reaching the US\$3 trillion level by 2004. It therefore appears reasonable to suggest that there may be an increased reliance on capital budgeting as a management process for allocating finances to the implementation of new technology. However, this is often not the case, with the adoption of IT/IS increasingly being viewed by managers as a process of consumption rather than capital expenditure, therefore, often placing the justification of IT/IS outside the confines of traditional budgeting processes, albeit with varying degrees of reliance on investment appraisal techniques.

The scope and limitations of investment appraisal techniques are widely reported in the accounting and finance literature (eg Sundem & Geijsbeck, 1978; Scap-

ens & Sales, 1981; Gurnami, 1984; Lumby, 1993). In 80 addition, various empirical studies reporting the use of 81 appraisal techniques for the purpose of ex-ante invest-82 ment evaluation have also been discussed in the IS litera-83 ture (eg Lefley & Sarkis 1997; Ballantine & Stray, 1998, 84 1999<aq1>; Arribas & Inchusta 1999; Anandarajan & 85 Wen 1999). However, Small & Chen (1995) report that 86 large numbers of companies find the evaluation process 87 confusing and without consensus on what constitutes 88 meaningful appraisal. Such opinions are not isolated and 89 have also been echoed by Farbey et al (1993), Smith-90 son & Hirschheim (1998), Remenyi et al (2000) and 91 Irani & Love (2001). It is in exploring and then classify-92 ing the scope and sensitivity of the plethora of appraisal 93 techniques available to decision-makers where this paper 94 will make a contribution to the normative literature. 95

The paper commences by describing the stages 96 involved in capital budgeting and in doing so, allowing 97 the reader to position investment appraisal within the 98 broader budgeting process. The purposes of investment 99 appraisal together with the objectives that it serves are 100 then highlighted. This is followed by a discussion about 101 the conflicting perspectives and limitations associated 102 with using traditional appraisal methods. A 'frame of 103 reference' that can be used to navigate through the var-104 iety of appraisal methods available to decision-makers 105 is presented and discussed. Taxonomies of appraisal 106

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techniques that are classified by their respective characteristics are also presented. Perspectives surrounding the degree of involvement that financial appraisal should play during decision making and the limitations surrounding investment appraisal techniques are identified.

### Capital budgeting: management decision making

Butler et al (1993) describe capital budgeting as a process whereby organisational resources are allocated in the anticipation of future gains. Slagmulder et al (1995) describe capital budgeting within many large organisations, proceeding from the bottom-up. That is, companies are assumed to let investment proposals *bubble-up* from grass-root levels for review by divisional management. Then, this may be followed by a more detailed analysis at a senior management level. Anthony et al (1984) identify the following steps as integral to capital budgeting, with the authors summarising these largely bureaucratic stages and presenting them in Figure 1.

- project innovator(s) identify a project need, which is . detailed within an investment proposal;
- divisional management reviews the proposal and

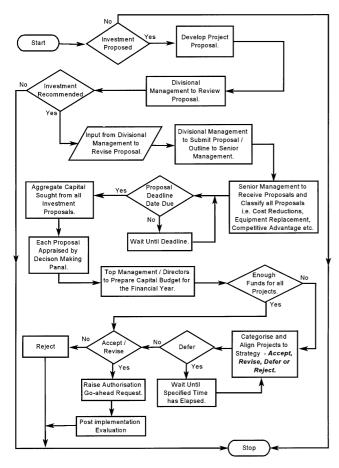


Figure 1 Capital budgeting process.

submits recommendations; along with a project outline, to senior management;

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- investment proposals are then classified and prior-. 131 itised under appropriate headings; cost reductions, 132 equipment replacement, competitive advantage, etc; 133
- investment proposals from each department are then 134 aggregated into a capital budget which is usually pre-135 pared once a year; 136
- individual projects are then appraised, and revised if necessary, based on the comments from the 138 decision-makers;
- directors prepare a capital budget, by appraising 140 individual projects as well as identifying the total 141 amount of funds requested; 142
- projects are then revised, deleted, or deferred, based on the budget available;
- authorisation requests are then prepared for the successful project(s); and
- post-implementation audits are carried out once the 147 system has been operational, to identify the level of 148 cost and benefit realisation. 159

### Positioning investment appraisal within the capital budgeting process

One of the most widely criticised activities conducted 153 by accountants during capital budgeting concerns their 154 use of investment appraisal techniques (Meredith & 155 Suresh, 1986; Dugdale & Jones, 1995). Nonetheless, it 156 is worthwhile to consider the reasons why companies 157 appraise IT/IS investments. These include, but are not 158 limited to: 159

- enable different projects to be compared;
- act as a mechanism to rank projects in terms of organisational priorities;
- justify investment requests by management;
- act as a control mechanism over expenditure, benefits and the development and implementation of projects; and
- act as a means of providing a framework that facilitates organisational learning.

Along similar lines, Ginzberg & Zmud (1988) and Angell & Smithson (1991) have identified other objectives of IT/IS investment appraisal. These include:

- a process for gaining information that feeds projects planning and resource allocation;
- as a benchmarking process to ensure the system continues to perform well against planned deliverables; and
- to ensure decisions concerning expansion, improve-177 ment, or the postponement of projects can be taken. 178 All of the above reasons place investment appraisal

179 in a positive and constructive light and portray it as an 180 important part of the decision-making process. However, 181 Primrose (1991) identifies the manufacturing industry's 182 perception of investment appraisal as a budgetary pro-183

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cess that gives a final 'yes' or 'no'-'pass' or 'fail' verdict on the success of a projects proposal. As a result, many managers view project appraisal as a financial hurdle that has to be overcome and not as a technique for evaluating the project's worth. This has significant implications during the preparation of a project's proposal, where managers spend much time and effort investigating its technical aspects and thus become committed to the belief that the project is essential. Consequently, members of the evaluation team (decision-makers) may be easily susceptible to persuasion by vendors and consultants and be prepared to accept untypical demonstrations. Hence, decision-makers may focus their efforts on trying to identify and estimate significant business benefits from making the IT/IS investment at the expense of overlooking the full cost and risk implications of the investment. Drummond (1996) describes this management trait as escalation theory, whereby managers are overwhelmed by the momentum of the project and as a result need to secure funding.

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## Limitations of investment appraisal techniques

Farbey et al (1993) argue that the use of traditional IT/IS 207 appraisal methods are inappropriate for the purposes of 208 evaluation. In describing this, it would appear that 209 although capital acquisition policies based on the use of 210 traditional appraisal techniques have worked well for 211 decisions concerning manufacturing capital equipment, 212 such procedures are regarded inappropriate for the 213 appraisal of IT/IS applications that often have many 214 qualitative project implications. The reason for this is 215 that there is a difference in the portfolio of benefits asso-216 ciated with strategic IT/IS, which often consist of sig-217 nificant intangible and non-financial benefits (Irani et al, 218 1998; Love & Irani, 2001). This is further complicated 219 by the inability of traditional appraisal techniques to 220 accommodate the indirect costs associated with IT/IS 221 (Irani *et al*,  $\bullet < aq2 > \bullet 2001$ ). Hence, the inability of such 222 methods to address the changing portfolio of IT/IS-223 related benefits (increasingly qualitative) and costs 224 (indirect) might be considered contributing factors 225 towards the slow adoption of IT/IS, although there is 226 limited empirical research that has been undertaken to 227 support this conjecture. 228

Farbey et al (1992) reported the experience of compa-229 nies using traditional approaches to project justification, 230 and identified the uncertainty of how to measure the full 231 impact of their IT/IS investments, in particular, non-fin-232 ancial and intangible implications. Similarly, Hochs-233 trasser (1992) suggests that those justification processes 234 based on standard accounting methods simply do not 235 work in today's IT/IS environment. Maskell (1991) 236 explores this by suggesting that traditional modes of 237

investment appraisal are unable to capture many of the 238 softer benefits that IT/IS yields. Yet, Parker & Benson 239 (1989) offer an alternative view, and report that many 240 Chief Executive Officers (CEOs) are uncomfortable with 241 using the available set of IT/IS appraisal tools and tech-242 niques. They suggest that such methods lack the pre-243 cision and presentation of results in the form that CEOs 244 expect. Traditional appraisal techniques as reported as 245 being imperfect and furthermore many organisations feel 246 uneasy or even dissatisfied with their use. Interestingly, 247 Bannister & Remenyi (2000) describe that as the limi-248 tations of investment appraisal methods become more 249 evident, decision-makers are falling back on 'gut feel' 250 and other non-formal/rigorous ways of making 251 decisions. 252

Proctor & Canada (1992) and more recently Irani et 253 al (1999a) have expressed their concern over the generic 254 nature of traditional investment appraisal methods. 255 Indeed, the premise of such methods is that they act as 256 generic appraisal tools, which are used to assess the full 257 implications of all types of investment proposals. How-258 ever this brief may be considered too ambitious, largely 259 due to the wide range of interacting socio-technical fac-260 tors (Serafeimidis & Smithson 2000; Irani & Love, 261 2001). Farbey et al (1993) claim that the search for a 262 single appraisal technique that addresses all project con-263 siderations is fraught with difficulty. The reason for this 264 is that investments in IT/IS are aggregates of complexity 265 and notably different from each other. The circumstances 266 where an appraisal technique would be applied is so 267 wide and varied that no single method would appear able 268 to cope with the complexities associated with decision 269 making. Clearly, each investment project displays its 270 own unique characteristics and offers a diverse range of 271 benefits and costs. Conversely, each appraisal technique 272 displays its own range of characteristics, which dis-273 tinguish them from one another (Farbey et al, 1994). 274 Furthermore, every method has its own set of respective 275 limitation (Irani et al, 1997a). Therefore, the develop-276 ment of an all-embracing generic appraisal technique 277 that takes account of the wide variety of IT/IS-related 278 implications may be considered too rigid and complex 279 for use by decision-makers. 280

# Information system planning levels: strategic, tactical and operational

It is proffered that the level and nature of those benefits 283 identified and discussed during *ex-ante* evaluation may 284 depend on the position of manager seeking the benefits. 285 In support of this, Anthony (1965) proposed the following management levels: 287

- strategic;
- tactical; and
- operational.

These levels are related to the traditional levels of top 291

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management, middle management, and operating or supervisory management. It is perhaps not surprising that Wysocki & Young (1989) describe IS planning and evaluation as a process that takes place at the aforementioned distinct levels (Figure 2). These levels address the issue of 'what managers do' by emphasising that management consists of planning and control activities, which are determined by the manager's level in the organisation. For example, a simple way of looking at strategic planning is that it is concerned with 'what will be done within the organisation', at a tactical level, with 'how it will be done'; and then at an operational level, with 'who will do it and when' (Figure 2).

Investment decisions are based on expectations. With this in mind, Harris (1996) explains that judgements, intuition, creativity, ideas, opinions and experience often guide such decisions. Yet, such factors are often grounded by management positions and corresponding levels within an organisation (Irani *et al*, 1999b). Thus, it is not unrealistic to suggest levels of IS planning display strategic, tactical and operational characteristics.

#### Strategic characteristics

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Strategic planning entails the participation of the organ-314 isation in a business-planning exercise. That is, managers 315 may not only be involved in developing specific systems 316 to implement corporate strategy, but also be expected to 317 participate in the actual development of the strategy. In 318 addition, strategic planning might involve monitoring 319 and supporting improvements to the strategic perform-320 ance of the organisation and its supply chain (eg the 321 development of inter-organisational systems for supply 322 chain management and IS integration). The strategic 323 decisions, which are often taken by senior management, 324 may be uncertain and therefore risky. Such investment 325 opportunity proposals may respond or be based on 326 opportunities, often looking far into the future, and may 327 be motivated by the need to improve competitiveness. 328 These proposals may need long-term planning for 329 implementation, and are likely to be made by senior 330 managers. 331



Figure 2 Level of IS planning and evaluation (adapted from Wysocki and Young, 1989).

#### Tactical characteristics

Once the goals and objectives of the company and IS 333 project are clearly understood and priorities established, 334 it becomes the responsibility of middle management to 335 decide on how these goals and objectives are 336 accomplished. These managers develop and evaluate 337 short-term and medium-range plans and budgets, and 338 specify the policies, procedures and objectives for the 339 sub-units of the company. Tactical plans in addition to 340 strategic planning involves the acquisition of resources, 341 but largely involves their allocation to monitor the per-342 formance of organisational sub-units, such as depart-343 ments, divisions and other work groups/projects. Tactical 344 decisions tend to be planned on the resources available 345 and/or affordable so that the objectives set by strategic 346 decisions are met. Essentially, middle managers are con-347 cerned with the allocation of resources to support stra-348 tegic goals. An example could be ensuring targets for 349 the year are met within their allocated budget, with such 350 targets being supported through the adoption of a tech-351 nology. 352

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#### **Operational characteristics**

Operational decisions are those most frequently made 354 and may be financially motivated. Line managers or 355 even operational employees may take these decisions. 356 Essentially, it involves *monitoring* the resources used at 357 a project level, and consists of supervising, controlling, 358 and variance reporting of the 'who and when' aspects 359 of on-going operations or projects. Line managers may 360 also direct the use of resources, advise on the perform-361 ance of tasks that are 'in-line' with established pro-362 cedures and determine budgets and schedules for work 363 groups. Since there is a structured nature to this type of 364 decision making, it can even be made by a computer, 365 for example, the use of a spreadsheet to assess cash flow 366 fluctuations, following improved throughput production 367 flow. 368

## Linking information system planning to IT/IS benefit levels

Earlier sections suggest that in addition to management 371 having difficulty in quantifying many IT/IS benefits, 372 such benefits occur at different organisational levels. 373 Therefore, an interesting proposition appears to unfold, 374 which links IS planning to IT/IS benefit levels and there-375 fore supports ex-ante evaluation. Figure 3 shows that IS 376 benefits can be mapped on to corresponding planning 377 levels; strategic, tactical and operational. Furthermore, 378 such benefits are considered to display different natures. 379

However, the notion of benefit classification is not new, with Tayyari & Kroll (1990) having divided those benefits achievable through the adoption of new technology into two categories, namely direct benefits and intangible benefits. Demmel & Askin (1992) also classi-384 19 20

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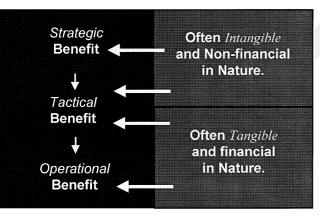


Figure 3 Planning and benefit levels with their nature of benefits.

fied IT/IS benefits and proposed the following three categories: strategic, tactical and pecuniary. Peters (1994) suggested that benefits of IT/IS typically fall into the classifications of enhanced productivity, business expansion and risk minimisation. Regardless of the preferred categorisation discussed, Chen & Small (1994) argue that investment justification should include a consideration of all benefits achievable through investing in the new technology. They go on to suggest rigorous investment justification should only be attempted after a company has identified those benefits that are required, and following a consideration of the infrastructural changes that are needed to support the achievement of the required benefits. However, it is not just benefit management that is important within the context of IT/IS life-cycle evaluation, as the need for a robust cost identification and management has also been identified (eg Ezingeard et al, 1999; Khalifa et al, 1999; Irani et al, 2000, Irani & Love, 2000). Hence, it has become clear that IS comprise of benefits and cost portfolios, which need consideration during the appraisal process (exante). Yet this leaves decision-makers with a problem, that is, navigating through the many types of appraisal techniques available, and thus establishing the need for an appropriate mechanism for *ex-ante* investment evaluation.

#### Towards a frame of reference: taxonomy 411 of appraisal techniques 412

Ballantine & Stray (1998) offer empirical evidence that 413 suggests accountants are slow, reluctant, or even refus-414 more sophisticated adopt appraisal ing to 415 techniques/management guidelines, which claim to 416 address many of the limitations inherent in traditional 417 appraisal approaches. However, the vast array of 418 appraisal techniques available leaves many decision-419 makers with the quandary of deciding which method(s) 420 to use, if any. Dugdale & Jones (1995) claim that con-421 ventional appraisal techniques mitigate against the adop-422

tion of new technology, and that companies using these 423 approaches may be restricting themselves in their ability 424 to compete in world markets. Regardless, the use of 425 these techniques continues, even though the method 426 adopted for selecting evaluation criteria, for example, 427 payback periods or discount/hurdle rates, have been 428 identified as demonstrating short-termism and the misal-429 location of resources. As a result, such methods would 430 appear counterproductive to those IT/IS deployments 431 that seek long-term flexibility and integration. The 432 inability to include many benefits and costs during ex-433 ante evaluation is seen as proof in the failure of tra-434 ditional investment appraisal techniques, therefore, 435 prompting management to consider the broader analysis 436 of appraisal techniques and thus, supporting the develop-437 ment of a taxonomy that can be used as a frame of refer-438 ence. 439

Although fallible investment appraisal techniques are 440 critical elements in management's control systems. The 441 rationale that underpins the use of these methods is that 442 they are designed to channel capital investments in the 443 desired direction. Consequently, companies place con-444 siderable importance on investment appraisal. Indeed, 445 Renkema & Berghout (1997) identified with no parti-446 cular structure, a comprehensive list of over 65 appraisal 447 techniques, all claiming to contribute towards the 448 decision-making process. Regardless of such a wide 449 choice, more complicated methods and prescriptive 450 guidelines continue to appear. However, much literature 451 suggests the inappropriateness of these techniques 452 (Farbey et al, 1993), while others, such as Ballantine & 453 Stray (1998) report their application. To enable senior 454 managers to understand the differences, characteristics 455 and limitations that are inherent within many modes of 456 appraisal, the authors have built on the work of Naik & 457 Chakravarty (1992) to develop a selection of appraisal 458 techniques within taxonomies (Figure 4). The taxo-459 nomies sub-classify methods into: 460 (1) economic ratio appraisal; 461

- (2) economic discounting appraisal;
- (3) strategic appraisal;
- (4) analytic portfolio appraisal;
- (5) integrated appraisal;
- (6) other analytic appraisal.

In the classification presented in Figure 4, economic appraisal techniques appear to be based on the assign-468 ment of cash values, to tangible benefits and costs but 469 largely ignore project, or event risk, non-financial and 470 intangible IT/IS implications. However, such project 471 implications (intangibility and risk) may be addressed in 472 part through the manipulation of the discount/hurdle rate, 473 or payback period, although its use often remains subjec-474 tive. These modified approaches to traditional financial 475 appraisal are often referred to as hybrid but, nevertheless, remain judgmental in nature.

Strategic approaches to investment appraisal combine 478

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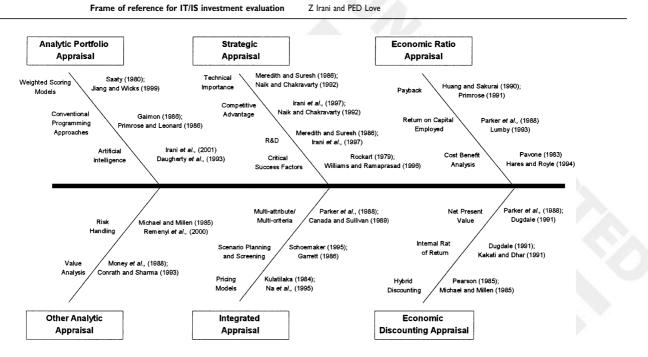


Figure 4 Taxonomy of investment appraisal techniques.

quantitative and qualitative implications, yet both are prone to subjectivity. These techniques acknowledge the impact of the project in the long-term (strategic), by assessing the alignment of the investment initiative to the business goals of the company. However, such techniques often ignore risk, time and economic factors.

Analytical approaches to investment appraisal are structured in nature but may be considered subjective, judgmental and complicated in application, with the same data often producing results. The uses of such techniques include the consideration of quantitative and qualitative factors. These methods may be able to acknowledge project or event risk. Further techniques within the analytic approach to investment appraisal, offer effective management tools for providing a wider perspective of the investment implications, through risk handling and value analysis.

Finally, integrated appraisal techniques combine subjectivity with structure. These techniques integrate financial, quantitative and qualitative aspects, through the assignment of weighting factors, to the intangible and non-financial implications of the project. Here again, project risk can be partially acknowledged, albeit subjectively.

#### Conclusions 503

The ex-ante evaluation of IS appears to be moving away 504 from a process embedded within capital budgeting, to 505 one that is now a matter of consumption. This shift is 506 motivated in part by IS being seen as a necessity that 507 is integral to the fabric of a company's infrastructure 508 and success. 509

In considering IS planning levels and corresponding

strategic, tactical and operational benefit levels, writers 511 in the accounting stream of the literature are convinced 512 that traditional capital budgeting is still valuable. Such 513 views expect financial returns from the investment to 514 play a key role in the decision-making process. There 515 appears to be little controversy over this point, but the 516 contentious issue is the degree of involvement financial 517 appraisal should play and the predictive value that 518 should be drawn from such conclusions during the 519 *ex-ante* evaluation process. Conversely, the lack of wide-520 spread application of many strategic, analytical and inte-521 grated appraisal techniques (such as those presented in 522 Figure 4), which would appear to partly address many 523 of the described shortcomings, may be considered to be 524 due to their complexity, subjectivity and high 525 dependency on resource for selection and application. In 526 considering this, the authors go some way to providing 527 managers (at different levels in the organisation) with a 528 deeper understanding and resulting rationale for navigat-529 ing through the selection of investment appraisal tech-530 niques. 531

In this paper, a number of investment appraisal 532 methods have been identified and classified, together 533 with a discussion of the issues associated with their 534 application. These methods have been presented in an 535 appraisal taxonomy (Economic Ratio, Economic Dis-536 counting, Strategic, Analytic Portfolio Integrated and 537 Other Analytic) that offers itself, as a *frame of reference* 538 for decision-makers that are embracing IS evaluation.

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