

## CHAPTER THREE

### MANAGEMENT

#### 1. INTRODUCTION

Management is a subject that has received wide and thorough attention in the sense that it has been researched by many researchers. A wide variety of literature studies are available on management. Management is continuously evolving and developing as people and organisations change and develop.

The older theories on management have viewed employees mechanistically. Removing human discretion from the work environment was seen as a major feature of good management. If people could be properly matched to tools and machines and put in situations in which they would perform exactly as desired, then management would be controlling the work well (Ginsberg, 1995:7). However, with the development that has taken place, this approach to management has long gone and being changed.

Alkhafaji (1995:23) indicates that "*... the employee of the future will require much more education and training. The more educated personnel will assume jobs as executives, managers, professional workers and technicians. The number of jobs that require less education (such as administrative and clerical workers and support personnel) will grow slowly or even decline. Consequently, jobs in the future will require a higher level of skill, more education and greater technical skill.*" The implication is that management has to be knowledgeable on the research and development in the field of management to be able to "stay ahead". Managers must ensure that they are involved in continuous training and development of their own careers as well as that of their subordinates.

Management within the social services organisation developed rapidly and more is expected from the individuals in the management positions. As Crow & Odewahn (1987:1) state it: "*In essence, in today's human services organisation, managers are expected to do more with less. That places an awesome responsibility on them.*" With increasing limited resources and specific program guidelines, the manager in the social services organisation is expected to be responsive to the growing demands for greater accountability and improved program effectiveness.

As indicated in the previous chapter, the supervisor is a member of middle management within the social services organisation. However, he does not receive or seldom receives training or guidance on management to enable him to be effective as a manager of social workers. The supervisor has to be trained and enabled to practice good management.

*"It is what management does, not what it says, that is important"* (Schneider, 1991:10). *"You can encourage the people under you or you can crush them. It's your choice. But remember: You have to work with what's left"* (Liederman, 1995:xiii). These statements are very true, but not all managers are aware of their impact on subordinates within organisations. Managers wanting to implement good management practice have to take cognisance of statements such as these. All managers should ensure that they are knowledgeable on all aspects and new developments in management to fulfil these statements and expectations.

An important development in management in South Africa is the management of transformation within organisations. This has important implications for supervisors as middle managers. Ramphal & Moonilal (1993:363) indicate that *"it is generally acknowledged that with the rapid changes taking place in South Africa, it is essential for social work management and practice to keep pace if they are to be relevant and effective"*. Management of transformation is also referred to as management of change as the processes and implications of each are related.

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss management in general to identify what it entails, how it should be effectively implemented and what the expectations of good management practice are. The development in the social services organisations implies that the supervisor has to function on the same level as a middle manager in any other organisation. The supervisor has to identify with management as it is generally practiced.

The main concepts of management applicable and necessary for this study are discussed. The roles that the manager has to play in effective management of subordinates are identified in order to implement them accordingly. Just as the supervisor has to have certain personal and professional qualities to be effective, the manager has to have certain qualities and skills. The management qualities and skills are identified and discussed. The role of the middle manager in the management of change is identified and discussed in order to establish his responsibilities within the process of change. The management functions are identified and discussed, as they are important for good management practice. The expectations of good management practice are identified and listed.

## **2. DISCUSSION OF MAIN CONCEPTS**

### **2.1 Manager**

#### **2.1.1 Manager defined**

Kasselmann (1990:48) identifies the manager as the person who has to execute his task through other people, irrespective the position he has in the organisation. The implication is that the manager ensures that his section or department within the organisation renders its intended services through the employees of that section or department.

For the manager to be able to ensure that the intended services are rendered, he "... *must understand and perform (or successfully delegate) the functions of organising and planning, recruitment, training, supervision and evaluation of personnel; program evaluation and quality control; management of material resources; financing; public relations and client advocacy*" (Christian & Hannah, 1983:8).

The manager must plan his management effectively by recognising the goals and standards to be achieved and the resources that can be used in achieving them. He must take the necessary steps to utilise resources and implement procedures in order to meet objectives and achieve goals. He must evaluate the success of the program in relation to its mission. This implies that the manager must have certain qualities and skills at his disposal to perform as an effective manager. He must also implement the functions of management. These qualities and skills as well as the management functions are discussed in this chapter.

### 2.1.2 Types of managers

Manager is a very broad concept and is applicable to any employee who is responsible for another employee. The following types of managers were identified (Holt, 1987:20-21; Ivancevich, Donnely & Gibson, 1989:29-31 and Broadwell, 1990:55):

#### 2.1.2.1 First-line managers

The first-line managers coordinate the work of others who are not managers themselves. They are responsible for the primary organisational activities according to plans provided by their supervisors such as marketing and production. The only difference between the first-line manager and the head of the organisation is the scope and responsibility of their managing assignments.

#### 2.1.2.2 Middle managers

The middle managers are known as the departmental manager or director of operations. They plan, organise, lead and control the activities of other managers. These managers coordinate the activities of a sub-unit and are subject to the managerial efforts of a superior.

#### 2.1.2.3 Top management

Top management is a small group of managers who are responsible for the performance of the entire organisation through the middle managers. They are accountable to none other than the owners of the resources used by the organisation. The top management is dependent on the work of all the subordinates to accomplish the goals and mission of the organisation.

### 2.1.2.4 Functional management

Functional management reflects a kind of specialisation in which authority is evident in managers according to their fields of expertise. Departmental heads are delegated narrow slices of authority for particular task responsibilities.

### 2.1.2.5 Generalists

The managers who usually oversee collective operations, which include several functional managers, are generalists.

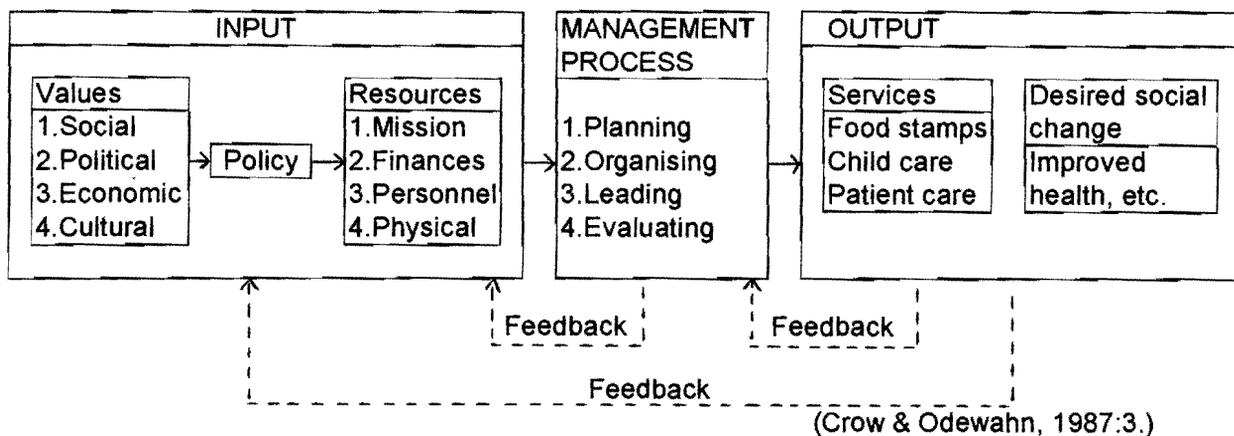
According to this division of the types of managers, the research population of this study is composed of first-line managers (the supervisors) and middle managers (the assistant directors). Managers have important roles, tasks and responsibilities in every organisation, especially the line-managers and the middle managers. It is important that they have the necessary knowledge, guidance and support to practice effective management.

## 2.2 Management

### 2.2.1 Management system

Management is a process that fits into the management system of each organisation. This management system has been illustrated and discussed by various researchers. There are similarities between the researchers, but the area where differences are identified is the identification and discussion of management functions. The management system as identified by Crow and Odewahn (1987:2) seems to represent most systems as found in the literature. The management system is illustrated in Figure 3.1 and discussed as follows:

**Figure 3.1 The Management System**



According to the management system, the manager must recognise the role of social, political, economic and cultural *values* and must be aware that the values that influence policy formulation also affect the implementation of programs to fulfil the policy. *Policy* creates the need for one of

the primary functions of management i.e. to allocate and coordinate *resources*. Management is orientated towards a purpose or mission as declared by the policy. The achievement of the purpose is measured through the *output* that entails the *services rendered* and the *desired change* that was created. The *management process* involves the performance of functions that transform resources into specific services designed to accomplish the mission. Each element of the system is constantly *feeding back* information and results. (Crow & Odewahn, 1987:2.)

### 2.2.2 Management defined

The concept of management has been defined in many different ways, but there are similarities between the different definitions. All the definitions have the basis of "getting things done through and with people". Following are definitions of management as identified in the literature:

- Strategic management involves relating an organisation to its environment, formulating strategies to cope with that environment and taking steps to achieve implementation of the strategies (Miner & Luchsinger, 1985:308).
- Management involves the performance of functions (planning, organising, leading and evaluating) that transform resources into specific services designed to accomplish the mission (Crow and Odewahn, 1987:2).
- Management is the process that is employed to accomplish organisational objectives (Holt, 1987:10).
- Management is the process undertaken by one or more persons to coordinate the activities of other persons to achieve results not attainable by any one person acting alone (Ivancevich, Donnelly & Gibson, 1989:5).
- Management is the coordination of all resources through the process of planning, organising, leading and controlling in order to attain stated objectives. Management provides the direction in which an organisation moves. The goal of management is to lead the organisation towards the achievement of its mission through effectiveness and production (Kasselman, 1990:45,51).
- Management can be thought of as those specific functions performed by persons within the work setting that are intended to promote productivity and organisational goal attainment. Management implies shaping and exerting an influence over the work environment. It is a proactive rather than a reactive activity (Weinbach, 1994:11).
- Getting things done through people and with people by enabling them to find as much satisfaction of their needs as possible, while at the same time motivating them to achieve both their own objectives and the objectives of the organisation (Haimann, 1994:10).
- Management is essentially an art that implies inventiveness rather than mere conformity, practice rather than mere prescription, wisdom rather than mere knowledge (Evered & Selman, 1995:195).

The definition of Haimann (1994:10) is accepted for the purposes of this study. The people-centred focus of social work and social work supervision is brought to the fore by stressing enabling the people to be satisfied by their work. Through managing the enablement effectively, the people can achieve their own objectives, resulting in achieving the organisational goals.

### 2.2.3 Approaches to management

Management is based on three primary approaches (Ivancevich, et al., 1989:8-14). These approaches should be present in and be supplement to the implementation of the management functions at all times:

- **Classical approach:** The classical approach focuses on ways to increase the efficiency and the productivity of the workers in the organisation. This approach identifies the management process and its functions. It acknowledges that managers are concerned with what the organisation is doing, how it is to be done and whether it was done.
- **Behavioural approach:** The behavioural approach focuses on the human dynamics present in the workplace. The emphasis of this approach concentrates on the nature of the work itself and the degree to which it can fulfil the human need to use skills and abilities. The classical approach is based on the belief that an individual is motivated to work for many reasons in addition to making money and forming social relationships.
- **Management science approach:** The management science approach addresses the use of mathematics and statistics in solving production and operational problems. It focuses on solving technical rather than human behavioural problems.

### 2.3 Conclusion

The concepts of manager and management give an indication of the emphasis placed on the manager as individual person. Without going into the details of the management functions, it is already evident that managers need training and support to be effective and efficient.

## 3. MANAGERIAL QUALITIES, SKILLS AND ROLES

### 3.1 Introduction

Work performance in an organisation does not just happen. Managers who are skillful and dedicated to their work and the organisation ensure that work performance happens. Managers influence performance by carrying out specific roles and effectively implementing the functions of management. The implication is that the manager must apply skills and roles within the every day organisational situation. *“The skillful manager is able to manage and monitor performance in such a way that objectives are achieved because he is action orientated and doesn’t simply sit back and let things happen”* (Ivancevich, et al., 1989:26). People make an organisation effective or ineffective and they must be skillfully managed if the organisation is to be functional and to survive.

### **3.2 Managerial qualities**

In most organisations, managers are simultaneously subordinates and superiors. They are subordinate to a “boss” or a board of directors and are therefore accountable to others, while at the same time they depend on their own subordinates to perform the job. To be able to perform effectively and successfully within the various managerial roles, the manager has to have certain qualities.

Different authors (Koontz, et al., 1984:404; Miner & Luchsinger, 1985:30; Ivancevich, et al., 1989:26-27; Kasselmann, 1990:80-81 and Tepper, 1994:4) have identified the qualities of a successful manager. The qualities seem to fit all managers regardless of their age and sex, the size of the organisation and the organisational culture. The qualities are as follows:

- 3.2.1 Provides clear direction. An effective manager has to establish explicit goals and standards for his subordinates. He must communicate group goals, not just individual goals. The manager must involve the subordinates in setting these goals and not simply dictate them himself. He must be clear and thorough in delegating responsibility.
- 3.2.2 Has the desire to manage. The successful manager has a strong desire to manage and to influence others and to get results through team efforts of subordinates.
- 3.2.3 Managers must be knowledgeable to deal with a question at hand or they must be able to put their hands on relevant information very quickly. This includes the following:
  - knowledge coming from experience;
  - knowledge through courses taught by experts in a specialised area; and
  - knowledge such as MBA and computer specialists. Managers of the future must have an education that permits them to provide employers with significant input, including knowledge of organisational behaviour and organisational processes and structure.
- 3.2.4 Encourages open communication. The manager must be honest and direct in dealing with his subordinates. He must establish a climate of transparency and trust. Communication demands clarity and empathy. It requires the ability to understand the feelings of another person and to deal with the emotional aspects of communication.
- 3.2.5 Coaches and supports people. This means being helpful to others, working constructively to correct performance problems and acting as advocate with superiors for subordinates. This last practice is one of the most important aspects of effective leadership.
- 3.2.6 Provides objective recognition. The manager must give recognition to subordinates for good work performance more often than he criticises them for problems. Rewards must be related to the quality of work performance, not to seniority or personal relationships.
- 3.2.7 Establishes ongoing controls. This means following up on important issues and actions and giving feedback to subordinates.
- 3.2.8 Selects the right people to staff the organisation.

3.2.9 Understands the financial implications of decisions. This quality is important for all levels of management, even those who do not have a direct responsibility for the bottom line employees.

3.2.10 Encourages innovation and new ideas.

3.2.11 Gives subordinates clear-cut decisions when they are needed.

3.2.12 Consistently demonstrates a high level of integrity and honesty. Most subordinates want to work for a manager whom they can respect. Integrity in managers includes things such as honesty in money and material matters and in dealing with others, efforts to keep superiors informed, adherence to full truth and behaviour in accordance with ethical standards.

### **3.3 Managerial skills**

Regardless of the level of management, all managers must have specific managerial skills. Managers must constantly seek to develop these critical skills to ensure they practice good management. A skill is an ability or expertise in performing a specific task. Managerial skills identified in the literature (Koontz, et al., 1984:402-403; Miner & Luchsinger, 1985:490; Holt, 1987:22; Burack & Mathys, 1988:92-93,254262; Ivancevich, et al., 1989:32-36; Kasselmann, 1990:110-111; Edwards & Austin, 1991:7; Kezsbom, 1991:573; Van Staden, 1992:21; Verster, 1992:13; Haimann, 1994:8 and Alkhafaji, 1995:103-104) are divided according to the following categories:

- **Technical skills:** This is the ability to use specific knowledge, methods, techniques, processes, procedures and resources in performing work, e.g. nursing supervisors must have the technical skills to perform their management jobs. Technical skills are especially important at the first-line management level, since daily work-related problems must be solved.
- **Analytical skills:** Analytical skills involve using scientific approaches or techniques to solve management problems. It is the ability to diagnose and evaluate, to identify key factors and to understand how they interrelate and the roles they play in any given situation. The manager has to understand the problem and has to develop a plan of action. Without analytical expertise, there is little hope for long-term success.
- **Decision-making skills:** All managers must make decisions or choose from among alternatives and the quality of these decisions determines their degree of effectiveness. A manager's decision-making skill in selecting a course of action is influenced by his analytical skill. Poor analytical skills are bound to result in inefficient or inadequate decision making.
- **Computer skills:** Computer literacy is a valuable managerial skill. It is important and essential for advancement in management. Managers who are computer literate have a conceptual understanding of computers and know how to use the computer and software to perform many

aspects of their work. Using computer programs substantially increases a manager's productivity as it can perform tasks in financial analysis, human resource planning and other areas within minutes that otherwise would have taken hours or even days to complete. Computer programs are especially helpful tools for decision making. Computer literacy is essential to make full use of the considerable advantages that computers and computer programs provide to management.

- **Human relations skills:** The human relations skill is essential at every level of management within the organisation, as it is a reflection of a manager's leadership abilities. The ability of managers to work with, communicate with and understand others is important, as much of their work must be accomplished through other people. A relationship of complete honesty and understanding must be maintained between employees and managers. This skill has to do with cooperative efforts, teamwork and the creation of an environment in which employees feel secure and free to express their opinions.
- **Communication skills:** Effective communication - written and oral communication - is vital for effective managerial performance. Communication skills involve the ability to communicate in ways that employees understand and to seek and use feedback from employees to ensure that one is understood. The skill is critical for success in every field, but it is crucial to managers who must achieve results through the efforts of others.
- **Conceptual skills:** Conceptual skills consist of the ability to see the big picture, the complexities of the overall organisation and how the various parts fit together. The importance of knowing how each part of the organisation interrelates and contributes to the overall objectives of the organisation, is stressed.
- **Specialist skills:** Specialist skills refer to the ability of the manager to use aids, procedures and techniques in a field of specialisation. Examples are:
  - service specialist - concerning direct service to the client or consumer;
  - organisation specialist - concerning the system used;
  - training specialist - concerning the training of subordinates; and
  - staff specialist - concerning staff management.

### **3.4 Managerial roles**

#### **3.4.1 Important functions for identifying managerial roles**

The necessary skills that should be at the disposal of managers have been identified and the next step is to investigate what managers actually do and how they spend their time. The managerial roles that managers perform are identified. According to Ivancevich, et al. (1989:40) the identification and recognition of the managerial roles serve three important functions:

- The roles help explain the job of managing while emphasising that all the roles are interrelated. Neglecting one or more of the roles hinders the total progress of the manager.
- A team of employees cannot perform effectively if any of the roles is neglected. Teamwork in an organisational setting requires that each role be performed consistently.
- The magnitude of the roles points out the importance of managing time effectively, an essential responsibility of managers if they are to successfully perform each of the roles.

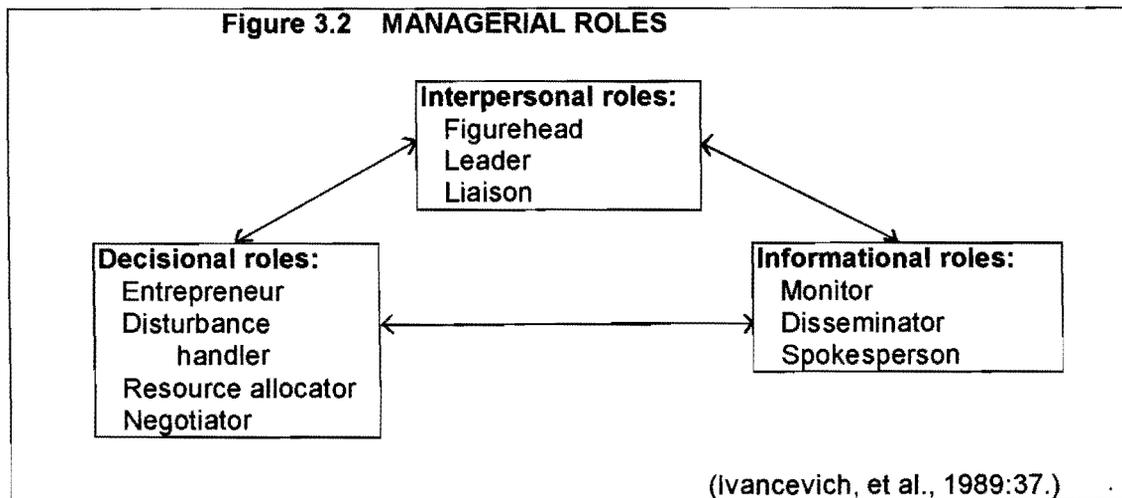
### 3.4.2 Categories of managerial roles

The identified roles are divided into three categories: interpersonal roles, informational roles and decisional roles. The categories each have specific roles that are different but closely related. The managerial roles are illustrated in Figure 3.2 and discussed as follows:

#### 3.4.2.1 Interpersonal roles

The three roles categorised as interpersonal roles, result out of the manager's formal authority and focus on interpersonal relationships. By assuming these roles, the manager is also able to perform informational roles that, in turn, lead directly to the performance of decisional roles (Koontz, et al., 1982:23; Miner & Luchsinger, 1985:9; Holt, 1987:15; Ivancevich, et al., 1989:37-38; Kasselmann, 1990:95-98 and Verster, 1992:13).

- **Figurehead role:** All managerial jobs require some duties that are symbolic or ceremonial in nature, e.g. a supervisor who attends the wedding of a subordinate's daughter.
- **Leadership role:** This role involves directing and coordinating the activities of subordinates. This may involve activities such as staffing and motivating subordinates. It also involves controlling, making sure that things are going according to plan.
- **Liaison role:** Managers maintain interpersonal relationships outside of their area of command, which implies contacts inside, and outside of the organisation. Within the organisation, managers must interact with numerous other managers and employees. They must maintain good relations with the managers who send work to the unit as well as those who receive work from the unit. Managers often have interactions with important people outside of the organisation. It is evident that the liaison role of the manager can consume a significant amount of the manager's time.



#### 3.4.2.2 Informational roles

As a result of the three interpersonal roles, the manager builds a network of interpersonal contacts. The contacts aid him in gathering and receiving information as a monitor and transmitting that information as the disseminator and spokesperson. The informational role establishes the manager as the central point for receiving and sending nonroutine information (Koontz, et al., 1982:24; Miner & Luchsinger, 1985:9; Holt, 1987:15; Ivancevich, et al., 1989:39; Kasselmann, 1990:98-102 and Verster, 1992:13).

- **Monitor role:** This role involves examining the environment to gather information on changes, opportunities and problems that may affect the unit. The formal and informal contacts developed in the liaison role are often useful here.
- **Disseminator role:** Through this role, the manager provides important or privileged information to subordinates.
- **Spokesperson role:** The manager represents the unit to other people. This representation may be internal when a manager motivates for salary increases to top management. It may also be external when the manager represents the organisation's view on a particular issue to a local civic organisation.

#### 3.4.2.3 Decisional roles

Developing interpersonal relationships and gathering information are important and serve as input in the process of decision making. It is believed that the decisional roles are the most important roles of the manager (Koontz, et al., 1982:24; Miner & Luchsinger, 1985:9; Holt, 1987:16; Ivancevich, et al., 1989:39-40; Kasselmann, 1990:102-108 and Verster, 1992:13).

- **Entrepreneur role:** The purpose of this role is to change the unit for the better. The effective first-line supervisor is continually looking for new ideas or new methods to improve the unit's performance.
- **Disturbance handler role:** Managers make decisions or take corrective action in response to pressure beyond their control. Usually the decisions must be made quickly, which means that this role takes priority over other roles. The immediate goal is to bring about stability.
- **Resource allocator role:** This role places the manager in the position of deciding who will get what resources. These resources include money, people, time and equipment. The manager must allocate the scarce goods in many directions, when there are not enough resources to go around. Resource allocation is the most critical role of the decisional roles of the manager.
- **Negotiator role:** The manager must negotiate with other units and individuals to obtain advantages for his unit. The negotiations may concern work, performance, objectives, resources or anything else that has an influence on the unit.

#### 3.4.2.4 Welfare role

An important role that is omitted in the above discussion is the welfare role of the manager. The manager must at all times be aware of his responsibility towards the "welfare" of his subordinates. Researcher recommends that this role be accommodated under the interpersonal roles of the manager. Tyson & York (1996:200) indicate that the immediate line manager or supervisor will be the first to notice the signs that an individual has a problem - poor performance, absence and sickness. Difficulties in relationships will be seen by the perceptive manager, who should be conscious of the importance of a sense of well-being for the achievement of results. Such an approach by managers does mean that they see themselves as helpers to their staff. Helping in this sense is being supportive, problem solving with subordinates and constantly seeking ways to make the employee successful. Given such a manager/subordinate relationship, personal problems and sickness will be problems that the subordinate will want to share.

### 3.5 Conclusion

Although the managerial qualities, skills and roles were identified and discussed separately, they are interrelated and dependent on each other. Without the managerial qualities, a person will not be successful as a manager. For the manager to be effective in his managerial roles, he has to have the necessary skills for the execution of the roles. It is evident that being a manager, the person is expected to have the necessary knowledge, training, motivation and experience enabling him to perform independently but effectively. The manager is still a human being who needs support and acknowledgement for performance. Within the literature on management no reference could be found on the support systems directly available to managers.

## 4. MANAGEMENT OF CHANGE

### 4.1 Introduction

Transformation is a concept that is used consistently in the present developments in South Africa. It refers to nothing else than change - constitutional, political, economical, societal and personal change. Managers must understand and manage change well to be successful. Managing change is an essential skill managers in the present social services organisations must master to be effective. Ivancevich & Matteson (1993:720) indicate that the desired result of transformation and change is improved organisational performance. Managers are expected to place effective performance first, before personal prejudices.

Sanchez (1997:1) indicates that *"transformation refers to the continuing reshaping going on in all types of organisations in today's rapidly changing world"*. Transformation implies restructuring of strategies, structures and processes of the organisation. Communication is the most important management skill used by managers to ensure employees understand and cooperate in the transformation process. When communication with employees is initiated early in the transformation process, it results in greater employee involvement. Middle managers must be kept abreast of any developments in the process in order to pass all information on to their subordinates. If middle managers are not informed, subordinates are not informed.

For the purposes of this study transformation, change and restructuring represent the same meaning i.e. different from the previous state/situation/condition.

### 4.2 Forces that bring about restructuring

Change or restructuring does not take place without specific reasons; it is usually the result of certain forces playing a major role in an organisation. Ivancevich & Matteson (1993:722-723), Costello (1994:4) and Nadler, Shaw, Walton & Associates (1995:4-5) indicate the forces of change as the following:

#### 4.2.1 Environmental forces - these forces are beyond the control of management:

- Changes in the marketplace e.g. new products, changes in customer tastes.
- Technology e.g. new machines, new processes.
- Social and political change resulting in greater diversity in the workplace in terms of age, race, culture, gender, education, and language. This is the force that requires transformation of organisations and the services that are rendered in South Africa.

#### 4.2.2 Internal forces - operate inside the organisation and generally are within the control of management:

- Process and behavioural problems including breakdowns in decision making and communications. It results in low levels of morale and high levels of absenteeism and turnover.

Consequently, the indicated forces result in organisations having to change, as they can no longer exist maintaining the status quo. Within the present South African context, the process of removing the legacies of the past resulted in forcing organisations to react for survival purposes. This change involves a break with the past and a major reconstruction of the organisation. Nadler, et al. (1995:22) refer to this as discontinuous change. All employees have to learn new ways of thinking, working and acting, but they also have to discontinue the habits, orientations, assumptions and routines that have been part of the organisation over time. Much change is needed at too fast a pace and for organisations to survive the change, managers are the main role players in ensuring that restructuring results in improved organisational performance.

An organisation has four major components or elements that have to function in harmony with each other for the organisation to be effective. If any of the above forces require change in an organisation, change need to take place within all four components to ensure that the harmony between the components continue in the "new" organisation. Nadler, et al., (1995:17-18) describe these four components in the following manner:

- **Work** - emphasis is on the specific work activities or functions that need doing and their inherent characteristics e.g. knowledge or skills demanded by the work, the kinds of rewards it provides, its degree of uncertainty and its inherent constraints such as critical time demands and cost constraints.
- **People who perform tasks** - the most critical aspects to consider include the nature of individual knowledge and skills; the different needs or preferences of individuals; the perceptions or expectancies that they develop, background and demographic factors such as age or sex, that potentially influence individual behaviour.
- **Formal organisational arrangements** - the structures, systems, processes, methods and procedures that are explicitly and formally developed to get individuals to perform tasks consistent with organisational strategy. This includes ways in which functions are grouped and units are structured, the mechanisms for control and coordination throughout the organisation, the human resources management systems, the physical location and structures that determine job design and the work environment.
- **Informal organisation**, also known as organisational culture. Usually implicit and unwritten, but can place considerable influence on behaviour. Informal arrangements may either aid or hinder organisational performance.

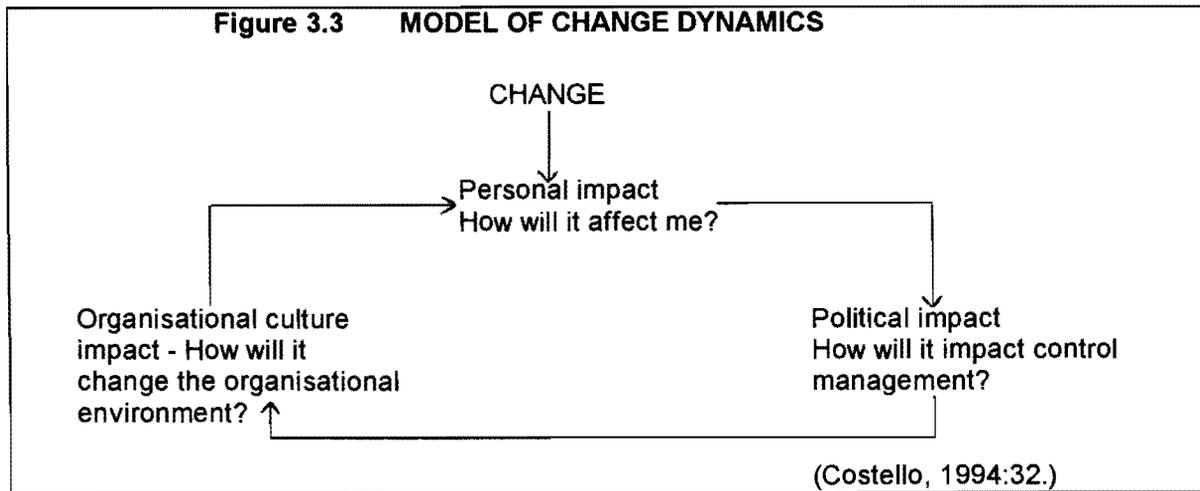
### **4.3 Reactions to change**

A particular frame of reference will lead to particular actions and reactions. This phenomenon explains why there is often such diversity in reaction to a change experience. As a leader of change the manager must realise that change begins with the individual employee and is based

on individual experiences, background and education. For the manager to lead change effectively, he should understand his own feelings about and reactions to change. Costello (1994:13) suggests that *"looking inward is an important first step before exploring ways to help others cope with change"*. Often managers believe that employees will react differently to change than managers do, but this is seldom the case. From time to time, it may be found that employees show more negativity, but not because they are so different from managers. Rather, employees may react differently to change because they may have been treated differently in the change process. Negative feelings may reflect lack of awareness, understanding or acceptance of the change, often due to poor communication or lack of involvement. It should be borne in mind that individual employees might not share viewpoints. Costello (1994:15) stresses that the manager's job is to be aware of himself and his influence on others. He has to understand and respond to individual reactions to change of those he manages.

An employee's first reaction to change is generally personal in nature. Individual employee concerns have to be heard and addressed before they can fully support a change, much less accept an organisational vision. Questions are asked concerning personal job security, roles and responsibilities, alteration of routines and skills and abilities to accomplish the change. When personal needs are ignored, the greater overall vision cannot be seen or understood. The political dynamics of change - referring to the impact of the change on the management of the organisation - are the next concern that employees will need clarification on. The final concern is directed at the impact of the change on the overall organisational culture. Any complex change can affect an organisation's culture, which in turn will result in affecting how employees perform within the organisation. Wycoff (1995:30) stresses that the *"most important thing a manager can do in a transition period is allow employees to express their feelings. It seems to be even more important than providing them with information about the change although that is a critical second step. Establishing a climate where employees can "chat" freely and vent their concerns greatly reduces stress and smoothes the transition even when the concerns are not alleviated"*.

Costello (1994:32) illustrates (Figure 3.3) the three mentioned concerns of employees in a model of change dynamics. It should be noted that the model of change dynamics gives the picture of a continuous cycle. The implication of the cycle is that change cannot be managed as if it had a beginning and an end. It should be communicated that change is constant and necessary for the continually good performance of the organisation.



Change has a definite emotional impact on individual employees. Nadler, et.al. (1995:98-100) indicate that change can be a source of stress but can also result in positive potential. A main source of stress as a reaction to change is specifically the potential for loss that prevails throughout any change situation. Employees may lose jobs, co-workers, title, status or perks. They also may lose the opportunity to realise their career aspirations, achievement of their personal goals and their sense of personal competence. It is important for change managers to understand that the threat of loss is as bad as the actual loss. Worrying about the unknown can produce as much stress as any actual specific change. Employees also experience frustration when they feel that they are prevented from having control over their work situation and they feel helpless to do anything about it. The announcement of a broad change initiative usually raises more questions than it provides answers. Some employees have new duties to master, a new superior and peers to adjust to and new policies and procedures that alter established ways of going about the job. This results in them experiencing uncertainty and ambiguity.

The positive potential of change lies in managers using the transition as an opportunity to enhance teamwork, increase effectiveness, and identify and correct obstructions to productivity and quality. Individual employees can experience a personal form of renewal. They can actively search ways to gain from the transition:

- They can recognise that they cannot manage what is beyond their control and thus do not try to do so. Instead they assess the situation at hand and act in their domain where they can have an influence.
- They can see themselves as designers of change, rather than the victims thereof.
- They seek challenges, take risks and look upon their work with a new perspective. They see transition as an opportunity to learn new skills, to expand and grow both personally and professionally.

Researcher is of the opinion that it is the responsibility of the manager to ensure that the sources of stress are handled by giving employees opportunities to ask questions and to ventilate their

concerns. Managers have to focus on the positive potential that can result within a change situation. It is important that managers set an example of this positive potential. To be effective in this process, managers must be aware of the barriers that can exist and that can have a negative influence on the change process. They have to actively identify and remove the barriers. Harshman & Phillips (1994:143-158) have identified the following barriers:

- *External barriers* are a result of forces that exist outside the organisation. It can be economic factors such as a major downturn in the economy; social factors such as the move toward diversity in the workplace that may be a major factor in the motivation of the work force; and political factors such as the restrictive environment due to legislation. In the assessment of progress in the change process, the influence of these external barriers has to be determined and not ignored.
- *Motivational barriers* come from individuals, groups and systems within the organisation. It can take the form of fear for the loss of power or positions or can be influenced by reward and punishment systems.
- *Leadership barriers* can have serious consequences for the entire change process. Failure to deal with leadership resistance will give the entire work force all the evidence they need to conclude that the change effort is not serious.
- *Middle managers and first-line supervisors as barriers.* On the one hand, middle managers and supervisors are amongst the first to want things to change. On the other hand, middle managers and first-line supervisors have created an environment and management system that gives them control of and protection from the organisational environment around them. A change process puts their protective informal structures and systems at risk. They will resist any effort to upset the current balance, regardless of the dysfunction of those systems.
- *Operational barriers* such as pressure to show results because of the temptation to do things to impress. The redistribution of power and control and redefinition of boundaries in the organisation also will result in some chaos. The reaction to this barrier will be that subtle, even perhaps unconscious, strategies to maintain the status quo will emerge.

#### **4.4 Resistance to change**

It should be understood that the primary source of resistance is usually not the change itself but the disturbance or confusion that it represents. This disturbance is caused when change does not fit easily into existing employee or organisational frames of references and paradigms. Employees react with different responses to change within organisations. As indicated above, the initial responses are personally related. Costello (1994:94) refers to sources of individual resistance within the categories of values, emotions, knowledge and behaviour. Nadler, et al. (1995:48-50) describe resistance to change as a specific acceptance process through which employees have to go:

- Initially change is fought with "rational" arguments in support of the maintenance of the status quo.
- Employees seek targets to blame. Individuals who are perceived as the decision makers are the usual targets to blame, being either senior management or the task force that made the original recommendation for change.
- Employees speculate about the future and productivity suffers. Individual employees spend a lot of time with others trying to piece together a complete story from what they are told. They spend less time worrying about the work and more time worrying about the future.
- Employees form faction groups by seeking out those who share their point of view about the proposed changes. These groups serve to comfort the employees and to reinforce their beliefs about the change. Informal leaders emerge within these groups.
- The perceived decision makers are tested. Employees will view the lack of common support for change among members of management as a sign that the reality of the change may be less than it appears. A management team reflecting a strong support of change strengthens the perception and belief that changes are real and very likely to occur.
- Individual employees begin to associate with the perceived power structure. As they come to accept the reality of change, employees also begin to strategise to ensure that they come out on the winning team. Some employees declare their support of the change, others seek out those who they see as in charge and try to get on their good side.
- As a safety measure, employees appeal to relationships. Some employees appeal to their personal relationship with those they see as capable of taking care of them. They also begin to renew their relationships with people they have not seen in a while, especially those who have influence.

#### **4.5 Managing change**

Some kind of structure is needed to manage the change or transition. Nadler, et al. (1995:57-58) identified the following as "*transition devices*" that are important for effectiveness in the management of change:

- A transition manager who has the power and authority to facilitate the transition. He should be a key senior manager and should be capable of dealing with the extreme stress that comes with the role and to act constructively under pressure. The manager needs a transition team to support him since it is impossible for one person to handle all the details inherent in the transition process.
- Transition resources such as personnel, financing, training and consultative expertise must be available to the transition manager.
- Transition structures such as special task teams, pilot projects and experimental units are necessary to develop new structures during the transition period.

- Most importantly a transition plan is needed with implicit specification of clear benchmarks, standards of performance and the responsibilities of key individuals and groups.

An organisation cannot change or transform itself unless transformation thinking has been adopted. Thinking within an organisation has been identified by Wycoff (1995:3) as "*the mental activity of every member of the organisation - all the idea generation, learning and skill development, exchange of information, development of strategic directions, project planning, communication, market research, problem solving, process improvement and quantum leaps that make up the total intellectual activity of the organisation*". The idea of transformation thinking has direct reference to the fact that change and transition cannot be brought about instantly but has to be developed progressively according to a specific process of change. During the phases of the process the intellectual activity of the organisation is transformed. The phases as identified and discussed by Harshman & Phillips (1994:129-134) are used as basis for the proposed change process in the management of change. However, input from authors such as Ivancevich & Matteson (1993), Costello (1994), Nadler, et al. (1995), Wycoff (1995) and Sanchez (1997) are also used in the discussion of the phases in the change process.

#### **Phase 1: Planning and preparation**

The transition manager and his transition team develop and communicate a clear image of the future and specify what they want to achieve in the change process. They plan the strategy and structure of the process. Resistance and confusion frequently develop because employees are unsure about what the future state will be like. The challenge lies in taking the image of the future state through orientation and awareness sessions to various sections of the organisation and making it real to employees in terms of what the changed situation may be like in their section. This requires an investment of time by senior groups for discussing, debating and constructing their collective view. The change management emphasis includes making plans, establishing subcommittees and involving as many employees as possible. Key concerns during this phase of planning for the transition are how to effectively assist employees in letting go of the present way of doing things; how to effectively direct and manage employees in their movement through the transition period; and how to provide the necessary support for employees to accept, adopt and execute new ways of doing tasks.

#### **Phase 2: Implementation**

The planning and preparation of phase 1 are put into action. The participation team strategy is initiated and involves team orientation and team training. Monthly or biweekly leadership development sessions are started. The communication arm of the process begins. A communication subcommittee is formed, orientated and asked to design a communication strategy for the process. Information is to be communicated to all employees involved in the change. Information such as what the future state will be like, how the transition will come about, why the

change is being implemented, and how employees will be affected by the change is important. A written description or an impact statement may be an effective communication aid to clarify and identify the effect the change will have on different sections of the organisation and on the employees. Finally, any subcommittees to deal with special issues should be started. These may include subcommittees for supervisors, labour management or rewards and recognition. This phase in the change process is activity based and requires commitment. Commitment to a common purpose points everyone in the same direction and transforms the employees of an organisation into a motivated team with a common goal. The activity and the commitment are not the change; but are the tools for moving towards the change.

### **Phase 3: Organisation adaptation**

As the change process progresses the stimulus for the change surfaces and gets dealt with. The characteristics of this phase depend on the specific problems of the organisation. Change management emphasis is more complex than in the previous phases. In this phase the organisation has many opportunities; however, the opportunities are concealed in complaints and unrest. The complaints and unrest are the result of the practices and systems of the traditional organisation no longer being acceptable. However, complaints should be viewed as a good sign as they indicate that employees are now ready to start doing things differently. The transition team has to view the complaints as opportunities and ensure that employees are empowered to implement new processes.

### **Phase 4: Renewal**

During the progression of the change process when employees become accustomed to the changes to be made, a period when focus of change becomes blurred emerges. This is the period when the original goals of the change process have been met and the transformation team is getting tired. Renewal has to take place through actions such as assessment, alignment and adjustment. In the renewal phase the rewarding of progress is important. The employees need recognition for their efforts. This is the correct time to develop feedback mechanisms for providing recognition and information with regard to the effectiveness of the transition and areas requiring additional attention or action. Formal feedback may include individual interviews, subcommittee reports or feedback gathered during normal business meetings. Informal feedback includes meetings between senior managers and individual employees and informal contacts.

### **Phase 5: Organisational maturity and performance**

The change process slows down and either evolves into the next generation of change or comes to an end. Emphasis for change management is on the dissolution of the transformation team and its supporting subcommittees. By this time the changed infrastructure of the organisation is self-sufficient and ensures that the organisation performs according to the planned changed manner.

## **4.6 Types of change**

### **4.6.1 Developmental change**

This type of change is the least threatening and the easiest to manage. Generally employees respond to developmental change favourably, because it is viewed as an improvement to an existing state. Anticipatory change is a form of developmental change. Rather than being forced to respond and react to the outside, the organisation acts in anticipation of the changes that may occur later.

Nadler, et al. (1995:22) refer to developmental change as incremental change or change during relative equilibrium. Effective organisations are always implementing some form of improvement or modification such as changing their structure or modifying strategies. These changes are aimed at specific improvements. Each change is part of a process of constant adaptation and modification as the organisation attempts to solve problems and manage itself more effectively. Each initiative attempts to build on the work that has already been accomplished and improves the performance of the organisation in relatively small additions. However, the improvements can be large in terms of resources needed or impact on employees. There is continuity in the pattern of ongoing change.

### **4.6.2 Transitional change**

This type of change refers to the implementation of a new state, which requires abandoning the present ways of operating and introducing new ways. This change is somewhat threatening, occurs over a set period of time and is usually referred to as the transition stage of an organisation. The organisation consciously chooses its future state by establishing a specific goal. However, the organisation may not know how to get there.

According to Costello (1994:46) the key to managing transitional change lies in its name "transition". The effective management of the transitional process is reflected in the understanding, acceptance and final adoption of the transition. Effective two-way communication is vital to assisting employees in the transition process. Managers have to be clear about the change and identify similarities (if they exist) and/or differences between present and new ways. They report regularly on the status of the progress made even when there may be no new news and acknowledge effort and success. Milestones to measure success are set and all employees are informed on what the milestones are and whether they have been met. If milestones are not met, the reasons and revised plans should be communicated, because reaching the milestones will motivate employees. Setting milestones for transitional change is important as it affects momentum and the achievement of end results.

### **4.6.3 Transformational change**

Nadler, et al. (1995:23) identify transformational change as discontinuous change enforced during a period of disequilibrium. It is also a form of reactive change such as that the organisation is

forced to respond to changes in the environment and forced to respond immediately. The organisation is not trying to improve on the present situation but rather to build a whole new appearance in terms of a new strategy, new work and new formal organisational arrangements. This type of change involves a complete break with the past and a major reconstruction of almost every element of the organisation.

According to Costello (1994:46-47) transformational change is most threatening, intense and traumatic and difficult to control. The future state of the organisation is largely unknown until it evolves. Transformational change is the most difficult to manage. Managers must clearly communicate the change in organisational strategy and vision. With transformational change, it is not possible or desirable to provide employees with an end goal. One of the best ways to manage transformational change is to educate employees about what it is, why they feel the way they do and why there may not be answers to all the questions that they may have. Communication builds a foundation of understanding and trust from which to move forward.

**Table 3.1: Transformation Priorities**

1. Creating a leaner and more cost-effective service - reduction of the overall size of the public service and therefore the wage bill as proportion of public service expenditure.
2. Contracting-out of services through partnerships - strategies for redeployment and retraining of redundant or retrenched staff.
3. Institution building and management - changes in management philosophy and practice, changes in organisational structure and culture to enhance performance, responsiveness and accountability of the Public Service.
4. Representativeness and affirmative action - ensure that people from disadvantaged groups inside and outside the public service are recruited and appointed or promoted at all levels in the Public Service.
5. Transforming service delivery - service delivery to focus on citizens living below the poverty line in urban and rural areas and other groups who have been previously disadvantaged in terms of service delivery.
6. Democratising the State - ensuring that the public service's relationship with the public is transparent, consultative, participative and democratic.
7. Human resource development and capacity building - equip all public servants with necessary knowledge, skills and competencies to carry out their jobs effectively.
8. Employment conditions and labour relations - introduction of a more equitable and non-discriminatory pay and employment conditions for public servants and negotiations between Public Service (employer) and Public Service employees on divergent views and interests.

(Fifield, 1998:393-401.)

Within the present South African situation organisations are subjected to transformational change. This transformation entails a radical change from the present state to a state that is relevant and effective in meeting the challenges in the changed South African environment. The Public Service of South Africa took the lead in this transformation process through the implementation of the White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service. Fifield (1998:392) indicates that *"one of the primary objectives of the transformation process is to build a public service capable of meeting the challenge of improving the delivery of public services to the citizens of South Africa, with specific emphasis on those people who have previously been denied access to public services, and those who have been poorly served"*. To achieve this objective eight transformation priorities are identified in the White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service in Table 3.1.

The transformation priorities require a radical departure from the past and therefore have with it all of the challenges associated with disruption. Managers and employees within the Public Service not only have to learn new ways of thinking, working and acting, but they also have to "unlearn" the habits, orientations, assumptions and routines that have been "institutionalised" over time. This unlearning can be difficult and even confusing for managers as well as individual employees.

#### **4.7 Conclusion**

When change is introduced, stability is dispensed of. Whether real or perceived, continuation of the status quo creates a sense of inner stability and balance. Managers have to create as much ongoing stability as possible for employees to secure a sense of balance within themselves and their organisational environment. The manager can work to prevent or reduce the impact of instability by proactive support planning. This planning should include giving clear directions and expectations, building confidence, providing new skills training and allowing enough time for employees to adjust to the changes. The ability of managers to provide appropriate and timely support will do much to facilitate a smooth transition. For managers to be effective in the management of change they are to be informed about the change continually and be supported by senior management in the change that they themselves have to undergo. The above mentioned need to maintain the status quo is also applicable to the social work supervisors as middle managers.

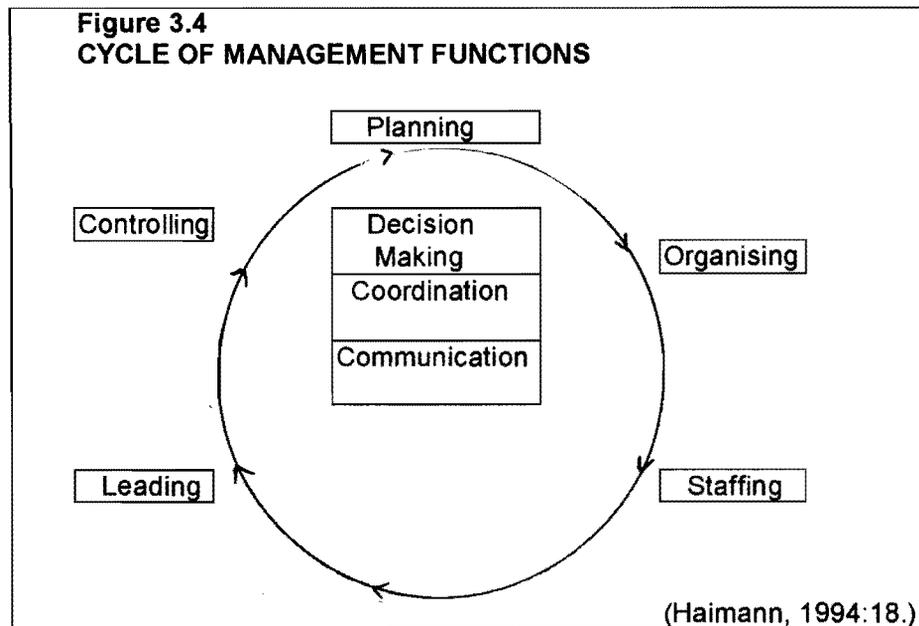
## **5. FUNCTIONS OF MANAGEMENT**

### **5.1 Introduction**

The managerial functions identified in the literature are indicative of the roles the manager must perform. Although the number of functions identified differs between the literature resources, the content of the functions do compare. The functions of management, just as the functions of social work supervision, are supplementary to each other and support each other.

Haimann (1994:18) illustrates (Figure 3.4) the management functions as a cycle. He identifies five functions and indicates that they flow into each other and at times there is no clear line indicating where one function ends and the other begins. The effort spent on each function varies as conditions and circumstances change.

The five management functions as identified by Koontz, et al. (1984) and Haimann (1994) i.e. planning, organising, staffing, leading and controlling are accepted for the purposes of this study. As indicated in the cycle of management functions, decision making, coordination and communication are important and essential elements in the implementation of the management functions. These elements are discussed briefly before the discussion of the management functions.



## 5.2 Essential elements of the management functions

### 5.2.1 Decision making

#### 5.2.1.1 Description of decision making in an organisation

Decision making is an activity that has a linking function. It links planning with organising; organising with staffing; staffing with leading; leading with controlling; and controlling again with planning. Managers at all levels make decisions. All decisions have some influence on the performance of individuals within the organisation. It is important that managers develop and improve their decision making skills. The quality of decisions made by managers serves as the measuring tool of their effectiveness and their value for the organisation.

Decision making has specific implications for the manager and the organisation. Fay (1991:21) gave a clear description of these implications:

- Decision making is the activity that differentiates the manager from the non-manager and the effective manager from the ineffective manager.
- The quality of the decisions affects the careers of managers as decision makers and the success of organisations within which the decisions were made.
- The decision making process is characterised by uncertainty due to it taking place over time and the interdependency of all participants.
- It requires that managers gather information before making decisions.

#### 5.2.1.2 Types of decisions

The implication and importance of decisions differ according to the situation and the urgency of the matter. Ivancevich, et al. (1989:98) and Haimann (1994:24-25) identified two types of decisions:

- Programmed decisions - This refers to decisions managers make in response to repetitive, structured and routine problems. These problems have fixed answers, standardised operating procedures, methods, rules and regulations. If a particular situation occurs often, managers will develop a routine procedure for handling it.
- Non-programmed decisions - These decisions are required for new, unusual and unstructured problems. This refers to decision making situations for which no standard solution exists and no program has been designed. When a problem has not occurred in the same manner before, or is complex or extremely important, it is necessary to make a non-programmed decision. The manager has to be creative in his decision making to be able to make a decision of good quality.

#### 5.2.1.3 Process of decision making

*"Decision making is the process of thought and deliberation that results in a decision; the process influences how good the decision is likely to be"* (Ivancevich, et al., 1989:100). In most decision making situations, managers make use of a number of steps to help them consider the problem and develop alternative strategies. The steps need not be applied rigidly, but they have value in the sense that they force the manager who has to make the decision, to structure the problem in a meaningful way.

The decision making process consists of specific steps as indicated by Koontz, et al. (1984:185); Holt (1987:79); Ivancevich, et al. (1989:101) and Haimann (1994:26). These steps have bearing on the steps of the general problem solving process. The steps are as follows:

- Identify and define the problem.
- Analyse the problem.
- Develop alternative solutions.
- Evaluate alternative solutions.
- Select the best alternative.

- Implement the decision.
- Evaluate and control.

#### 5.2.1.4 Aspects to consider when making a decision

A decision should not be taken impulsively - the decision making process has to be considered as well as certain general aspects. Researcher supports the recommendation of Tepper (1994:21) that the following aspects have to be considered when approaching the making of a decision:

- Be truly open-minded - don't take sides or make judgements until you can examine all the information.
- Avoid taking sides - it is not only unfair to everyone involved, but it can often lead to a poor decision.
- Recognise your own bias.
- Don't let titles or prestige influence your decision. An individual's title may not be indicative of a person's skill or experience. Decisions should be made on the merit of the situation, not the title or image of the people involved.
- Avoid "absolute" wording in your decision. Words such as always or never should be avoided.

### 5.2.2 Coordination

#### 5.2.2.1 Description

Coordination is concerned with *"adjusting the relationships between individuals and groups in an organisation so that frictions do not develop among them which might sap the potential effectiveness of the organisation as a whole. Managers are coordinating when they attempt to prevent misunderstandings, conflict and controversy from disrupting needed interdependence between units"* (Miner & Luchsinger, 1985:7).

Haimann (1994:35) makes a distinction between coordination and cooperation. This distinction provides clarity in terms of what coordination entails and enables the manager to conduct himself correctly in his management actions.

*Coordination* refers to linking together the activities within an organisation to achieve the desired results. It implies the process by which departments and tasks are interrelated to achieve the objectives of the organisation. *Cooperation* refers to the willingness of individuals to help each other.

#### 5.2.2.2 Dimensions of coordination

Coordination of activities can take place within three dimensions:

- Vertical coordination between different levels of an organisation. It is achieved by delegating authority, assigning duties, supervising and controlling.

- Horizontal coordination exists between persons and departments on the same organisational levels. Policy and procedures prescribe this dimension of coordination.
- Diagonal coordination cuts across organisational arrangements, ignoring positions and levels.

### 5.2.3 Communication

#### 5.2.3.1 Description

Both oral and written communication are involved in all the managerial functions. Communication is a necessary precondition for reaching decisions and must follow decisions to ensure that they are executed. Communication is a means of transmitting or sending information and making oneself being understood by another. The result of communication is that information and understanding have passed between the sender and the intended receivers. Effective communication is important for effective managerial performance, as without communication, managers cannot influence subordinates to achieve performance objectives.

#### 5.2.3.2 Elements of the process of communication

The process of communication can be broken into basic elements: the communicator, encoding, the message, the medium, decoding, the receiver, noise and the feedback. Ivancevich, et al. (1989:330-334), explains the process of communication in a very clear and comprehensive manner:

An individual or group of individuals (*the communicator*) has an idea, message or understanding to send to another individual or group of individuals (*the receiver*). To send the idea, the communicator first must translate it into a language (*encoding*) and send the message by verbal, nonverbal or written means (*the medium*). The message is received through the senses of the receiver and translated (*decoded*) into a message received. Occasionally, some form of interference (*noise*) occurs at some point in the process. Communication interference must be reduced or eliminated to ensure that understanding results between the sender and the receiver. By a nod of the head, a facial expression or action the receiver acknowledges whether understanding has been achieved (*feedback*).

#### 5.2.3.3 Communication network within an organisation

Organisational communication takes place through formal and informal communication channels. The organisational hierarchy establishes the formal channels and formal reporting relationships and the communication follows the lines of authority. The formal channels of communication have three distinct directions through which official communication is transmitted: downward, upward and horizontal. The informal channel is the personal network of information between employees encouraged by social relationships, natural outgrowth of the informal organisation and social interactions between people.

## 5.2.4 Conclusion

The discussion of the three important elements, i.e. decision making, coordination and communication gives a clear picture of the activities they consist of. Managers should master the skills of decision making, coordination and communication to be effective in the implementation of the management functions.

## 5.3 Planning as management function

### 5.3.1 Description

Planning consists of determining goals, objectives, policies, procedures, methods, rules, budgets and other plans necessary to achieve the purpose of the organisation. It entails mental work that involves thinking before acting, looking ahead and preparing for the future. It implies deciding in advance what to do, how to do it, when to do it and who is to do it. Planning must be done before any of the other managerial functions. After the initial plans are laid out and the manager proceeds with the other managerial functions, the function of planning continues in revising the course of action and choosing different alternatives as the need arises.

A definition that describes planning in a comprehensive manner is: *"Planning is that part of the management process, which attempts to define the organisation's future. Planning includes all the activities that lead to the definition of objectives and to the determination of appropriate courses of action to achieve those objectives"* (Ivancevich, et al., 1989:68).

### 5.3.2 Strategic and operational planning

A distinction needs to be made between strategic and operational planning as the type of planning has an influence on the level of management involved in the planning (Crow & Odewahn, 1987:7-8; Holt, 1987:109 and Haimann, 1994:89).

- Strategic planning refers to the determination of major objectives of the organisation e.g. determining policy. The top level management is responsible for this type of planning.
- Operational planning involves the translation of objective statements and policy guidelines into action statements. This type of planning is conducted by the middle and lower level management, it has a shorter time frame and it provides the specific program direction necessary to carry out the policy statements e.g. procedure manuals, rules and budget.

### 5.3.3 Benefits of planning

Due to the resources and time spent on the planning function, definite benefits should be obtained. The benefits could include the following:

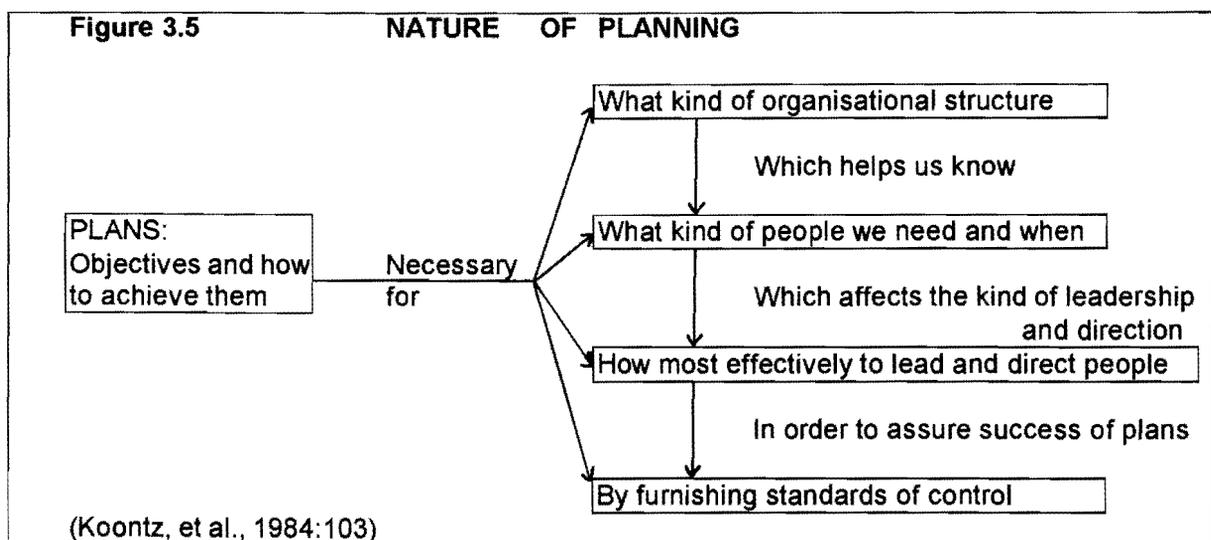
- Planning forces managers to think ahead.
- It leads to the development of performance standards that enable more effective management control. Planning is primarily a means of controlling the future, but also provides a measurement

for a retrospective evaluation of what has occurred. It provides criteria for determining whether the work that individuals and groups have done is in line with what was envisioned.

- Management is forced to formulate clear objectives.
- Planning enables an organisation to be better prepared for sudden developments.
- Planning ensures that staff maintains the focus on the main objective of the organisation. In social service organisations that is the delivery of effective and efficient client services.
- Plans are useful in promoting a more efficient organisation. They promote anticipation of resource needs so that it is possible to make decisions today that will help quickly and economically to accommodate changes that might be required tomorrow.
- Planning enables managers to deal with uncertainty and change.

### 5.3.4 Principle of primacy of planning

The principle of primacy of planning - planning precedes all other managerial functions - is illustrated in Figure 3.5. The implication of Figure 3.5 (and thus the principle of planning) is that the plans of an organisation determine the organisational structure, the personnel that are needed, the leading or direction that should be provided and the control that must be executed. The further implication is that managers must be effective in their planning activities.



### 5.3.5 Types of planning

Planning is not formulated in one specific format; there are different types of planning. Managers at all levels have a major or minor input into these different types of plans, but they have to be well informed on the content of these plans within their organisation. Koontz, et al. (1984:105-112) list the types of planning that managers must be aware of:

- Purpose or mission of the organisation.
- Objectives represent not only the end point of planning, but also the end towards which organising, staffing, leading and controlling are aimed.

- Strategies imply a general plan of action and identify or indicate the emphasis and resources available for achieving comprehensive objectives.
- Policies (major or minor) represent plans that are general statements or understandings that guide or channel thinking and action in decision making in the organisation.
- Procedures and rules are guides to action, rather than to thinking and they detail the exact manner in which a certain activity must be accomplished. A rule requires that a specific and definite action be taken or not taken with respect to a situation. It is related to a procedure in that it guides action but specifies no time sequence. A procedure could be described as a sequence of rules.
- Programs (major or minor and supporting) represent a complex of goals, policies, procedures, rules, task assignments, steps to be taken, resources to be employed and other elements necessary to carry out a given course of action. Programs are usually supported by the necessary capital and operating budgets.
- Budgets (numbered or financial estimated programs) entail statements of expected results expressed in numerical terms.

### **5.3.6 Planning process**

The planning process can be complicated if every step or phase is to be identified individually. The identified steps of the planning process as discussed below are not necessarily in this sequence and are not always separated in this manner. It emphasises the complexity of planning and the responsibility expected of the manager to be effective in the implementation of planning as a managerial function. Information provided by Koontz, et al. (1984:113-117); Miner & Luchsinger (1985:318-319) and Holt (1987:124) have been used as basis in the following planning process:

5.3.6.1 The first step in the planning process is a statement of top management on their commitment to planning. This includes a set of definitions to prevent communication problems, a statement of required information and documentation, a detailed time schedule and a review of policies to be considered in the implementation of planning.

5.3.6.2 Execute a situation audit in the following manner:

- Information is gathered on the attitudes and expectations of the community and clients. The social responsibilities prescribed by society are included.
- Values and expectations existing inside the organisation are considered.
- Data is compiled on:
  - past performance areas such as income, expenditure, professional programs;
  - the current situation ranging from employee skills to government regulations; and
  - the future in the form of forecasts about competition, population changes, political stability.
- Evaluation of present and anticipated opportunities and threats in the environment and the strengths and weaknesses of the organisation and ways in which to cope with them.

- 5.3.6.3 Establish objectives - where the organisation wants to be and what it wants to accomplish and when it must be accomplished.
- 5.3.6.4 Consider planning premises - in what environment, internal or external, will the plans be implemented.
- 5.3.6.5 Master strategies - mission, purposes, objectives, policies - and program strategies emerge from the previous steps.
- 5.3.6.6 Once strategies are in place, medium range plans are developed focusing on major functions or programs.
- 5.3.6.7 Stratify plans within the organisation to ensure full coordination of activities at strategic, tactical and operational levels.
- 5.3.6.8 Short range planning provides standards against which performance can be compared. It is possible to make assumptions about the future in order to reflect expectations of reasonable performance through short range planning.
- 5.3.6.9 Determine alternative plans - the most promising alternatives to accomplish the organisational objectives.
- 5.3.6.10 Compare alternative plans in light of goals aimed at - determine which alternative plan will have the best chance of meeting the organisational goals at the lowest cost and at the highest profit.
- 5.3.6.11 Select a course of action to follow. Communicate plans and provide documentation for appropriate delegation of authority, control and performance feedback.
- 5.3.6.12 Formulate supporting plans e.g. buy equipment, materials, employ and train workers.
- 5.3.6.13 Budget for implementing the plans e.g. operating expenses necessary for the implementation of the plan and expenditures for capital equipment.
- 5.3.6.14 Implement planning with appropriate flexibility and certain checkpoints for possible adaptation.
- 5.3.6.15 Review and evaluate planning - this is a continuous part of the planning process and provides input to new plans.

### **5.3.7 Environment for effective planning**

The manager has to ensure that planning is effective, efficient and practical. To be successful, the manager has to establish an environment for effective planning by doing the following:

- Planning must not be left to chance.
- The example, motivation and drive of top management are the most important single force in planning - planning should start at the top.
- The planning must be organised - a good organisation structure establishes an environment for performance.
- Planning must be clear and definite - plans can be made definite by including specific steps of action and by translating them into needs for people, equipment and money.

- Goals, strategies and policies must be communicated clearly. Managers must ensure that they communicate the correct information that subordinates need for their planning. The information should be as specific and thorough as possible.
- Managers must participate in planning.
- Planning must include awareness and acceptance of change.

### **5.3.8 Reasons for planning to fail**

Unfortunately not all planning has the expected positive results. Koontz, et al. (1984:213-214) and Miner & Luchsinger (1985:324) support this statement. The reasons for planning to fail can be indicated in the following manner:

- A lack of an understanding of what strategic planning is, how it is to be done in the organisation and the degree of commitment of top management to do it well.
- Failure to accept and balance interrelationships among intuition, judgement, managerial values and the formality of the planning system.
- Managers are not encouraged to do effective strategic planning.
- Lack of conforming and designing the strategic planning system according to the unique characteristics of the organisation and its management.
- Failure to develop and implement sound strategies.
- Top management do not spend sufficient time on the strategic planning process with the result that the process becomes discredited among other managers and personnel.
- Lack of meaningful objectives or goals.
- Tendency to underestimate the importance of planning premises.
- The extent of plans is not observed.
- Failure to keep the planning system simple and to ensure it to be balanced in terms of cost-efficiency.
- Planning is not seen as a rational process.
- The strategic planning system is not modified as conditions within the organisation change.
- Excessive reliance on experience.
- Failure to use the principle of the limiting factor - in choosing from among alternatives, the more accurately the individuals can recognise and solve those factors which are limiting to the attainment of the desired goal, the more easily and accurately they can select the most favourable alternative.
- Lack of clear delegation.
- Adequate control techniques and information are not available.
- Resistance to change.
- Failure to secure a climate for strategic planning within the organisation.

### 5.3.9 Conclusion

It is clear that the planning function of management is much more than just deciding what to do, when to do it and who has to do it. Planning can be seen as a professional, well organised action that has to take certain tasks, aspects and factors into consideration. If this is not done, planning is sure to fail.

## 5.4 Organising as management function

### 5.4.1 Description

Organising refers to designing a structural framework that sets up all the positions needed to perform the work of the organisation and then to assign particular duties to these positions. The management must delegate a certain amount of authority to the subordinate managers to enable them to perform their duties and responsibilities. If organising is done well, the structure will provide an environment in which present and future individual performance contributes effectively to the achievement of group goals. One aspect of organising is to establish departments. Departments designate a distinct division or section of an organisation over which a manager has authority for the performance of specified activities.

Miner & Luchsinger (1985:7) provide a comprehensive description of what organising entails: *"Organising involves designing both the structural flow of authority and the prescribed patterns of communication in organisations. It is a form of planning and thus a method of establishing role prescriptions for organisational members, but unlike planning it extends inward into organisational operations only."*

### 5.4.2 Purposes of organising

An effective organisational structure accomplishes several purposes that could also be interpreted as benefits of effective organising. Information given by Holt (1987:228) and Ivancevich, et al. (1989:196) were used to identify the following purposes of organising:

- Organising makes clear who is supposed to do a particular job or perform a task. The structure of the organisation clarifies who is responsible.
- Through organising accountability is clarified. It indicates who is in charge and has the authority.
- The channels of communication are clarified through organising. Communication flow between defined positions and the principle of "need to know" determines who should be included in the channel. It ensures channels of communication that enhance decision making and control.
- Organising enable managers to allocate resources for the achievement of the objectives defined in the planning process.
- It provides clarity of individual performance expectations and specialised tasks.
- Through organising the division of work, avoiding duplication, conflicts and misuse of equipment and human resources, is ensured.

- Organising also ensures a logic flow of work activities that can be comfortably performed by individuals or groups.
- Coordinating mechanisms that ensure harmony among organisation members often engaged in a variety of activities are put into place through organising.
- It ensures focused efforts that relate to objectives in a logical and efficient manner.
- Appropriate authority structures with accountability that enhance planning and monitoring throughout the organisation hierarchy are provided by the organising function.

#### **5.4.3 Mistakes made in organising**

Effective planning and effective communication form the basis for managers to organise effectively. If these elements are not present, the following mistakes in organising are inevitable:

- Failure to plan properly. A manager should determine what kind of organisational structure will best serve future needs and what kind of employees will best serve the organisation.
- Relationships are not clarified. Authority and responsibility for action are critical in organising, with the result that lack of clarity in relationships means that employees are not clear on what is expected of them.
- Authority is not delegated.
- Failure to balance authority. Managers must maintain enough authority to ensure that when they do delegate authority to a subordinate, it is used correctly and for the intended purpose.
- Confusion of lines of authority and lines of information. There is no reason why lines of information should follow lines of authority.
- Granting of authority without responsibility.
- Holding people responsible who do not have responsibility.

#### **5.4.4. Decisions that determine the process of organising**

The process of organising is determined by four decisions. These decisions should be preceded by effective planning and are necessary for effective organising. Koontz, et al. (1984:234) and Ivancevich, et al. (1989:199) identified and discussed these decisions:

- Job design – jobs or positions are the fundamental building blocks of the organisational structure. Managers must specify what each of these positions will do and get done. A position is assigned to an employee and consists of specialised tasks to achieve specific objectives. Each employee's position is a result of a managerial decision that specifies what the employee must do to contribute to the organisation's overall tasks and objectives.
- Departmentation is the decision on how to group the positions. They must be grouped to achieve coordination. Once the positions are grouped, a manager is assigned the responsibility of coordinating each group of positions, thus forming a department.

- Span of control referring to the number of positions the department manager is responsible to coordinate. The number of workers who report to a manager determines his span of control.
- Delegation of authority refers to defining the authority of positions. Once the span of control is established, managers must decide how much authority employees need to do their work. This indicates the right of an employee to make decisions without having to obtain approval from a supervisor.

#### **5.4.5 Methods of departmentation**

As departmentation is one of the main elements of organising, researcher identified the following methods of departmentation in the literature (Koontz, et al., 1984:254-271; Ivancevich, et al., 1989:203-208 and Weinbach, 1994:214-222) that can be used to structure the activities of an organisation:

- Departmentation by numbers referring to grouping employees together who are to perform certain duties at the direction of a manager. It can be implemented only at the lowest level of the organisational structure. The usefulness of this method has decreased as labour skills have increased and groups composed of specialised personnel are more efficient than groups based on mere numbers.
- Employees are grouped due to their activities performed on the basis of time e.g. use of shifts. This refers to departmentation by time.
- Departments can be divided according to specific functions e.g. welfare planning and financing.
- Territory can be used as basis for departmentation. All activities in a given area are grouped and assigned to a manager. This method benefits large organisations with activities spread physically or geographically.
- Departmentation by product refers to a section manager receiving delegated authority over the manufacturing, sales, service and engineering functions that relate to a given product or product line.
- Activities are grouped together to render a specific service to a group of customers/clients e.g. loan service at the bank, adoption services for prospective adoptive parents. This is departmentation by customer/client.
- Departmentation by process or equipment brings people and equipment together in a department in order to carry out a particular operation.
- The grouping of activities in a specialised department for purposes of efficiency and control e.g. personnel department, typing pool is departmentation by service.
- Matrix organisation is the method of departmentation referring to a finding a middle course between functional and project activities. Organisations and service recipients have become interested in the final project with the result that there should be responsibility placed in someone to assure end results. This responsibility has been placed in the project manager.

#### 5.4.6 Organisational levels

There is a limit to the number of persons a manager can supervise. To accommodate this limit, organisational levels have come into existence. One of the tasks of the organising function of management is to decide how many subordinates a supervisor can effectively manage. This refers to the span of management for each manager. Certain factors, most of which have a direct link with laying claim on the time of the manager, have an influence on the effective span of management and are identified (Koontz, et al., 1984:240-242; Ivancevich, et al., 1989:210-211 and Haimann, 1994:138-139) and indicated as follows:

- Subordinate training - well-trained subordinates require not only less time of the manager but also fewer contacts with him.
- The nature and importance of the activities performed by subordinates.
- Competency of the supervisors/managers.
- Clarity of delegation of authority - if a manager clearly delegates authority to undertake a well-defined task, a well-trained subordinate can get it done with a minimum of the supervisor's time and attention.
- Clarity of plans - plans that are well defined, plans that are workable within the framework of the organisation, plans that have the delegated authority to undertake them and the subordinate understands what is expected of him, will need little time of the manager.
- The degree to which a fairly comprehensive set of standard procedures can be applied will need less time of the manager.
- Rate of change e.g. rapid change in policy and procedures will need more time of the manager.
- Communication techniques - a manager's span can be increased if he has mastered the ability to communicate plans and instructions clearly and concisely.
- Less time of the manager is needed when help from staff specialists are available.
- Amount of personal contact - there are situations where the best way of communicating a problem or instructing a subordinate is to spend time in personal contact.

#### 5.4.7 Authority

Authority is a major component of organising as each position in the organisation has a certain level of authority. The manager must be knowledgeable on the different forms of authority and the importance and manner in which authority can be delegated. Authority, power and different forms of authority within organisations are discussed in the literature (Koontz, et al., 1984:290-293,307; Holt, 1987:265; Haimann, 1994:129,134-135 and Weinbach, 1994:224-227). Managers must have clarity on authority to be effective in the organising function. It can be confusing if managers are not sure of the ultimate goal in organising.

- *Authority* is defined as the culmination of formal rights, duties and responsibilities associated with a position of management. It is legitimate power.

- *Power* refers to the ability to influence others to get things done. Power results in people thinking, believing and acting in ways that they would not think, believe or act on their own.
- *Line authority* refers to the relationship in which a superior exercises direct supervision over a subordinate. It involves no delegation. It is the authority to make certain decisions and to engage in certain activities connected with a position and its relation to other positions. Line authority exists because of the line (or box) occupied by the title of a position on the organisational chart. It goes with the position.
- *Staff authority* refers to the function of persons in a pure staff capacity. It requires delegation and a particular kind of relationship between management and staff members. Employees assigned staff authority for a task are engaged in activities that result in them giving advice to the manager. It is assumed that the staff member will engage in tasks of research and investigation prior to giving advice to the manager.
- *Functional authority* refers to the delegated power which a manager or section has over specified processes, practices, policies or other matters relating to activities undertaken by employees in sections other than its own. Managers who receive functional authority are given more authority, on a time-limited basis, than they would otherwise possess. Authority is granted for research, planning and implementation. Functional authority should be concentrated at the nearest possible point in the organisational structure to preserve the unity of command of the line managers.
- *Positional authority* is impersonal and is based on organisational position. It rests on the legitimacy of the manager's position as the representative of an organisation.
- *Personal authority* is based on the characteristics, magnetism and charisma of the manager.
- *Splintered authority* is applicable when a problem cannot be solved or a decision made without combining the delegated authority of two or more managers.

#### **5.4.8 Delegation of authority**

No manager can do it all. The manager has to make decisions and to perform tasks that he alone can and should perform. Other work can and should be delegated. One goal of delegation is to maximise the manager's influence while enhancing the quality of the activities within the organisation. Delegation empowers employees to make valuable contributions to organisational goal achievement. Authority is delegated when a superior vests decision making power in a subordinate. Holt (1987:278-279) describes the methods of delegating authority very clear. Managers must be knowledgeable on these methods in order to implement the most applicable method of delegation in the correct situation.

- **Personal assistance:** Subordinates only act as advisors as minimum authority is delegated. They may influence decisions but are not involved in the decision making.
- **Participative assistance:** Subordinates only have a degree of authority in order to be involved in decision making where their expertise is needed.

- **Joint decision making:** Superiors and subordinates share responsibility for making decisions. However, superiors may consider recommendations from subordinates or work together with them to reach consensus.
- **Subordinate decision making can be handled in two different ways:**
  - The superior may retain the right to review all decisions made by the subordinate prior to implementation. If the decision is unacceptable, the subordinate may be asked to regroup and consider changing the decision.
  - The superior may choose only to be informed periodically of the decisions made by the subordinate. He must intervene when necessary, but subordinates are left alone to make decisions. Subordinates are held responsible for their decisions and they must report their actions.
- **Autonomy in decision making:** This refers to the point of greatest formal transfer of authority where the subordinate is autonomous within legal and ethical limits. The superior will be informed of results through periodic reporting procedures.
- **Near abdication:** Delegation does not take place but managers “surrender”. Some managers think that once authority is delegated, their subordinates must bear the full burden of success or failure. Unfortunately no manager can completely avoid responsibility.

Delegation of authority is not always successful, as managers are not always willing to fully part with their authority. This can be overcome through the following activities:

- defining assignments and delegating authority clearly in terms of the results expected;
- selecting the employee on grounds of the type of work to be done;
- maintaining open lines of communication between manager and employee;
- establishing proper control; and
- rewarding effective delegation and successful acceptance of authority.

#### **5.4.9 Conclusion**

Whatever the pattern of structure selected for the specific organisation, it must clearly establish the flow of authority, accountability and responsibility for each individual employee in the organisation (Crow & Odewahn, 1987:10). The managerial function of organising is important for the effective functioning of an organisation. It ensures that all employees know what are expected of them and that they have the authority to execute their tasks with responsibility. A manager must be knowledgeable on all aspects of organising and the decisions that influence organising.

### **5.5 Staffing as management function**

#### **5.5.1 Description**

Staffing refers to the responsibility of the manager to recruit and select new employees to ensure that there are enough qualified employees to fill the various positions needed and budgeted for in the section. It also involves training these employees, promoting them, appraising their

performance and giving them opportunities for further development. It includes the task of compensating the employees appropriately. Staffing thus implies filling and keeping filled the positions provided for by the organisational structure. The main objective of staffing is to ensure that the organisation is neither understaffed nor overstaffed. In the literature, staffing has been extended to include management development, executive compensation, management appraisal and some other personnel activities at managerial level (Weiner, 1982:50; Koontz, et al., 1984:65; Miner & Luchsinger, 1985:7; Holt, 1987:372; Ivancevich, et al., 1989:519-521 and Haimann, 1994:16).

The staffing function of management implies that managers must determine both the number and type of employees needed in their sections. The manager matches the available positions in his section with the qualifications of prospective employees. He makes use of job descriptions indicating exactly what duties and responsibilities are contained within a particular position and job specifications that identify and describe the minimum acceptable qualifications required of a person in a particular position. Job descriptions and job specifications are based on the job analysis, which is a study of the positions within the organisation.

As not all literature that was studied identify staffing as a separate management function, the reasons for separating staffing as a management function as identified by Koontz, et al. (1982:307) are accepted for the purposes of this study. They are indicated to be the following:

- The staffing of organisational positions includes knowledge and approaches not usually recognised by practicing managers, who often think of organising as just setting up a structure of positions and give little attention to the filling of these positions.
- Specific attention to staffing gives emphasis to the human element in selection, appraisal and management development.
- An important body of knowledge and experience has been developed in the area of staffing.
- Managers often overlook the fact that staffing is their responsibility and not that of the personnel department.

### **5.5.2 Process of staffing**

The process of staffing is a sequence of activities executed by the manager. These activities are extensively discussed in the literature (Koontz, et al., 1984:397-398,407; Holt, 1987:378-380,382,384-386,389,398; and Ivancevich, et al., 1989:522-531; Werther & Davis, 1993:274,340,414 and Haimann, 1994:246-259,263-254) but for the purposes of this study, the activities are briefly described. There is also a direct connection between these activities of staffing as management function and the activities of the administration function of social work supervision.

### 5.5.2.1 Recruitment

- Before recruitment can be done, job descriptions (written statements officially specifying job duties and qualifications) should be available. The job description provides a clear idea of the performance requirements for a person in a particular position, but also allows some flexibility to take advantage of individual characteristics and abilities.
- Placing vacant positions on bulletin boards within the organisation does non-specialised internal recruitment. Through internal recruitment advancement opportunities are provided to motivated employees with the result that both the organisation and the employees benefit.
- When selection has to focus more critically on ability than seniority, specialised internal recruitment is exercised.
- Non-specialised outside recruitment is done within local labour markets composed of individuals who are unemployed or in the process of changing jobs.
- Specialised outside recruitment refers to recruitment of professionals and managers mainly through professional publications, college placement offices and reputable agencies.

### 5.5.2.2 Selection: Matching the person with the job

- A completed application form is received with predetermined information on the applicant and is used for preliminary screening.
- Comparing the job criteria and the required skills with the predetermined information within the application form completes the preliminary screening.
- Initial interviews are conducted to evaluate the personal characteristics of the applicant.
- Thereafter tests and assessments are executed through which skills, attitudes and competencies are assessed.
- Background investigations are done to verify the credentials, education and reliability of the applicants.
- The applicants, who pass successfully through the above steps, are invited for in-depth interviews to complete the evaluation as required by managers.
- Thereafter the decision to employ the applicant is made and he is presented with an offer. Negotiation is done if necessary and the contracting between the organisation and the individual are completed.
- Some organisations require a physical examination before a decision is made to interview or employ an applicant.
- Employment orientation takes place at acceptance of office, which is the process for integrating new employees into the organisation.

### 5.5.2.3 Orientation

The purposes of orientation are the following:

- Orientation aims at developing realistic job expectations.
- It decreases the concerns associated with a new position.

- Pride in belonging to an organisation of quality is encouraged.
- An awareness of the scope of the services of the organisation and their impact is created through orientation.
- Orientation aims at improving productivity.
- It clarifies the standards of quality by which performance is measured.
- Time and effort are saved through orientation.
- Orientation improves employment stability.
- Conflict is reduced through orientation.
- It confirms the understanding that the employee and the manager share the responsibility for personal growth and development.

#### 5.5.2.4 Training and development

The manager has a responsibility to ensure that his subordinates receive the necessary training and development to be able to achieve personal and organisational objectives. This can be done through formal training, off-job formal training, job rotation, on-the-job training and in-service training.

#### 5.5.2.5 Compensations and benefits management

The manager is responsible to ensure that employees are rewarded in an equitable manner that motivates them for performance of acceptable standards. Benefits management is mainly monetary in nature. The objectives of compensation management are:

- Compensation has to be high enough to attract and secure qualified personnel.
- Employees may quit when compensation levels are not competitive. Compensation management aims at keeping present employees.
- It ensures equity: a) Internal equity - pay to be related to the relative worth of work, similar positions get similar pay. b) External equity - paying employees what comparable employees at other organisations are paid.
- An effective compensation plan rewards performance, loyalty, experience, responsibilities and other behaviours.
- Compensation management controls costs. A rational compensation system helps an organisation to obtain and keep employees at a reasonable cost.
- Legal regulations are met through compensation management.

#### 5.5.2.6 Performance evaluation

Performance evaluation has two broad purposes:

- Judgmental purpose - when performance evaluation results are the motivation for salary, promotion and transfer decisions. The objective is to improve performance by rewarding high performers.

- Developmental purpose - this purpose is accomplished when subordinates are made aware of their strengths and weaknesses and ways to improve their skills and abilities.

The manager is expected to implement a performance appraisal system to evaluate the performance of his subordinates. It implies an ongoing process of gathering, analysing and evaluating information about the performance of the subordinates. The manager uses this information to guide management in selecting employees for promotion and salary increases. This information is also useful for coaching subordinates to improve their performance. Performance evaluation should provide an accurate picture of an employee's typical job performance. The aim of performance evaluation is not just to reveal poor performance but also to identify acceptable and good performance.

#### 5.5.2.7 Transfers and terminations

The manager is responsible for transfers through promotions, demotions, job offers and retraining. Terminations refer to employees being fired or who quit the job themselves as well as employees who retire or die. The cycle continues with the implementation of the staffing activities to ensure that positions are filled and kept filled.

#### 5.5.3 Conclusion

Since the manager is the person who has the most contact with the subordinate throughout his employment in the organisation, it is natural that he should be the person who is involved through the whole process of staffing (Ferreira, 1991:98). It is clear that the staffing function of management is a continuous process that should receive a proportional part of the time of the manager.

### 5.6 Leading as management function

#### 5.6.1 Description

Leading is also known as influencing, directing or motivating. It includes directing, guiding, teaching, coaching and supervising subordinates. Leading applies a combination of personal characteristics (of the manager), knowledge and skills to influence the behaviour of subordinates. It is closely related to the concept of motivation. To influence is to motivate employees to achieve their maximum potential and satisfy their needs and to encourage them to accomplish tasks they may not choose to do on their own. Through leading the manager aims at creating a climate conducive to employee satisfaction while achieving the objectives of the organisation.

In hierarchical systems leading means the use of different methods to get subordinates to do what they are supposed to do in terms of their job design and job description. Leading also involves assisting subordinates to achieve their highest level of performance. Leading can also contribute to restoring effective performance among those who have failed to achieve it or to maintaining

existing performance levels (Miner & Luchsinger, 1985:7 and Holt, 1987:436). Leading involves motivation, leadership styles and approaches and communication.

The task of managers is to encourage people to contribute effectively toward the accomplishment of organisational goals and to satisfy their own desires and needs in the process. The managerial function of leading is defined as *"the process of influencing people so that they will strive willingly and enthusiastically toward the achievement of organisational goals"* (Koontz, et al., 1984:65,460). Ivancevich, et al., (1989:296) defines leadership as *" the ability to influence through communication the activities of others, individually as well as a group, toward the accomplishment of worthwhile, meaningful and challenging goals."* This definition indicates that one cannot be a leader unless there are people to be led. It further refers to the implementation of influential skills with the purpose of accomplishing goals.

### **5.6.2 Distinction between manager and leader**

The distinction between manager and leader as provided by Glisson (1989:101) is important for managers. Managers should find the golden mean between the two concepts in order to be successful as both manager and leader.

- The manager adopts impersonal attitudes toward organisational goals; he approaches work as a rational enabling process; he relates to people according to their roles in this process; and he develops a sense of self that can be related to the organisation in which he works.
- The leader adopts a personal attitude toward organisational goals; he approaches work as an exciting opportunity for risk and reward; he relates to people subjectively as individuals; and he develops a sense of self that is separate from the organisation in which he works.

### **5.6.3 The characteristics of good leadership**

The effectiveness of good leadership depends on the ability of the manager to identify the demands of a specific situation; to identify the most applicable style for the situation; and to adapt his behaviour accordingly. He has to influence and guide his subordinates by accepting and implementing a specific leadership style. To be effective as a leader, Broadwell (1990:78-80) and Haimann (1994:294-296) recommend that the manager must have the following abilities at his disposal:

- The manager must be able to acknowledge other people's point of view, which does not necessarily imply that he agrees with them or gives in to them, but that he has empathy for those views.
- The ability to observe himself as others observe him (self-awareness) and the ability to perceive how he influences others by what he does are important.

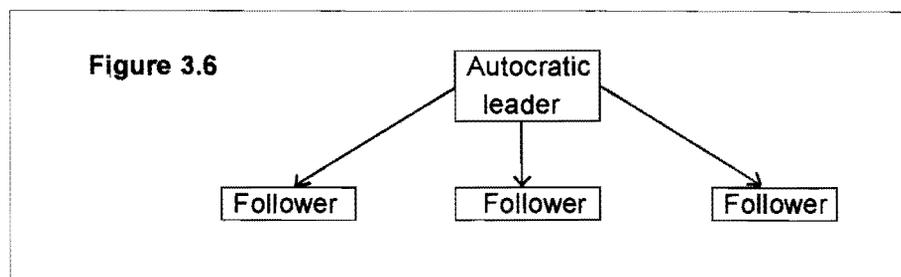
- The manager must have a willingness to work and to put in long hours on tasks that are not exciting or rewarding.
- He must be able to generate enthusiasm among subordinates (intensity that is contagious).
- A willingness to accept responsibility is important for the manager.
- The manager must have the ability to be reasonable towards subordinates.
- Intelligence in activities and reactions that would ensure that subordinates are able to understand them is important for the manager.
- He must be able to make use of appropriate wording as the tone and words used in issuing instructions affect subordinates' acceptance and performance. This ability relates to phrasing instructions as requests that can make a difference in subordinate reactions.
- The manager must specify time limits within which instructions should be carried out and be completed.

#### 5.6.4 Leadership behaviour and style

The leadership behaviour and style that a manager accepts, has developed through experience and him being able to identify which style renders the best results with subordinates. Weil (1988:72) provides a good description of leadership style: "*Leadership style is the sum of the characteristics which shape the ways someone exercise leadership and guides decision making in an organisation. It evolves from an individual's personal style and personality traits influenced by culture and socialisation and is moulded by education, theoretical models and trial and error experience.*"

Leadership behaviour and style are divided into three categories (Koontz, et al., 1984:509 and Haimann, 1994:298-301):

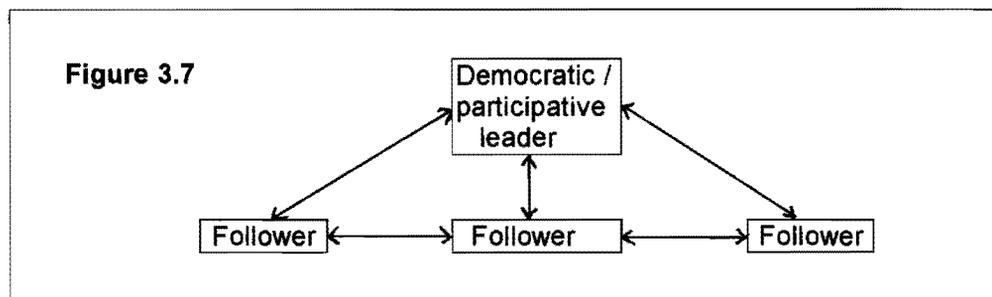
- Autocratic leader (Figure 3.6): The manager gives direct, clear and precise orders to subordinates with detailed instructions as to how and in what sequence things are to be done. He relies on commands and expects cooperation. The manager uses the autocratic technique and will delegate as little authority as possible. He leads by withholding or giving rewards and punishment. This style can also be referred to as close supervision.



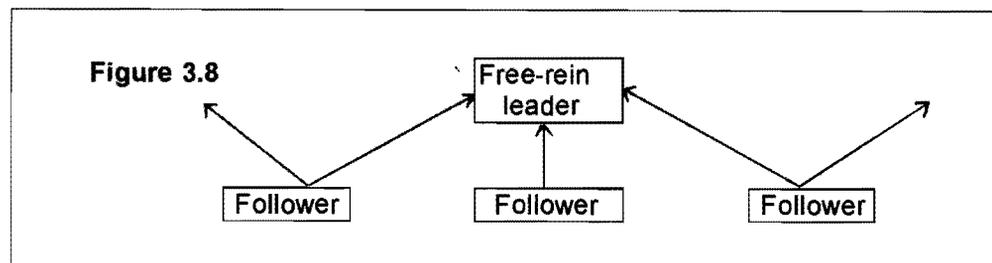
- Democratic or participative leader (Figure 3.7): The manager consults with subordinates on proposed actions and decisions and encourages participation from them. He consults with subordinates concerning the extent, nature and alternative solution to a problem before he makes a decision and issues an instruction. This style is also referred to as general supervision.

The advantages of this leadership style are:

- an instruction does not appear to the subordinate as an order, but rather as a solution in which he participated;
- it provides an outlet for reasoning power and imagination and an opportunity for the subordinate to make a worthwhile contribution to the organisation; and
- it will bring the subordinate closer to the manager, which will promote better communication and understanding between them.



- Free-rein leader (Figure 3.8): This manager uses very little of his power and gives subordinates a high degree of independence or "free-rein" in their operations. He depends largely on the subordinates to set their own goals and the means of achieving them. He perceives his role as one of facilitating the activities of subordinates by furnishing them with information and acting primarily as a contact with their external environment. The manager gives general indications of what needs doing and might make a few suggestions as to how to go about in doing it.



### 5.6.5 Aspects affecting leadership style

An appropriate style of leadership depends on situations and personalities. Aspects that affect and influence the leader's acceptance of a leadership style can be the following:

- The manager's personality such as his value system, confidence in subordinates, inclination towards certain leadership styles.

- Subordinates' expectations of the manager as a leader.
- Situational factors such as organisational values and traditions, how effectively subordinates work as a unit, nature of a problem and whether authority to handle it can be safely delegated and the pressure of time.
- Superiors' expectations of the manager as a leader.
- Organisational culture.
- Peer expectations also have specific influences on the manager.
- The degree to which the power of his position, as distinguished from other sources of power such as expertise power, enables a leader to get subordinates to perform.
- The extent to which subordinates like and trust a leader and are willing to follow him has specific influences.

#### **5.6.6 Conditions for effective leadership**

There are certain conditions for effective leadership and the manager must not only be aware of them, but also believe in them. Information provided by Bevilacqua (1995:42-43) was used as basis for the following list of conditions for the manager to be effective as leader:

- Believe in what you are doing and have the vision to understand its importance.
- Accept and understand that risk is part of the game and that effective leaders lose as well as win their battles.
- Get out into the public and be known in the community.
- Accept that more situations are uncertain than are clear and precise.
- Have a good personal support system of families, friends and colleagues.
- Honour devoted employees but do not let their honours become ritualistic.
- Develop a broad base of support to lead effectively.
- Pay attention to the service recipient through both listening and responding.
- Develop and maintain a connection with institutions of higher education. Universities have the objectivity and information to help you succeed in ways that would not be possible without such connections.
- Work for significant and visible success early in your career. You will be able to build on that success.
- Do not take the credit but direct to others and spread the credit around.
- Do not maintain a dictatorial position. Have convictions, but understand that there are many ways to achieve the same fundamental objectives.
- Communicate in a straightforward way. Do not avoid the truth or use complex terminology to avoid saying what you mean.
- Love your work, but recognise that you are only a temporary occupant and will some day have to give it up. Be totally dedicated and be willing to drop out when the time comes.

### **5.6.7 Conclusion**

The manager has an important responsibility to act as role model for subordinates. The most certain way in which to do it is by implementing the managerial function of leadership effectively. The leadership behaviour and style the manager adopts have a direct influence on his success as a leader within specific leadership situations. The manager must ensure that he has the ability or skill to be consequent in similar situations. This will contribute to him being successful as a trustworthy leader.

## **5.7 Controlling as management function**

### **5.7.1 Description**

The management function of controlling refers to the task and responsibility of measuring and correcting the performance of subordinates to ensure that all levels of objectives and the plans developed to attain them are being accomplished (Koontz, et al., 1984:549).

To control is to determine whether plans are implemented, if progress is being made toward objectives and whether other actions must be taken to correct deviations and shortcomings. It includes taking corrective action if objectives are not met and revising the plans and objectives if circumstances require it.

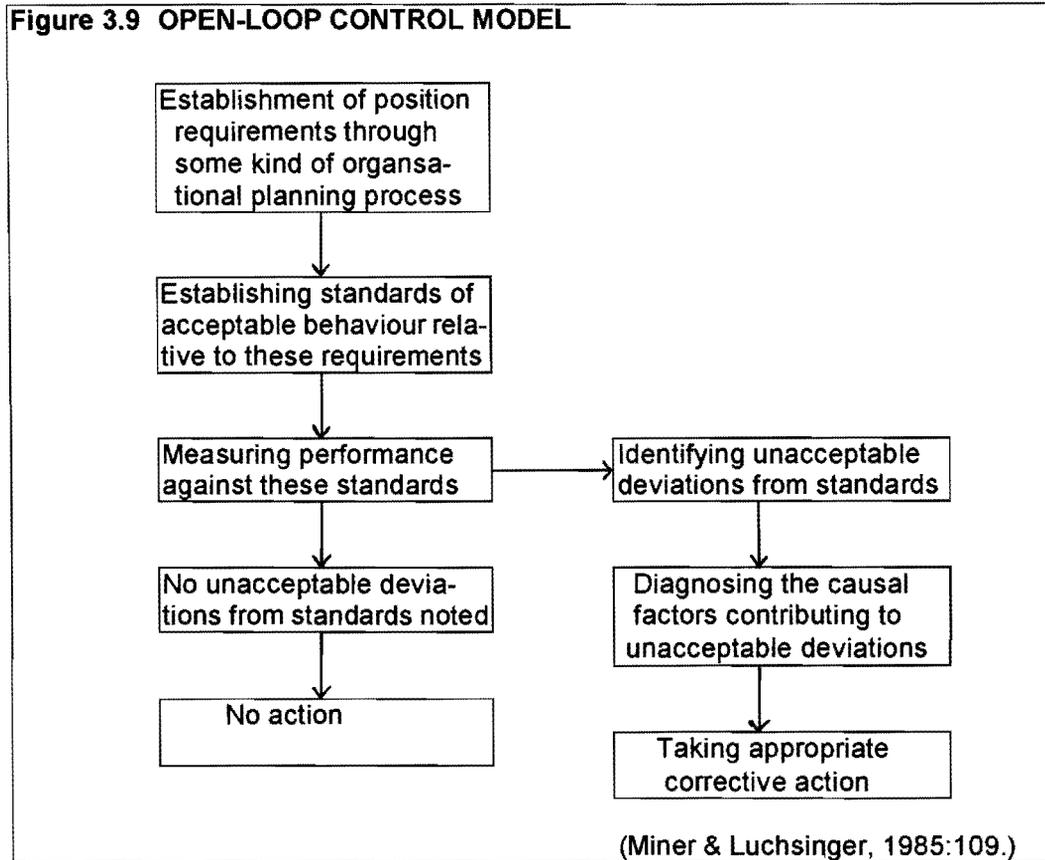
### **5.7.2 Control process**

Control involves comparing performance against previously established standards in order to introduce corrective action when there is an unacceptable deviation. The open-loop control model contains a diagnostic, decision making step between the identification of a problem and action to correct it. This step is inevitable when dealing with human performance as opposed to machinery. The closed-loop control system does not require any diagnosis. The open-loop control model as presented by Miner & Luchsinger (1985:109) is illustrated in Figure 3.9.

The basic control process has been identified within the literature (Koontz, et al., 1984:551-552; Miner & Luchsinger, 1985:110; Holt, 1987:518-519; Crow & Odewahn, 1987:12; Ivancevich, et al., 1989:448-449; McLoud, 1989:35; Broadwell, 1990:83 and Haimann, 1994:381) as consisting of the following steps or phases:

- The first step is to establish standards and identify criteria of performance. An acceptable level of performance on various dimensions such as quality, quantity and cooperation must be established. Selected "checkpoints" in an entire planning program are identified where performance are measured to ensure that managers are informed of the progress without them having to control every step in the execution of plans.
- Then performance is measured by evaluating performance in terms of the set standards. This step is also referred to as the gathering of information.

- The information that was gathered is then analysed resulting in identifying the causes of deviations, if any.
- Thereafter correction of deviations are done, e.g. redrawing plans, modifying goals, reassigning or clarifying duties, additional staffing, better selection and training of subordinates, revising existing standards downward to make them more appropriate to employee capabilities.



### 5.7.3 Requirements for control

According to Koontz, et al. (1984:561-564), Holt (1987:529), McLoud (1989a:36), Haimann (1994:377) and Weinbach (1994:249-251) control should comply with certain requirements to be adequate and to be implemented successfully. The requirements are:

- Control techniques should be practical in terms of the plans they are designed to follow.
- Control systems and information are intended to help individual managers to perform their function of control. Controls should be objective, understandable and efficient.
- Exceptions at critical points should be identified by controls. By concentrating on exceptions from planned performance, managers can detect the areas where their attention is required.
- Flexibility is essential for controls systems.
- Control systems should fit the organisational climate.
- They should be economical, appropriate and adequate.

- Controls should lead to corrective action and indicate where the corrective action should be applied.
- Conditions should be improved by control systems.
- Standards of performance must be clear and must include measurable criteria. The responsibility of management should be well defined and performance expectations be expressed in language or numbers everyone understands.
- Standards must be credible and expectations be perceived as purposeful.
- Controls must be integrated with one another and coordinated with plans so that corrective actions are purposeful. To assure that actions taken in one area do not create problems in another, coordination is crucial.
- Information must be accurate and reports on which corrective actions are taken must reflect careful analyses.
- Controls must be acceptable to employees as appropriate means of improving organisational performance.

#### **5.7.4 Conclusion**

The controlling function of management flows naturally from the previous functions of management. Management does not implement this function as a form of policing. Subordinates must be made aware of the necessity for control measures and procedures as well as the purpose for which controls are designed. This can assist the manager with the implementation of the control function, as the participation of subordinates can ensure the correct implementation of control measures and procedures. It can also contribute to employees being more focussed on effective work performance.

## **6. EXPECTATIONS OF GOOD MANAGEMENT PRACTICE**

### **6.1 Introduction**

The tasks and responsibilities of managers in the management of change and the implementation of the five important managerial functions are multiple. If the manager performs these tasks and responsibilities effectively and efficiently, he will fulfil the expectations of good management practice. The expectations of good management practice are the following:

### **6.2 Identified expectations**

- 6.2.1 The manager must exercise the authority of his position in such a manner that his subordinates accept a moral obligation of loyalty towards him as manager.
- 6.2.2 An extension of this authority of position is the ability of the manager to exercise his power in such a manner that subordinates identify personally with the manager and accept and use him as a role model.
- 6.2.3 The manager must exercise his authority of expertise based on demonstrated competence, particular knowledge and skills and credibility as a manager.

- 6.2.4 The manager must have a positive self-image and act with confidence and competence as a manager.
- 6.2.5 It is required of the manager to enable subordinates to accomplish organisational goals.
- 6.2.6 The manager has to participate in determining, formulating and implementing organisational policies.
- 6.2.7 The manager has to ensure that subordinates receive education and training. This can include effectively preparing subordinates to perform their jobs well and retraining rather than laying off subordinates when new technology is implemented.
- 6.2.8 The manager is expected to ensure that the legal requirements related to employee/employer relationships are met. This refers to aspects such as the physical conditions of work, wage and hour provisions and fringe benefits.
- 6.2.9 The manager has to comply with the ethics of management, as ethical misconduct by a manager can be extremely damaging and costly for the image of the organisation as a whole.
- 6.2.10 The manager must direct his management of subordinates toward the mission of the organisation.
- 6.2.11 An environment for effective planning has to be established by the manager. He should be involved in the planning process and ensure that planning is well organised.
- 6.2.12 The manager must be motivated to manage which implies the following:
- Positive attitude toward authority. A manager must be able to represent his group upward and obtain support for activities at higher levels.
  - Competitive motivation to distinguish oneself from peers.
  - Assertive motivation. A "take charge" attitude is required.
  - Power motivation - downward supervision is essential.
  - Motivation to stand out from a group.
  - Motivation to assume routine administrative responsibilities.
- 6.2.13 The manager must have a "professional commitment" recognisable through a strong tie to the managerial profession that makes him responsive to ethics and norms, as well as keeping him from leaving the profession.
- 6.2.14 The manager has to ensure that performance of subordinates results in high productivity.
- 6.2.15 The manager must be aware of the variables affecting cost-effectiveness, such as a) client's presenting problem and level of functioning; b) quality and quantity of direct service and administrative personnel; c) management practices; and d) program evaluation.
- 6.2.16 The manager must plan for effective management by recognising the goals and standards to be achieved and the resources that can be used in achieving them. He must take the necessary steps to utilise these resources and implement procedures to meet objectives and achieve goals. He must evaluate the success of the program.
- 6.2.17 The effective manager specifies rules of conduct for subordinates.

- 6.2.18 He sets reasonable work performance objectives for subordinates.
- 6.2.19 He creates a favourable work environment:
- With physical conditions and material resources adequate to facilitate productivity and promote staff comfort and morale.
  - Provides financial resources.
  - Works to develop a positive interpersonal relationship with subordinates.
  - Ensures that an open channel of communication between manager and subordinate exists.
- 6.2.20 The manager models and instructs subordinates in appropriate conduct and productive performance.
- 6.2.21 He exercises fair control in the management of subordinate behaviour.
- 6.2.22 The manager is responsible for the recruitment of competent supervisory personnel.
- 6.2.23 He is responsible for the orientation and training of supervisors.
- 6.2.24 He has to establish and maintain effective feedback systems to ensure a satisfied workforce.
- 6.2.25 The manager must implement professional consultation and peer review in performance evaluation.
- 6.2.26 The manager must be a good boss and leader to his subordinates.
- 6.2.27 The manager should continually review and if necessary, revise procedures and make plans concerning improved work methods and processes.
- 6.2.28 He must take responsibility for the identification and elimination of job safety and health hazards, promoting and communicating safety practices and regulations to subordinates, investigating possible job related accidents and illnesses.
- 6.2.29 The manager has a responsibility in the transformation of the organisation.
- 6.2.30 The manager must have the ability to understand and respond to the individual change reactions of those he manages.
- 6.2.31 The manager must teach subordinates the proper use of equipment and supplies, because many workers are careless and do not realise the amount of money involved.
- 6.2.32 The manager must sort and grade problems by deciding which ones he must attend to personally and those that can be assigned to subordinates with delegated authority.
- 6.2.33 The manager has the responsibility to fulfil the organisation's end of the psychological contract (mutual expectations of the individual and the organisation) and reminding individual subordinates of their contractual obligations.
- 6.2.34 The manager has to help setting organisational objectives. This implies implementing the process of control.
- 6.2.35 He has to be involved with the financial planning and review of the organisation.
- 6.2.36 The manager is responsible for inter-departmental coordination.
- 6.2.37 The manager has to develop group cooperation and teamwork within his section.

- 6.2.38 The manager must be able to cope with difficulties and emergencies. He must be able to efficiently work under pressure, effectively handle unexpected problems, day-to-day crises and emergency situations, quickly analyse operation breakdowns and setting priorities for action.
  - 6.2.39 The manager must ensure that effective communication take place in the organisation.
  - 6.2.40 He has to develop subordinate potential. This implies evaluating the present performance and potential of subordinates in order to create opportunities for better utilisation of their abilities, examining and responding to subordinate dissatisfaction and assisting others in overall career development.
  - 6.2.41 The manager is expected to implement supervisory practices. He has to clarify the job functions and responsibilities of subordinates, motivate subordinates while maintaining discipline and control, and ensure that subordinates maintain established standards of performance and accepting responsibility for those who do not.
  - 6.2.42 The manager is responsible for his own self-development and improvement.
  - 6.2.43 The manager is responsible for promoting positive community-organisation relations. This means staying informed on the community's social, economic and political problems and their relevance to and impact upon the organisation. Also accepting responsibility for the ongoing relationship between the organisation and the community by actively seeking information from and disseminating information to the community about the organisation.
  - 6.2.44 As an administrator, the manager should be able to draw clear lines between his role and that of the senior management of the organisation.
  - 6.2.45 The manager has to build major informal communication channels for getting information that cannot be accessed through official means.
  - 6.2.46 The manager has a responsibility towards himself - he should take time for regular exercise, sensible eating and whatever kind of leisure activity recharges his batteries.
- (Christian & Hannah, 1983:2-3,4,14,99-105; Koontz, et al., 1984:219-222; Miner & Luchsinger, 1985:33,47,502-503; Crow & Odewahn, 1987:2; Clare, 1988:492; Ivancevich, et al., 1989:642,645,651,654; Harvard Business Review Book, 1990:37; Walsh, 1990:83; Baehr, 1991:174-178; Ivancevich & Matteson, 1993:720; Costello, 1994:15; Haimann, 1994:4,116-121; Tepper, 1994:95; Liederman, 1995:xii-xiii; Gummer & Edwards, 1995:67; Nadler, et al., 1995:48-50 and Wycoff, 1995:30.)

### **6.3 Conclusion**

As in the case of the expectations of good supervisory practice, the list of expectations of good management practice can be endless. As with the social work supervisor, the manager is seldom verbally informed of these expectations. The expectations are naturally resulting from the managerial functions. The ability of the manager to meet the expectations has a direct connection with his personal qualities and his managerial skills and roles. The expectations of a manager ensure the success of achieving organisational objectives and subordinate objectives. Again, as

with the social work supervisor, the manager is in the middle of this achievement. The manager has to rely on himself in order to be successful, as specific support systems are not available to him in the performance of his functions and expectations.

## **7. SUMMARY**

The literature has provided a wide variety of information on management applicable for the purposes of this study. The above information is however sufficient. Throughout the literature study it was evident that the manager has to act and react to growing demands for accountability and effectiveness. The implication is that the manager is expected to be effective within a changed and developed organisation without a changed and developed approach towards his managerial skills.

Competent managers have certain qualities that support them toward being effective in their management practice. These qualities are necessary for the development of managerial skills such as technical and analytical skills. The managerial skills enable the manager to accept certain managerial roles. These roles explain what managers actually do and how they spend their time. The management of transformation within an organisation is part of the responsibilities of all managers. They need to be aware of the different reactions to change among employees. Change has an emotional impact on employees and managers must have the ability to manage this impact effectively and to change it into positive potential such as using the transition as an opportunity to acquire new skills. Managers must be informed on the transformation process and their responsibilities within each phase in the process.

Five functions of management have been identified and discussed - planning, organising, staffing, leading and controlling - but they are interrelated and flow into each other. They are linked through the managerial activities of decision making, coordination and communication. The implications of being able to implement the managerial functions effectively are that the manager has to be trained as a manager, he must be aware of any new developments in the managerial field and he must have specific personal objectives as a manager.

A support system is also a necessity to a manager, but unfortunately no reference could be found on this being available to the manager. The identified expectations of good management practice stress that managers do have a need for an effective and sufficient support system.