SUPPORT SYSTEMS FOR SOCIAL WORK SUPERVISORS IN THE DEPARTMENT OF WELFARE

by

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SUMMARY

TITLE: SUPPORT SYSTEMS FOR SOCIAL WORK SUPERVISORS IN THE DEPARTMENT OF WELFARE

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Due to the emotional draining and potentially stressful nature of social work practice, the availability of social work supervision becomes desirable and necessary. Supervision has to be implemented continuously in order to render an effective and sufficient service to clients, families and communities. Social work supervisors have very important and necessary roles to play in the professional development of social workers and the effective functioning of the social services organisations in which they are employed. Additional to the responsibility pertaining to the social workers, supervisors are middle managers and thus have specific management responsibilities as well. The result is that the supervisor has to implement both supervision and management functions. Supervisors function under stress that is enforced by expectations from social workers and senior management.

Social workers do have formal channels of feedback and support in the supervisors that provide opportunities for commendation. Supervisors have no such formally assigned sources of feedback or support. There is little recognition for their accomplishments and little or no support when they encounter problems. The problem is that the lack or absence of support and support systems for social work supervisors has a negative influence on their supervisory and managerial services to social workers.

The supervisory and managerial expectations were identified as prove of the demands placed on supervisors as well as the work-related stress that they are subjected to. A few management strategies have been identified as possible support systems for supervisors in the management of supervisees. Support systems that were identified and discussed are employee benefits, employee incentives, job description, knowledge of the budget and financial controls, employee

assistance program, supervisors' peer support group, career planning, organisational culture, organisational climate and the immediate superior.

The empirical research was done through the quantitative research technique and a mailed questionnaire as data gathering method. The social work supervisors of the Department of Welfare were the research population and the participating provinces were Mpumalanga, Free State and Eastern Cape. The data received through the questionnaires supported the indication that supervisors do not receive support in the execution of their responsibilities. It was confirmed that the identified support systems, if utilised and applied effectively, could provide supervisors with support.

The empirical research and the literature study have confirmed the following research statements:

1. Insufficient support systems are available to supervisors in the social work profession.
2. The available support systems for social work supervisors are inadequately administered and utilised.
3. Due to the inadequate utilisation of support systems, supervisors experience lack of support resulting in neglected supervisory and managerial practice.

Relevant data from the questionnaires and the literature study formed the basis for the development of guidelines for application of the support systems. It is recommended that these guidelines be implemented for the support systems to be effectively utilised and applied.

KEYWORDS:
Supervision

Management

Support

Strategies

Guidelines

Benefits

Culture

Climate

Duty sheet

Training

OPSOMMING

TITEL: ONDERSTEUNINGSTELSELS VIR MAATSKAPLIKEWERK SUPERVISORS IN DIE DEPARTEMENT VAN WELSYN

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As gevolg van die emosioneel uitputtende en potensieel spanningsvolle aard van die maatskaplikewerk-praktyk, is die beskikbaarheid van maatskaplikewerk-supervisie wenslik en noodsaaklik. Supervisie moet voortdurend toegepas word ten einde 'n voldoende en effektiewe diens aan kliënte, gesinne en gemeenskappe te lewer. Maatskaplikewerk-supervisors speel baie belangrike en noodsaaklike rolle in die professionele ontwikkeling van maatskaplike werkers en die effektiewe dienslewering van die maatskaplikewerk-organisasie waar hulle werksaam is. Addisioneel tot die verantwoordelikheid ten opsigte van die maatskaplike werkers, is supervisors middelvlak bestuurders en het hulle dus ook spesifieke bestuursverantwoordelikhede. Die gevolg is dat die supervisors die funksies van supervisie en bestuur moet implementeer. Supervisors werk dus onder druk as gevolg van die verwagtings wat aan hulle gestel word deur maatskaplike werkers en senior bestuurders.

Maatskaplike werkers beskik oor formele kanale van terugvoer en ondersteuning deur die supervisors wat geleenthede daarstel vir erkenning. Supervisors beskik nie oor hierdie formeel toegewysde bronne van terugvoer en ondersteuning nie. Daar is min erkenning vir hul werkverrigting en min of geen ondersteuning wanneer hulle probleme ondervind. Die probleem is dat die gebrek aan of ontbreking van ondersteuning en ondersteuningstelsels vir maatskaplikewerk-supervisors 'n negatiewe invloed het op die supervisie- en bestuursdienste wat aan maatskaplike werkers gelewer word.

Die verwagtings ten opsigte van supervisie en bestuur is geïdentifiseer as bewys van die vereistes wat aan supervisors gestel word asook die werkverwante spanning waaraan hulle blootgestel is. 'n Paar bestuurstrategieë is geïdentifiseer as moontlike ondersteuningstelsels vir supervisors in die bestuur van maatskaplike werkers. Ondersteuningstelsels wat geïdentifiseer en bespreek is, is werknemervoordele, pligtestaat, kennis van die begroting en finansiële

beheersisteme, werknemerhulpprogram, ondersteuningsgroep vir supervisors, beroepsbeplanning, organisasiekultuur, organisasieklimaat en onmiddellike toesighouer.

Die empiriese navorsing is uitgevoer met behulp van die kwantitatiewe navorsingstegniek en 'n posvraelys as data insamelingsmetode. Die maatskaplikewerk-supervisors van die Departement van Welsyn was die navorsingspopulasie en die deelnemende provinsies was Mpumalanga, Vrystaat en Oos-Kaap. Die data verkry deur die vraelyste ondersteun die aanduiding dat supervisors nie ondersteun word in die uitvoering van hul verantwoordelikhede nie. Dit was bevestig dat die geïdentifiseerde ondersteuningstelsels, indien effektief benut en uitgevoer, supervisors kan ondersteun.

Die empiriese navorsing en die literatuurstudie het die volgende navorsingstellings bevestig:
1. Onvoldoende ondersteuningstelsels is beskikbaar vir supervisors in die maatskaplikewerk-professie.
2. Die beskikbare ondersteuningstelsels vir maatskaplikewerk-supervisors word ontoereikend geadministreer en benut.
3. As gevolg van die ontoereikende benutting van die ondersteuningstelsels, ervaar supervisors 'n gebrek aan ondersteuning wat lei tot verwaarloosde supervisie- en bestuurspraktyk.

Relevante data verkry van die vraelyste en die literatuurstudie was die basis vir die ontwikkeling van die riglyne vir die toepassing van die ondersteuningstelsels. Dit word aanbeveel dat hierdie riglyne ge-implementeer word vir die effektiewe benutting en toepassing van die ondersteuningstelsels.

SLEUTELWOORDE

Supervisie

Bestuur

Ondersteuning

Strategieë

Riglyne

Voordele

Kultuur

Klimaat

Pligtestaat

Opleiding

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CHAPTER ONE

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1. INTRODUCTION

Research in the field of Social Work has developed considerably in the last decade focusing on the responsibility of social workers to employ available knowledge and skills in continual improvement of their practice. The paradigm shift in social work services towards developmental social work services has increased the responsibilities of the social workers placing more demands on them for effective and efficient service delivery. The direct implication is that social work supervisors as managers of social workers are also exposed to these additional demands due to the paradigm shift. Supervisors are thus subjected to additional work related stress and demands and they need support to be enabled to effectively handle these demands in the same manner that they provide support to the social workers in handling the demands.

The focus of this study is on the management component of Social Work. The aim is to attend to the middle-management level within Social Work, i.e. the supervisors and their needs for support and support systems to enable them to effectively handle work related stress and demands and to implement good supervisory practice.

2. MOTIVATION FOR THE CHOICE OF THE SUBJECT

The distinctive nature of the problems encountered and the tasks performed by social workers lead to identifying the social work profession as an emotional draining and responsible profession. It is evident that the nature of social work practice can be potentially stressful and aspects such as client relationships, workload, work relationships and policies of the organisation are potential stressors. The social worker's exposure to emotional and physical overload contributes to over-burdening of [1]his intellectual and emotional resources. His morale and confidence decreases in the face of anxiety, anger and dependency feelings of clients (Clare, 1988:501 and Collings & Murray, 1996:376).

The availability of social work supervision thus becomes desirable and necessary. Supervision is not only an integral part of the profession but is a necessity for maintaining perspective in the performance of social work responsibilities. Supervision has been identified as another method in social work as it needs to be implemented continually in order to render an effective and sufficient service to clients, families and communities.

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[1] He/his will be representing both male and female social workers and will be used throughout the document. It is no indication of discrimination on gender basis.

Social workers have to be empowered to render effective and sufficient social work services. In the social work profession it is taken for granted that supervision is the method through which this enabling is brought about. Van Staden (1992:15, 20) stresses that social work supervisors have very important and necessary roles to play in the professional development of social workers and the effective functioning of the social services organisations in which they are employed. Additional to the responsibility pertaining to the social workers, supervisors are middle managers and thus have specific management responsibilities as well.

The result is that the duty sheet of the supervisor expects that both management functions and supervision functions be implemented. Due to the expectations that management has of them, supervisors tend to give priority to management functions. It is easier to postpone a supervision session than to explain to management why a certain task was not completed. Supervisors thus function under stress that is enforced by management. The result is neglected supervisory practice that can result in negative and unmotivated social workers.

Being employed as a supervisor in the Department of Welfare, researcher became aware of and experienced the stresses resulting from these multiple roles, responsibilities and expectations. Social work supervisors are exposed to emotional and physical overload in terms of social workers laying claim on them for support and it contributes to over-burdening of their intellectual and emotional resources. Their morale and confidence also decrease in the face of anxiety, anger and dependency feelings from the social workers. Supervisors experience these feelings more intensely as they are exposed to the expectations of the social workers as well as management. Supervisors thus also experience need for support by their immediate superiors.

Unfortunately, supervisors' need for support is seldom met in the same way the social workers' need for support is met. It seems that it is not even expected that supervisors would have such needs. It is however expected that supervisors should provide the necessary support to social workers at all times. It is overlooked that if supervisors are emotionally drained, they cannot provide the expected support to the social workers and do not implement good supervisory practice.

Lawler & Hearn (1997:195) indicate that previous research on social work management was generalised, in other words, it did not deal with specific individuals or organisations but concentrated on general discussions and exploration. No studies of a single group of managers within one organisation with the focus on management roles and how those who occupied such positions experience it could be found. There is very little known about who exactly social work managers are, what kind of people occupy these positions and how their background relates to their present responsibilities. This study, focusing on a specific group of

social work managers i.e. social work supervisors; within one social services organisation namely the Department of Welfare; and focusing on a specific aspect i.e. support systems for the supervisors, would thus be more specific than the above mentioned research. Researcher is also convinced that this study would make knowledge available that would promote a better understanding of support for social work supervisors that could be essential for future research.

3. PROBLEM FORMULATION

According to some researchers, the best performing social workers are marked or intercepted to become supervisors. Others indicate that it is uncertain how social workers come into management positions. There is no certain knowledge about whether social workers choose or aspire to become supervisors or managers or whether they are appointed into such positions by force of circumstances (Walsh, 1990:82 and Lawler & Hearn, 1997:197). This relates to the uncertainty supervisors experience due to the fact that career planning is not an aspect receiving specific attention in social services organisations. Lawler & Hearn (1997:197) rightfully ask: *"If the movement into management is pragmatic and unplanned, what implications might this have for the effectiveness of managers, for the planning of management positions in social service departments and for preparation for these positions?"*

This question can also be related to serious criticisms from social workers on the quality and reliability of supervision sessions. In a survey done by Clare (1988), it was found that the focus of the supervision session was set by the social worker. It was indicated that supervisors were clear about their responsibility to provide supervision, but they were unclear about the definition of supervision. The result was that the dominant supervision arrangement was individual supervision, with little or no use of the other methods in supervision (Clare, 1988:501). In this situation it was evident that the supervisors were not prepared and trained for the implementation of the supervision functions and the responsibility of their role as supervisor.

The extent to which managers in social services organisations identify themselves as managers or social work supervisors (professionals), or both, is related to the skills and experience they believe are necessary for them to perform their tasks. Lawler & Hearn (1997:196-197) identified questions for clarification of the problem: *"Are management skills and experience more important than professional skills and experience? Are there significant differences between the two?"* Researcher is of the opinion that a manager cannot be a social work supervisor without the professional social work skills and experience. The management skills can be learned through training and practical implementation. However, management skills training is a necessity and it cannot be taken for granted that management skills will

develop with time. Researcher believes it to be correct for social work supervisors to identify themselves as managers of social workers.

Supervisors, being managers of social workers, have to implement the functions of management, namely planning, organising, staffing, leading and controlling. Unfortunately, a lack of experience and training in both the supervision and the management functions has negative implications for the effective performance of supervisors. According to Lawler & Hearn (1997:196) supervisors experience anxiety and helplessness due to their lack of preparedness for their roles as supervisor and manager of social workers. However, there may be other factors as well, that contribute to such feelings. This relates to the transition process through which the social worker becomes a social work supervisor.

The survey done by Gibson, McGrath & Reid (1989:16) can be seen as proof of the effect supervisors have on social workers and their experience of supervision due to lack of specific training and support. They found that few social workers perceived their organisations as providing assistance of any significant importance. Supervision, the traditional conventional means of providing support, guidance and professional development was not identified and experienced to be fulfilling such functions. Clare (1988:499) refers to the deficiencies in the quality of supervision, specifically the supervisor's role in the process of case planning as well as offering the kind of support which could enable social workers to handle clients professionally until they can help themselves. Supervision did not seem to offer either real support or appropriate control.

Furthermore, supervision, an important source of social work support, also seems to be a potent source of stress for social workers when it is not correctly performed. The implication is that supervisors have to be aware of the climate in which supervision is performed. According to Collings & Murray (1996:385), supervision sessions which reinforce the social worker's value in the organisation and which are not perceived as primarily supervisor oriented, would promote lower levels of stress. The implication is that supervisors need to be trained in the functions of supervision in order to plan and implement supervision as a support system and not as a stressor.

According to studies done by Davis, Savicki, Cooley & Firth (1989:234) and Collings & Murray (1996:385) it was found that there is an important connection between supervisory behaviour and burnout of helping professionals. Because supervisors are responsible for the professional direction of social workers, the importance of a relationship between supervisory behaviour and social worker burnout cannot be overestimated. These aspects indicate a need for social services organisations to ensure that supervisors are adequately trained and receive regular staff development in good supervisory practice. The results can also be related to

supervisors experiencing burnout resulting in social workers not receiving adequate supervisory services. The implication is that immediate superiors should also be constantly aware of the danger of burnout to which the supervisors are exposed. This is a direct reference to the support that immediate superiors are supposed to provide to supervisors.

All of the above mentioned aspects stress that the roles and functions of supervisors as managers of social workers have to be investigated and evaluated. The indication is that supervisors have to be professional at all times and attend to every need of social workers. Supervisors as professional persons are not perfect, but also have the same needs as the social workers, only on a middle-management level. Kadushin (1992:328) indicates whereas the social workers have formal channels of feedback in the supervisors that provide opportunities for commendation, the supervisors have no such formally assigned sources of feedback. Many supervisors experience the stress of not knowing how well they are doing and what, if anything, they should be doing differently.

This is where the problem lies, as supervisors are rarely expected to be accountable for their performance. The discussion of the lack of support for supervisors by Munson (1993:37) is most appropriate of the present situation in social services organisations: Supervisors do not have to account for their performance in a regular and controlled manner. There is little recognition for their accomplishments and little or no support when they encounter problems. When support is not provided from within the organisation, supervisors will experience problems but will fail to acknowledge the difficulty that they are in and can perhaps seek support from the social workers. This is not acceptable or appropriate, since it will only cause additional problems. When supervisors turn to social workers for their support, they are open to manipulation. This does not mean that supervisors cannot be supported by the social workers they are responsible for, only that they should not be put in a position of having to depend on the social workers for support.

The problem is that the lack or absence of support and support systems for social work supervisors has a negative influence on their supervisory and managerial services to social workers.

4. AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

4.1 Aim of the study

The terms aim, goal and purpose are often used interchangeably or as synonyms for each other (De Vos, Schurink & Strydom, 1998:7). The meaning of these concepts is the broad and abstract understanding of the end result or destination or deliberate intention towards which efforts are directed. The aim of this study is to establish which support systems are available

for social work supervisors that could provide in their need for support. Guidelines will then be developed for the application of these identified support systems.

4.2 Objectives of the study

Objectives refer to the more concrete, measurable, specific and faster achievable steps towards the accomplishment of the aim. In order to accomplish the above indicated aim of this study the following objectives are identified:

- To identify and describe the available support systems for social work supervisors based on existing literature and empirical research;
- To identify and describe a few management strategies as possible support systems for social work supervisors based on theoretical and empirical research;
- To determine which support systems are available to social work supervisors;
- To determine which available support systems could provide in their need for support; and
- To develop guidelines for the application of the available support systems for supervisors.

5. RESEARCH STATEMENTS FOR THE STUDY

A statement is the presentation of a fact or problem in specific words with implied correctness. The research statements for this study are formulated in such a way that it can be proved or disproved by the theoretical study and the empirical research. The formulated statements thus have to be tested meaning that it has to be established if the statements are supported or rejected, whether they are "true" or "false".

The research statements for this study are formulated as follows:

- Insufficient support systems are available to supervisors in the social work profession.
- The available support systems for social work supervisors are inadequately administered and utilised.
- Due to the inadequate utilisation of support systems, supervisors experience lack of support resulting in neglected supervisory and managerial practice.

6. RESEARCH APPROACH

"Research is the method by which, very carefully, very diligently, we obtain new findings or confirm previous findings." Grinnel & Williams (1990:43) described traditional research in this manner, yet they also referred to the reluctance amongst social workers to engage in research (1990:21) due to them finding research difficult to understand. De Vos, Schurink & Strydom (1998:9) indicated that research in social work had traditionally been focusing on knowledge development. Research in social work is thus a scientific process according to which social work theory and practice are investigated.

The research process and the research methodology are determined by the research approach the researcher follows: either a quantitative or a qualitative approach. According to Fouché & De Vos (1998:71) the main characteristics of the two approaches are the following:

Quantitative approach:
- highly formalised and more explicitly controlled
- its range is more exactly defined
- relatively close to the physical sciences
- deals with data that are principally numerical.

Qualitative approach:
- procedures are not strictly formalised
- scope is more undefined
- a more philosophical mode of operation is adopted
- deals with data that are mainly verbal.

As statistical analysis is to be used to test the formulated statements the approach selected for this study is the quantitative approach. Further motivation (Neuman, 1991:323; Marlow, 1993:176,213 and Fouché & De Vos, 1998:71) for the choice of this approach are stated as follows:

- Researcher is to be objective during the whole research process.
- Literature review is done for question generation and question formulation as the structure of questions can influence the way in which the gathered data are ultimately organised.
- Statements are formulated and are to be tested during the research process and through the research methodology.
- The statements remain constant during the whole research process.
- Data gathering is done through survey research using the mailed questionnaire as data gathering method.
- Data analysis is to be attained through rating scales and frequency counts and data is to be organised into charts and tables.

7. TYPE OF RESEARCH

Over the last decade, research methods have evolved to the extent that research in social work can now be used for the development of services and intervention methods. The implication is that more practical approaches to social work research are presently possible and should contribute to a more positive attitude of social workers to research. The developmental research model (Thomas, 1987:382; Van Rooyen, 1994a:17 and De Vos, Schurink & Strydom, 1998:9-10) is one of the new research approaches.

Van Rooyen (1994a:17) refers to Reid (1987) as providing clarity on the purpose of the developmental research model when he states that *"the primary goal of the developmental approach is not the generation of knowledge, as in the conventional application of research, but rather the building of intervention technology."* Videka-Sherman & Reid (1990:202) and Van Rooyen (1994b:277) confirm this statement by indicating that developmental research investigates methods of enhancing the social work profession's response to its challenges through practical "technology". The final product of developmental research is improved "technology" such as assessment methods, intervention methods, service programs, organisational structures for delivering service and policy guidelines. Without this technology social work would not be in a position to achieve its goals. Thus, in essence, developmental research responds to the belief that knowledge of an issue alone is not sufficient to create an appropriate response. The focus is on the development of technology and not on the development of knowledge.

The developmental research model as proposed by Thomas (1987:382-387) is selected for implementation in this study. The developmental research model was developed as part of a broader model referred to as the Developmental Research and Utilisation Model (Van Rooyen, 1994b:276). Developmental research is thus a sub-model of this model and consists of the early essential phases that come before the phases involving utilisation (Thomas, 1987:383). It has four basic phases, each with certain operational steps. The phases of the developmental research model are explained in Table 1.1. Van Rooyen (1994b:279) has adapted the four phases into three phases, including the design phase in the development phase.

Table 1.1: Developmental research - phases 1, 2 and 3

Phases	Material conditions	Operational steps
1. Analysis	Problematic condition State of existing technology Technological info and resources	1. Problem identification and analysis 2. Review 3. Feasibility study 4. Selection of objectives 5. Selection of info sources
2. Development	Relevant data Design New product	6. Gathering and evaluation of technological resources 7. Design of social technology 8. Technological realisation
3. Evaluation	Trail and field Implementations Outcome of use	9. Trail use 10. Collection of evaluative data 11. Evaluation of social technology 12. Redesign if necessary

(Van Rooyen, 1994b:279.)

Thomas (1987:383) pointed out that *"the developmental effort of any particular individual or team may pertain to only one limited aspect of this process, may embrace several related phases or steps, or, in unusual cases, may embrace all phases, progressing subsequently*

from one to the next from beginning to end". The first two phases of the developmental research model were implemented in this study. The trail application of the guidelines during the evaluation phase (phase 3) was not implemented due to the extent of the research population (Department of Welfare within 3 provinces). The guidelines have an implication for policy and could result in the application process to be extended over a period of time which is beyond the scope of the present study. The collection of evaluative data could be time consuming, tedious and work intensive and would be difficult to be accomplished by one researcher. It is recommended that the research population attends to the application of the guidelines and evaluates the effect thereof within their provinces.

8. RESEARCH DESIGN

For the purposes of this study the descriptive research design is selected. De Vos & Fouché (1998:78) also refer to the descriptive design as survey designs. These designs are of a more quantitative nature and require questionnaires as data gathering methods. The cross-sectional survey method was used as the data was gathered at one point in time from the total research population.

Three basic research designs are applicable in social research (Grinnel & Williams, 1990:149-168 and Marlow, 1993:24-26) and are presented in Table 1.2.

Table 1.2: Basic research designs

Exploratory design	Descriptive design	Explanatory design
Purpose is to gather data or facts.	Purpose is to describe and provide a higher level of knowledge.	Purpose is to explain in both a directional and cause-and-effect manner.
At lowest end of the research continuum.	In the middle of the research continuum.	At the top of the research continuum.
Little is known of the research area; want to build a foundation of general ideas and tentative theories which can be explored more intensively later on.	Describes, records and reports phenomena as objectively as possible.	Try to explain things that have previously been discovered.

9. RESEARCH PROCEDURE AND STRATEGY

As indicated under point 7, the first two phases of the developmental research model of Thomas were selected for implementation in this study. The research procedure and strategy are briefly discussed in terms of the operational steps within the first two phases:

Phase 1: Analysis

Step 1: Problem identification and analysis

The problem was identified as the lack or absence of support and support systems for social work supervisors having negative influences on the supervisory and managerial services to social workers. The problem was verified through literature and research studies. Discussions with and amongst social work supervisors presently in supervisory positions as well as management within social services organisations were also valuable.

Step 2: Review

The review entailed in-depth literature study of the concepts of social work supervision, management and existing possible support systems. During this step the research design and type of research were selected namely the quantitative descriptive survey design and the developmental research model of Thomas.

Step 3: Feasibility study

No previous research could be found on the lack of support for social work supervisors. The main aim of this study is to establish which support systems are available for social work supervisors that could provide in their need for support. Guidelines will then be developed for the application of these identified support systems. The research has a reasonable chance of producing the intended guidelines for application. Management as well as the supervisors acknowledged the lack of support for social work supervisors and would thus allow the implementation of the guidelines. No previous research could be found on the identified research problem and this study can provide essential knowledge for future research pertaining to social work supervisors.

Step 4: Selection of objectives

This step involved the formulation of the aim of the study i.e. " to establish which support systems are available for social work supervisors that could provide in their need for support. Guidelines will then be developed for the application of the identified support systems". It also entailed the identification of the objectives for the study. Research statements for the study were formulated and had to be tested implying that it had to be established if the statements were supported or rejected by the literature study and the empirical research.

Step 5: Selection of information sources

This step entailed further literature studies but also the identification of the research population. The social work supervisors of the Department of Welfare were identified as the research population. Initially the supervisors of the Department of Welfare of only one province (Mpumalanga Province) were identified as the research population but due to the small number of supervisors, it was recommended that supervisors of two additional provinces

be accommodated in the empirical research. Due to the extent of the Department of Welfare throughout South Africa demarcation of the research population was necessary. During this step three provinces were requested to participate as part of the research population in the empirical research for this study.

Phase 2: Development
Step 6: Gathering and evaluation of data

Researcher was of the opinion that most time would be spent in the execution of this step. The quantitative descriptive survey design was selected. A mailed questionnaire was used as the data gathering method. During this step, the questionnaire was compiled and a pilot test was done to establish the suitability of the questionnaire. The result was that the wording of some questions had to be refined and a few changes had to be made to the layout of the questionnaire. Thereafter the questionnaire was distributed to the research respondents in order to gather empirical data. The analysis and evaluation of the data were done after receiving the questionnaires from the respondents. Relevant data gathered from respondents and the literature formed the basis of the development of the guidelines in the next step.

Step 7: Design of new social technology

This step entailed the process of interpreting the data received from respondents in terms of conclusions, recommendations and the development of guidelines. It implied the utilisation of knowledge - suggestions, opinions and trends from the gathered data were used to direct the developmental process.

Step 8: Technological realisation

The end product i.e. the developed guidelines would be part of the research report that would be available for application by social work supervisors and their superiors.

10. PILOT STUDY

The pilot study is the pre-testing of the measuring instrument and consists of testing the instrument on a small number of persons with similar characteristics as those of the target group of respondents (Strydom, 1998:179). The purpose of the pilot study is to improve the success and effectiveness of the research process and the measuring instrument in particular. Criticism and comments on the measuring instrument should be requested during the pilot study and should be taken into consideration for the main research process.

10.1 Literature study

Though the purpose of the study of literature during the pilot study was for the researcher to be oriented on the availability of literature on the subject, it was also important for the planning and compiling of the measuring instrument to be used in the gathering of data. Researcher

thus agreed with Grinnel & Williams (1990:80) and Marlow (1993:34-36) when they indicated that doing an extensive literature study had specific advantages. The advantages were identified as the following:

- Question generation - often research articles included suggestions for future research.
- Connecting the research question to theory - theoretical base was sought in the existing literature.
- Contributing to a clearer understanding of the nature and meaning of the research question.
- Identifying previous research.
- Giving direction to the research project.
- Learning more about the concepts identified and defined in the problem formulation phase.

Literature on social research methods had been studied to ensure the study satisfies the standards as set in the recent developments in the field of social work research. An extensive literature study had been done to ensure that all relevant and recent information on all aspects concerning the subject were covered. A comprehensive and systematic literature study was done on social work supervision. Sufficient literature on the subject was available within the social work field of study. To gather recent and relevant information on management and available support systems, the field of study of Human Resource Management had to be studied. Since literature on management dates back to the previous century, it was important to ensure that the most recent literature on the subject was studied. Information on support systems had to be specifically searched as it was mingled with management and confusion had to be prevented.

10.2 Feasibility of the study

No previous research could be found on the lack of support for social work supervisors. As the aim of this study is the development of guidelines for the application of support systems that were identified as providing in the supervisors' need for support, the research has a reasonable chance of producing the intended application guidelines. The literature study provided enough support to indicate that supervisors tend to neglect their supervisory and management services to the social workers due to lack of support (see referrals under point 3). Management as well as the supervisors acknowledged the lack of support for social work supervisors and would thus allow the application of the guidelines. The study could provide essential knowledge for future research pertaining to social work supervisors.

10.3 Pilot test of questionnaire

A pilot test was done on the questionnaire and respondents were requested to comment on the wording and the sequence of the questions, possible unnecessary questions and

questions that were confusing to them. The questionnaire was sent to two respondents within one province, selected according to the non-probability sampling method. (Initially only one province was to participate in the research.) The processing and interpretation of the data collected during the pilot test of the questionnaire resulted in the refinement of the wording of some questions, the adding of scales to some questions to provide for alternative responses and a few changes had to be made to the layout of the questionnaire.

11. DESCRIPTION OF RESEARCH POPULATION

Strydom & De Vos (1998:190) defined a population as the totality of persons, events, organisation units and other sampling units with which the research problem is concerned. The research population for this study was the social work supervisors of one social services organisation, namely the Department of Welfare. The Department of Welfare, being functional in the whole of South Africa, was found to be too large for this study. The Department of Welfare was thus "divided" according to the nine provinces in South Africa and the supervisors of each province identified as the research population.

The number of supervisors in all nine provinces was found to be too high while the number of supervisors of one province was found to be too small and thus not sufficient for the purposes of this study. Demarcation of the research population was necessary. As the number three was dividend of nine, it was decided in terms of the principles of random sampling that the social work supervisors of three provinces should be representative of the research population.

The Department of Welfare of Mpumalanga Province was identified as one participating province as researcher was employed by the Department and the respondents were nearest and most easily available. Researcher also had the support of management in using the social work supervisors of Mpumalanga Province as research population. The random sampling method was implemented for identifying the other two participating provinces: the provinces were alphabetically listed and the first two provinces on the list (Province of the Eastern Cape and the Free State Province) were requested to participate in the research. As they agreed, it was not necessary to continue down on the list. The Chief Directors of the Free State Province and the Province of the Eastern Cape were first contacted telephonically where after the request for participation was explained in writing and sent to each province. Agreements to participate were received from the provinces indicating contact persons and number of social work supervisors.

The number of social work supervisors within the three provinces was 27 in Mpumalanga Province, 40 in the Free State Province and 70 in the Province of the Eastern Cape, a total of 137 respondents. A covering letter explaining the motivation for the study and the extent of the participating research population as well as a franked envelope accompanied each

questionnaire. The questionnaires were sent to the provinces with the request to reply within a specified time frame. Within Mpumalanga Province 27 questionnaires were sent to three different distributing points, within the Free State Province 40 questionnaires were sent to one distributing point and in the Province of the Eastern Cape 70 questionnaires were sent to five distributing points.

12. DEFINITIONS OF KEY CONCEPTS

The description and defining of relevant key concepts were not done separately, but were discussed as part of the specific information within each chapter covering specific aspects of the study.

13. LIMITATIONS AND PROBLEMS ENCOUNTERED IN THE STUDY

Limitations and problems encountered in this study can be indicated as follows:

13.1 The lack of specific support systems for social work supervisors resulted in a more extensive literature study specifically in the Human Resource Management field of study. Possible support systems thus had to be determined on grounds of the information from the literature and the interpretations of the literature.

13.2 The pilot study was done before the decision was made to change the research population due to the fact that the initial number of research elements was too small. Strydom (1998:184) suggested that the pilot study be repeated in situations where any changes were made. Unfortunately this could not be done due to the demographic extent of the research population.

13.3 Mailed questionnaires were used as data gathering method. Even though a franked envelope was included with each questionnaire in an effort to increase the response rate, the response rate of the empirical research was 23% for the Province of the Eastern Cape, 63% for Mpumalanga Province and 45% for the Free State Province. A total response rate of 37,2%.

13.4 The lack of the trail application of the guidelines in the evaluation phase of the developmental research model was experienced as a limitation. The effectiveness of the guidelines was not tested.

14. SUMMARY

In this chapter a general introduction was done on the study in terms of the motivation for the choice of the subject and the problem formulation. The aim and objectives of the study were identified and research statements to be tested through the study were formulated. Motivation for the research approach and procedure were provided. It was also explained in a practical manner. Activities performed during the pilot study were identified and described. The research population was described and the limitations and problems experienced during the study were identified.

CHAPTER TWO

SOCIAL WORK SUPERVISION

1. INTRODUCTION

Changes within the general public welfare services during the past decade have intensified the focus placed on social work supervision, particularly the administrative supervisory responsibilities. The already existing concern for accountability has been extended towards concerns for efficiency and productivity. Increasing productivity, however, requires greater managerial efficiency. Social work supervisors are the crucial element in dealing with worker efficiency and productivity. Accountability of the social services organisation starts with the supervisor's review and evaluation of the work of the social workers. Such issues place a demand on higher visibility and importance of social work supervision.

Supervision, in-service training and staff development share responsibility for helping the social worker ascertain what he needs to know in order to do his job effectively. Budget constraints result in cuts in in-service training and staff development programs. Consequently, supervision becomes increasingly more important as a source of training and often is the only resource available to help social workers enhance their skills (Kadushin, 1992:xvii).

The professional status of social work is confirmed as it adheres to the expected characteristics representing professionalism. According to the literature there has been ambivalent feelings towards accepting social work as a profession due to the continuous supervision that social workers receive. The characteristics of professionalism are identified by Raelin (1984:5-6) and Von Glinow (1988:12) as expertise, autonomy, commitment to the work and the profession, identification with the profession and other professionals, ethics and collegial maintenance of standards. Social work supervision can be accommodated within the characteristic of collegial maintenance of standards. This characteristic refers to a perceived commitment to police the conduct of fellow professionals. The professional status of social workers can thus be accepted.

The social work profession has an influence on the practice of supervision to social workers in terms of the values it dictates for the relationship between the supervisor and the social worker as well as the technology it makes available for problem solving. Due to their professional social work training supervisors and social workers share norms, values and objectives that determine their preferences and behaviour in supervision. The policies of the social services organisation determine the structure of the supervision practice in the organisation as well as the responsibilities and expectations placed on the persons in the role of supervisor. The culture, mission and procedures of the organisation have an influence on the interaction between the supervisor and the social worker.

Ethical aspects in relation to social work supervision indicate that it is expected of a supervisor to act in an ethical, humane manner towards the social workers for whom he is responsible. There is an ethical obligation to meet the legitimate needs of the social worker, to evaluate him objectively and fairly, to refrain from taking advantage of differences in power between the supervisor and the social worker, and to implement the functions of supervision conscientiously and responsibly. It is unethical for supervisors to assign a case to a social worker who is without the necessary skills and knowledge to offer effective service. Supervisors are ethically liable if they fail to meet regularly with social workers to review their work, if they fail to provide adequate coverage in the absence of a social worker or if they fail to detect or stop a negligent treatment plan (Kadushin, 1992:498-499). This places enormous stress and pressure on the supervisor. He will not be able to handle the stress and pressure without being supported.

In order to understand social work supervision as a middle management function within the social services organisation, the main concepts of supervision that are applicable and necessary for this study are discussed. After these concepts are defined, the objectives of supervision can be identified. The transition from social worker to supervisor need to be discussed as this transition process often leads to the supervisors experiencing problems in their supervisory practice.

To perform successfully as a supervisor, certain personal and professional qualities are essential. These qualities are identified and discussed. Six functions of supervision are identified within the literature and are discussed in detail in order to identify the expectations and responsibilities of the social work supervisor. Expectations of good supervisory practice are then listed. This will provide the motivation that social work supervisors should be supported in the execution of their duties and responsibilities.

2. DISCUSSION OF MAIN CONCEPTS

2.1 Social work

The social work concept need to be defined as the study focuses on increasing accountability, efficiency and productivity within the total social work profession. Social work can be seen as the professional actions of a social worker with the aim to enhance the social functioning of individuals, groups and communities. These actions are directed at the social relationships between individuals respectively and between individuals and their environments.

The definition which includes all aspects of social work and is straight to the point, is the definition Munson (1993:10) concludes to: *"... organised efforts by graduates of accredited schools of social work to assist people to overcome physical, financial, social or psychological disruptions in functioning through individual, group or family intervention methods."*

Smit (1994:3) identifies social work as the professional activity of helping individuals, groups and communities to enhance their capacity for social functioning and creating societal conditions favourable of this goal. The objectives of social work are to help individuals, families, communities and groups of people who are socially disadvantaged and to contribute to the creation of conditions that will enhance social functioning and prevent breakdown.

The implications of rendering social work services are that it requires trained people to work with people with personal problems and with problems in their environment. The social worker has to be able to use his personal qualities, his knowledge gained by training and his social work skills and techniques in his professional activities. He needs a supervisor who is available within the organisation with whom he can share responsibility for decision making, from whom he can receive direction and to whom he can look for support.

2.2 Social work supervision and social work supervisor

The concepts of social work supervision and social work supervisor are the central focus of this study and have to be defined specifically. Alfred Kadushin was one of the first researchers to define these concepts. He indicates that supervision was already seen as a necessary aspect of charity work in the 1880s (Kadushin, 1992:10-11). The three major components of the present supervision practice - administration, education, and support - were identifiable among the tasks executed by the early supervisor of charity work.

Pelser (1988:12-13) describes social work supervision as a process through which the supervisor and the social worker interact with each other in a structured learning situation. The learning situation is structured in such a manner that the social worker can be assisted with the development of his professional skills. It is done through the systematic exploration of existing and new knowledge, skills and attitudes as well as the correct implementation thereof in the rendering of services. The social worker is also developed and enriched with regard to his interpersonal abilities as it comes out within supervision sessions. De Wet (1991:13) concludes that supervision must enable the social worker to render a sufficient and effective service to clients.

Munson (1993:10) defines social work supervision as *"... an interactional process in which a supervisor has been assigned or designated to assist the practice of supervisees in the areas of teaching, administration and helping."* The supervisor is thus assigned to supervise the social worker and the social worker is expected to be accountable to the supervisor. The supervisor has some official sanction to direct and guide the social worker's practice.

Supervision enables the social worker to implement his professional functions on an integrated manner. It promotes and enhances the quality of the social work practice in the different

organisational settings. Supervision should be a goal orientated process with a specific timeframe according to the developmental phases of the individual social worker. In a practical view of social work supervision it is seen as the use of the supervisory role and functions in a helping relationship with a social worker to render social work services to the clientele of the organisation. (Harkness & Poertner, 1989:116; Liebenberg, 1989:19,20; McLoud, 1989a:11 and Kasselman, 1990:11.)

Kadushin (1992:22-23) defines the supervisor very comprehensively: *"A social work supervisor is an agency administrative staff member to whom authority is delegated to direct, coordinate, enhance and evaluate the on-the-job performance of the supervisees for whose work he is held accountable. In implementing this responsibility, the supervisor performs administrative, educational and supportive functions in interaction with the supervisee in the context of a positive relationship. The supervisor's ultimate objective is to deliver to agency clients the best possible service, both quantitatively and qualitatively, in accordance with agency policies and procedures."*

The supervisor has a direct and indirect role to play in the development of the social work supervisory practice. The supervisor acts as enabler as it is his responsibility to help the social worker to manage his workload effectively and to achieve the goals of the organisation. He performs the role of middle manager within the organisation and has to act responsibly in the interest of the organisation as well as the social worker. He acts as communication channel to both the organisation and the social worker and ensures that they interact with each other. The supervisor not only has an administrative responsibility, but also has to provide the social worker with professional support and guidance to ensure that he renders a cost-effective service to the client. (Liebenberg, 1989:21-22; McLoud, 1989a:12; Kasselman, 1990:12 and De Wet, 1991:14.)

Christian & Hannah (1983:98) identified four characteristics of effective supervision. These characteristics have not changed, but are still applicable in the implementation of good supervisory practice. The characteristics are:

- Productivity – monitoring and directing the activities of staff to ensure a quantity of output consistent with work performance standards and the goals and objectives of the organisation.
- Quality control – supervisor's actions to ensure that staff performance results in a quality of service consistent with client need, legal policy, social work guidelines and organisational policy and procedure.
- Morale – actions of the supervisor to promote the positive morale and job satisfaction of the social workers.
- Education – supervisor's actions for improving his own job-related knowledge, skills and personal adjustment as well as that of the social workers for whom he is responsible.

In theory the concepts of social work supervision and social work supervisor indicate a high level of responsibility, skills, techniques and knowledge which are to be implemented and passed on to the social workers. In the practical situation, the realities of the circumstances in which the supervisor is expected to function, such as lack of supervisory training and lack of support, lead him to perform in a stress related manner which results in the social workers not receiving the expected support and guidance.

2.3 Differences between social work supervision and therapy

The distinctive nature of the supervisory relationship between the supervisor and the social worker creates the possibility of the social worker seeking therapeutic help for personal problems or the supervisor experiencing the need to act as therapist for the social worker. The differences between social work supervision and therapy are identified to ensure that it is not expected of the supervisor to act as therapist. The supervisor should also accept the responsibility not to take on the role of therapist when it seems evident that a social worker needs therapeutic help.

Pelser (1988:20-24), Fox (1989:151-152), Liebenberg (1989:41-44) and Kadushin (1992:203-209) discussed the differences between social work supervision and therapy in detail. A few important differences are highlighted for the purposes of this study:

The social work supervisor should recognise and accept the limits and restrictions of his role. His responsibility lies with helping the social worker to become a better social worker and not a better person. The focus should be on the professional activities and on changes in the professional identity of the social worker. He has no sanction to intrude into the personal life of the social worker or to focus on changes in his personal identity.

The valid focus of social work supervision is the social worker's work and not the social worker himself. Only when the behaviour, attitudes and feelings of the social worker create difficulty in the performance of professional tasks, they become a concern to be attended to in supervision. The supervisor, unlike the therapist, is not concerned with the causes of personal pathology. His concern focuses on the consequences of such problems on the job performance of the social worker.

The therapist is free to work towards any goal as identified by the client. The supervisor is responsible for the actions of the social worker and he has to comply with the organisation's requirement that expects him to help the social worker to become an effective social worker. The objective of supervision is improved social work performance. Therapy aims at personality reconstruction. If the supervisor accepts the social worker as a client, the work standards need to

be changed. The supervisor cannot be a therapist to the social worker and, simultaneously, ensures that the standards of the organisation are adhered to.

The supervisory relationship has an implicit contract: the social worker is responsible for working towards improving his performance and continuing his professional development and the supervisor is responsible for helping him achieve these goals. Concern with personal development is unacceptable and not part of the implicit contract.

In the case where the supervisory relationship has changed to be therapeutic, the roles of the supervisor and the social worker are confused. Neither effective supervision nor effective therapy can result out of such relationship. Injustice is done to the social worker as the supervisor denies him the full benefit of a therapeutic relationship, outside the supervisory relationship, which is exclusively focused on the therapy he needs. It is important that the supervisor stays aware of the differences between social work supervision and therapy, as it can only add to the stress that he experiences within his supervisory practice if he lacks this awareness.

2.4 Consultation

Consultation is a concept that is not totally understood by social work supervisors. It is not the next phase of development after the social worker has become more independent and in less need of formal supervision. Consultation has specific functions in internal application as well as external application. It has no official sanction indicating that the social worker is free to seek consultation. He is however free to decide if he wants to implement the advice and recommendations given by the consultant. (Munson, 1993:11.)

The implication is that there should be a trustworthy relationship between the social worker and the consultant. The principles of open communication and trust applicable in the supervisory relationship are also applicable in the relationship with the consultant. Internal consultants can be the social work supervisor or a colleague within the same organisation. External consultants are usually consulted for their expertise in a certain field in which the social worker is experiencing a problem. The supervisor can play an important role in the support of using external consultants for specific problems. He can compile a list of consultants who qualifies as experts on their specific fields and make it available to the social workers in the organisation. (Pelser, 1988:399-400 and Groenewald & Van Staden, 1993:343-344.)

The importance of consultation for this study is the fact that internal consultation is the responsibility of the social work supervisor. The functions of supervision are still implemented but not as direct and specific as during formal social work supervision. The social worker has the responsibility to lay claim on the supervision functions as the need arises. However, the supervisor has a specific administrative responsibility that continues even when a social worker is on

consultation. The intensity of the administrative responsibility is decreased but the supervisor has to ensure that the policies, procedures and standards as set by the organisation are met.

Groenewald & Van Staden (1993:345-347) stress that the implementation of the functions of supervision in consultation requires a specific attitude and approach as well as certain skills from the supervisor. For the supervisor to be able to implement the supervision functions without influencing the independence of the social worker requires additional skills. The supervisor should accept that the social worker has established his own approaches and style in his professional performance. The social worker should thus be left to implement his own approach unless the client will be harmed by it.

One of the objectives of supervision is to guide and support the social worker to become an autonomous, effective professional social worker. The aim is to have the social worker on consultation, which lessens the tasks and responsibilities of the supervisor. However, as indicated above, this is not totally true. The supervisor's continuous responsibility and stress related to this "new" relationship could have a negative influence on his supervisory performance. It is important that the supervisor has sufficient knowledge of the concept of consultation and its implications.

3. OBJECTIVES OF SOCIAL WORK SUPERVISION

Social work supervision has both short-term and long-term objectives. Kadushin (1992:20) links the objectives with the supervision functions of administration, education and support. The short-term objective of the educational function of supervision is to improve the social worker's capability to do his job more effectively. It is to help the social worker grow and develop professionally, to enhance his clinical knowledge and skills to the point where he can perform autonomously and independently of supervision.

To provide the social worker with a work context that permits him to do his job effectively is the short-term objective of the administrative function of supervision. The supportive function of supervision has as short-term objective to help the social worker to feel good about doing his job.

The long-term objective of social work supervision is achieved by means of the short-term objectives. This long-term objective is to provide clients with effective and efficient services according to what the particular organisation is mandated to offer. The ultimate objective is efficient and effective social work services to clients.

Liebenberg (1989:23) refers to Atkin and Weil who identified three fundamental objectives of supervision:
- to ensure that the social services organisation renders effective services;
- to enable the social workers to perform on an optimal level according to their abilities; and

- to support the social workers to achieve professional independence.

Rothmund (1992:3) approaches the objectives of supervision in a very practical manner by relating them to the social worker, the client and the social services organisation. The objectives are identified as the following:

1. Relating to the social worker:
- promoting his opportunity for professional and personal growth;
- promoting his relatively independent performance;
- supporting him into integrating theory and practice;
- fostering desirable attitudes for a helping professional;
- improving his practice skills through relevant field guidance;
- supporting him into experiencing maximum job satisfaction; and
- supporting him into systematic and planned work performance.

2. Relating to the client:
- enabling the social worker to meet a client's expectation of providing an effective and efficient service; and
- enabling the social worker to build a positive professional relationship with the client system.

3. Relating to the social services organisation:
- providing the social worker with a well structured work context;
- providing him with a mandate for his professional task and with access to relevant resources;
- giving him support in the face of his emotionally draining professional intervention;
- ensuring his adequate orientation and in-service training; and
- justifying the organisation's existence by ensuring a high standard of social work practice.

The more extensive discussions of Pelser (1988:13-19) and Kasselman (1990:14-21) on the objectives of social work supervision can be related to and are included in the objectives as identified by Rothmund (1992:3). For the purposes of this study the practical explanation of the objectives of social work supervision as identified by Rothmund is accepted. The objectives specify the tasks and responsibilities of the social work supervisor in order to achieve the ultimate objective of social work supervision, namely, efficient and effective social work services to clients.

4. TRANSITION FROM SOCIAL WORKER TO SOCIAL WORK SUPERVISOR

4.1 Discussion

In becoming a supervisor the social worker has to accept a totally new role within the social services organisation. The transition from social worker to supervisor implies accepting a new

position. Presumably, the social worker begins to act in the position as supervisor at once, even though little thought may be given as to how the knowledge needed for a reliable performance as supervisor is and will be attained. The implication is thus that the new position has specific functions and responsibilities for which the social worker is seldom prepared.

As a social worker, the self-satisfaction with the work itself, along with the pay and fringe benefits, may be the only concerns of the individual. As a supervisor, the primary concerns of the individual tend to shift from self-concerns to organisational concerns such as production, budgets, costs, quality standards and time schedules. The problem is that accepting a position as supervisor does not necessarily bring increases in pay benefits, status privileges and access to higher level members of the organisation. Supervision is usually an added responsibility without the tangible benefits (Du Toit, 1991:27 and Munson, 1993:38).

A lack of promotional opportunities for social workers in many social services organisations may force some competent social workers to accept positions as supervisors without a desire or adequate preparation for them. The promotion to the position of supervisor takes place mainly on the basis of the social worker's years of experience. Internal promotions are usually founded on a social worker's years of experience, the fact that he is a senior in the organisation on grounds of his age or a satisfactory number of years employed within the organisation (Du Toit, 1991:18). Training is not a prerequisite for this promotion and the lack of the necessary knowledge and skills often leads to uncertainty and stress.

Experience as social worker is not without use for the new supervisor. He can utilise his experience to the benefit of the social workers for whom he is responsible. His experience enables him to be realistic in his expectations of the social workers, as he has experienced the social work practice personally. However, experience without the necessary supervisory training leads to the supervisor depending on his own experience and the supervision he received as social worker. According to McLoud (1989a:99-100) and Munson (1993:26) the supervisor usually tends to apply the same supervisory practice to which he was exposed to as social worker. Researcher agrees that it is not to the benefit of the social workers, the organisation and the social work profession, if the style and method of social work supervision that is implemented has become obsolete.

Another problem is that in some organisations it is taken for granted that a competent senior social worker does have all the skills that he needs to be able to function as a supervisor. He only needs to re-formulate the skills and adapt them to his role as supervisor. Some of the skills and techniques implemented in social work services to clients can be used in supervision, but they are insufficient for good comprehensive supervisory practice. When supervisors rely on therapeutic skills to conduct supervision, problems can be experienced as social workers can feel that they are unwillingly placed in therapy rather than receiving supervision.

Researcher agrees with Du Toit (1991:22) that the following conditions are required of a social worker to be able to perform effectively as a supervisor:

- formal supervisory training;
- the necessary social work experience; and
- certain personality traits.

The transition from social worker to supervisor indicates an exit from the role of social worker and an entry into the role of supervisor. This implies that the patterns of behaviour or functions unique to the role of social worker be abandoned so that the new patterns of behaviour or functions of supervisor may be acquired. The transition is a difficult change involving a re-orientation of relationships with colleagues and alterations in self-perception and attitudes toward the goals and procedures of the social services organisation. Kadushin (1992:298) indicates that the additional responsibility, along with the lack of preparation, on-going support and clarity in role differentiation, combined with conflicting demands, all contribute to feelings of tension experienced by supervisors.

Researcher found the opinion of Broadwell (1990:6) on a supervisor interesting and very direct: The purpose of the position as supervisor is different from that of the social worker. The supervisor's responsibility is to get the work done through others and not to do it himself. Instead of complaining about the boss, the supervisor is the boss. Instead of complaining about policy, the supervisor is the one who must implement the policy. Instead of just waiting for someone to appraise him, the supervisor must do the appraisals of others.

Assuming the new role as supervisor in the social services organisation requires special capabilities that often become apparent only after the person is in the position for a few weeks or months. Role conflict and role ambiguity create new tensions and frustrations. Role conflict emerges from the multiple expectations inherent in the supervisory role. Role ambiguity results from confusion about the specific authority and responsibility attached to the role of supervisor. This conflict and ambiguity clearly manifest in the demanding expectations due to the change in reference group - the supervisor's role status changes from being supervised to supervising, from having fellow social workers as his peers to having collegial relations with managers (Du Toit, 1991:42,45).

An essential element to supervisory success is to know and understand the make-up of your total organisation. The supervisor should be familiar with what the social services organisation is meant to do and the function each part plays in achieving the total aim (Du Toit, 1991:51). The supervisor performs a middle management role. He is the channel of communication through which information flows vertically from management to social workers and vice versa. Verster (1992:13)

stresses that efficiency as a communication channel is achieved only with sensitivity and experience.

4.2 Adjustment process of the supervisor

The transition from social worker to supervisor requires specific changes in performance. According to Van Staden (1992:20) and Verster (1992:12) the changes that have to be made progress according to an adjustment process consisting of the following three phases:

4.2.1 Role identification

This phase may last from three to six months. The supervisor may decide to make immediate or systematic changes in adapting to the expectations of the new role. Planned supervisor's meetings are usually very formal and not geared towards building up meaningful mutual relationships between supervisors themselves. A power struggle between existing supervisors makes role identification more difficult because the new supervisor may withdraw, not wanting to become part of the undercurrents. The supervisor may feel guilty towards his former colleagues about his new higher status. Role identification is made difficult by the stereotyping and testing of the new supervisor by the management and other social workers.

4.2.2 Role withdrawal and role acceptance

The supervisor realises that he has to invest his emotions, intellect and energy in his new role as social work supervisor and to withdraw from the familiar, comfortable, satisfying role of social worker. The supervisor is more experienced now and has mastered the supervision task. He is able to distinguish between good and bad supervision sessions and he is conscious of the essential needs of the social workers. The agenda of the supervision sessions has changed and the needs of the social workers are priority.

4.2.3 Establishing the identity of the supervisor

This phase indicates the completion of the role changeover. The supervisor has already withdrawn intellectually and emotionally from the role of social worker. Acceptance by other social work supervisors has taken place. The supervision is based on trust and confidentiality. The supervisor experiences a feeling of professional pride and integrity when the personal and professional development of the social worker progresses positively.

4.3 Dynamics present within the role of supervisor

When a successful change of roles from social worker to supervisor has taken place according to the above mentioned phases, the following dynamics will be present (Verster, 1992:14):

4.3.1 Authority

Although authority is part of the position of a supervisor (that is formal authority), it is important that the supervisor should acquire respect (that is functional authority) and not simply enforce it. When this happens there may be conflict between formal and functional authority, which could have a negative effect on the successful changeover of roles from a social worker into a supervisory position.

4.3.2 Decision making style

The supervisor's decision-making ability is crucial for the effectiveness of his supervisory practice. It also influences the politics and dynamics of the organisation. To make a meaningful changeover of roles, it is necessary for the supervisor to keep up to date with the politics and dynamics of the organisation.

4.3.3 Relationship orientation

The supervisor has relationships with the social workers for whom he is responsible, his own peer group and the management of the organisation. In the changeover of roles the relationships have to be changed. The supervisor should build a network of relationships with his new peer group and superiors as soon as possible to obtain understanding and support.

4.3.4 Accountability and evaluation

The supervisor has to measure the inputs of the social workers and evaluate their professional development regularly. This new responsibility in the role of supervisor may result in tension. If the supervisor has been trained and has knowledge of supervision and management, the changeover can take place with the aid of the necessary knowledge, skills and attitude.

4.4 Conclusion

The manner in which this transition from social worker to supervisor takes place, has a direct influence on the supervisor's ability to implement good supervisory practice. A general conclusion is that the stress experienced by the supervisor with relation to the expectations within his role as supervisor, can be connected to this transition process.

5. PERSONAL AND PROFESSIONAL QUALITIES OF THE SOCIAL WORK SUPERVISOR

5.1 Introduction

Wetchler & Vaughn (1991:61-69) have done a study on the effectiveness of the supervisor's interpersonal skills. The interpersonal skills that they refer to, correspond with the professional qualities as well as the personal qualities of supervisors, as reflected in this section. In their discussion of the results of their study, the following are of interest, as it has bearing on the personal and professional qualities that supervisors has to be equipped with:

It appears that supervisor directiveness is an important skill within the supervisory relationship between social worker and supervisor. This refers to situations where social workers are stuck and they need direction on how to proceed. Social workers indicated that they often need their supervisors to spend time with them telling them what to do.

It is important for supervisors to point out the problem areas of social workers and to facilitate their identification of personal assets and areas for development. It can be somewhat of a balancing act for supervisors to point out mistakes and allow social workers to identify their own growth areas. It takes some supervisory wisdom to know when to intervene and when to facilitate. These are important aspects and have to do with the following skills of the supervisor that were identified by the participating social workers: "confronts when appropriate", "helps social worker to assess own strengths and growth areas" and "provides constructive negative feedback". "Builds social workers' confidence" was identified by the social workers as an important skill, since too much emphasis on identifying the mistakes of the social workers can negatively affect their development. This study has a bearing on how supervisors are viewed and evaluated by social workers and is thus important for supervisors.

In the literature a distinction is made between personal and professional qualities that supervisors have to have at their disposal. It is clear that the professional qualities cannot be present, or be developed without the personal qualities being internalised by the supervisor.

5.2 Definitions
5.2.1 Personal qualities
The personal qualities of an individual can be seen as the personality traits he possesses and which are distinctive of the individual. It has to do with what and who the individual is within his total being and which guides his behaviour or functioning (Realin, 1984: 76 and McLoud, 1989a:14-15).

5.2.2 Professional qualities
The professional qualities refer to the specialised knowledge and skills that are necessary for the supervisor to be able to function effectively. It has bearing on the supervisor's diagnostic skills, competent usage of knowledge, absence of own interest, autonomy in judgement of his own professional work performance and the maintenance of a high standard within his behaviour and activities (Realin, 1984: 76, McLoud, 1989a:14-15 and Broadwell, 1990:22).

To be able to judge if the supervisor is effective in his functioning in the role, it is beneficial to identify what effective and efficient means.

5.2.3 Effective

Effective has bearing on the execution of the correct actions and activities, to obtain the correct information and to make the right decisions. The supervisor is effective when the activities and behaviour that he reveals, contribute to achieving his personal goals as well as the goals of the organisation (Pelser, 1988:19, McLoud, 1989a:15-16 and Loewenberg & Dolgoff, 1996:60).

5.2.4 Efficient

Efficient has reference to the correct execution of activities in order to achieve the planned goal through the best methods and procedures and in a cost-effective manner. A service is efficient when it is a manifestation of economic and appropriate usage of resources without giving up on quality. (Pelser, 1988:19, McLoud, 1989a:15-16 and Loewenberg & Dolgoff, 1996:60.)

5.3 Personal qualities

A summary of the personal qualities as identified by different authors (McLoud, 1989a:16-23; Van Staden, 1992:20 and Tepper, 1994:4) that must be at the disposal of an effective supervisor can be listed as follows:

5.3.1 Self-consciousness and self-knowledge

The supervisor must know himself and be aware of his performance, his needs, his motives, his attitude and his values and norms. Knowledge of his own behaviour, feelings and mental attitude helps the supervisor to understand and respect other persons' behaviours, feelings and mental attitudes. Knowledge of his own abilities and inabilities enables him to develop self-acceptance.

5.3.2 Self-acceptance

A supervisor, who accepts himself, rather participates in activities than to be a spectator. He is inclined to be objective, spontaneous and emotionally and intellectually honest. He is adaptable within given situations and he has realistic expectations of life. He has the talent to give credit to other persons' abilities. He has specific values and principles, but is not rigid in his point of view. In spite of failures or setbacks that he might experience, he can continue to handle problem situations with self-confidence.

5.3.3 Self-confidence

A supervisor's self-confidence should be of such nature that it reflects humbleness and that he does not act as if he rules the roost. When applicable, the supervisor should hold his own and claim his personal rights through making known his needs, feelings, thoughts, wishes or convictions in a clear, congruent, honest and calm manner. This should be done in such a manner that other persons' rights; self-respect and dignity are not violated.

5.3.4 Self-actuality

Self-actuality has bearing on the supervisor as total being within all the facets of his life and his functioning. This is a result of a positive self-image.

5.3.5 Emotional maturity

For a supervisor to be emotionally mature, he should be able to perform according to a reasonable image of reality. He should be able to endure frustrations in a satisfactory way and to control impulsive behaviour. He should have the ability to communicate and to find solutions for conflict situations.

5.3.6 Integrity

The supervisor must be a person with morale integrity and he must be trustworthy. A well balanced value system and philosophy of life is important for the supervisor.

5.3.7 Perseverance

This is the ability to persist and continue with activities or responsibilities in spite of obstacles or difficult circumstances. The supervisor should have this ability to ensure that planned tasks are executed and concluded.

5.3.8 Nerve and courage

When the supervisor is convinced that a change is necessary and to the advantage of the social services organisation, he should have the nerve and courage to confront the management of the organisation with the facts and convince them of the importance of such a change.

5.3.9 Responsibility

The supervisor has the responsibility to execute his task as supervisor with diligence and a sense of duty. A very important responsibility of the supervisor is that he should make a contribution to the promotion and extension of the social work profession. By revealing ethical behaviour at all times, the supervisor will be able to comply with the professional requirements of the profession.

5.3.10 Joy of life and sense of humour

The supervisor should not qualify himself on academic level only, but his private life and leisure time should be managed in such a way that he can experience joy of life. The supervisor should reveal humour in a suitable manner within the work situation. A sense of humour also carries across warmth and humanity.

5.3.11 Sensitivity for people

The supervisor must like people and be loyal to them. Through spontaneous and sincere interest in the social worker, the supervisor can impart that the social worker has value for the organisation. In revealing sensitivity for people, the supervisor serves as a good model.

5.3.12 Problem solving abilities

The supervisor should be able to "think on his feet". He should be able to make a connection between cause and effect within all situations and be able to concentrate on the cause. The supervisor should have knowledge of resources and how to use them for the solving of problems.

5.3.13 Intelligence

The supervisor must be able to understand the complicated social work theory as well as the complexity of the individual. However, intelligence as a personal quality should not be seen in isolation, but should be seen as part of the total personality of the supervisor.

5.4 Professional qualities

The following qualities are indicated to be important for the supervisor who is part of middle management (McLoud, 1989a:25-67; Broadwell, 1990:22-26; Wetchler & Vaughn, 1991:65-66 and Verster, 1992:11):

- Provides direction.
- Has knowledge of the organisation's structure.
- Confronts when appropriate.
- Helps social worker assess own strengths and growth areas.
- Has the ability to acknowledge good performance.
- Provides constructive negative feedback.
- Be sensitive when giving criticism.
- Builds social worker confidence.
- Has empathy for colleagues and clients.
- Provides emotional support.
- Demonstrates warmth.
- Uses authority appropriately.
- Is eager to learn and improve his supervisory practice.
- Looks for ways of improving the job and gives management the benefit of his thinking.
- Makes evaluation a relaxed, open process with fresh approaches that can be supported by evidence.
- Respects and cares about the social worker.
- Provides a rational for directions.
- Uses self-disclosure.

- Has been a good social worker himself.
- Enjoys supervision.
- Encourages development of personal style and social worker independence.
- Has pleasure in the development of others.
- Has the ability to influence others positively.
- Matches input to the social worker's level of experience.
- Understands social worker's clinical problems.
- Avoids applying methods of casework to the social worker.
- Be willing to participate actively in the supervisory process.
- Provides structure for the supervision session.
- Injects humour.
- Attempts to resolve problems related to the supervisory relationship.
- Avoids game-playing within the supervisory relationship.
- Displays flexibility.
- Demonstrates professionalism.
- Acknowledges own limitations.
- Be honest and have self-awareness with regard to his abilities.
- Willingness to handle self-development.
- Has training skills.
- Matches input to the social worker's learning style.
- Increases the social worker's learning ability.
- Has knowledge of the field of training to be covered.
- Switches supervisory styles in response to new situations.
- Values the ideas of the social workers.
- Demonstrates patience.
- Shows enthusiasm.
- Listens to feedback from the social workers.
- Is open to other viewpoints that the social worker may express.
- Implements the functions of supervision in such a manner that supervision is experienced by the social worker as a creative learning opportunity.
- Effectively implements the functions of management.
- Acts as model that is worth following.
- Supportive towards the social worker and management.
- Always reacts in a positive way.
- Maintains good work habits.
- Displays self-confidence and acts relaxed.
- Calls social worker by name at least once per session.
- Keeps personal needs from interfering with supervision.

- Negotiates roles of supervisor and social worker.
- Rarely misses supervisory sessions.
- Has the ability to communicate clearly.
- Has the ability to handle emotional pressure.

The list is comprehensive and is a practical description of the professional qualities that have to be at the disposal of the supervisor to be effective. There is a definite similarity between the identified personal qualities and the professional qualities. The latter can also be interpreted as the expectations that are placed on the supervisor. The expectations of the supervisor will be discussed in a separate section.

5.5 Personality types

Raelin (1984:80-81) indicates that individuals should know as much about their own personalities as possible in order to make informed career decisions. He describes the following personality types:

- Realistic – involves physical activity requiring skill, strength and coordination.
- Investigative – involves cognitive activity rather than affective activity.
- Social – involves interpersonal rather than intellectual or physical activities (social workers are identified within this personality type).
- Conventional – involves structured, rule-regulated activities and subordination of personal needs to an organisation or person.
- Enterprising – involves persuasive, influential activities to attain power or status.
- Artistic – involves self-expression, artistic creation and expression of emotion.

When analysing the personality types it seems that they cannot be divided into strict compartments as was done by Realin. All the personality types as he highlighted them can be and should be represented within social workers. Social workers do make use of physical activities within their rendering of services, depending on the type of client. Using of cognitive activities is part of the reality of social work. Affective activities also play an important role in social work services, as feelings are characteristic of all personal problems of clients. It is through interpersonal activities that services are rendered to clients, but these activities are not the only manner in which services are rendered. Social workers need to be conventional in their approach, as they have to work according to prescribed procedures of which the legislation applicable to social work is the best example. As social workers are involved in community development, it is important that they are able to make use of influential and persuasive activities in order to have status in the community and thus be effective in the developmental process. Being artistic within social work has bearing on social workers being creative in their approach and service rendering.

5.6 Conclusion

There is a similarity between the personal qualities and the professional qualities of a supervisor. This supports the opinion that it takes a special person to become a supervisor. Unfortunately, this special person is also subject to personal and professional burnout. Which means that even if the supervisor fulfils the expectations of the personal and professional qualities as discussed within this section, the management of the social services organisation has to attend to supporting and developing the supervisor on a continuous basis. It is only through providing the necessary support that the supervisor can continue to perform on the expected level of good supervisory practice.

6. FUNCTIONS OF SOCIAL WORK SUPERVISION

6.1 Introduction

Within the theoretical development of social work supervision there are divergence on the different functions of supervision. The functions that are identified and discussed are related to the responsibilities of the supervisor and the roles that he is expected to play. The functions supplement and support each other. The functions are discussed separately, but in practice they are not implemented separately. Implementing any one function implies implementing some of the others as well, if not all in the same supervision session. The supervision functions as identified and discussed by Pelser (1988:63-209) and supported and discussed by McLoud (1989a:25-67); McLoud (1989b:49); Kasselman (1990:23-38) and Verster (1992:11) are accepted for the purposes of this study as these functions are included or referred to in most of the social work literature that were studied.

6.2 Educational function

6.2.1 Description

The educational function of social work supervision is concerned with teaching the social worker what he needs to know in order to do his job and assisting him to learn it. Educational supervision is thus concerned with teaching the knowledge, skills and attitudes necessary for the performance of social work tasks through the detailed analysis of the social worker's interaction with the client. (Kadushin, 1992:135.)

Weinbach (1994:123) identifies the educational function of social work supervision as one of the traditional roles of the social work supervisor. He indicates that *"the supervisor is expected to take on the role of educator, partly by facilitating continuing education for a supervisee, but also by providing direct instruction"*.

The educational function of social work supervision can be described as the process through which the social worker is trained to execute his responsibilities as social worker correctly. Through the educational process of supervision the social worker is trained in the skills and

knowledge that he needs to be able to accomplish effective interaction with clients. There is a clear indication of a training action and a learning action. These actions indicate that both the supervisor and the social worker accept responsibility for the constructive development and progress of the educational process.

The task of the supervisor in the educational function is to accomplish and promote teaching and learning. He has to take responsibility for the content of the educational process, the organising thereof, creating a suitable atmosphere for learning and he must ensure that relevant information and knowledge are available. However, the supervisor cannot ensure that learning does take place and that what is learned, is implemented correctly. The fact that a person has received training does not necessarily mean that he has learned and the fact that a person has learned, does not necessarily mean that what was learned would be implemented in practice. (Pelser, 1988:64, McLoud, 1989b:49 and Verster, 1992:11.)

The professional quality of being able to teach social workers entails that the supervisor must be able to:

- identify the training needs of the social workers correctly;
- compile a specific and unique training program for each social worker;
- implement the techniques and principles of adult learning correctly and effectively;
- distinguish the different phases in the educational process and establish in which phase each social worker is;
- correctly utilise and apply models, approaches and means during supervision sessions; and
- identify and effectively handle phenomena such as game-playing and narcism during supervision.

6.2.2 Distinction between educational supervision, in-service training and staff development

Social work supervision and in-service training and staff development share responsibility for helping the social worker ascertain what he needs to know in order to do his job effectively. However, a distinction has to be made between these concepts. Kadushin (1992:136-137) was able to give a clear indication of this distinction:

6.2.2.1 Staff development

It is related to all the procedures that are used within an organisation to enhance the job-related knowledge, skills and attitudes of all the staff, and it includes in-service training and educational supervision. Training sessions, lectures, workshops, information pamphlets and discussion groups for clerical staff, social workers and supervisors are staff development activities.

6.2.2.2 In-service training

This method is a more specific form of staff development. It is in the format of planned formal training provided to a specific staff group within the organisation. The staff has the same job classification and / or the same job responsibilities. In-service training programs are planned according to the general training needs of the specific staff group. The content of the training is applicable to all members of the staff group.

6.2.2.3 Educational supervision

It supplements in-service training by individualising what has been learned in general terms and applying the knowledge to the specific performance of the individual social worker. Educational supervision is also a specific form of staff development. Training is directed at the needs of a specific social worker with a specific workload, experiencing particular problems and needing an individualised training program.

6.2.3 Relationship between the educational function and the administrative function

There is a specific relationship between the educational function and the administrative function and they complement each other. Kasselman (1990:26) and Kadushin (1992:138-142) indicate that:

- The administrative function provides the organisational structure and the resources directed towards the goal of providing the best possible service to the clients.
- The educational function provides the training that enables social workers to achieve the goal.

Through training the social worker for his responsibilities and tasks, the effectiveness of the administrative function is ensured. The educational function provides the supervisor with an administrative controlling device since the social worker receives training in the values, objectives and procedures of the organisation. Both functions are directed towards changing the social worker's behaviour in accordance to what the organisation expects of him within the specific position in which he is employed. The educational function supports the administrative function and ensures more effective communication within the organisation, as social workers act more professional towards each other due to the sameness of their knowledge and techniques.

6.2.4 Phases in the educational function of supervision

A social worker is provided with supervision that is directly related to his development as social worker in the organisation over time. The supervision is adapted according to the social worker's development as professional person. Ruvas (1991:192-193) has described these phases in supervision in the following very practical manner:

On entering the employment of the organisation, the social worker is provided with *"probationary supervision"* which is usually intense and involves a great deal of cost and effort for the supervisor and the organisation. During *"probation"*, the social worker is carefully orientated, inducted and monitored for minimally acceptable performance. As the social worker moves from *"probationary to permanent status"*, supervision continues to be intense. The supervisory relationship appears to take on an *"educational direction"* with both the supervisor and the organisation accepting considerable responsibility for *"schooling"* the social worker. Gradually the supervisor and the organisation reduce their *"educational commitment"* to the social worker. The social worker is then expected to perform adequately and the *"supervisor monitors"* the performance. *"Monitoring supervision"* requires less organisational and supervisor investment than does *"probation and education"*. As the social worker begins to function more effectively, supervision becomes *"somewhat routine"*. The organisation and the supervisor can expect that as the social worker's *"autonomy"* increases the investment in supervision decreases. Finally supervision becomes *"nominal"* in that little supervision is required for the *"highly autonomous"* social worker.

6.2.5 Andragogical learning

Just as it is important for the supervisor to have knowledge of the phases in the educational process, it is also important to have knowledge and to understand the process of adult learning i.e. andragogical learning. In this learning process the person who teaches as well as the learner take co-responsibility for the what, where and how of the process (Pelser, 1988:66).

6.2.5.1 Characteristics of andragogical learning

- The learner does not accept the contents of what is taught blindly, but only if it is well-founded.
- The learner is actively involved in the learning process.
- The learner has certain experiences that must be taken into account and be applied in the learning process.
- The learning process must accommodate the individual needs of the learner.
- The learner is able to evaluate himself.
- Training methods are mainly discussions and experimenting.

6.2.5.2 Conditions of practice that affect learning

Closely linked to the characteristics of andragogical learning is the conditions of practice that affect learning. These conditions have to be taken into account and provision should be made for them in the training program. Harris & DeSimone (1994:60-62) identified these conditions of practice:

- Active practice, suggesting that social workers should be given the opportunity to repeatedly perform the task or use the knowledge being learned.
- Massed versus spaced practice sessions referring to the decision whether to conduct the training in one session or divide it into segments separated by some period of time.

- Whole versus part learning concerns the size of the unit to be learned. Decision should be made whether a social worker should practice an entire task; study certain material as a whole; or should practice the task or study the material in separate parts.

- Over learning is defined as practice beyond the point where the material or task is mastered. The results thereof can be:
  - o to improve performance in a variety of different situations;
  - o to provide additional practice in using the skill or knowledge when there is little opportunity for doing so in the job setting;
  - o to make what is learned more automatic, thereby improving performance in stressful and emergency situations.

- Knowledge of results and feedback are necessary to provide objective information regarding the suitability of performance. It can come from observers, the performer or the task itself.

- Task sequencing suggesting that tasks and knowledge can be learned more effectively if what is to be learned is divided into subtasks that are arranged and taught in an appropriate sequence.

6.2.6 Training design principles

In order to implement the educational function successfully, the supervisor must have knowledge of the training design principles. These principles need to be combined with the above mentioned conditions of practice that affect learning. This combination should result in a well planned training program. The success of the implementation of this training program will depend on the individual characteristics of the social worker as well as the supervisor.

The following are training design principles that can be implemented in order to maximise the transfer of training (Pelser, 1988:70-74; Kadushin, 1992:182-200 and Harris & DeSimone, 1994:65-66):

- Principle of identical elements suggests that the more similar the training and the performance situations are in terms of the stimuli present and responses required, the more likely it is that transfer of training will occur.

- General principle theory suggests that learning the fundamental elements of a task will ensure transfer from training.

- Stimulus variability suggests that transfer can be enhanced when training contains a variety of stimuli, such as using multiple examples of a concept or involving the social worker in several different practice situations.

- Support in the work environment – supervisory support is a multidimensional concept, with components such as encouragement to attend training, goal-setting, reinforcement and behaviour modelling all having shown to increase transfer. Supervisory support can help to increase transfer by clarifying the social worker's and the social work supervisor's expectations

prior to training. Supervisors are made aware of their role in the transfer process so that they can develop ways to encourage transfer.

- A motivated social worker, who is actively involved in the learning process, learns the best.

- Within the learning situation all the available energy should be utilised for learning. The nature of supervision and the supervision relationship should be clear. Clarity on the learning objectives is important as well.

- Learning is promoted when it is coupled with personal satisfaction as well as being rewarded with success. Aspects that are positive and pleasant are easily repeated while aspects that are distressing, are avoided.

- The uniqueness of the social worker as a learner must be taken into consideration in the learning process.

6.2.7 Elements to be present in the educational function

In order to have positive results with the educational function of social work supervision, researcher recommends that the following components be present during the implementation of the function:

- Starting where the social worker is – analysing the initial state of the social worker i.e. what he knows or can perform prior to training, and how he learns best.

- Describe the learning goal to be achieved – compile an individualised training program for the social worker.

- Identify the conditions (instructional techniques, procedures and materials) that the social worker needs to be able to gain competence – e.g. provide a case that might provide meaningful opportunities to teach what has to be learned.

- Assess and monitor the learning process to determine progress and whether alternative techniques should be used.

- Repeat the process.

6.2.8 General methods of training and learning

Pelser (1988:75-79) discussed the most general methods of training and learning in supervision in detail. For the purposes of this study it is only necessary to briefly refer to these methods as ways in which the educational function of supervision is implemented in practice.

6.2.8.1 Verbal instructions

- Supervisor gives instructions.
- Didactic training.
- Discussion between supervisor and social worker.

6.2.8.2 Learning through observation (modelling / imitation)

- Demonstrations.
- Observing the supervisor during the supervision session.
- Observing of modelling on video or cassette recording.

6.2.8.3 Put into practice

- Shaping / moulding starts with the learning of skills which are relatively known to the social worker and which he could execute easily. Thereafter the unknown and more difficult components can be tackled. The learning environment must be used in such a manner that a variety of learning opportunities will be available in different circumstances and situations.
- Simulation contains putting into practice knowledge and skills in realistic situations but not in real practice. The more similar the training situation and the practical situation are, the easier generalisation will take place.
- Training is a strategy that can be used when the social worker has a problem to understand and implement knowledge and skills. By means of practical and visual examples the supervisor tells the social worker what to do.
- Reinforcement is used in order to confirm the practice and response of the social worker and to enhance the probability that he would use the skills again in future situations.
- Repetition provides the opportunity for "learning again" and it enhances the possibility that the new knowledge and skills are maintained and that generalisation takes place.

6.2.8.4 Instructions

- Clear specifications are given to the social worker on what he has to do and how it has to be done.
- Expectations must be reasonable and fair.
- Accurate report and feedback on the performance of the social worker must be obtained.
- Reinforcement must be given for positive progress that was made.
- Evaluation and feedback must take place on a regular basis.
- Obstacles that negatively influence the practical work must be removed.

6.2.9 Conclusion

There is more to the educational function of supervision than was discussed above but this discussion is sufficient for the purposes of this study. The supervisor has to be alert in the implementation of the educational function and it requires of him to plan, organise and control his responsibilities towards the social workers for whom he is responsible. It is doubted if the supervisor will be able to implement the educational function effectively and efficiently without himself receiving support, motivation and training opportunities to keep himself up to date with recent developments in the field of social work and supervision.

6.3 Administrative function

6.3.1 Description

The administrative function of social work supervision can be defined as *"a process for getting the work done and maintaining organisational control and accountability"* (Kadushin, 1992:19). In implementing the administrative function of supervision, the supervisor organises the work place and the organisational and human resources to achieve the administrative objectives in accordance with organisational policies and procedures. McLoud (1989b:49) described the administrative function as enabling the social worker by means of management and administration to do his work effectively and sufficiently within the framework of the organisational structure, policy, procedures and objectives.

The administrative function of supervision can be seen to *"include activities such as orientating, organising, planning, leading, allocating, controlling, delegating and evaluating from a middle management position, with a view to promoting the quantity and the quality of work of direct service workers and to achieving organisational goals"* (Weekes & Botha, 1988:234). These activities as well as those of the other functions of supervision take place within the context of a relationship between the supervisor and the social worker as well as a relationship between the supervisor and the organisational management. These relationships manifest within the context of the administrative structure of the organisation.

Weinbach (1994:122) sees the administrative function of supervision as a traditional supervisory role and that it comes closest to what is referred to as management. *"It involves such important functions as work assignment and review, overseeing, communicating, serving as a buffer between higher-level administrators* (management) *and workers and matching of workers to tasks."*

6.3.2 Administrative-managerial tasks of the supervisor

The supervisor is in direct contact with the social worker and is an important link in the administration chain within the organisation. As an administrator, the supervisor has clearly defined administrative-managerial tasks. Pelser (1988:98-144), Kasselman (1990:23-24) and Kadushin (1992:46-77) discuss these tasks in different degrees of detail. Each of these tasks is discussed as it gives an indication of what is expected of the supervisor in implementing the administrative function of supervision.

6.3.2.1 Staff recruitment and selection

The recruitment of staff precedes the selection process and is an important step to ensure a successful personnel management program within the organisation. For the recruitment program to be successful, the nature of the positions to be filled must be specified and described clearly. It is difficult to recruit staff for positions that are not described clearly.

The supervisor is in the best position to know the details of the job that needs doing and the attitudes, skills and knowledge that are required to do it. Pelser (1988:133) refers to the research done by Byars & Rue where they have proven that recruitment is most successful in cases where a realistic description has been given of what the work entails, the specific requirements of the position and the work environment. The most important advantage is that the applicants' expectations of the position and the work are more correct and if they are employed, they are more satisfied.

Since supervisors know the work that needs doing, they participate in establishing criteria for the employment of staff and in implementing these criteria during interviews with the applicants. After completion of the interviews, the supervisor gives important input in employment decisions. Even if the supervisor does not make the final decision, his recommendations are taken into consideration.

6.3.2.2 Orientation and placing of the social worker

Newly employed social workers have to find their place in the organisational framework. They have to know clearly to whom they are to report and who reports to them. It is usually during this phase that the social worker's first impressions of the work and the organisation takes shape. These impressions are often unfavourable and can usually be connected to insufficient orientation.

The process of orientation and placement of the newly employed social worker is an administrative responsibility of the work supervisor. For the orientation program to be effective, it must be well planned and provide the social worker with specific information. The feelings of the social worker have to be taken into account, as he has certain feelings and needs during the orientation phase. It is important that the orientation be done gradually to ensure that the social worker is not overwhelmed on the first day. All newly employed social workers have to be orientated, but the orientation program can be adapted or altered according to the experience of the social worker. A social worker who is not well orientated has to be supported and assisted by the supervisor as well as colleagues to obtain the necessary information to be able to do his work.

An important aspect during the orientation process is the preparation of the social worker for supervision. The social worker has to know what is expected of him in supervision. This helps to avoid anxiety and uncertainty about supervision as well as promotes active participation in the supervision process. Mutual expectations are spelled out which form the basis for security and understanding within supervision.

6.3.2.3 Work planning

The supervisor is directly responsible for a group of social workers who are expected to render a specific service. The supervisor has to plan the organising of the social workers, the division and assigning of work and the allocation of resources such as offices and stationary to ensure that services are rendered. By means of effective planning, the assigned work is accomplished and a contribution is made to achieving the mission of the organisation.

6.3.2.3.1 Planning periods

Planning is a continuous process. While it precedes control, it does not end when controls are set. It requires constant monitoring and revision to be sure that it remains effective. For this reason the planning period has to be taken into account when planning is done within the section of service delivery for which the supervisor is responsible. Pelser (1988:99-100) and Haimann (1994:89) divided the planning periods as follows:

- Short term planning: covers a period up to one year; continuous process of specific and detailed planning to determine what has to be done, when it has to be done, who must do it, where it must be done, how it must be done and the resources necessary to do it. Also known as operational planning.
- Intermediate planning: activities to be carried out over a period of one to five years; forms the link between short term planning and long term planning as it is the formulation of detailed action plans for a specific time period. Also known as program planning.
- Long term planning: extends beyond five years and meets the demands of highly uncertain conditions of several decades hence. It is a continuous and systematic process and has to do with high priority activities, functions and programs. Also known as strategic planning.

6.3.2.3.2 Guidelines for effective planning

Good planning results in not only deciding on the best available alternative, but also on the most cost-effective alternative. Bad planning by the supervisor results in frustrated and dissatisfied social workers with a low productivity rate. Good planning reflects certainty and gives the social workers confidence in the work they have to do and in the objectives they need to achieve. Liebenberg (1989:73-74) gave the following as guidelines for effective planning:

- The supervisor must have a thorough knowledge of the field of social work.
- The supervisor must also have a thorough knowledge of the social workers and their abilities.
- Comprehensive records must be kept of all social workers.
- Realistic planning in terms of the available personnel can be done only after the personnel needs of the specific section has been established.
- Establish the standards against which work performance will be measured.
- Clear goals and objectives must be planned and identified.

- The supervisor has to stay up to date with recent developments and research in the social work field.

- Ensure that communication channels function effectively between all levels within the organisation.

- Cost effective studies must be done on a continuous basis.

- Evaluate if planned goals and objectives have been achieved.

6.3.2.4 Organising

Organising within the social services organisation involves distributing the work among the social workers and arranging the work in order for the work to flow smoothly. The structure of the organisation should be taken into account to ensure that the service rendering can continue without interruption.

An important principle in organising is specialising. This entails the grouping of activities that are similar and have the same context, in order to make the work easier and to have better control. It further entails the division of the work into manageable sections for each social worker. According to Raelin (1984:184 and 1986:101) overspecialisation can be a problem as social workers can become increasingly divided as they become functionally and even geographically separated from other social workers who are involved in different tasks and activities. As long as micro-speciality is in demand, there is no negative effect. Should the social work clientele needs, demands and situations change with the implication of requiring different skills, the social worker might find that he has become unnecessary.

6.3.2.4.1 Management activities to be implemented

In order to overcome the problem of overspecialisation, the supervisor can implement the following management activities as discussed by Pelser (1988:104-105):

- Broadening the work that entails a horizontal expansion of the extent of the work by allocating different and a bigger variety of tasks on the same level of difficulty and responsibility. The broadening of work decreases the frequency of repeating the same tasks.

- Work enrichment entailing the vertical expansion of the extent of the work by allocating a bigger variety of tasks on a higher level of difficulty and responsibility.

- Work depth that refers to the expansion of the work in such a manner that the social worker is able to control his work. The social worker is allowed to work at his own pace and to develop his own methods of doing the work. It gives the social worker more autonomy in the execution of his work.

- Work rotation that entails the expansion of the extent of the work by moving one social worker from one position to another or to transfer the worker. It decreases the frequency of repeating

the execution of certain work. This gives the social worker the opportunity for experience in other types of work as well as preventing boredom from doing the same work each day.

6.3.2.4.2 Criteria for organising

To be able to implement the above indicated management activities effectively, there are certain criteria that should be taken into account when organising the work within the social services organisation. Kadushin (1992:52-53) identified the criteria:

- The specific strengths and weaknesses of individual social workers. The supervisor has to know the capabilities of each of the social workers.
- The demands and pressures of the positions held by the different social workers. The supervisor has to consider the present total caseload carried by each social worker in terms of number of cases/groups/projects and also in terms of the activities likely to be demanded of the worker.
- Variety. Too great a concentration on one particular kind of task, one kind of case or one kind of problem situation denies the social worker the satisfaction and feeling of competence derived from a variety of job assignments.
- Task identity. The social workers want to be responsible for a meaningful, significant aspect of an assignment.
- Stimulation. The social worker needs the stimulation of challenge as well as variety if motivation is to be sustained and professional growth increased. Assigning tasks clearly below the level of the worker's capacity is likely to be less desirable than the opposite.

6.3.2.5 Controlling

The controlling action of the supervisor involves both the assessment of the performance of the social workers and the setting up of control mechanisms to amend behaviour that is not contributing to achievement of objectives. It involves a three-step process:

- establishing standards;
- measuring performance against these standards; and
- correcting variations from standards and plans.

The advantages of controls within the social services organisation are that they offer a sense of certainty and security that allows the social workers to know that they are "in the right" and thereby enabling them to concentrate on the services that they are to render to the clients. Supervisors, who can successfully create an organisational climate where controls are perceived as a necessary and helpful element, will find that they contribute to positive relationships between the social workers and the management of the organisation of whom the supervisor is part.

6.3.2.5.1 Control menu

The supervisor has a menu of controlling aids to choose from. The controlling aids are interchangeable, meaning that more than one of them can be used. Controls that are chosen and implemented with tact and sensitivity are usually appreciated by the social workers. The controls can enhance the social workers' morale as well as the relationship between them and the supervisor.

The control menu available to the supervisor was identified to be the following (Pelser, 1988:108-111; Liebenberg, 1989:95-100 and Weinbach, 1994:235-252):

- Plans – set standards for the social workers.
- Training – makes people look and act alike.
- Staff performance evaluation – review of the work of social workers informs the supervisor how they compare with expectations that have been established for them.
- Advice and information – when offered to a social worker it has more expectation of and potential for control than advice or information passed between and among peers.
- Directives – take the form of orders, overt instructions or other specific demands.
- Negative sanctions – spell out both what a social worker is forbidden to do and the negative consequences of doing it.
- Professional values – have a capacity to control the behaviour of social workers.
- Natural consequences – a conscious decision not to act at the present time because, based on the experience and judgement of the supervisor, the problem is very likely to disappear naturally.
- Example set by the supervisor – if supervisors are well respected, their behaviour has a powerful positive influence on social workers.

6.3.2.6 Leadership

Leadership can be described as *"...the process by which one person tries to influence others in the performance of a common task. Through leadership subordinates are imaginatively directed, guided and influenced in choosing and attaining goals"* (Haimann, 1994:335). According to the literature on leadership, there is not one best leadership style. Leadership behaviour is adaptable depending on three major conditions: 1) the leader; 2) the follower; and 3) the situation. These conditions involve the leader's behaviour and its influence on others; the follower's individual differences, motivation and needs; and situation variables such as the amount of control needed to get a job done (Weekes & Botha, 1988:236-237).

Researcher agrees with York & Denton (1990:103) and Stahl (1992:67) that the following leadership behaviour can contribute to effective performance of a social work section within a social services organisation:

- Communicate to social workers what they need to know.
- Develop the skills of the social workers for professional advancement.
- Consider the contributions of social workers before making decisions.
- Praise good work.
- Rotate less desirable assignments among the social workers.
- Provide guidance and direction.
- Allow social workers to make mistakes.
- Provide feedback about performance.
- Listen.
- Resolve conflict that prevents production.
- Assist with goal setting and monitoring goals.

The planning and organising of the work cannot materialise if the supervisor is not able to activate the workers to implement the planning. Leadership requires knowledge of planning and organising. Activating refers to the ability to motivate social workers to do what they have to do and for them to do it willingly. To be a good leader, the requirement is that the supervisor should have a combination of personal characteristics, knowledge and skills that will enable him to attempt to influence the behaviour of the social workers. In this sense it is closely related to the concept of motivation. Trust is a component of effective leadership – it is an important element for success in all of the functions of the supervisor.

The specific tasks of leadership tend to vary depending on the level of the position within the organisation. The higher-level managers lead through activities such as representing the organisation within the community and successfully negotiating with potential funding sources. In contrast, mid-level managers or supervisors are more likely to lead by assuring that social workers do not become so involved in their work that they loose sight of organisational goals of service. They may also show leadership by allocating resources in ways that promote professional growth and support social workers in their job performance. For the supervisor, leadership may entail activities such as resolving interpersonal conflicts, advocating for better fringe benefits for personnel or promoting pleasant working relationships by scheduling social occasions.

6.3.2.7 Coordinating work

The coordination of work is not considered as a separate task of the supervisor, but rather as part of all his functions. According to Koontz, O'Donnell & Weihrich (1982:30) coordination can be regarded as the essence of management. The purpose of management is the achievement of harmony of individual efforts toward the accomplishment of organisational goals. Each of the management functions is an exercise contributing to coordination.

"Coordinating 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). Coordinating is concerned with linking the activities of the organisation to achieve the desired results. It is the important task of inter-relating the various sections of the services to be rendered.

According to Haimann (1994:39-40) coordination within an organisation is done within different dimensions:

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

- Horizontal coordination – exists between persons and departments on the same organisational levels, achieved by policy and procedure stating that when necessary departments must interact, cooperate and adjust their activities to achieve coordination.

- Diagonal coordination – cuts across the organisational arrangements, ignoring position and level.

6.3.2.8 Delegating work

Delegation can be identified as the *"... degree of effectiveness with which the management* (supervisor) *utilises the decision making powers of subordinates* (social workers), *involves careful consideration of which subordinates* (social workers) *are in the best position to make the various types of decisions that must be made"* (Burack & Mathys, 1988:361).

One goal of delegation is to maximise the supervisor's influence while enhancing the quality of the activities within the organisation. Delegation empowers the social workers to make valuable contributions to the achievement of organisational goals. In the delegation of a task, if the task is reasonable, not too large and if the social worker is given the necessary authority to carry it out, the supervisor is justified in expecting satisfactory performance of the task.

Intrinsic job satisfaction and heightened motivation tend to be associated with greater autonomy in implementation of work assignments. The more responsibility the social worker is given, the greater the likelihood that he will feel that he is trusted. Delegation of tasks is more than just assigning tasks to a social worker. It involves that the supervisor shares a part of his authority with the social worker, who is then empowered to make decisions and to take action in the performance of the assigned tasks.

Delegation does not relieve the supervisor of responsibility for the completion of tasks. If the decision to delegate or the choice of a person to whom the task was delegated turned out to be

bad and the task was not satisfactorily completed, the supervisor can be blamed. Ultimately, supervisors retain administrative responsibility for the work assigned to social workers and they accept the fact that they are responsible for the work done by their social workers. A supervisor is held responsible for the task completion and for the decision to delegate.

Delegating work is appropriate or adequate if the following advantages, as identified by Raelin (1984:73-75) and Haimann (1994:165), can be perceived within the social services organisation:

- It improves the supervisor's time management and productivity, as the supervisor is relieved of much time-consuming detail work.
- Social workers can make decisions without waiting for approval.
- Delegating work is more efficient and it increases flexibility and permits more prompt action.
- It may produce better decisions, as the social worker doing the direct service delivery has more information of the pertinent factors of the task than the supervisor does and speedy decisions are often essential.
- It increases morale, interest and enthusiasm for the work as well as job satisfaction of the social workers.
- Provides good training ground and helps to evaluate the social workers.
- Delegating work gives the opportunity to develop the skills and abilities of the social workers.

6.3.3 Conclusion

It is evident that the administrative function of social work supervision is a very broad and time consuming responsibility. To implement this function effectively, the supervisor has to be knowledgeable about his tasks and responsibilities. The supervisor has to develop a specific process according to which he can work / plan to ensure that he executes his tasks and responsibilities correctly. An important factor to be successful and effective, is the support the supervisor receives from management.

6.4 Supportive function

6.4.1 Description

The supportive function of social work supervision places the focus on a major difference in emphasis between the role of the social work supervisor and that of supervisors in many businesses and industries. It is clear that, whether because of lack of resources, actual or threatened violence, obstacles to change, or lack of support, stress appears to be found consistently within social work. These types of job stresses and tensions inherent in many social services organisations often dictate that much of the supervisor's time is spent in providing psychological support to a social worker. Researcher agrees with Thompson, Stradling & O'Neill (1996:652) that with this support, social workers can continue to perform on the job without being overwhelmed by various stresses that exist within their work.

The supportive function of supervision is described as being concerned with increasing the effectiveness of the social worker through decreasing stress that interferes with performance and increasing motivation and intensifying commitment that enhances performance. The social worker is expected to provide in the needs of clients and he does not usually receive appreciation for his efforts from the clients. In order to be able to provide effective support, the supervisor must be aware of the factors that influence the social worker negatively and he must be able to inform the social worker about it.

According to Pelser (1988:146) and Kadushin (1992:227-228) the task of the supervisor has the following focuses:

- support and guidance to the social worker to help him handle work related stress and
- management of the work environment to decrease the stress therein and to handle work related aspects that create stress and frustration for social workers.

The result is that work related stress that influence effective work performance is decreased and the moral of the social worker that promotes his skills and abilities are increased.

In the implementation of the supportive function, the supervisor approaches the social worker with interventions to reinforce and strengthen ego defences to deal with job stresses and tensions. Procedures include the following: reassurance, encouragement, recognition of achievements, realistically based expressions of confidence, approval and commendation, catharsis-ventilation, desensitisation and universalisation, and attentive listening that communicates interest and concern. The supervisor attempts to help the social workers feel more at ease with themselves in their work (Kadushin, 1992:229).

6.4.2 Burnout

A social worker who is struggling to handle stress can progress into a full-blown episode of burnout if support is unavailable. Supervisors must be alert to such events and provide a supportive environment that gives the social workers the opportunity to verbalise and work through their anger, frustration, guilt, sense of failure or other strong reactions they may have. Munson (1993:235) indicates that if the supervisor does not assume a supportive role, he becomes another contributing factor to the social worker's stress.

Munson (1993:254) refers to a study done on stress where many social workers indicated that if they were aware in advance, they could have avoided many of their negative reactions and withdrawal. The social workers reported that since they were not warned in advance, they had a tendency to perceive the stress as personal and to internalise it rather than to view it as inherent to the position as social worker. Another significant finding of this study was that social workers felt that regular supportive supervision was the most effective aid in handling stress.

In a study on stress-coping strategies done by Ross (1996:108) his findings on the utilisation of supervision or consultation were not very positive. The indication is that supervision was perceived to be only moderately useful to social workers and played a relatively minor role in the alleviation of stress. The social workers, who utilised supervision as a stress management strategy maintained that understanding, sympathetic supervisors helped to support them, defuse stress and make the work more bearable. Because stress was sometimes self-imposed, it was felt that supervisors had a responsibility to control and prevent unrealistic planning. Effective supervision was perceived as enabling social workers to ventilate and promoted personal growth and professional development. The social workers felt that well-read, well-qualified supervisors with good managerial skills could potentially invest their skills in them. Many of the social workers indicated that they needed and could benefit from supervision, but unfortunately this service was not available.

Davis, Savicki, Cooley & Firth (1989:238) refer to a study that explored the relationship between supervision and burnout among social workers. Dissatisfaction with supervision was positively related to frequency and intensity of emotional exhaustion. Dissatisfaction with supervision was also negatively related to frequency of feelings of personal accomplishment. These findings are consistent with those of other researchers who have found supportive supervision to be beneficial in relieving stress.

However, as with many things, supervision can work for or against social workers when dealing with stress. Many social workers identify their supervisors as offering little support for stress and in many cases supervisors contribute to intensifying it. Social workers react to their supervisors and if social workers are exposed to supervisors, who are manifesting distress, it is easy for the social workers to follow the same pattern.

The support function is the supervisor's most important measure for handling stress and burnout within the social workers for whom he is responsible. The general dimensions of burnout are thus important. If the supervisor is knowledgeable about these dimensions, he will be able to act in time to prevent full-blown burnout. The dimensions of burnout as identified by De Wet (1991:28) and Wallace & Brinkerhoff (1991:109) are accepted. The dimensions are summarised in concepts such as emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation, detached concern, lack of personal accomplishment and manifestation of physical symptoms.

Support is the essential element in the handling of work related stresses that cause burnout. It is through support that social workers are guided in setting realistic goals in their work; focusing on success and not on failure; focusing on the work process and not on the results and keeping to time management. Supervisors make use of support to teach social workers the skills of stress

management and self care. Transparency in the supervisory relationship involves more than recognising the uniqueness of social workers and making adjustments in the work to meet their needs. Giving feedback is an additional aspect of transparency. By recognising and reinforcing the social workers' feelings of value and competence, the supervisor can give them the desire to initiate activity and recover from the effects of burnout. Ramaleba (1992:8-9) indicates that openly encouraging communication is important to both the supervisor and the social worker in the early identification of possible sources of tension. It is through support to communicate that social workers are encouraged to turn to their supervisors, to talk personally about work related events rather than merely to report events.

6.4.3 Sources of stress

Stressors associated with job content and client systems include quantitative work overload (where the person has too much to do in the available time); qualitative overload (where the work is too difficult for the person, excessive responsibility or accountability); under-utilisation of the social worker's abilities; lack of support; and deadlines or time pressures (Girdano, Everly & Duseck, 1993: 91 and Ross, 1993:338).

6.4.3.1 Sources of work related stress for the social worker

It was clear from the literature that there are many possible sources of work related stress within the social work profession (Holt, 1987:644; Matteson & Ivancevich, 1987:27,41; Gibson, McGrath & Reid, 1989:9; Behr, 1991:709-710; De Wet, 1991:18-24; Kadushin, 1992:237-257; Ramaleba, 1992:7 and Girdano, Everly & Dusek, 1993:161-176):

- Chronic job pressures without adequate support will result in social workers experiencing a measure of physical, emotional and mental exhaustion.
- Confusion about role prescriptions and expectations; role ambiguity; unclear work objectives; unclear working procedures; lack of feedback and uncertainty surrounding job performance are sources of work related stress.
- The decision making responsibilities of social workers toward clients and the organisation are sources of stress for social workers. Decision making stress is enhanced by the importance and complexity of the decision, the lack of information and time available to make the decision and the lack of confidence of the social worker who must make the decision.
- Administrative supervision in terms of the policies and procedures of the organisation and the requirement for work assessment and evaluation is a source of tension for the social worker.
- Educational supervision referring to the fear for change experienced by the social worker.
- The supervisor/supervisee relationship in terms of the social worker feeling insecure and inadequate.
- Direct contact with clients and having to deal with their emotional demands also serve as sources of tension for the social worker.

- Stress can result from the nature of social work tasks and the conditions under which they are carried out. Experiencing too little time to perform tasks to the satisfaction of the social worker himself i.e. meeting deadlines imposed by others.

- Social workers in many large social services organisations may e.g. have to face the stress of adapting to constantly changing directives or the restriction of scarce services or resources.

- Social worker himself is a source of stress in terms of his inability to adapt to the work environment; unpreparedness for the specific position; lack of necessary skills for the position; lack of self-confidence and a change in his perception of job satisfaction.

- Community attitudes toward social work and its function affect social workers. This attitude has changed over the years from approval, confidence and trust through questioning ambivalence, to a greater measure of critical mistrust and cynicism. Social workers have to counteract these negative attitudes.

- The necessary contact with other professionals as well as significant others of clients such as relatives is also a factor of stress for the social worker.

- Rendering supervisory services to social workers (subordinates) is an important stress factor.

- Physically unsuitable or uncomfortable work environment is a definite source of tension for the social worker.

6.4.3.2 Stressors in the personal lives of social workers

The sources of stress in the personal lives of social workers definitely have an influence on their performance within the work situation. Holt (1987:644) and Gibson, McGrath & Reid (1989:10) identified the following stressors:

- Personal role conflict.
- Personal injury or illness.
- Death of a family member.
- Family disagreements.
- Dual career marriages.
- Adult relatives in immediate family.
- Other personal adult relationships.
- Other relatives and own children.
- Financial difficulties.
- Housing difficulties.
- Unemployed close relative.
- Legal difficulties.
- Sexual difficulties.
- Fear of not being needed and being retrenched.

6.4.4 Stress management

Work stress can be reduced through the supportive function of supervision. Positive interaction with co-workers provides technical help or instrumental support, information, challenge, feedback on performance, emotional support and organisational power. Sources of support include team members, supervisors, colleagues, friends and family (Ross, 1993:338).

There are three forms of stress management (SM) practice, namely employee assistance programs (EAPs), stress management training (SMT) and stress reduction or intervention (SI). EAPs refer to the provision of employee counselling services by an organisation. SMT refers to training courses aimed at providing employees with improved stress coping skills including skills such as relaxation, conflict resolution and time management. SI indicates interventions designed to change the level or form of job stressors experienced by employees, generally through job redesign, work reform or organisational change. (Ross, 1996:97.)

Stress management intervention programs include any effort initiated by management of an organisation that 1) focuses on reducing the presence of work related stressors and 2) is intended to reduce any assumed negative outcomes and consequences associated with stress. Supervisors can play a key role in an effective counselling program and must be aware of what programs are available to social workers and what they have to do to participate. The supervisor is also in the position to participate in the follow-up effort to determine whether the social worker is carrying out the treatment and whether the problem is under control or has been solved.

6.4.4.1 Stress management strategies to be implemented and propagated by supervisors through the support function of supervision (Holt, 1987:646; Matteson & Ivancevich, 1987:156-174; Gibson, et al, 1989:15 and Murphy, 1991:715-716):

- More financial resources.
- More support and appreciation provided for difficult work circumstances and work done well.
- Encourage social workers to become involved in physical fitness programs, diet plans and wellness techniques, i.e. develop their own support systems.
- Stress management techniques such as:
  - o Biofeedback – provides the social worker with information about the status of a biological function and, over time, he will learn to control that function. Through biofeedback, the social workers learn to control a range of biological functions including heart rate, blood pressure, blood flow, stomach contractions and muscle tension.
  - o Progressive muscle relaxation (PMR) involves a series of tensing and relaxing exercises designed to encourage awareness of muscle activity and heightened control over muscle activity.
  - o Forms of meditation.

- o Cognitive strategies to modify processes that determine the stressfulness of situations. Such training involves examination of thinking patterns to modify irrational thoughts, substitution of negative self-talk for positive self-talk and developing flexible problem solving skills.
- Task redesign to improve the balance between social workers' and organisational expectations.
- Environmental change e.g. flexible work schedules.
- A change in senior personnel e.g. supervisor.
- Career development by providing training and career counselling.
- Clarifying individual role expectations i.e. that of the social worker and that of the social work supervisor can reduce role conflict and role stress.
- Recommend promotion for social workers who deserve it.
- Improving group communication; opposing separation and assuring emotional support for those who need it can improve support within work groups. Group supervision and peer group supervision are important methods of social work supervision that can be utilised.
- Team building ensures that stress is reduced by removing threats in working relationships and by supporting team achievements.

6.4.4.2 Individual stress management strategies to be propagated (Holt, 1987:547 and Girdano, et al, 1993:202-233):

- Learn to manage time effectively, set realistic deadlines.
- Practice assertiveness, say 'no' constructively.
- Avoid unsuitable reactions.
- Do not let problems increase.
- Exercise properly.
- Join a social group.
- Maintain a proper diet.
- Relax and ventilate.
- Establish routines.
- Avoid negative self-talk.
- Learn anger management.
- Practice concentration.
- Reinterpret stressors through cognitive restructuring.

6.4.5 Conclusion

Considering the above information, it can be possible that a supervisor who does not receive support himself, will not be able to meet the expectations for the implementation of the support function of supervision. A person who is under stress himself, may not be able to focus on another person who is experiencing stress and tension. The supervisor should have support systems available to him in his work environment.

6.5 Motivational function

6.5.1 Description

Motivation is an integral part of social work supervision, as the supervisor has to motivate and activate the social worker to render effective and efficient services to individuals, families, groups and communities. It is important that the supervisor has knowledge of the multiple theories of motivation that are known in the literature. First, motivation, as it is applicable in the social work profession, is defined. Thereafter the applicable theories of motivation are identified.

According to Weiner (1991:302) motivation refers to an internal motivating force that leads to a person acting in a certain way. The supervisor is in a position to activate the social worker. The actions of the supervisor towards the social worker can promote motivation as he identifies the elements and factors that motivate the social worker through the social worker himself. This means that the supervisor activates the social worker to do the activities that have the best results, but that the motivation to do the activities comes from the social worker himself. The implication is that the supervisor cannot affect the internal state of the social worker, but he can create environmental circumstances so that the social worker can expect that his personal goals will be satisfied through the achievement of the organisational goals.

McLoud (1989b:49) describes motivation as the willingness to make an effort in aiming at certain goals that would satisfy the needs of the individual social worker as well as that of the organisation. Activating is described as specific activities that are executed to enable a person to reveal motivated behaviour. Motivation can thus be identified as *"an inner force that impels human beings to behave in a variety of ways"* (Tyson & York, 1996:8). For behaviour to be in favour of the achievement of organisational goals, the total task assignment of the social worker has to be evaluated in order to identify what factors are present that meet his motivational needs. Broadwell (1990:100) indicates that the social worker wants a chance to succeed, he wants recognition; he wants to feel that he has an opportunity to improve and he wants to feel that he is making a contribution to the achievement of the goals of the organisation.

Motivation depends on the needs of the social worker as well as the intrinsic and extrinsic rewards he receives. The supervisor cannot change a social worker but he can change the behaviour of the social worker. Although motivation has a subjective component in the social worker having a specific perception of what he wants to do, the supervisor can still be in control of the situation. The focus of supervision is to determine the meaning of reinforcements and work circumstances for the social worker and to link his perceptions with the achievement of organisational goals. Kasselman (1990:34-36) is very clear when he states that motivation determines the energetically and conscientious manner in which and the perseverance with which the social worker mobilises his abilities and skills towards the achievement of goals.

The management of the professional activities in the social services organisation is primarily concerned with influencing the behaviour of the social workers doing the work. Supervisors have to spend most of their time listening, evaluating, encouraging, defending, criticising, coaching and advising - in other words, responding to the needs or influencing the behaviour of the social workers. The more the work of an organisation is human-centred, the more the manager is primarily a work motivator whether consciously or not (Shapero, 1985:56).

6.5.2 Theories of motivation

When considering the available theories of motivation, it is clear that motivation has been a subject of interest to many researchers. A variety of theories are described in the literature, but of importance within the social work supervisory practice, is that the supervisor should be able to implement the correct motivational approach at the right time and at the right place. For the purposes of this study the division of the theories of motivation according to physiological theories, cognitive theories and social/behaviourist theories as done by Hume (1995:20-32) are accepted. Harris & DeSimone (1994:27) have made a similar division of the theories of motivation, but refer to them as need based, cognitive and non-cognitive.

Even though the theories of motivation can be divided, they should be combined in practice to be effective in the motivation of subordinates. The result of combining the physiological, cognitive and social/behaviourist theories could be that allowances will be made for impulsive reactions to natural needs, for cognitive decision making and for recognition of the importance of environmental factors on behaviour.

6.5.2.1 Physiological theories

The central feature and main strength of these theories are that they identify a basic motivational influence on every individual - their natural and most basic needs. Behaviour of all human beings is influenced by the presence of these basic needs. Individuals are motivated to satisfy or fulfil their natural or physiological needs. The set of needs present in any individual at any given time is unique to that person and depend on factors such as their physiological state and age. The main criticism against these theories is that they rely entirely on passive reactions to natural needs and make no allowance for the influence of rational, cognitive decisions or the effect of societal and environmental factors.

To be able to motivate social workers within the background of these theories is a complicated task, since the behaviour of social workers can be influenced by many different factors. However, if it can be established that a particular management style or policy can assist with satisfying the natural needs of the social workers, it may be possible to encourage specific behaviour by providing the means by which particular natural needs can be satisfied. This implies that the

supervisor must be aware of the needs of social workers as well as the potential to have them satisfied and that social workers experience job satisfaction.

Broadwell (1990:81-82) categorises natural needs according to:

- basic needs such as food, clothing, shelter and safety;
- social needs e.g. employees want to be accepted by their fellow workers; and
- needs of self-esteem e.g. employees like to think that the work they are doing is important and that they are good at it.

It is recommended that the following theories of motivation be divided into the category of physiological theories. Different authors (Pelser, 1988:185-190; Liebenberg, 1989:86-88; Weinbach, 1994:182-185; 190-192 and Tyson & York, 1996:9-10,12) can be consulted for more specific information on these theories.

- Maslow's hierarchy of needs
- Herzberg's two-factor theory
- Schein's theory of complex man

6.5.2.2 Cognitive theories

The main strength of the cognitive theories is that they identify the importance of conscious and rational decision making as a factor influencing behaviour. Before individuals act in a certain manner, they make a conscious decision as to the likely outcome and perceived value of such behaviour. It is only after such a rational process that the individual will behave in a certain manner. The weakness of the cognitive theories is that they take no account of reflexive or impulsive actions and therefore do not allow for natural needs.

To motivate the social worker with the cognitive theories as basis, it should be considered that the social worker has a particular expectancy of certain behaviours. If this expectancy has a positive value, the social worker will likely behave in such a manner. E.g. if the social worker places a high value on recognition and expects to get a certificate of merit for maintaining a quality standard of work, he will be motivated to behave in a manner which guarantees the quality standard and subsequently results in the award of a certificate of merit. The following theories of motivation are seen as cognitive theories and it is recommended that different authors (Pelser, 1988:191; Liebenberg, 1989:88-90; Weinbach, 1994:185-190 and Tyson & York, 1996:10-12) be consulted for more specific information on the theories.

- McClelland's power-affiliation-achievement model
- McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y
- Porter and Lawler's model

6.5.2.3 Social/Behaviourist theories

The main strength of these theories is that they recognise the influence of societal and environmental factors upon behaviour. The suggestion is that the behaviour of individuals can be influenced either by societal pressure or by the manipulation of each person's environment. Learning, reinforcement and conformity are aspects central to these theories. The weakness of these theories is that they take no account of the cognitive processes, but tend to rely on a passive reaction assumption of human behaviour, suggesting that individuals react to the environment or society in a reflexive and instinctive manner.

The working environment of the social worker, including the provision of rewards and punishments, can have a significant effect on his work performance. In order to motivate the social worker, cognisance should be taken of this fact. In certain circumstances, the working environment of social workers can be manipulated with a corresponding effect on work performance, either negative or positive. To consider remuneration as a motivating factor depends on whether the social worker considers it to be a reward.

It is recommended that Tyson & York (1996:10-11) be consulted for more information on the theories of motivation divided into the category of social / behaviourist theories. The theories are the following:

- Mayo's theory of social needs
- Lewin's field theory

6.5.3 Eclectic model of work motivation of the individual

The eclectic model of work motivation of the individual as discussed by Shapero (1985:60-67) includes the above mentioned discussions and descriptions of motivation. It is also applicable in the social work profession and includes most of the propositions of the theories of motivation that have been indicated. This model of work motivation is presented in Figure 2.1 and discussed as follows:

Work behaviour begins with *expectations*. What we expect to happen affects what we are motivated to do. The individual starts with a set of expectations about what will happen in the work situation. This will be the result of various work-related and social actions. It is the individual's expectations that are transformed into what we refer to as *motivation*.

Motivation leads to *performance*: performance of the work to be done, as well as social and other behaviour in the work place. Once the individual has done something in the work place, several kinds of *feedback* - both external and internal - are received: the responses of *managers, colleagues* and *clients*, personal feelings of pleasure or displeasure at the outcomes. The sum of

all these kinds of feedback is the *work experiences* of the individual, which determine whether a person feels that he has done a good job, is appreciated, or had a bad day.

Figure 2.1   **WORK MOTIVATION OF THE INDIVIDUAL**
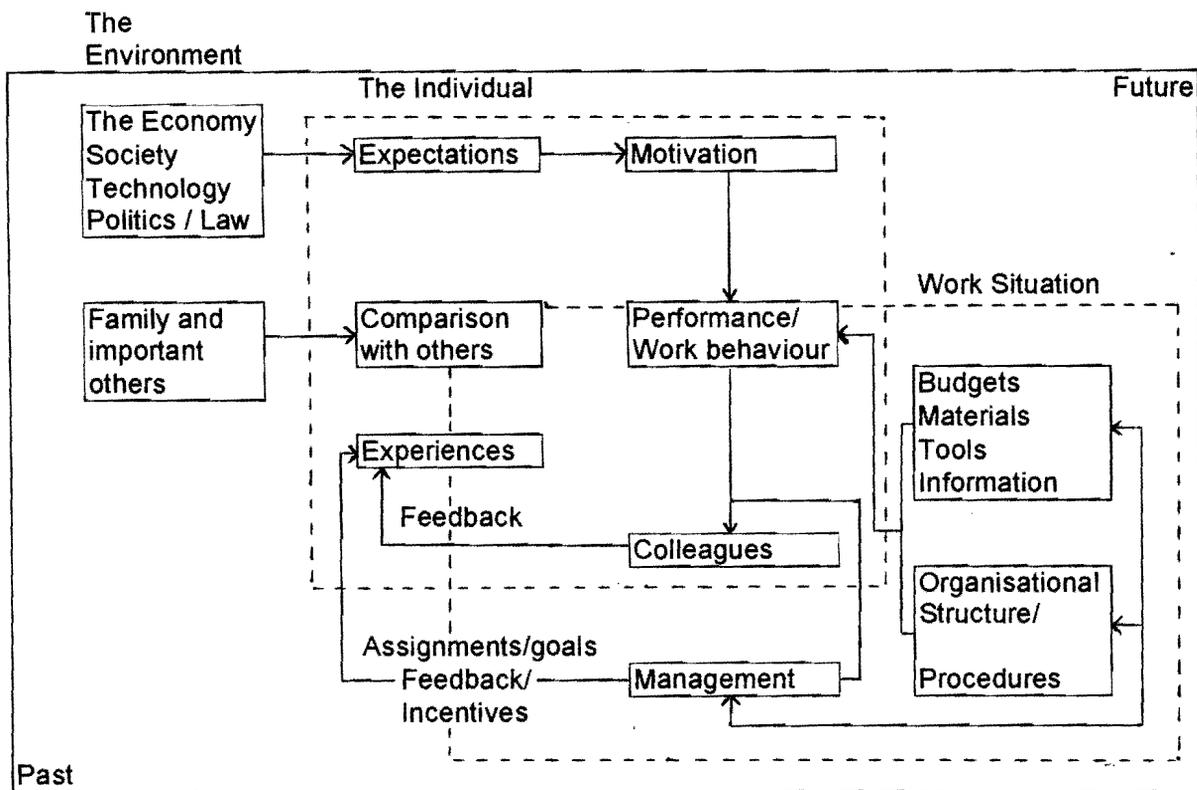
(Shapero, 1985:60.)

Work experiences, however, do not occur in a vacuum. The individual is part of a work group, an organisation, a profession and a social group. To be able to evaluate a person's experiences, the individual compares them with those of others. By making *comparisons* of experiences, an individual determines whether the treatment he received is 'fair' or should be protested against. By evaluating what has been experienced as a result of the way a person has performed and by comparing it with what happens to others, expectations are re-examined and where it appears necessary, modified.

It is a *dynamic cycle*, constantly in action, constantly being modified. A change in the work situation, including what happens to others, leads to a change in the results of comparisons, changed expectations and changed motivation. Motivation is affected by what happens daily on the job, what happens to others, by rules and organisation and by the availability of all those other elements that go into doing the work, among which are the reactions of colleagues and what the manager says and does directly.

The *work situation* - it is through manipulation of the work situation that managers have the greatest impact on the motivation and subsequent work behaviour of the professionals that work for an organisation. The job performance of the individual is the result of an interacting mix of the individual's motivation and ability and of the availability and quality of the items necessary for the work to be done. All of the elements are relevant and management can affect all.

The *environment* - includes all the institutions, persons and events significant to the individual and the work situation. A manager cannot significantly affect the larger environment within which the employee operates but can take the existence and influence of that environment into account. Since individuals are constantly comparing their experiences with those of others, it is important that the manager is aware of what comparisons are being made. The most obvious comparisons are concerned with salaries.

The *past and initial conditions* - each individual comes to the work situation with a set of purposes, drives, needs and attributes which are the product of what moves humans in general and of the individual's particular biological and historical past. The individual's past manifests itself in the work situation as a collection of talents, skills and knowledge called 'ability' and as a collection of expectations as to how the organisation and the work to be done relate to the individual's purposes, drives and needs.

6.5.4 Conclusion

With knowledge of this eclectic model of work motivation, the supervisor can be able to implement the motivational function of supervision with success. It is the responsibility of the supervisor to provide the motivational conditions to the social workers and let the natural motivating force of the work itself operate further. By encouraging and even requiring the social workers continually to upgrade their professional abilities and by providing them with the means of professional development, the supervisor can upgrade motivation and work performance.

6.6 Function for personality enrichment
6.6.1 Description

The social worker enters the social work profession and an organisation where other social workers and personnel are already well established in their work responsibilities and relationships. The social worker has to establish relationships with colleagues, his supervisor and his clients. The opportunities to acquire professional skills and abilities are available within these relationships that has to be established. The emotional, intellectual and social growth and development of the social worker are determined and influenced by the type and quality of these relationships. The personality of the social worker plays an important role in the establishment and the maintenance

of these relationships. The quality of these relationships contributes to the enrichment of the personality of the social worker with reference to his personality traits.

Since the social work profession is a highly people centred profession and services are rendered under highly emotional and stress related circumstances, the personality of the social worker is his best aid in being effective and efficient in the rendering of social work services. This implies that the social worker has to develop a greater self-consciousness than in other professions. Demands are placed on the social worker's maturity, integrity, emotional equilibrium, ability to making sound judgements, knowledge of human character, patience, perseverance, endurance, devotion, faith, ability to overcome disappointment and his interpersonal skills and abilities.

This is where the responsibility and task of the supervisor lies with the implementation of the function for personality enrichment. Supervision provides the best opportunities for the identification of flaws and problems in the personality traits of the social worker. The resulting implication is that supervision provides the best opportunities to attend to the identified flaws and problems negatively influencing the professional performance of the social worker. Supervision must be utilised for the social worker as a total person and not only as a controlling and educational mechanism. Good supervisory practice enables the social worker to extend his knowledge, enrich his personality, develop his creativity and enhance his productivity.

It is the responsibility of the supervisor to prevent the social worker from placing his own needs before the needs of his clients. The social worker must be prevented from acting impulsively, from shifting his responsibility onto others and from communicating in a non-specific manner. The end result of the implementation of the function for personality enrichment is an integrated social worker. Kasselman (1990:33) indicates that an integrated social worker is able to clarify roles, status, values and intentions with his clients.

The clients or situations with which the social worker comes into contact are mostly difficult to handle and very complex. The progress made in certain cases is not always measurable and problems often seem to be insolvable. It is important that, within these circumstances, the social worker does not become desperate and discouraged and, as a result, loose self-confidence. The supervisor has to enable the social worker to retain self-confidence, faith and perspective within difficult circumstances.

The supervisor must give attention to the enrichment of the social worker to ensure that he experiences self-fulfilment in effective work performance and satisfaction in his work. The interaction between the positive and satisfactory work performance of a person and his meaningful functioning as a person cannot be ignored. A positive self-image and a feeling of worth that comes

from experiencing satisfaction in work performance places the individual in a position to be happy and satisfied in other aspects of his life as well.

The objective of supervision, the content and quality thereof, the method which is implemented and the relationship between the supervisor and the social worker must be of such nature that the social worker can verbalise his feelings, needs, shortcomings, experiences, thoughts and ideas freely. Supervision must provide the social worker with opportunities to evaluate his abilities and qualities according to their value. It must also provide the opportunity to improve his weaknesses, to identify shortcomings in his personality and to correct them. Supervision must thus be an emotionally enriching experience for the social worker.

6.6.2 Task and responsibility of the supervisor

The tasks and responsibilities of the supervisor in the implementation of the function for personality enrichment as indicated by McLoud (1989a:65-66) and Kasselman (1990:32-33) can be listed as follows:

- The supervisor has to develop a greater self-conscience within the social worker of his own feelings towards other people, the indirect influence that failures and frustrations have on him as well as the manner in which it manifests in his behaviour and actions.
- The social worker has to be guided towards evaluating himself in a critical manner and identifying development areas with regard to personality enrichment.
- It should be established, within a reasonable degree, how the social worker reacts on certain influences and how he, in turn, influences other.
- The supervisor has to guide the social worker towards accepting himself and experiencing emotional security.
- The social worker has to be enabled to observe other persons, cases and situations as they really are and acting according to the observation.
- Guidance should be provided to the social worker towards having a healthy self-image and being able to maintain, within depressing circumstances and discouraging progress, a certain self-confidence, perspective and faith with regard to the goal that he has planned for himself.
- It should be ensured that the social worker is being guided by a specific philosophy of life that is in harmony with the norms and values of the social work profession.
- The supervisor has to ensure that the social worker comes to realise that experience, professional skills and maturity are not established by successes only, but also by failures.
- The social worker has to be guided in abstaining himself from irrational assumptions that leads to unnecessary stress.
- The supervisor has to guide the social worker towards being objective with regard to himself, developing insight in himself and being able to laugh at himself.
- It should be ensured that the social worker develops as an autonomous and independent social worker.

- The social worker should be enabled to share his feelings.
- Enabling the social worker to communicate effectively is essential.
- Guidance should be provided to the social worker towards being a trusting person.
- The supervisor should enable the social worker to confront his clients in a constructive manner while maintaining the positive worker-client relationship.

6.6.3 Conclusion

From the above information it is evident that personality enrichment of social workers is also done through the implementation of the four previously discussed functions of supervision. The social worker gains and develops skills and abilities through the implementation of educational supervision, administrative supervision, supportive supervision, motivational supervision and modelling (still to be discussed). The supervisor is thus continually busy with the enrichment of the personality of the social worker. If the social worker experiences personal growth towards maturity, self-confidence, integrity and ethical responsibility, he will be able to do his work in an effective and efficient manner.

6.7 Function of modelling

6.7.1 Description

As discussed under the heading of personal and professional qualities of the supervisor, the supervisor must ensure that he is a model that is worth following. He should be up to date with recent research and developments within the social work profession as well as supervision. It is also necessary for the supervisor to examine his work habits and try to become what he wants the social workers to be. This refers to aspects such as being on time, being neat, avoiding sloppy desks, untidy work places and bad work habits. He has to be knowledgeable on the process of modelling and the factors that might have an influence on the results of modelling. He should enable the social workers to develop identities of their own and to function independently and not to have them become replicas of himself. (McLoud, 1989a:63-64 and Broadwell, 1990:23.)

According to Kadushin (1992:156) not all significant content can be taught didactically, through discussion or experimentally, but that content can only be taught through modelling. *"Modelling involves deliberately selected displays of behaviour by the supervisor for didactic purposes. Modelling involves "observing" desirable worker behaviour available from a variety of sources - reading typescripts of interviews, watching interviewing through a one-way screen or sitting in on an interview. All these procedures provide the supervisee with a model of how a worker should behave in contact with a client"* (Kadushin, 1992:156). Pelser (1988:200) describes modelling as a process in which a model is given to the social worker and the worker is to observe and investigate the applicable interactional behaviour that relates to the specific situation. The observed behaviour is structured and investigated deliberately for the social worker to be able to learn from the modelling.

Modelling implies that the supervisor provides an example that is worth following in terms of being a professional social worker and a professional person. Modelling professional social work behaviour results in providing the social worker with a model of the desirable skills, techniques and attitudes for effective and efficient social work services. Modelling professional person behaviour implies that the supervisor manages and organises his workload and work environment in an acceptable humanitarian manner. The manner in which he acts in his daily functioning within the office and in contact with the management of the organisation, with colleagues, with social workers and the supportive staff should provide the social worker with an example that is worth following. The end result should be that the supervisor is constantly aware of his behaviour and actions and the influence thereof on the social worker.

6.7.2 Characteristics of successful modelling

Pelser (1988:204-205) and Kasselman (1990:37) both stressed that modelling as a function of supervision can be successful if the following characteristics are present:

- The supervisory relationship between the supervisor and the social worker is positive.
- Emotional responses within the interaction with clients as well as within the supervisory process are utilised to resolve the present problems that obstruct the effective performance of the social worker.
- The supervisor reveals the correct empathetic attitude towards the social worker with regard to problems he experiences in the rendering of social work services.
- The supervisor reveals genuine interest in and dedication towards the enhancement of the social worker's knowledge of and insight into the social work profession as well as the social worker's growth and development as a professional social worker.
- Modelling teaches the social worker the following characteristics: patience, dedication, tact, endurance, empathy, intuition, honesty, decency, modesty and courage.
- The social worker is also taught not to misuse his position of confidence.
- The social worker is in a position to observe and experience a more realistic perception of the work through the function of modelling. This enables him to judge himself according to the qualities that are necessary and needed for the specific work and tasks of the profession.

6.7.3 Conclusion

The purposeful implementation of the function of modelling by the supervisor for the development of the social worker is just as important as the implementation of the other five functions of supervision. The implication is that the social work profession should have supervisors who are worthy as a model and who are good examples, in all aspects, of successful persons within the social work profession. The ultimate goal of modelling has direct reference with the goal of supervision: effective and efficient rendering of social work services.

7. EXPECTATIONS OF GOOD SUPERVISORY PRACTICE

In the extensive discussion of the functions of social work supervision, the tasks and responsibilities of the supervisor seem to be overwhelming. The expectations can be divided according to what the social worker expects and what management generally expects. However, the two sets of expectations are supplementary to each other. The expectations are identified as motivation for the supervisors' need of support and support systems in order to meet the expectations.

7.1 Social worker expectations of the supervisor

Researcher has combined the following list of expectations from the literature (Harkness & Mulinski, 1988:340, Reamer, 1989:445, Harvard Business Review Book, 1990:122,124, Munson, 1993:12,29,39-41,253 and Haimann, 1994:193-194). Although the authors not necessarily refer to them as expectations, they were interpreted as expectations that social workers have of their supervisors.

7.1.1   The supervisor should supervise the social worker consistently and at regular intervals.

7.1.2   Growth-orientated supervision that respects personal privacy should be provided.

7.1.3   Technically sound and theoretically grounded supervision is expected.

7.1.4   The social worker should be evaluated on criteria that are made clear in advance and evaluations should be based on actual observation of performance.

7.1.5   The supervisor should be adequately skilled in clinical practice and be trained in supervision practice.

7.1.6   The supervisor should be a master teacher in order to transmit knowledge that integrates theory and practice to the social worker.

7.1.7   He must be able to apply research knowledge and methodology to practice.

7.1.8   The supervisor must be confident in his knowledge, but must be open to questioning.

7.1.9   He must have the ability to accept criticism without becoming defensive.

7.1.10 The supervisor must be fair, honest and direct but supportive and patient.

7.1.11 He should provide the social worker with cases that are appropriate, but challenging.

7.1.12 The supervisor should be acceptable in appearance, should be courteous and clear in communication.

7.1.13 He should be thorough in providing orientation on the agency or setting.

7.1.14 The supervisor should be prepared for supervision sessions and must avoid wasting precious supervision time.

7.1.15 He should be involved in the organisation, the community and the social work profession.

7.1.16 The supervisor must be knowledgeable about the code of social work ethics and faithfully adhere to its directives.

7.1.17 The supervisor is expected to permit the social worker to decide how to achieve results within accepted professional standards and organisational requirements.

7.1.18 The supervisor should be a good manager who helps social workers to feel strong and responsible, who rewards them accordingly for good performance and who sees that the work environment is organised in such a way that social workers feel they know what they should do.

7.1.19 He should encourage a strong sense of team spirit among social workers, of pride in working as part of a particular team.

7.1.20 The supervisor has to encourage relationships with social workers that promote the sharing of fears and concerns about their own feelings and attitudes that they perceive as irrational or unprofessional. Only within a trusting and accepting supervisory relationship will social workers share these deep-seated fears. To deal with such content confidently, supervisors must be well prepared, experienced and supported themselves.

7.1.21 The supervisor is expected to be evaluative not only of the social worker, but also of the supervision itself.

7.1.22 Social workers expect the supervisor to provide technique orientated supervision as it produces more effective learning than therapeutic orientated supervision.

7.1.23 Genuineness and the ability to provide feedback are characteristics within the supervisor that are preferred by social workers.

7.1.24 The supervisor has to ensure that performance standards are set for social workers. Performance standards should enhance the performance of the social workers and should be based on a set of expectations on which both parties agreed.

7.1.25 As the domain of social work supervision has expanded, so have the liability risks that accompany the relationship between the social worker and the supervisor. It is important that the supervisor inform the social workers about the growing number of legal or liability issues related to supervision.

7.2 Organisational and management expectations of the supervisor:

Many expectations are set by organisations for their management and middle management personnel. Most organisations are very rigid in their expectations and do not make allowances for deviations. A combined list from the literature entails the following expectations (Christian & Hannah, 1983:98-100, Clare, 1988:494,500, Liebenberg, 1989:30-31, Reamer, 1989:445, Remley & Hendren, 1989:179,182, Broadwell, 1990:39-52,122,159, Du Toit, 1991:59, Weiner, 1991:303,308-309, Kadushin, 1992:298, Haimann, 1994:4-5, Tepper, 1994:30,52-69,95, Weinbach, 1994:43, Loewenberg & Dolgoff, 1996:159-160,214 and Tyson & York, 1996:5,7-8):

7.2.1 The supervisor is expected to perform supervision responsibilities in a professional manner. He should ensure that the necessary time is taken for quality supervision. He should seek additional training in clinical supervision if his skills are not according to standard.

7.2.2 The supervisor is expected to be monitoring and directing the activities of the social workers and the support staff to ensure a quantity of output consistent with work performance standards and the organisation's goals and objectives (productivity).

7.2.3 The supervisor should execute activities through which he can ensure that the performance of the social workers and the support staff results in a quality of service consistent with client need, legal policy, regulations and organisational policy and procedure (quality control).

7.2.4 The supervisor is expected to promote the positive morale and job satisfaction of his subordinates.

7.2.5 The supervisor has to improve his own job-related knowledge, skill level and personal adjustment as well as that of his subordinates.

7.2.6 The supervisor must set reasonable work performance objectives for the social workers.

7.2.7 He should establish a favourable work environment with adequate physical conditions and material resources to facilitate productivity and promote staff comfort and morale.

7.2.8 The supervisor is expected to develop positive interpersonal relationships with social workers and support staff and establish open channels of communication between himself and the staff.

7.2.9 Appropriate conduct and productive performance should be modelled and instructed to the social workers and support staff by the supervisor.

7.2.10 The supervisor should exercise fair control in his management of the behaviour of his subordinates.

7.2.11 The supervisor is expected to be a good boss, a good manager and a leader of the subordinates for whom he is responsible. He must have the technical, professional and clinical competence to run his section smoothly and to see that the staff performs their assignments successfully.

7.2.12 The supervisor must also be a competent subordinate to the next higher manager. Responsibility is towards the management of the organisation.

7.2.13 He is expected to act as a connecting link between the social workers and the support staff and the management of the organisation. The supervisor is a member of the management who must ensure that the work gets done.

7.2.14 The supervisor must maintain satisfactory working relationships with heads of all other departments.

7.2.15 He should assume greater responsibility for policy formulation and for relationships between community and organisation.

7.2.16 The supervisor should understand the nature and process of motivation and is expected to individualise his approach in the task of motivating social workers.

7.2.17 The supervisor is expected to communicate the organisational performance goals clearly to the social workers and to continually ascertain each social worker's personal and professional goals.

7.2.18 The supervisor should continuously give feedback to the social workers on their performance.

7.2.19 He should attend to job design, which implies that he blends the content of the work with job rewards and job qualifications.

7.2.20 He is expected to provide training and career development opportunities for social workers. Unless they are properly trained, the supervisor has no real justification for appraising them or for finding fault with their work.

7.2.21 It is expected that the supervisor ensures that the work is challenging enough, meaningful enough and provides enough recognition in order for the social workers to fulfil enough of their own needs and thus get satisfaction from doing the work.

7.2.22 Changes can and will occur in technology, legislation, societal attitudes, personal wants and needs, supervisory techniques and relationships within the organisation. The supervisor is expected to keep up to date with the changes, to inform the social worker of the changes and to accept the changes personally.

7.2.23 The supervisor should be skilled in good communication - knowledgeable of the basic elements of communication and the barriers to effective communication.

7.2.24 The management expects the supervisor to stay aware of the "big picture" - to be sensitive to what's happening in the total organisation in order to achieve the needs and goals of the organisation as a whole.

7.2.25 It is expected that the supervisor should be a self-aware person which implies that he:

- realises that his behaviour affects others and that he may need to change in order to achieve effectiveness in performance and human relationships;
- takes active steps to obtain feedback about his behaviour and performance from social workers and management;
- takes note of external views on his behaviour and performance especially when these differ significantly from his view of himself; and
- has reached as honest and balanced view of himself as humanly possible.

7.2.26 The supervisor has an ethical responsibility to protect clients' rights and to encourage an atmosphere in which social workers will do the same. The supervisor is expected to support the ethical behaviours of the social workers and to stop their unethical behaviours.

7.2.27 Management expects supervisors to be aware and have knowledge of their liability as supervisors. Under the legal maxim of *respondeant superior*, masters are responsible in certain cases for wrongful acts of their servants. As a result of this legal principle that holds the more powerful people responsible for those who report to them, supervisors are responsible for the wrongful acts of the social workers for whom they are responsible.

7.3 Conclusion

The list of expectations is never ending. What is important, is that these expectations are seldom verbalised to the supervisor. It is also not written into their job descriptions. Many supervisors

perform on a "trail and error" basis, depending on the way in which their transition from social worker to supervisor has developed. The psychological contract between the supervisor and the management of the organisation can be a stress factor and not a support system to the supervisor. According to the expectations, the supervisor acts as a buffer between the social workers and the management of the organisation. Both have expectations of the supervisor, but do not provide any support. The supervisor cannot meet these expectations without being supported.

8. SUMMARY

The literature has provided a wide variety of information on social work supervision and much more can be said about the subject than was discussed. However, for the purposes of this study, it is sufficient. The ultimate objective of supervision is to ensure that effective and efficient services are rendered to the total client system. The intermediary objectives to achieve the ultimate objective are related to the social worker, the client and the social services organisation.

The transition process from social worker to supervisor has an important influence on the quality of supervisory practice that will be implemented. This process implies an adjustment to and acceptance of a new position or role. The phases of role identification; role withdrawal and role acceptance; and establishing an identity as a supervisor; have to be successfully completed for the transition to have been successful.

Not all social workers are able to perform as a competent supervisor. The supervisor should have certain personal qualities and knowledge about his own personality type. Without these personal qualities, the professional qualities cannot be developed. Professional qualities and interpersonal skills correspond closely with each other. These qualities are important for the implementation of good supervisory practice. Professional qualities can be developed through training and practice, but personal qualities are internalised as the individual's personality has developed since childhood.

The functions of supervision, of which some had been identified within the literature, i.e. educational function, administrative function, supportive function, motivational function, function for personality enrichment and function of modelling, are interrelated and implemented simultaneously. Taking all the knowledge that the supervisor is expected to have, the countless tasks and responsibilities and the expectations into account, the well-founded conclusion can be made that the supervisor has an enormous job.

Throughout the literature study, no reference was found on the support that is available to the supervisor to help him in this enormous job. He is expected to be effective and efficient and to be a support system to the social workers for whom he is responsible. By being effective and efficient in

his supervisory practice, he also acts as a support system to the management of the organisation. The supervisor stands in the middle, alone and without support of any kind.

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

Kasselman (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

(Crow & Odewahn, 1987:3.)
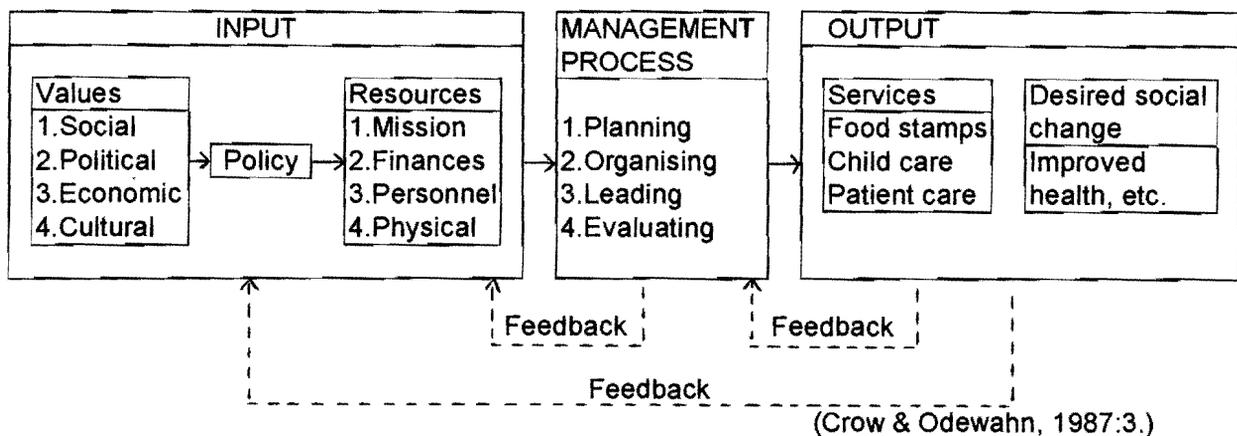
According to the management system, the manager must recognise the role of social, political, economic and cultural *values* and must be aware that the values that influence policy formulation also affect the implementation of programs to fulfil the policy. *Policy* creates the need for one of

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 skilful 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; Kasselman, 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; Kasselman, 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:
  o service specialist - concerning direct service to the client or consumer;
  o organisation specialist - concerning the system used;
  o training specialist - concerning the training of subordinates; and
  o 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; Kasselman, 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.

Figure 3.2   MANAGERIAL ROLES

Interpersonal roles:
 Figurehead
 Leader
 Liaison

Decisional roles:
 Entrepreneur
 Disturbance
  handler
 Resource allocator
 Negotiator

Informational roles:
 Monitor
 Disseminator
 Spokesperson

(Ivancevich, et al., 1989:37.)
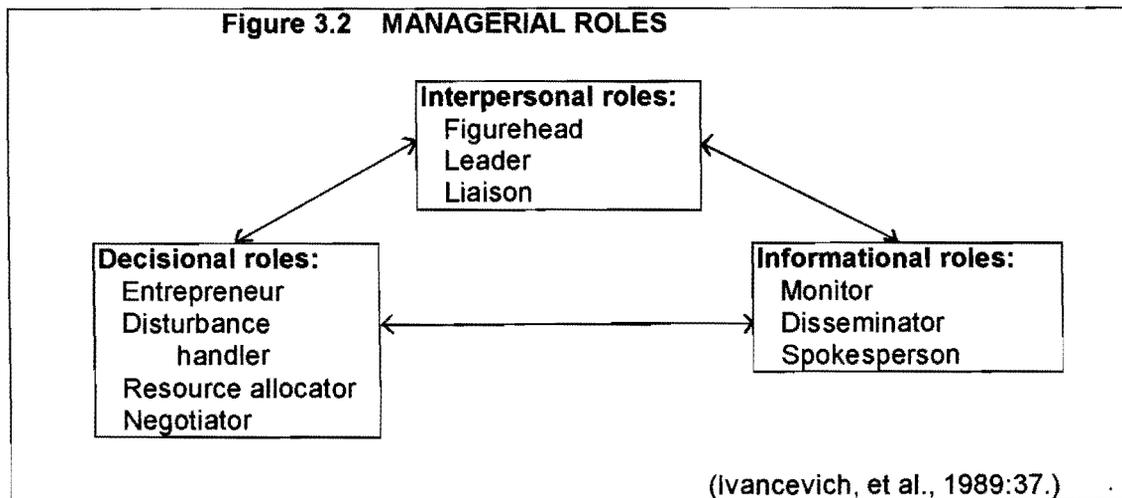
3.4.2.2 Informational roles

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; Kasselman, 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; Kasselman, 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.

Figure 3.3   MODEL OF CHANGE DYNAMICS

CHANGE

↓

→ Personal impact
How will it affect me?

Organisational culture
impact - How will it
change the organisational
environment? ↑

Political impact
How will it impact control
management?

(Costello, 1994:32.)
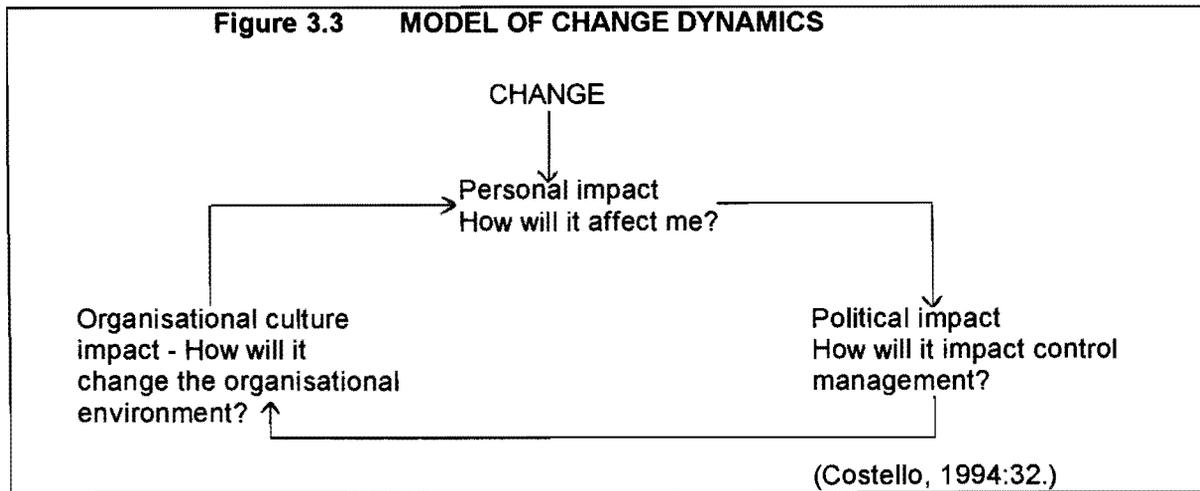
Change has a definite emotional impact on individual employees. Nadler, et.al. (1995:98-100) indicate that change can be a source of stress but can also result in positive potential. A main source of stress as a reaction to change is specifically the potential for loss that prevails throughout any change situation. Employees may loose jobs, co-workers, title, status or perks. They also may loose 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 it's 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 being 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.

Figure 3.4
CYCLE OF MANAGEMENT FUNCTIONS

Planning

Controlling

Decision Making

Coordination

Communication

Organising

Leading

Staffing

(Haimann, 1994:18.)
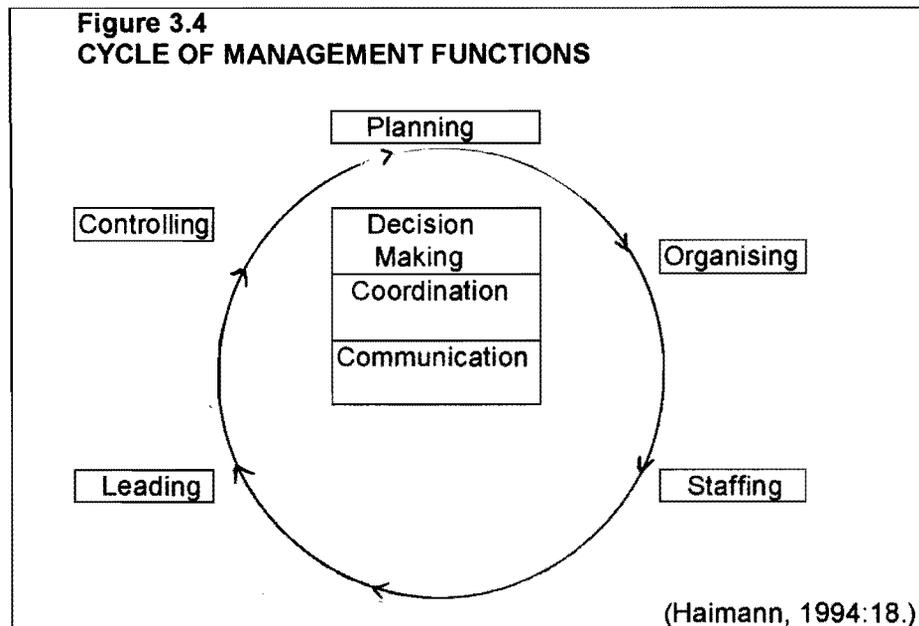
5.2 Essential elements of the management functions

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.

- Horisontal 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 horisontal. 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.

Figure 3.5 **NATURE OF PLANNING**

What kind of organisational structure

Which helps us know

PLANS:
Objectives and how to achieve them

Necessary for

What kind of people we need and when

Which affects the kind of leadership and direction

How most effectively to lead and direct people

In order to assure success of plans

By furnishing standards of control

(Koontz, et al., 1984:103)

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 as 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 (intenseness 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 trail 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.
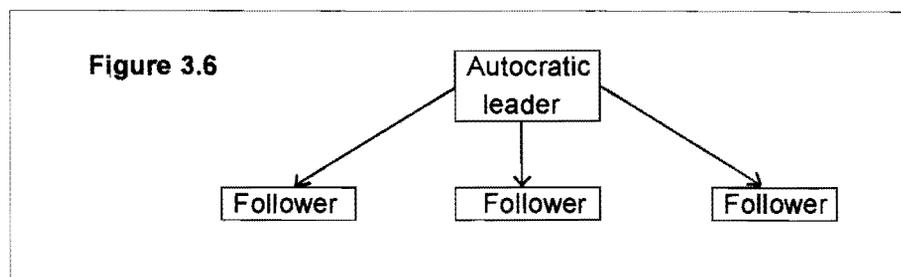
Figure 3.6

- 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:

  o an instruction does not appear to the subordinate as an order, but rather as a solution in which he participated;

  o it provides an outlet for reasoning power and imagination and an opportunity for the subordinate to make a worthwhile contribution to the organisation; and

  o it will bring the subordinate closer to the manager, which will promote better communication and understanding between them.
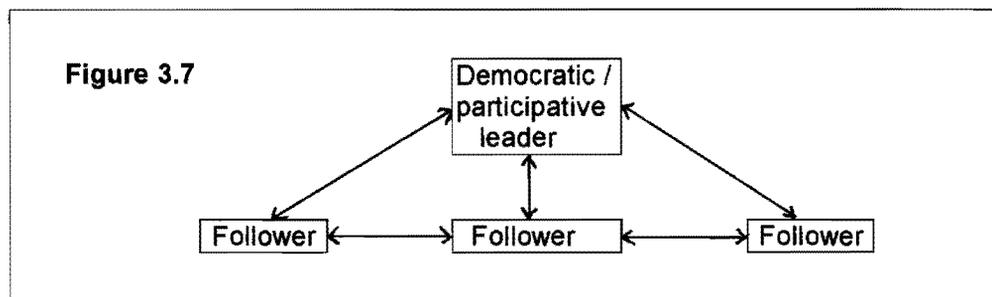
Figure 3.7

- 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.

Figure 3.8
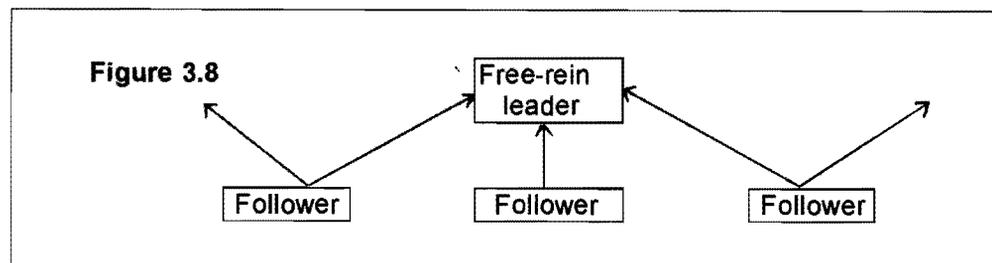
5.6.5 Aspects affecting leadership style

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 Bevilacque (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 loose 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.

Figure 3.9 OPEN-LOOP CONTROL MODEL

```
┌─────────────────────────┐
│ Establishment of position│
│ requirements through     │
│ some kind of organsa-    │
│ tional planning process  │
└─────────────────────────┘
            │
            ▼
┌─────────────────────────┐
│ Establishing standards of│
│ acceptable behaviour rela-│
│ tive to these requirements│
└─────────────────────────┘
            │
            ▼
┌─────────────────────────┐        ┌─────────────────────────┐
│ Measuring performance    │───────▶│ Identifying unacceptable │
│ against these standards  │        │ deviations from standards│
└─────────────────────────┘        └─────────────────────────┘
            │                                   │
            ▼                                   ▼
┌─────────────────────────┐        ┌─────────────────────────┐
│ No unacceptable devia-   │        │ Diagnosing the causal    │
│ tions from standards noted│       │ factors contributing to  │
└─────────────────────────┘        │ unacceptable deviations  │
            │                       └─────────────────────────┘
            ▼                                   │
┌─────────────────────────┐                     ▼
│      No action           │        ┌─────────────────────────┐
└─────────────────────────┘        │ Taking appropriate       │
                                    │ corrective action        │
                                    └─────────────────────────┘
```

(Miner & Luchsinger, 1985:109.)

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.

CHAPTER FOUR

MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES AS SUPPORT SYSTEMS

1. INTRODUCTION

Within the present changes taking place in organisations, managers have to be effective and efficient in their management of subordinates. However, the expectations of good supervisory and management practice as identified within the previous two chapters, stress that managers and supervisors are performing under constant pressure. Managers thus need to receive support in the execution of these expectations, responsibilities and tasks.

Support can be described or defined as giving strength, to encourage, to tolerate, to endure, to back up, to supply with necessities and to carry weight. A system is a set, complex whole or an organised body of connected things or parts. A support system is thus an organised procedure with specific direction in order to encourage and motivate employees within the work situation. For the purposes of this study, support systems are defined as procedures, interventions or individuals available within an organisation to encourage and motivate employees of that particular organisation to perform effectively and efficiently.

The manager is responsible for other people and he has to be effective in the manner in which he manages them. The manager can have a positive or negative influence on his subordinates. In implementing good management practice, it could be supportive to the manager if he could conduct himself with self-confidence in the sense that he knows what he is doing, what he aims at and the results he wants to achieve. He can be successful in achieving this goal through the implementation of specific strategies in the management of subordinates. Knowledge and experience in different management strategies could be supportive as it provides the manager with alternatives in the management of subordinates. Strategies are options of different activities with specific aims and managers can decide which of these options can support them in their approach to the management of their subordinates.

The above arguments are applicable to the superiors of the supervisors as well. If supervisors are aware, due to their own knowledge of the management strategies, that their superiors implement good management practice in terms of applying specific strategies in their approach to them, the management strategies can be a further support. Supervisors can experience being managed according to a plan with a specific aim and not in a hit-and-run approach.

Five management strategies are identified that can be effective as support systems to managers if implemented consistently and well planned. These strategies are identified due to their applicability in the present social services organisation as well as the fact that the strategies

accommodate developments on technological level. The management strategies identified and discussed are performance management, strategic human resource development, management by objectives, management information systems and strategic management.

2. PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT

2.1 Introduction

Performance management as management strategy has received much attention during the last decade. A considerable amount of information on the subject was found in the literature. The conclusion is made that performance management is implemented in all organisations, in a direct or indirect manner. This stresses the focus presently placed on production and effective performance of employees aiming at high production and effective performance of organisations. The consistency in implementing performance management and the character of the performance appraisal instrument are the factors within performance management creating most problems. Attitudes of employees as well as managers can turn the scale towards successfulness or unsuccessfulness of the performance management strategy.

2.2 Defining performance management

The concept of performance management can be confused with the concept of performance appraisal. However, performance management is a broader concept than performance appraisal or performance related remuneration, but both are important elements in the performance management strategy. Hume (1995:35) describes performance management as *"a systematic approach to the management of people, using performance, goals, measurement, feedback and recognition as a means of motivating them to realise their maximum potential. It embraces all formal or informal methods adopted by an organisation and its managers to increase commitment and individual and corporate effectiveness."*

Christian & Hannah (1983:108) have described performance management as regularly evaluating each employee's performance and providing employees with feedback and environmental circumstances sufficient to motivate and assist them to maintain or to improve their level of performance.

Von Glinow (1988:118) defines performance management as a *"complex process with interrelated elements, intended to:*
- *measure performance;*
- *motivate employees;*
- *improve performance;*
- *plan future work;*
- *teach employees what they should do; and*
- *distribute pay raises."*

According to the Guidelines for manpower, training and development planning (1990:36) performance management examines past performance with regard to present job assignment and the extent to which the individual has performed as desired by the organisation in terms of set goals and standards.

Haimann (1994:263-264) describes performance management as an *"ongoing process of gathering, analysing and evaluating information about the performance of employees. It guides management in selecting certain individuals for promotion and salary increases and is useful for coaching employees to improve their performance. A formal appraisal system is used for employee evaluation, employee rating and merit rating."*

According to Von Glinow (1988:119), performance management is recognised and accepted as one of the central human resources strategies and the primary functions are to:
- define the specific job criteria against which performance will be measured;
- accurately measure past job performance;
- justify the rewards given to individual employees, thereby distinguishing between high and low performance;
- define the development experiences the employee needs to both enhance performance in the present position and prepare for future responsibilities.

The objective of performance management is initially to identify employee performance targets and then, by monitoring the work performance of employees towards these targets continually, to manage the performance of employees by the use of any appropriate management policies (Hume, 1995:36). The responsibility of managers or supervisors in implementing performance management requires much more than applying the actual performance appraisal instrument.

To ensure that a performance management strategy is effectively implemented, the Harvard Business Review Book (1990:219) and Harrison (1993:253) indicate that the following should be recognisable within the organisation:
- Emphasis placed on both development and evaluation of employees.
- Using a profile displaying the individual employee's strengths and developmental needs relative to himself rather than to others.
- Integration of the results achieved with the means by which they have been achieved.
- A vision of the organisation's objectives is communicated to all employees.
- Departmental and individual targets, which are related to wider objectives, are set.
- A formal review of progress towards these targets is conducted.
- The review process is used to identify training, development and reward outcomes.
- The whole process is evaluated in order to improve effectiveness of the system.

For the purpose of this study performance management is defined as being the process of:

- determining performance standards,
- informing employees of these standards,
- identifying performance milestones,
- using a specific performance appraisal instrument to evaluate performance,
- using performance appraisal results for decision making on any aspect concerning the employee; and
- giving feedback to the employee to ensure support and motivation for the maintenance or improvement of performance.

2.3 Performance standards

Performance standards are essential elements in an effective performance management strategy. The performance standards are the basis of the management strategy as actual performance is measured against them. The standards are determined in advance and the employee is informed on what is expected of him and the performance that will be evaluated.

Millar (1990:68) indicates that performance standards *"must be based on critical elements of the job; that the manner in which these critical elements are established be recorded in writing; that the employee be advised of these critical requirements before rather than after the appraisal and most importantly, that employee appraisal must be based on an evaluation of his performance of these critical requirements."*

In the process of achieving performance standards, performance milestones and performance criteria are achieved. Performance milestones refer to quantitative measures of the anticipated achievement of part of the objective that will be reached by specific dates during the specified period - sometimes referred to as targets. Performance criteria refer to qualitative measures of the anticipated outcomes the program or service is intending to achieve. Performance milestones concern themselves with the application of each step of a program; performance criteria deal with results, which refers to the impact of the program or service on clients.

Standards specify the degree of quality required of performance. These standards are to be developed and defined in conjunction with employees. Performance standards set by management without acknowledging contributions and input from employees can result in employees not accepting the standards and not being motivated to achieve the standards. The setting of performance standards is the first step in the performance management process. It should be approached with responsibility and effectiveness as the following steps in the process are based on the predetermined performance standards. The performance standards provide employees with knowledge on expected performance within their specific positions and the evaluation that they will be subjected to.

2.4 Purpose of performance appraisal as essential element of performance management

Performance appraisal as an important element in performance management provides individual employees with feedback on their performance. It assists them to evaluate their own performance, to learn how they are progressing and to make changes to improve their future performance. Every employee has certain beliefs about his competence and capabilities. Information received through a performance appraisal confirming these beliefs is easy to accept. However, employees attempt to avoid receiving information not compatible with their self-perceptions and often reject it. This rejection can be the discrediting of the person who did the appraisal or the employee can change the information to become more compatible with his existing beliefs. Harrison (1993:251) indicates that these problems apply mainly to negative feedback, but can also apply to feedback that is more favourable than was expected.

Appraising employee performance is an essential element of performance management and is particularly important in this period of concern with productivity. Performance appraisals should be implemented objectively as outcomes thereof cannot be rejected by the organisation as in the case of individual employees. Managers should be knowledgeable about the objectives of performance appraisal and the important role the appraisal process plays in the performance management process. The purposes of performance appraisal as a step in the performance management process and obtained from the literature (Weiner, 1982:483; Bernardin, 1986:422; Ivancevich, et al., 1989:530-531; Harvard Business Review Book, 1990:155-156,182; Anderson, 1993:13-14; Harrison, 1993:250-251; Werther & Davis, 1993:339; Latham & Wexley, 1994:4,8-9; Snape, Redman & Bamber, 1994:44-45; Hume, 1995:46 and Watling, 1995:94) are the following:

- Performance appraisal has an administrative purpose i.e. providing an orderly way of determining promotions, transfers, demotions, terminations, rewards and salary increases.
- It has an informative purpose i.e. supplying data to management on the performance of employees and to the individual employee on his strengths and weaknesses.
- It has a motivational purpose i.e. creating a learning experience that motivates employees to develop themselves and improve their performance. The focus is on improving the performance of employees by identifying areas for improvement, setting performance targets for the future and agreeing on plans for follow-up.
- Errors in job design are identified through performance appraisals.
- The performance appraisal is used by the manager as a basis for the coaching and counselling of the individual employee.
- Performance appraisals ensure mutual understanding of effective performance and clarifying any misunderstandings regarding performance expectations.
- Performance appraisals can build confidence between employer and employees.
- Performance appraisal has an assessment purpose i.e. assessing past performance in terms of what has been achieved, assessing future potential and promotability and assessing career

planning decisions. Performance appraisals thus assist employees in planning and developing their careers.

- Performance appraisals have an auditing purpose for organisations as it helps to discover the work potential, present and future, of individual employees and departments.

- Performance appraisal is a controlling mechanism used to ensure that employees meet organisational standards and objectives and for self-management on the part of the employee.

- It has a validation purpose i.e. to check the effectiveness of personnel procedures and practices.

- It also helps employees understand how they relate to the organisation as a whole and where they stand in the perception of the management. Such knowledge normally creates a situation in which employees can be relatively free from anxiety.

- A properly developed appraisal instrument serves as a contract between the organisation and an employee in that it makes explicit what is required of that individual.

2.5 Performance management process

The performance management strategy is implemented according to a specific process. Managers must follow and implement the steps in the process according to their logical sequence. There is a specific flow from one step to the next and it will result in bad management if one step is omitted. Different authors (Christian & Hannah, 1983:110; Von Glinow, 1988:131-35; Shaw, Schneier & Beatty, 1991:323-324; Anderson, 1993:63-69 and Shaw, Schneier & Beatty, 1995:163) indicate activities that are part of the performance management strategy. Researcher combines this information into the following performance management process (Figure 4.1):

Step 1:

Define the overall purpose or mission of the relevant section and the specific position. Review the purpose annually based on new directions or emphases of the organisation as well as performance actually achieved.

Step 2:

After the purposes of the positions of each of the employees were determined, the roles and responsibilities of the employees within the section are determined.

Step 3:

Set performance expectations by identifying a set of performance standards. These standards are the activities of the position on which employees should be appraised. A limited number of clear, measurable objectives are defined. By clarifying objectives, expected performance is defined.

Step 4:

This step is seen as an 'in-between' step. It entails the monitoring of performance, the solving of performance problems and the provision of performance feedback during the performance period.

Figure 4.1 PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT PROCESS

Step 1: Define overall purpose of the
section and the specific job

Step 2: Determine roles and
responsibilities of employees

Step 3: Set performance standards
i.e. define measurable objectives

Step 4: Monitor performance, solve
performance problems, give feedback
during performance period

Step 5: Performance appraisal

Step 6: Feedback to appraised
employees

Step 7: Define performance develop-
ment action plans for improvement
opportunities

Step 8: Consequences of perfor-
mance appraisal e.g. promotion,
salary increases, incentive awards

Step 5:

This step represents the measuring and evaluation of performance based on data collected on actual performance against performance expectations. The main concerns during this step are directed at who is to appraise the employee's performance, the appraisal instrument to be used and when the appraisal will be done. To be successful, the measurement process has to be a planned two-way process involving employees in terms of them accepting some responsibility for monitoring their own performance.

Step 6:

This step entails the provision of feedback to appraised employees. Feedback can be either directional or motivational. Directional feedback provides clarity on the behaviour and actions expected of employees. Feedback providing a promise or possibility of some kind of future reward serves as an incentive and is thus motivational feedback. In giving an employee feedback about his performance, the success or failure of that feedback can be related to whether the employee was able to change as a result of it.

Von Glinow (1988:131) has identified three phases in the feedback process: In the *acceptance phase*, the employee decides whether to accept or reject the feedback. Acceptance or rejection can be related to who is doing the appraisal, what is being said and characteristics of the employee. If the feedback is accepted, then the feedback process goes on to the next phase: *making decisions about action planning* in response to the feedback. The final phase has to do with how the employee *utilises the feedback or the outcomes of the feedback.*

Step 7:

The outcome of the performance appraisal identifies areas for improvement. This step is necessary to define performance development action plans to address improvement opportunities. Specific performance milestones or targets are identified. Both employees and their managers are held accountable for meeting these targets, e.g. training, self-development, job rotation, closer supervision and increased responsibilities.

Step 8:

In this step performance is linked to specific consequences e.g. salary increases, incentive awards and promotion opportunities. Human resource management within an organisation utilises performance appraisal information to determine the present state of the human resources in the organisation. This information contributes to other areas such as: recruitment and selection; training; career development and the evaluation of employee potential; succession planning; pay and reward decisions; clarifying objectives; conflicts between appraisal objectives; retention of appraisal data; number and type of employees to be included.

2.6 Implementation issues

To ensure that employees as well as managers understand the performance management strategy and the performance appraisal instrument used in the performance management process, the following implementation issues as highlighted by Anderson (1993:73-77) are supported:

2.6.1 All employees, who will be involved, whether as managers or as subordinates, should be fully briefed on the strategy and the performance appraisal instrument to be used. The briefing should:

- Take place in face-to-face situations and in small groups, to ensure that employees will not feel inhibited to ask questions.
- Be reinforced through the written word, such as an explanatory booklet.
- Provide a system whereby employees know whom to approach to answer questions which occur to them afterwards, or which they would prefer to be dealt with in private.

2.6.2 In terms of content, briefing should cover:

- The aims and objectives of the performance management strategy.
- The benefits to all parties involved i.e. the manager, the subordinates and the organisation.

- Full details of the performance management process, its various elements, including methods and documentation.

- Precisely what is expected of each party, in every step of the process.

- The appraisal interview, it's central importance in the process and the manner in which it will be conducted.

- Explain the value of the appraisal outcome at the end of the performance management process.

2.6.3 After completion of the briefing, it should be extended to training of managers and subordinates on the effective use of the performance appraisal instrument.

To contribute to the practical implementation of performance management, Watling (1995:130) suggests that a booklet be compiled for each employee. This booklet should include:

- relevant information about the employee;

- a list of key objectives agreed at the last appraisal;

- performance standards in relation to the objectives;

- an overall assessment of the competencies associated with the position;

- results-orientated objectives and performance expectations;

- assessment of the technical knowledge available;

- factors outside the specific employee's control;

- development needs and aspirations;

- development action plans; and

- the employee's comments on the appraisal and the performance standards.

Such booklet, in addition to the above implementation issues, can contribute to positive attitudes on performance management and the effective implementation of the performance management process. This approach in the introduction of a performance management strategy can result in employees being more directly involved in the process. The implementation of a booklet as suggested above, can contribute to personalising the process as individual employees can feel they are important and can make an input in their own performance management. To experience support from an effective performance management strategy, it is essential that the manager follow the above suggestions in the introduction of the strategy.

2.7 Conditions for effective performance management

The conditions identified as most important for effective performance management are the following (Harrison 1993:256; Werther & Davis, 1993:340; Latham & Wexley, 1994:198-202 and Hume, 1995:44-46):

- Employee participation in the performance management process can result in satisfaction with the appraisal process and the manager conducting it.

- Employee himself setting specific goals to be achieved can result in improvement in performance.

- Discuss problems that may influence the performance of the employee and work toward solutions to ensure an immediate effect on productivity.

- Employee performance should be appraised against preset objectives, linked with organisational objectives.

- New objectives for employees should come forth from the performance appraisal interview.

- To contribute to the motivation of employees, link performance appraisal with rewards that are perceived by all parties as fair.

- Performance management is not a set of periodic, isolated events, but is an integral part of the management process connected to on-going activities contributing to improved performance and the development of employees.

- Transparency and trust between managers and employees should prevail, resulting in constructive discussions on performance issues.

- Performance standards and measures should be job-related.

- Feedback is essential.

- Appraisals should not only reveal poor performance, but also identify acceptable and good performance.

- Documentation in the format of report and assessment forms providing relevant information is required.

- Following the completion of a performance appraisal report, an interview should be held as a formal discussion of performance assessment between the manager and the appraised employee.

- Follow-up actions resulting from the documentation and the subsequent interview are essential. The actions could involve training, regular problem solving sessions, promotion, remuneration benefits or even disciplinary action. Continuous assessment is also part of the follow-up and refers to continuous communication between the manager and appraised employee regarding the work process, highlighting problems or offering praise.

The appraisal interview conducted by the manager with the appraised employee, as indicated above, is an essential part of the total process of performance management. Unfortunately, it is also the most neglected part of the process. If it is done, limited time is spent on it. Mostly it is not conducted at all.

2.8 Benefits of performance management

Assuming performance management as management strategy is properly implemented, the manager, the employee and the organisation can obtain benefits. All employees have a need to

determine if their performance is acceptable and the application of the performance management strategy can satisfy this need. However, the appraisal step in the process of performance management should not represent the only opportunity that the employee receives the undivided attention of his manager. The manager must be involved with his subordinates throughout the performance management process and all participating parties will benefit. Shapero, (1985:90-96, 118-119), Anderson (1993:18-20) and Weinbach (1994:150-153) indicate the benefits that can be obtained by the employee, the manager and the organisation:

2.8.1   Benefits for the individual employee:
• More clarity of the results/standards expected of them.
• Accurate and constructive feedback on past performance.
• Greater knowledge of strengths and weaknesses.
• Action plans to improve performance by building on strengths and minimising weaknesses as far as possible.
• An opportunity to discuss opinions and feelings about the work and the utilisation of the employee's skills with superiors.
• Clarity about the manager's objectives and priorities for the section and how the employee's position fits into this context.
• Opportunity for discussion of career prospects.
• Learn about other employees' perceptions of their areas of strength and weakness.

2.8.2   Managers applying performance management as management strategy can expect to gain the following benefits:
• The opportunity to measure and identify trends in performance of subordinates.
• Better understanding of subordinates, their fears, anxieties, hopes and aspirations.
• Opportunity of clarifying his own objectives and priorities, aiming at giving subordinates a better picture of how their contribution fits in with the work of others.
• Enhanced motivation of subordinates, by focussing attention on them as individuals.
• Identifying opportunities for rotating or changing the duties of subordinates.
• Opportunities to observe subordinates in a constructive way and to improve his own management capabilities.
• Contribute to refocusing activities and priorities of both the manager and subordinates.
• Provides the manager with opportunities to become better acquainted with subordinates and to develop a better understanding of their performance.
• It allows the manager to propose areas where even a good employee can improve performance.
• It provides the chance to assess the motivation of an employee, to evaluate the employee's potential for promotion and to compare the employee's career goals with opportunities within the organisation.

2.8.3   Benefits for the organisation:

- Improved communication throughout the organisation.

- Generally improved motivation of all employees.

- Greater conformity of individual and organisational objectives.

- Improved organisational performance.

- Feedback on performance to employees and the organisation.

- Reliable information available for efficient compensation administration.

- Promotion decisions are motivated.

- Identification of personnel development needs is possible.

- Effective human resource planning.

- Validation of hiring and selection procedures.

2.9 Problems in the performance management process

Employees and managers have a discomfort with performance appraisals. This can be connected to a series of interpersonal as well as organisational factors. These factors include, but are not limited to, the quality of the superior-subordinate relationship, the skill with which the performance appraisal is performed and the appraisal instrument itself. The indications and perceptions of Weinbach (1994:149-150) on the reasons for performance appraisals to be disliked are supported. His opinion is that for the mature, adult professional, the idea of his performance being "managed" often is viewed as insulting. He indicates that much of the mutual dislike of employee performance appraisals may result from the attitudes of those implementing the appraisal instrument, namely superiors who have to fulfil the role of managers. Managers don't like applying the appraisal instrument and find the task distasteful, resulting in the tendency to present the appraisal process as a necessary evil imposed upon them as managers. They might even communicate their belief that evaluations are really of little value and are best performed to meet a requirement of the organisation and then quickly filed away. Such an attitude contributes to the resentment of evaluations held by those being evaluated.

Appraising performance is a problematic undertaking because it means placing a value on something. A value is a concept of the desirable and when appraisals are done an employee is judged from the viewpoint of what the organisation considers as desirable. Performance evaluation implies judging the desirability of the employee's actions, behaviour or characteristics from the viewpoint of the organisation. Many organisations and managers have not formulated what it is that they consider as desirable. This has a direct connection with the lack of developing performance standards. There is a tendency in organisations to adopt a performance appraisal instrument that is in general use. It is then operated without considering whether the performance standards within the instrument represent those of the specific organisation. The aim of implementing a performance appraisal instrument is seldom understood by managers. Few managers think about the reasons for appraising performance: as a way to predict future

performance, as a way to judge acceptable performance or as a combination of both. The tendency is just to evaluate, but this cannot be done without using past performance as a starting point for the improvement of future performance.

Managers themselves have various reasons for resisting performance appraisal. Managers have the tendency to resist being graded, rated, given a report card or assessed. They might discover they are doing poorly and they need to change. The natural tendency is to continue as they are. Dendinger & Kohn (1989:42) indicate that most texts on supervision have extensive chapters on evaluating workers, but little on the evaluation of supervisors. In those cases where attention is given to the evaluation of supervisors' performance, it often is accompanied with an indication that evaluation of supervisors is less necessary, less formal and less frequently done. They suggest that *"once in a position of power, once even a first level supervisory position is attained, many managers feel in some sense, a little beyond scrutiny, a bit above the law."*

The resistance against performance appraisal and the performance appraisal instrument is the main problem in the performance management process and results from isolating this action. Many of the factors contributing to the resistance to and the dislike in performance appraisal can be opposed by involving employees and managers in the total performance management strategy. Performance appraisal is a natural step in the performance management process and should be applied as part of the process and not in isolation. This can contribute to the success of managing performance by the manager as well as the individual employee.

2.10 Fairness and acceptability of performance appraisal

Performance appraisals must be perceived as fair by the employee being evaluated as well as by other employees within the organisation. The way in which appraisals are conducted can contribute to the manager's reputation for fairness. While some comparison of employees by a manager is inevitable and even desirable in performing some functions e.g. selecting an employee for promotion, comparison has no place in the performance appraisal of an individual employee. It is fair to evaluate individual employees using objectives and standards previously set for them. However, it is unfair to evaluate them using another employee as a reference point.

Weinbach (1994:157) answers the question "When is an evaluation fair?": *"It is fair to evaluate an employee based upon standards that are predetermined by the manager, usually with input from the individual being evaluated. It is unfair to change the rules between evaluations. It is quickly perceived as unfair by staff if new standards for evaluation are added that might result in an unfavourable evaluation for individuals who did what was expected of them and did it well."*

Where the outcome of performance appraisals involves the distribution of organisational rewards, then a more extensive standard provides a fairer assessment of an employee's contribution to the

organisation. The applied appraisal instrument and procedure contribute to ensure the fair distribution of rewards among employees. The implication is that performance appraisal should be part of the total process of performance management.

Self-appraisals have been seen as to increase the extent to which employees participate in the appraisal discussion. This form of participation enhances the perception of procedural justice towards the fairness in decision making linked with performance appraisal. According to Folger & Lewis (1993:119) there is a preconceived belief that participation enhances perceived fairness. Managers should take precautionary measures to not just set up the appearance of fairness, but to approach self-appraisals with seriousness, especially when employees are sincere and honest in their opinions of themselves. This will be a natural result when performance appraisal is implemented as a step within the performance management process.

The credibility of the source implementing the performance appraisal instrument is an important feature influencing the acceptance of the appraisal by employees. Von Glinow (1988:128-129) and the National Research Council (1991:69) identified important factors in determining the credibility of the appraiser (in most cases the immediate superior to the employee):

- Expertise: Includes familiarity with the task itself, as well as familiarity with the employee's task performance. Those with expertise are generally characterized as knowledgeable, well-informed and respected. If the immediate superior is also an expert in the technical specialty, he will be viewed as a credible source of appraisal, but if he is not the most expert, or is not the appropriate expert for the specialty, credibility suffers.
- Credibility of the superior for the practical implementation of the performance appraisal instrument. This refers to his abilities such as being able to select and observe critical job behaviours of employees; being able to recall and record the observed behaviours correctly; and being able to satisfactory interpret the contribution the observed behaviours have toward effective job performance.
- Trustworthiness: If the superior is seen as non-threatening or non-domineering and the employee trusts the superior's motives, then it is more likely that the superior will be seen as a trustworthy source of performance appraisals.
- The quality of the interpersonal relationship between the superior and the employee affects how the employee views the superior.
- The extent to which the employee is able to link rewards given to him by the superior to achievement of goals, will influence how helpful the superior will be perceived to be.

It can be concluded that a fair performance appraisal should reflect realistic expectations and desirable outcomes of performance. Factors to be considered in establishing the expectations and outcomes are the employee's stage of career development, his professional background, his

predetermined career objectives and his previous work experience. There should be consensus on what these expectations and desirable outcomes are. Only then will the performance appraisal be fair in the sense that the employee had the knowledge on what he will be evaluated. This consensus is only possible if performance appraisal is implemented as part of the performance management process.

2.11 Managerial performance management

Snape, et al. (1994:64) refer to a study on performance management where it was found that senior line managers take key decisions over managerial careers outside the performance management process. In practice, the essential role of performance management is to prevent this from happening. Its aim is to provide a rational and objective approach to career decisions. It thus provides an organisational defence mechanism against internal challenge by the unfavoured, by-passed and aggrieved manager. The performance management strategy has the potential to provide evidence of a rational process if legally challenged by such managers.

Even though the importance and the purpose of the performance management are stressed, it is evident that the action of performance appraisal within the performance management process acts as a bureaucratic defence mechanism to protect the privileges of senior line managers. This results in middle managers expressing negative attitudes toward the performance appraisal process. It is considered to be a waste of time and seldom useful for them. Snape, et al. (1994:43) refer to one study of the appraisal of middle management where it was found that appraisal interviews seldom lasted more than 15 minutes and that those senior managers who acted as appraisers derived more information from third parties, usually in the form of complaints, than from direct interaction with the appraised managers.

There is also evidence of the political influence performance management and specifically the performance appraisal of managers can have. Senior managers can adjust the performance appraisals of their subordinate managers to achieve a wide variety of personal goals. They can give higher ratings to help a less able manager to be promoted 'up and out' of the organisation, lower ratings to teach a rebellious manager a lesson about 'who the boss is' and the sending of 'indirect messages' to certain managers that they should consider leaving.

The main purpose of managerial performance management is the assessment of their potential. The conclusion was made that managers are seldom appraised. As indicated above, the appraisal of managers is a very controversial aspect within organisations. This supports Dendinger & Kohn (1989:42) who refer to the unimportance that is linked to the appraisal of managers. The focus of the assessment of managerial potential is on developing the manager for future promotion positions. It seeks to establish the individual's potential for career development and in terms of this potential also to establish the development needs for the individual. It is thus important that

organisations accept responsibility for implementing an effective performance management process for managers.

As the job description and job design of managers are different from those of their subordinates, different standards and criteria for performance management are applicable. Following is a list of managerial standards and criteria that were identified by different authors (Koontz, et al., 1984:418; Von Glinow, 1988:123-124 and Wagne & Sternberg, 1991:334):

- Performance in accomplishing goals: Evaluating the performance of managers are done against tested pre-selected goals using criteria such as consistent, integrated planning designed to achieve specific objectives. The best criteria for appraisal of managerial performance relate to their ability to set goals intelligently, to plan programs that will accomplish those goals and to succeed in achieving them. Job-related outcomes and results due to the effort and performance of the manager are considered.
- Performance as managers: The appraisal is done on the basis of how well they understood and undertook the managerial functions of planning, organising, staffing, leading and controlling. This also relates to the knowledge about managing subordinates, peers and superiors. Job-related behaviours tend to be anchored in specific behavioural statements such as "He responds quickly to project feedback."
- Managing self: The appraisal is done on the basis of knowledge about self-motivational aspects of managerial performance. Job-related qualities are applicable referring to personality characteristics that may include characteristics such as initiative, creativity or leadership ability.

In the appraisal of managerial performance the assessment by employees who have knowledge of the performance of the manager can be utilised. This can include self-appraisal and group appraisal by employees who have worked with the manager. Field reviews can be done to obtain information on performance through interviews with knowledgeable persons. Appraisals by peers or subordinates can also provide valuable information. Objective measures over which the manager has control such as budget control and responsibility, are useful additional information in the performance appraisal of managers. A discussion of potential appraisers will broaden the vision of the value of each of them in the performance management process.

2.12 Potential appraisers

There are many possible appraisers within the work environment that could give a comprehensive evaluation of the performance of colleagues, peers, subordinates and superiors. Snape, et al. (1994:54) outline the potential appraisers for managers but researcher adapted their presentation to fit all employees i.e. managers and individual employees. However, subordinate appraisal or upward appraisal is not applicable in the case of individual employees but is still included in Figure 4.2.

2.12.1 Immediate superior

In terms of organisational structure the immediate superior is administratively in the best position to understand the nature of the work to be done by subordinates. He has to manage the performance of others as part of his job description. The immediate superior has the authority to make evaluative and developmental decisions concerning subordinates. The immediate superior is in the best position to judge the relevance of performance in the achievement of employee and organisational objectives.

Appraisal by the immediate superior can be unsatisfactory, unrewarding and not particularly useful for those involved. It has the potential to actually suppress employee performance. A key concern is that such appraisals are based only on the narrow and potentially unrepresentative sample of employee behaviours which superiors typically observe. Single superior appraisal seems to be the approach most commonly used. According to Dendinger & Kohn (1989:42) and Snape, et al. (1994:55) the reasons for this are:

- Most superiors do not recognise the need for anyone other than themselves to be involved in the appraisal process.
- Superiors often wish to retain control of the appraisal process. They seem to fear that if others were involved, this may lead to their losing influence over promotion decisions and other key issues.
- This approach is economical to operate.
- It underlines that superiors are responsible and accountable for the performance of their subordinates.
- The approach is often found acceptable to those involved.

The use of the immediate superior as the only source of appraisal is a common approach in most organisations. However, the progress that was made in the field of performance appraisal makes the use of alternative and/or additional sources of appraisal possible. As Latham & Wexley (1994:113) indicate: *"Alternative sources to supervisor appraisal are especially needed because in many instances the managers seldom see the employee on the job."* Researcher is of the opinion that the performance appraisal done by the immediate superior can be accepted rather than no appraisal at all.

2.12.2 Higher level managers

This refers to the managers above the immediate superior. Snape, et al. (1994:55) refers to them as 'grandparent' managers. Anderson (1993:49) refers to them as reviewers. The role of the reviewer includes the following actions:

- Reviewing performance appraisals conducted by others, usually the immediate superior.

- Providing precaution against personal prejudice, inexperience, the adoption of incorrect procedures or the immediate manager 'forgetting' to conduct the appraisal at all.

- Hearing individual appeals against antagonistic appraisal.

- Checking consistency and fairness of appraisers through examining and signing completed appraisal forms.

- Acting as consultant to appraisers prior to the appraisal interview.

- Ensuring that any differences in the perceptions and views of appraiser and reviewer regarding the employee about to be appraised are resolved prior to the appraisal interview.

Although the distance between the appraised employee and the reviewer limits the quantity of first-hand knowledge about his performance, the role of the reviewer is important. The reviewer serves as a support to the immediate superior and the appraised employee can be certain that decisions concerning his performance appraisal are not taken on the spur of the moment.

Figure 4.2   POTENTIAL APPRAISERS

(Snape, et al., 1994:54.)
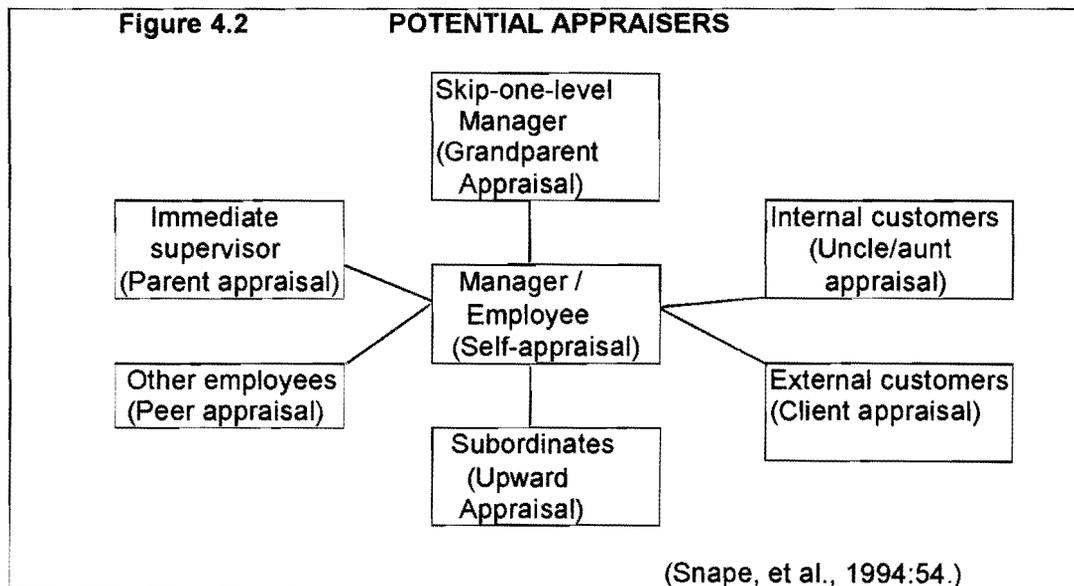
2.12.3 Peer appraisal

Using peers for performance appraisal introduces an approach different from that of immediate superiors. Through peer appraisals it is possible to obtain a number of independent judgments. The interaction and the closed teamwork between peer employees place them in a position to take an informal view on the performance of colleagues. However, Anderson (1993:51) stresses that the willingness to act as appraisers of colleagues has to be obtained.

Peer appraisals may be particularly appropriate for professional employees such as social workers, where only peers may possess the necessary technical expertise to make a credible assessment of performance. Professional employees feel that they themselves are responsible for

maintaining the performance standards of their profession and that performance appraisal by organisational managers may violate the principle of professional autonomy.

The exposure to peer appraisal can be experienced very subjectively and can result in not being able to see the value of such appraisal. The implication is that organisations must be 'educated' towards the implementation of peer appraisals. All peer employees should understand the absolute necessity of being honest in the appraisal of their peers in order to be able to expect honesty in return.

2.12.4 Subordinate appraisal

This appraisal is also referred to as upward appraisal. It is a system of performance appraisal that gives subordinates a formal opportunity to make an assessment of their managers. The employees act as one element in the appraisal process. Appraisals by subordinates can be important and valid, both because a number of employees are involved in providing inputs and because of the unique perspective of the subordinate. However, Anderson (1993:52) indicates that subordinate appraisal is used mainly for feedback and development purposes, rather than for the more critical areas such as pay determination and promotion. In some organisations it is used as a basis for individualised manager development plans.

Bernardin (1986:437) stresses that subordinate appraisal should not replace any of the more traditional methods of managerial appraisals. Subordinates should never have an excessive weight in deciding the fate of their managers. Subordinate appraisals should add value and unique information about a manager's effectiveness beyond what is learned from other sources. Successful subordinate appraisals depend on a participative management style, rater anonymity and making the items to be rated behaviourally specific.

Subordinate appraisal of performance is essential for all managers. It gives them a certainty that subordinates take note of their actions and it could motivate them to continually strive towards effective performance. Managers are able to provide subordinates with a positive example of work performance. However, managers have to be motivated to accept subordinate appraisal as an appraisal approach that can contribute to their effective performance as managers.

2.12.5 Appraisal by outsiders or external parties

This is appraisals done by persons outside the immediate work environment. Examples are: assessors in an assessment centre, field reviews conducted by people in the human resource department, evaluations from trainers, personnel specialists, clients and customers and trained independent observers. All external parties suffer the disadvantage that they do not know, at first hand, the relevant background to performance issues in terms of discussions between line managers and their subordinates. However, in some circumstances, customers may provide an

appropriate source of appraisal for an organisation's professional employees, particularly for those positions involving direct contact with clients and where the client's acceptance of a professional's performance is critical.

This form of appraisal is quite unknown within organisations. It could be that on an informal level note is taken of external parties' comments on the services of an organisation. However, it is not formally used as part of the performance appraisal of employees. More research on appraisals by external parties is necessary in order to identify the advantages thereof for organisations.

2.12.6 Self-appraisal

Individual differences such as high intelligence, achievement and internal locus of control determine the accuracy of self-appraisals. The underlying factor that explains the accuracy of self-appraisal may be self-awareness. Latham & Wexley (1994:125) indicate that self-awareness is a function of an employee's ability to self-observe his own behaviour. Self-aware people compare their behaviour against a goal or against information relevant to their goals. Those who are self-aware are able to incorporate information from those comparisons into their self-evaluation and ultimately into their behaviour. Self-awareness also results in an employee incorporating the assessments of others onto his self-evaluation. There is evidence that self-evaluation is a skill that improves with practice, especially practice that includes feedback on accuracy.

Self-appraisals are also unknown as performance appraisal system within organisations. In organisations where it is implemented, the value managers attach to it can be questioned. The process involved with self-appraisal is too comprehensive, with the result that managers create the impression that the individual employee has input in his performance appraisal. The process includes actions such as discussing what is expected of the employee, employee completing the written self-appraisal, the appraisal interview between the manager and the employee when the self-appraisal is discussed and the feedback from the manager on the self-appraisal. The allegation is made that employees do not want to do self-appraisals but employees obviously will engage in self-appraisals when management evaluation of their performance determines pay. They quite naturally will compare their own appraisals with that of the manager.

2.12.7 Multiple appraisal resources

Also referred to as the Multiple Rater Performance Appraisal (MRPA). Meyer (1991:281) stresses that the immediate superior alone should not determine an employee's promotability. He should make use of a team approach to discuss the performance and potential of all employees. In deciding on the membership of this team, the focus should be on the job network as the relevant team for performance appraisal. The job network represents those key employees in the organisation on whom the performance of the individual employee being assessed principally impacts. Members of the job network can be peers, subordinates or others at a more senior level.

Using a team of employees to evaluate individual potential assists to provide a broader frame of reference than is the case where each employee's potential is appraised only by his own superior. Even though some of the participants in this appraisal process may have had little or no exposure to some of the employees being appraised, they can contribute to the validity of the appraisal process by insisting that judgements being expressed are backed by objective or behavioural evidence. According to Anderson (1993:50) the multi-rater approach generates data of a highly specific nature, with many practical comments and suggestions as to where and how performance could be improved.

This form of performance appraisal is totally new. If self-appraisals are approached with reservation due to the broader input expected of the immediate superior, so much more would a MRPA system be approached with reservation. The multiple problems with this system as indicated by Edwards (1995:53-55), contribute to the opinion that management will consider the implementation of a MRPA system with difficulty.

2.12.8 Research findings on potential appraisers

The research findings of the National Research Council (1991:105) on the different potential appraisers are important and can be related to the quality of performance appraisals as well as the preferred appraisers that will be used by an organisation. Their research resulted in the following conclusions:

- Most organisations required an employee's immediate supervisor to conduct performance appraisals annually.
- Appraisals of managers were likely to be reviewed by a second level manager.
- There was no evidence that organisations are increasingly making use of peer, subordinate or self-review for performance appraisal.
- Formal evaluations of the use of performance appraisals by managers and penalties for poor use thereof were rarely reported.
- The average time that managers spent on annual appraisal per employee was 4-6 hours.
- Employee participation in performance appraisal design and administration was mostly limited to personnel staff. Line managers were involved in administration only via actual assessments of their employees. Employees were involved only if there was a joint manager-employee setting of performance objectives for the appraisal.

2.12.9 Conclusion

The potential appraisers to be used for performance appraisal as part of the performance management process in a specific organisation, depend on the approach and attitude the management of the organisation has toward the strategy. Different issues related to the different

potential appraisers are important and have to be considered. The success depends on the organisation and its willingness to take the issues into consideration. The managers have to ensure that employees are informed, during the initial stages of the performance management process, on the potential appraisers and the attitude of the organisation towards them.

2.13. Performance appraisal instruments

A variety of instruments for performance appraisal are available. However, no organisation can be sure that any appraisal instrument can be implemented successfully within their organisational setting. It is recommended that thorough investigation, research and pre-tests precede the implementation of specific appraisal instruments. Performance appraisal instruments from relatively simple techniques of appraisal such as ranking and traits rating, to more complex and elaborate techniques such as behaviourally anchored rating scales, are available. Instruments also vary between those that emphasise the past, such as rating and ranking techniques and those that also focus on the future, such as management by objectives.

Ivancevich, et al. (1989:535-536), Pulakos (1991:307) and Anderson (1993:23,35-45) classify performance appraisal instruments in two categories:

2.13.1 Performance appraisal instruments that depend primarily on the judgement and opinion of the appraiser. A high degree of reliance is placed on the subjective judgment of the appraiser. The danger is that the appraisal will be influenced by the viewpoint of the appraiser rather than by the actual characteristic or situation being appraised. Possible instruments:

- Alphabetical / numerical rating.
- Forced choice rating.
- Personality trait rating.
- Graphic rating scale.
- Forced distribution.
- Ranking.
- Paired comparisons.

2.13.2 Appraisal methods that assess an employee's performance involving a more objective appraisal and emphasise what an employee actually does and how well he does it. Possible instruments:

- Free written report
- Controlled written report
- Critical incident technique
- Results-orientated schemes
- Self-appraisal
- Behaviourally anchored rating scale.

According to Latham & Wexley (1994:57-58) the types of performance appraisal instruments that are most commonly used are forced choice scales and behaviourally anchored rating scales. Behaviourally based appraisal instruments account for far more job complexity and can be related directly to what the employee does. They are more likely to minimise irrelevant factors not under the control of the employee than personal qualities related instruments. Behavioural criteria developed from a systematic job analysis give a definite indication of what employees must be doing. What makes behavioural criteria more comprehensive is that they not only appraise the employees on factors over which they have control but also specify what the person must do or not do to attain these outcomes.

The field of performance appraisal instruments is very comprehensive. Within any organisation a specialist who has a good grounding in performance appraisal instruments should be responsible for the development thereof. It is recommended that organisations that do not have the services of such a specialist on a full-time basis available in their organisation should at least make use of the services of a specialist on a part-time basis. The development of a performance appraisal instrument that complies with the requirements of the specific organisation is a necessity for the effective and efficient implementation of the performance management strategy.

2.14 Conclusion

Performance management is a fundamental process for improving the productivity of an organisation's human resources. Through the implementation of performance management each individual employee's work performance is planned, organised, evaluated and corrected when necessary. The preparation and the tools used in the implementation of the performance management strategy are essential. However, the step in the process consisting of the formal performance appraisal of the individual employee and the feelings that he experiences due to the appraisal, will make the difference.

When performance is measured, performance improves. When performance is measured and reported, the rate of improvement quickens. Performance can and will improve if employees are encouraged - all those employees who take a pride in performance by seeking to improve it. Performance management is all about making employees feel good about themselves so that performance and behaviour improves. (Watling, 1995:121.)

The more the employee participates in the performance management process the more satisfied he is likely to be with the actual appraisal of his performance and the person executing the appraisal and the more likely it is that performance improvements will result. Only when the employee experiences feelings of ownership of the performance management process does

participation become effective in producing joint agreement on actions to solve problems and develop performance.

Performance management can exercise a considerable amount of control over the performance of employees. The performance of employees gives an indication of how they compare with expectations that have been established and where changes in their work performance are indicated and where additional control over their performance has to be added. The performance management strategy is implemented to help control and assist employees in their job performance. Performance standards and employee awareness of them should provide gentle guidance; they should not represent a club poised over an employee's head. The sensitive manager will use the performance management strategy as a method of control in such a way that it can be perceived as a support system for effective performance.

Performance management as a management strategy is a comprehensive subject and justifies a study on its own. It was difficult to condense the discussion on the subject but researcher is of the opinion that the information provided gives a clear picture of the performance management strategy. The fact that extensive knowledge is available on the subject supports researcher's opinion that no organisation has an excuse for not implementing an effective performance management process that could act as a support system for their employees.

3. MANAGEMENT BY OBJECTIVES (MBO)

3.1 Introduction

Management by objectives is a management strategy that has developed during recent years. It is a known strategy within organisations, but is not implemented consistently in all organisations. The reasons are quite the same as the reasons for not implementing a performance management strategy consciously and consistently: lack of knowledge, lack of training, uncertainty and unwillingness of managers to commit themselves to the strategy.

Ginsberg (1995:30) stresses that all managers should be trained to work with and evaluate their subordinates according to predetermined objectives. The objectives should become the content of supervisory sessions. Training of managers and employees in MBO can result in positive attitudes toward a MBO strategy. The rationale of MBO is that it agrees with the psychological principle that people improve their performance when they have specific objectives or goals to achieve within a specified period.

3.2 Defining MBO

The following definitions of MBO provide a clear indication of what it entails:

Koontz, et al. (1984:131) define MBO as *"a comprehensive managerial system that integrates many key managerial activities in a systematic manner, consciously directed toward the effective and efficient achievement of organisational and individual objectives."*

Miner & Luchsinger (1985:134) describe MBO as being programmatic in nature. It is a formalised goal setting and monitoring process implemented throughout an organisation. They identify an important problem: *"Organisational performance suffers if coordination is not achieved and the MBO program loses its legitimacy and thus the support of those who must implement it."*

MBO is described as a process whereby the superior and the subordinate managers of an organisation jointly identify the common goals; define each individual's major area of responsibility in terms of the results expected of him. These measures are used as guides for operating the unit and assessing the contribution of each of its members. It is a comprehensive approach that consists of three principal components: planning; implementation of the plan; and review of the success of the plan. The process involves members of large complex organisations to work in conjunction with one another, to identify common goals and to coordinate their efforts toward achieving them (Weiner, 1982:214 and Aggarwala, 1993:9).

According to Zima (1995:180), MBO is *"a management approach to planning and evaluation. Specific goals are established for a designated length of time for each manager, supervisor or employee. These goals then become a part of the results each person must achieve if the overall objectives of the organisation are to be met. The actual results are then measured against the established or expected goals to which each employee has committed himself. When properly implemented, MBO can become a total management system, by which positive achievements can be planned and upon which activities can be concentrated that offer the greatest opportunity for payoff."*

Important requirements identified in the above definitions of MBO are the following: cooperation, coordination, participation, communication, motivation, trust and support. These requirements should be fulfilled during the implementation of the MBO strategy. Both managers and their subordinates must be committed to the requirements and the requirements must be observed in their relationships.

3.3 Characteristics of MBO

MBO has definite characteristics according to which it is identified as an effective management strategy if implemented consistently. Most of these characteristics are indicated by Aggarwala (1993:10-12, 14-15,27) and Haimann (1994:95) and are combined as follows:

- Participation and interaction takes place between managers and subordinates.

- Managers and subordinates jointly develop methodology to follow, set standards and establish norms for evaluating performance.

- A progress review is done periodically.

- It is a goal-orientated and result-orientated process.

- MBO is a unique strategy of participative management as it entails a systematic approach to integrative management, containing elements of the functions of planning and controlling.

- It is a comprehensive strategy, but also a fair appraisal system.

- It is a method of improving the communication network within an organisation.

- MBO can guide the manager not to depend on the achievement of a single objective, but to be persistent in the establishment and attainment of more specific objectives and thus develop and achieve managerial effectiveness.

- In evaluating and rewarding the subordinate's performance, the degree to which objectives are accomplished plays a major role.

- Managers and subordinates jointly develop objectives in agreement with the organisational objectives.

- Objectives must be specific, measurable (quantifiable) and challenging, but realistically achievable by subordinates within the time frame established.

3.4 Specific concepts applicable to MBO

According to Aggarwala (1993:70) and Zima (1995:183) certain concepts are referred to as the language of MBO. It is important that all parties involved in the management by objective strategy understand these concepts:

- Objectives: This concept refers to defining the results to be achieved for an organisation to be successful. Objectives should include regular or routine goals and new development goals, have priorities of weights assigned to each one and also include personal development goals. Management objectives in very clear and specific terms state the performance or accomplishment expected by each individual within a specific period of time. This enables the work of the entire management group to be combined into one whole at a particular moment of time. This ultimately results in contributing to the overall accomplishment of the objectives of the entire organisation during that period.

- Goals: It represents a set of specific objectives - what is to be achieved.

- Plans: It entails the tasks, steps, activities and projects that must be completed in order to achieve the goals - how goals are to be achieved.

- Accountability: This refers to the responsibility of an individual employee for achieving certain results. Accountability is often determined by referring to the employee's job description and key job responsibilities.

3.5 Objectives as central element of MBO

Objectives are central to the MBO strategy. The correct establishment and formulation of objectives are important for the effective achievement thereof. The principles, characteristics and purposes of objectives are important and should be considered. Managers and employees must support each other in ensuring that set objectives satisfy the conditions for objectives as spelled out in the following combination of principles, characteristics and purposes as provided by Aggarwala (1993:16-19,71-75,76-77) and Zima (1995:182).

- Objectives should identify areas of responsibility or activities that are critical to success.
- It should identify performance measures (results) for each area or activity. Performance of employees should not be evaluated on factors over which they have no control.
- Objectives should be meaningful, must define the starting point or present position, specify the finishing point and state the time by which they are to be achieved. They should be quantified but also be measurable or verifiable and the cost factor be taken into consideration.
- The number of objectives should be limited.
- Objectives should be flexible and regularly updated. It should be challenging and dynamic but realistic.
- Objectives should be done in writing, in precise, concise and clear terms. For reference purposes, the subordinate and the manager should each receive a copy of the planned objectives.
- Involvement and participation in the establishment of objectives by employees responsible for achieving the objectives, are important.
- In the establishment of objectives organisational factors such as internal and external pressures must be taken into consideration.
- Individual employee objectives should connect and blend with organisational objectives.
- Objectives for individual employees should be well intended and ambitious at the same time, but will depend upon their experience, ability, skills or training.
- Objectives are to contribute to the improvement of organisational effectiveness in the sense of outlining the desired results and providing direction and destination. They serve as standards for the manager and as motivators to employees.
- Objectives enable superiors to concentrate fully on targets to be achieved within a specified period of time.
- Objectives serve a useful purpose in developing the job skills of employees when employees demonstrate potential for further growth.
- Frequent and regular feedback is vital in the reinforcement of goal setting; motivating and maintaining employee interest; in carrying out any modifications and adjustments as a result of performance progress review and assessment; and continuation of employee efforts.

3.6 Benefits of a MBO strategy

As is the case with any strategy implemented within an organisation, the management by objectives strategy has specific benefits for the employees, the managers and the organisation. Aggarwala (1993:36-65) has done an intensive study of these benefits. Extended information is provided by the mentioned author, as well as other authors (Koontz, et al., 1984:140-142; Ivancevich, et al., 1989:542; Harvard Business Review Book, 1990:199; Aggarwala, 1993:36-65; Snape, et al., 1994:49-52; Ginsberg, 1995:30; Graber, Breisch & Breisch, 1995:58-59 and Van Dyk, Nel, Loedolf & Haasbroek, 1998:404). An effort is made to briefly indicate the most important benefits from the literature:

- Results in better managing as it forces managers to think of planning for results, not merely planning activities of work. Focus is on results rather than on means or methods to achieve them.
- Facilitate and promote personal commitment as employees are now individuals with clearly defined purposes. It encourages a feeling of independence and true participation in an individual employee.
- Effective controls are developed. Results are measured and action taken to correct deviations from plans to ensure that goals are achieved.
- It encourages organisational development and effectiveness by emphasising the development and utilisation of human resources, improving overall organisational performance, increasing the level of participation and directing work activities toward organisational goals.
- It encourages goals-orientated objective performance evaluation by providing more objective appraisal criteria.
- It is a simple strategy and can be adopted without any external help.
- It encourages the development of a transparent and flexible style of management.
- The focus is on the development and growth of individual employees. Employees needing training and improvement are identified.
- It establishes effective communication links between management and subordinates.
- It contributes to a reduced need for close supervision.
- Focuses on improving total managerial performance: overall management strategy, managerial planning function, coordination, superior-subordinate relationship control, work performance.

3.7 Limitations of a MBO strategy

Unfortunately, a MBO strategy is not without limitations and problems. The same authors (Koontz, et al., 1984:140-142; Ivancevich, et al., 1989:542; Harvard Business Review Book, 1990:199; Aggarwala, 1993:36-65; Snape, et al., 1994:49-52; Ginsberg, 1995:30; Graber, Breisch & Breisch, 1995:58-59 and Van Dyk, Nel, Loedolf & Haasbroek, 1998:404) have provided extensive information on the limitations and problems of the MBO strategy as well.

- A difficulty in understanding and applying the MBO philosophy due to the puzzling detail.

- Obstacles in the setting of objectives e.g. some objectives need proper and careful study to be attainable and challenging.

- Status differences and conflicts in personalities can be stumbling blocks in participation.

- It fails to appraise or completely identify potential; the strategy deals with the performance of an employee in his present job only.

- It concentrates on results only and does not make provision for methods of achieving these results.

- There is an underlying assumption in the strategy that the subordinate and the manager will both participate in determining suitable standards that will serve the interests of the organisation.

- The strategy is time consuming and implies much paper work.

- Employees do not trust the MBO strategy.

- Lack of commitment and continuous monitoring by top management makes it difficult for a MBO strategy to work.

- Failure to provide training on the MBO strategy - managers and employees must know what it is, how it works, why it is being done, what part it will play in appraising performance and how they can benefit.

- Failure to give guidelines for goal setting - managers must have knowledge of the corporate goals and major company policies.

- Dangers of inflexibility - managers often hesitate to allow employees to change objectives.

- MBO is concerned with a few aspects of the job and special projects for the year to the exclusion of ongoing responsibilities.

- Employees understanding objectives differently may lead to different behaviours.

- MBO is unrealistic in its assumption subordinates are capable of and willing to participate in setting objectives.

- Ineffective if managers fail in developing transparent leadership styles and continually exchanging information.

3.8 Management by objectives process

The process of management by objectives is separated into two levels: the process for the organisation as a whole and the process for individual employee goal setting. The MBO process as outlined by Holt (1987:213) is illustrated in Figure 4.3. According to researcher, this presentation of the process includes both levels.

The MBO process for the whole organisation is executed on the top and middle management level. The process includes the following steps as identified by Aggarwala (1993:161-162):

Step 1:

The top executives study the various aspects of MBO strategy to determine how it operates.

Step 2:

The key top executives spell out the overall objectives of the organisation in specific and clear terms.

Step 3:

The key top executives and managers at different levels set up measures of organisational performance.

Step 4:

Goal setting methods are extended down the organisation to the first line supervisory levels through a series of meetings and discussions between the various organisational units and their superiors.

Step 5:

Necessary changes are made by way of improvement in areas such as the appraisal system, salaries and bonus procedures and the delegation of authority. Uncertainties and confusion about policies are clarified and procedures that are obstacles in the effective operation of the strategy are rectified and improved.

Figure 4.3   MBO PROCESS

Top management articulates major objectives and strategies.

Individual managers and immediate superiors meet to develop goals and objectives jointly.

Joint decision making to develop and articulate action plans.

Managers meet with superiors for performance review and evaluation of results.

Joint problem solving to take corrective action or adapt plans and objectives.

Successful attainment of objectives leads to redevelopment of new goals and objectives.

(Holt, 1987:213.)

The aim of this "executive MBO process" is the establishment of organisational objectives. Most positive of the process on this level is the attention given to the revision and improvement of existing policies. However, this is in theory, it has to be proved to be practically implemented.

The MBO process for individual employees focuses on results and on the counselling of the subordinate, and not on activities, mistakes and organisational requirements. The MBO process for individual employees includes the following steps:

Step 1:
Each subordinate reviews his job responsibilities and determines the important results to be achieved during a particular time period.

Step 2:
The manager and the subordinate meet to discuss and set objectives for the subordinate for a specified period of time. Both the manager and the subordinate attempt to establish objectives that are realistic, challenging, clear and comprehensive. Objectives are related to the needs of both the organisation and the subordinate. Standards for measuring and evaluating the objectives are agreed upon. The manager and the subordinate establish intermediate review dates when the objectives will be re-examined. The final result is a negotiated set of objectives for the subordinate to work on for the specified period.

Step 3:
The manager conducts periodic progress reviews with each subordinate. These reviews provide an opportunity for discussion, consultation and problem solving between manager and subordinate. It provides an opportunity for objectives to be added, modified or eliminated. The manager plays more of a coaching, counselling and supportive role and less of a judgmental role.

Step 4:
The manager conducts an appraisal with each subordinate at the end of the defined period to assess the results of the subordinate's efforts. When the cycle is completed, new objectives are established for the next period of time.

3.9 Conclusion
Management by objectives as a management strategy is useful and effective in the setting of both organisational and individual employee objectives. Performance appraisals done at the end of the specified period are job-related, as objectives define the most important elements of the job. MBO contributes to the enhancement of performance appraisal feedback since objectives have been established before the appraisal is done. The employee participated in the setting of his performance objectives for the specified period and in the development and implementation of performance standards. Employees are involved in comparing their actual output with the predetermined standards. Performance appraisals by managers based on MBO can be highly counted, as far as their fairness, validity and reliability is concerned. The basis for these performance appraisals is clearly defined and is marked with objectivity and competence.

A management by objectives strategy can have positive results in any organisation. However, the management of the organisation must be able and willing to attend to and to prevent the identified limitations and problems. Training managers and employees in the strategy will be a solution to most of the limitations and problems. Trained and informed managers can experience this management strategy as supportive in terms of more effective communication with subordinates and senior management and the emphasis on the development and utilisation of human resources for improving overall organisational performance.

4. STRATEGIC HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT

4.1 Introduction

Numerous changes within organisations resulted in a new management strategy in human resource development to assist employees and managers to cope with expectations. Van Dyk, et al. (1998:153-156) refer to Rothwell and Kazanas (1994) when they name the new management strategy: Strategic Human Resource Development (SHRD). In this strategy the focus is on the anticipated knowledge and skills employees need in the future rather than reacting on and solving of past performance problems resulting from lack of employee knowledge and skills. SHRD is implemented according to a specific process with a specific direction.

There are concerns that managerial and supervisory training and development are not effectively linked with human resource planning in terms of a specified aim and direction with training and development efforts. According to Snape, et al. (1994:71), manager development is often motivated by a 'sink or swim' philosophy: managers either have what it takes, and thus need little development, or they have not, in which case manager development activities would be wasted. There is a marked tendency to fall victim to 'programmitis' - this is done with little attention to the training and development needs of the individual. Manager training is reduced to the 'sheep dip' approach; all managers go through it whether they need it or not.

In relation to the above, managers within the social work setting tend to be qualified in a specific function such as child and family care or probation services, rather than being trained in management as such. Fortunately, organisations are beginning to accept that training and development of managers are important for meeting new needs and adapting to a changing environment. Managers themselves also recognise their need for training and development specifically in the field of management. The implementation of SHRD as a management strategy can contribute to provide in these identified training needs.

Smit (1994:10) raises a concern: *"From an analysis done in the Western Cape, it can be concluded that human resources are the biggest expenditure but also an organisation's biggest asset. The analysis revealed that almost three times as much was allocated / budgeted for maintenance of equipment as opposed to training / development of staff."* The impression is

created that organisations do not consciously plan for training and development of staff. This would be the case for training and development of managers as well. Weinbach (1994:130) also has this opinion as he indicates that *"training sometimes may be viewed as a luxury and is often one of the first activities to be reduced or cut out. This is a gross error on the part of managers"*.

Organisations should consider and be sure to implement cost-effective training. Cost-effective training is training that achieves the purpose of assisting employees to perform their work to the required standards and is simultaneously affordable. Unnecessarily excessive training could be simpler and cheaper and equally well achieve the aim of training. It is achieved by applying basic principles for cost-effective management to the specific training situation. The implementation of the SHRD strategy can contribute to ensure cost-effective training.

The establishment of managers in their positions can best be accomplished by orientation and training procedures that are systematically developed, implemented and evaluated. Employees are promoted or appointed into management positions without receiving any orientation. The question is asked: Why is there a difference between newly appointed managers and newly appointed employees? Managers should be subjected to an orientation program. Orientation procedures inform each manager about his work assignment and the environment in which it is to be performed. Orientating a manager on his position is best accomplished by developing work performance standards and negotiating and contracting in terms of his specific areas of responsibility. During the orientation process training and development needs are identified. Managers have the right to identify their own needs and to expect the organisation to attend to their needs. The SHRD strategy attends to needs assessment, implementation of training and the evaluation of training suggesting that these rights of managers and employees are acknowledged.

4.2 Clarification of concepts

4.2.1 Education

Education is a concept easily confused with training. Weinbach (1994:130) identifies education as the communication of a body of general knowledge. The idea is to provide the general knowledge necessary to make a decision and/or to act appropriately in unique situations. Generally speaking, within the organisational set-up, managers tend to be supportive of education for their employees, but may not choose to or be able to provide it. Employees receive continuing education by enrolling in short courses, individual formal courses or in advanced degree programs.

Education is concerned with the development of proper reasoning to enhance a person's ability to understand and interpret knowledge. It is the deliberate, systematic and sustained efforts to transmit or acquire knowledge, attitudes, values, skills and perceptions and any intended or unintended learning that results from the efforts. The definition of Van Dyk, et al. (1998:227) is

composed in a general manner and is accepted: *"Education refers to a process of deliberately and purposefully influencing and shaping the behaviour of children and adults."*

Management education as a concept applicable in SHRD refers to the introduction, extension or improvement of the learning and understanding of managers about their managerial realities within their work environment. Van Dyk, et al. (1998:380) refer to different studies in the United Kingdom where the conclusion was made that the majority of employees entering into management positions have had no formal management education and training. It is recommended that management education commence before employees enter management positions. The training should include the process of employees acquiring information about and experience in the position to be filled.

McLoud (1989a:102-103) and Walsh (1990:83) confirm the above statement as they are of the opinion that within the social work setting the supervisor must have much more knowledge and skills at his disposal than the social worker in order to be able to meet the expectations of the role as supervisor and to provide in the learning needs of the social worker. It is not desirable to appoint a person as a social work supervisor if he does not have substantial knowledge of supervision and if he is not able to implement the different social work strategies and methods on an advanced level.

4.2.2 Training

Training is a learning experience seeking a relatively permanent change in an individual employee to improve his ability to perform in his position. The aim of training is to bring about the behaviour changes required to meet individual and organisational goals. It is an essential component of the organisation and is considered a major management tool to develop the full effectiveness of the organisation's most important resource: its employees. If the training is performed correctly, the behaviour change brought about by training is measurable in terms of the organisation's requirements. Van Dyk, et al. (1998:227) stress that training is result orientated, focuses on enhancing those specific skills and abilities to perform the job, is measurable and contributes to the improvement of goal achievement and the internal efficiency of the organisation.

Tyson & York (1996:141) define training as *"a learning process, in which learning opportunities are purposefully structured by the managerial, personnel and training staff, working in collaboration or by external agents, acting on their behalf. The aim of the process is to develop in the organisation's employees the knowledge, skills and attitudes that have been defined as necessary for the effective performance of their work and hence for the achievement of the organisational aims and objectives by the most cost-effective means available."*

Training assists employees in achieving a basic role competency and doing their work in a standardised manner. It provides knowledge and experience in the use of skills that are of immediate value. It helps employees meet role expectations. With training employees make fewer mistakes, producing less embarrassment for the organisation and its employees. Employees feel better about their work performance. Well-trained employees need less on-site supervision. If employees are well-trained, they will provide better services.

Training is concerned with developing job-related skills and task-related knowledge. Training procedures must be programmed to ensure similarity between training and work environments. It should make provision for feedback on trainee performance, encourage the practice of new skills and promote maintenance and generalisation of new skills. Christian & Hannah (1983:92-93) indicate that the effectiveness of training is evaluated by examining its effect on employee performance through methods such as behavioural observation, situational testing, written tests, assignments and special projects.

An effective supervisor needs refined and consciously utilised interpersonal skills and an awareness of effective methods to handle management tasks. Most supervisors rightfully assume they have talent in managing interpersonal relationships and that this talent will serve them well in their supervisory duties. The crunch comes when they discover that although clinical skills help in a managerial role, they are different from supervisory skills. Du Toit (1991:14) indicates that the lack of formal education and training for supervisors means that most new supervisors learn about their functions and roles, in part, from reading articles and books. There is considerable professional literature providing sufficient information on the roles and norms of supervision, as well as providing specific directions about what needs doing and how to do it.

It is suggested that positions for second level supervisors be established for organisations to obtain specialised knowledge to equip and prepare supervisors for their tasks and responsibilities. The specialised training of the second level supervisors must enable them to compile and implement an individualised but standardised training program for first level supervisors. However, Du Toit (1991:62) stresses that it is not common practice to provide training to supervisors within organisations. A supervisor should thus not expect that training would be included in the position as manager.

Walsh (1990:83) suggests that management training should be reserved for managers who currently supervise regular agency staff. The advantage of this guideline is that such persons bear the title, role and status of a manager and they must perform in situations in which ideas discussed in training may be tested and from which examples of supervisory issues may be drawn. Restricting the training group to managers from a single agency is beneficial. The same personnel regulations, agency history and mission and upper management govern such managers.

4.2.3 Development

Development is aimed at employees serving in a managerial capacity or preparing for managerial positions within the organisation. It is a process by which managers obtain the necessary experience, skills and attitudes to become or remain successful leaders in their organisations. Van Dyk, et al. (1998:381) clarify the concept of management development when they make a distinction between training and development: *"Training is concerned with the achievement of effective performance in the manager's present job, development is concerned with preparing the manager for expected changes in the job, or for an anticipated future job or role."*

Harrison (1993:326-327) defines manager development *"as the planned process of ensuring through an appropriate learning environment and experiences the continuous supply and retention of effective managers at all levels to meet the requirements of an organisation and enhance its strategic capability. The stress in manager development needs to be on developing skills of social interaction, attitudes which are conducive to constantly adapting to changing internal and external pressures and opportunities and the ability to think and manage strategically."*

Employee development is less formal and tends to address the needs of employees for new knowledge relating to a recently identified problem in the field. It usually employs a short term intensive format with a fairly narrow focus. Overall, it provides the manager with a useful and well-received instrument for influencing employee growth. Employees tend to like spending time acquiring new and emerging knowledge and in addressing topics that are widely discussed in both professional and lay circles.

4.3 Strategic human resources development management model

Training and development have become buzzwords in present day organisations. The result is that many training and development companies and consultants are available to provide the necessary training to organisations. Organisations should have an official policy on training and development. Van Dyk, et al. (1998:181-199) refer to the development of a strategic human resources development model as a specific process in the establishment of an official policy on training and development.

This process of the development and implementation of a SHRD policy is the responsibility of senior management. The more practical part of the process can be identified as the implementation of the training and development model as identified and discussed by Harris & DeSimone (1994:89-167). It is recommended that middle managers should be responsible for the training and development model and that it forms an inherent part of the SHRD process of the organisation. Both models are illustrated (Figures 4.4 and 4.5) and discussed according to the mentioned authors' information.

4.3.1 SHRD process

4.3.1.1 Clarify the purpose of the HRD effort

The purpose is regarded as the starting point of SHRD. The organisational purpose defines the activities the organisation performs or intends to perform and the kind of organisation it is or intends to be. The formulation of the official purpose of human resources development specifies how the organisation's planned learning activities will contribute to the organisation's purpose.

4.3.1.2 Assess present HRD conditions

This is similar in nature to needs assessment and situation analysis. This assessment process is comprehensive in the sense that it specifies present but general differences between what employees should know and do and what they actually know and do. It identifies not only needs or weaknesses but also significant talents, skills or competencies (strengths). It thus clarifies what employees are doing well and not so well. The question to answer is: What is the present state of HRD?

Figure 4.4 MODEL OF THE SHRD PROCESS

Clarify the purpose of the HRD effort
Assess present conditions
Scan the external environment
Compare present strengths and weaknesses to future threats and opportunities
Choose a long term organisational strategy for HRD
Evaluate HRD

(Van Dyk, et al., 1998:182.)
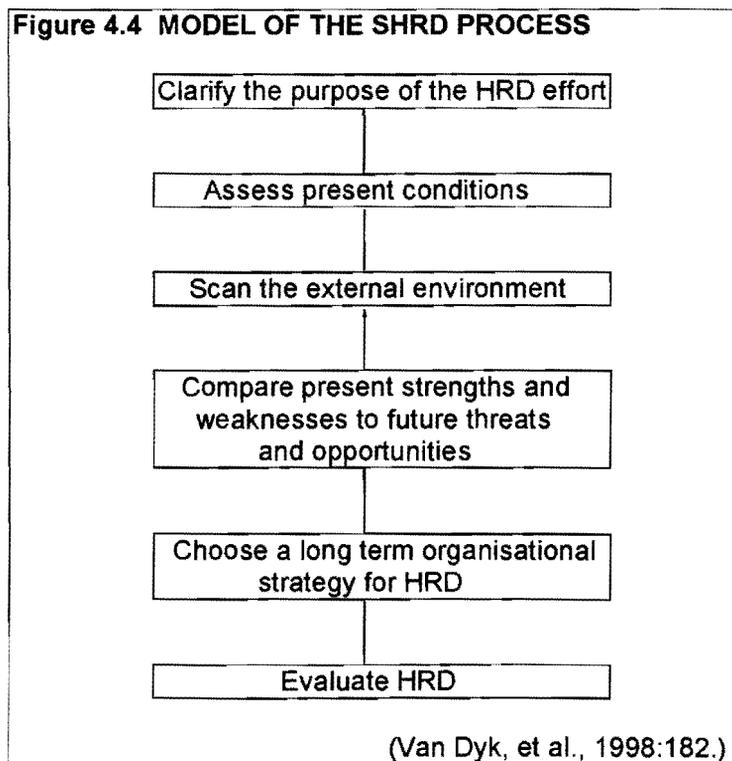
4.3.1.3 Environmental scanning

The external environment consists of two broad components: the general public and external stakeholders, consisting of everyone directly involved in or affected by the organisation. Environmental scanning for HRD is the process of monitoring trends, issues, problems or events that may create future learning needs as a result of environmental changes. These changes often require new knowledge and skills among people affected by them. The result is that environmental change may affect the learning needs of the general public, an organisation's external

stakeholders, members of work groups, individual employees preparing for career advancement or occupants of each class of job.

4.3.1.4 Compare present strengths and weaknesses with future threats and opportunities

When the need assessment results are compared to environmental scanning results, future long term learning needs can be identified. By addressing these needs, managers and employees may prevent problems before they arise. Unique opportunities may be identified for improving the performance of employees; achieving individual career objectives; changing the skills represented in a work group consistent with future demands facing the group; improving relations between an organisation and external groups; or changing the cultural norms of an organisation.

4.3.1.5 Choose long term organisational HRD strategy

SHRD integrates long term, intermediate-term and short term learning plans designed to provide development and training accommodating the anticipated change. Organisational strategy for HRD means a comprehensive, general instruction plan - called a curriculum - which supports achievement of strategic business plans and human resource plans. The result of strategic choice for HRD is thus a unified learning plan that integrates such HRD functions as organisation development, employee development, education and training.

4.3.1.6 Implement organisational HRD strategy

Eight implementation steps are identified:

- Establish operational objectives for HRD.
- Create, review and revise HRD policies.
- Examine leadership in the organisation.
- Review the structure of the organisation, HRD section and learning experiences sponsored by the organisation.
- Review rewards systems.
- Budget for resources to implement strategy.
- Communicate about organisational strategy for HRD.
- Develop HRD functional strategies.

4.3.1.7 Evaluate HRD

The effectiveness of the HRD process is assessed by comparing its achievements with its intentions, against the background of the organisation with its requirements for developing employee and management resources. If any part of the HRD plan was poorly constructed or is not achieved, the whole plan may be affected negatively.

4.3.2 Training and development process

The process consists of a sequence of steps that are grouped into three phases. The process is presented in Figure 4.5 and the phases are identified and discussed.

4.3.2.1 Needs assessment

It involves assessing the organisation, its environment, job tasks and employee performance. It is a process by which an organisation's employee development needs are identified and expressed. It is the starting point of the human resource development and training process. The need assessment is done on three levels:

- Organisational analysis as a process to better understand the characteristics of the organisation to determine where training and development efforts are needed and the conditions within which they will be conducted.
- Task analysis as a systematic collection of data on a specific position or group of positions to determine what an employee should be taught to achieve optimum performance. Results of a task analysis include standards of performance, how tasks should be performed to meet these standards and the knowledge, skills and abilities and other characteristics employees need to meet the standards.
- Person analysis is directed at determining the training needs of the individual employee. Components: 1) Summary person analysis involves determining the overall success of individual employee performance. 2) Diagnostic person analysis tries to discover the reasons for the employee's performance.

4.3.2.2 Designing implementation

After an organisation identified a training need, the next step is to decide whether to purchase the program from an outside training agent or design the program in-house. If the organisation decides to stay in-house, the trainer must be selected. If there is a full-time trainer available, with content knowledge, the decision will be an easy one. If not, then a content specialist needs to be identified and sent to a train-the-trainer program.

The trainer has the responsibility for developing training objectives that define the desired outcomes of the training program. This information should be translated into a lesson plan that provides a training implementation guide and assists in selecting the appropriate training methods and techniques. There are many possible training methods and techniques available for particular situations. The trainer has to select the best combination of techniques that will maximise trainee learning.

Once the trainer designs the program, the next step is to determine the best schedule while avoiding potential conflicts. The final step is the actual implementation of the program. This includes arranging the physical environment and getting started on a positive note.

Figure 4.5   TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT PROCESS

ASSESSMENT   DESIGNING IMPLEMENTATION   EVALUATION

ASSESSMENT	DESIGNING IMPLEMENTATION	EVALUATION
Assess needs		
Prioritise needs	Define program objectives	Select evaluation criteria
	Select trainer	
	Develop lesson plan	
	Select program methods and techniques	Evaluation design
	Prepare materials	
	Schedule program	Implement evaluation design
	Implement program	
		Interpret results

(Harris & DeSimone, 1994:89.)

4.3.2.3 Evaluation

Evaluation involves the systematic collection of information according to a predetermined plan or method to ensure that the information is appropriate and useful. The effectiveness of the employee development program is measured. It provides information on employee reaction to the program, how much they have learned, whether they use what they have learned at the job and whether the program improved the organisation's effectiveness. Evaluation is conducted to help managers and employees make informed decisions about particular training programs and methods. Harrison (1993:323-324) suggests that the evaluation process should include the evaluation of training costs due to the following reasons:

- Comparing the monetary costs of training to the benefits received in non-monetary terms, like improvements in attitudes, safety and health determine the cost-effectiveness of the training.
- The financial benefits accrued from training, such as increases in quality and profits can be determined.

- The cost of not training and developing employees should also be assessed. It can have considerable impacts such as:
  - lack of enough trained employees;
  - lack of skilled employees on production lines;
  - lack of employees with technological education and skill; and
  - lack of an educated workforce hampering the organisation's ability to be flexible and respond to the need for change.

The training and development process is the practical implementation of the SHRD policy of the organisation. All managers responsible for subordinates should be implementing the process as the main part of SHRD as management strategy.

4.4 Training techniques

A comprehensive number of training techniques have been identified. The selection of the most appropriate technique is very challenging but also very difficult. Van Dyk, et al. (1998:320-321) have identified the factors that have an influence on the selection of training techniques:

- Instructional objectives. Each objective and the nature of the learning involved in achieving that objective will determine which technique would be most appropriate.
- Course content. The stability of the content, whether it is verbal or manipulative and its difficulty have an influence on the selection of a technique.
- Student population. Aspects to be considered are size of population, level of education, previous training and experience, aptitude, maturity, reading and speaking ability and the teaching location.
- Instructors or facilitators. The number, quality, competencies and inclination of the facilitators available need to be considered.
- Culture of the organisation. An organisation might have its own preferences and norms in terms of techniques for human resource development and this may dictate that specific techniques should be used.
- Instructional space, facilities, equipment and material will determine which techniques can be used.
- Time. The time available for learning a particular subject or a module of a subject may dictate the use of certain techniques.
- Costs. This is an important limitation in selecting a training technique.

A high number of possible training techniques are available. Many of the techniques can be used effectively in conjunction with each other. Trainers or instructors have to be trained in the use of the techniques to ensure the achievement of the training objectives. A number of techniques are briefly discussed:

1. Computer-based training (CBT)

CBT training can be more effective than conventional training as it is individualised, the delivery is standardised and there is provision for standardised student feedback as well as increased opportunity for practice by the student. CBT may be particularly appropriate for learning impersonal techniques (such as discounted cash flow), rather than for people management skills (such as conducting selection or performance appraisal interviews) (Snape, et al., 1994:74 and Van Dyk, et al., 1998:328). The conclusion is made that this training technique has considerable potential. Organisations should establish to what extent this technique could benefit their organisation. The implication of this technique is that each trainee should have access to a computer and should be computer literate.

2. Case studies

It is an in-depth group study of a simulated real life or fictitious situation. Participants can be divided into small groups to consider a specific problem and associated questions with report back to a plenary session to share the various insights. They are encouraged to draw on their own experience. Role-playing parts of the case study often further enhances understanding while developing negotiating, interviewing, public speaking and team working skills. The case study method relies on skillful guidance of the group by the trainer, who acts as facilitator and catalyst. When using both role-playing and case studies, group discussions beforehand and structured feedback are critical to the successful use of the methods (Snape, et al., 1994:76 and Van Dyk, et al., 1998:323).

3. Role playing

It provides an opportunity to try out new behaviour in a relatively safe environment. Learners physically act out a specified role, applying the theory instead of merely thinking about it. They receive role briefs, outlining the roles to be played, the personal backgrounds of the characters and the situational background. Learners are usually given a degree of freedom to develop the characters and the events as they wish. They experience the problems and issues in a quasi-realistic manner and the trainer can further enrich the learning by encouraging group discussions. Role-playing can be especially appropriate in training managers in people handling skills, such as selection and appraisal interviewing and negotiating. Very effective in getting people to try out job behaviours they have not used previously (Snape, et al., 1994:75 and Van Dyk, et al., 1998:324). A problem in role-playing is that learners might feel exposed and threatened within the situation resulting in the roles not acted effectively for learners to gain from it.

4. Manager games and simulations

Simulations have the advantage of being exciting, realistic, useful for integrating learning across a number of management functions and of encouraging managers to apply skills and techniques. However, they are often expensive to run, require high participation commitment and are

unpredictable, as every run of a simulation may be different. They are also criticised for their inability to replicate real-life conditions. Another problem is their tendency to over-emphasise competitive behaviour. Management functions, which in real life depend heavily on cooperative behaviour and teamwork often, become highly competitive in manager games (Snape, et al., 1994:76 and Van Dyk, et al., 1998:325,326,332).

5. Action learning

A typical program involves a short period of education in basic subjects such as finance, organisational management and communication, after which participants are assigned a real-life problem to solve. Projects are chosen which offer a challenge, but which can be resolved within a reasonable timeframe. Participants meet regularly in small groups to discuss their progress and share knowledge and ideas and obtain mutual support. The program takes place over a specified time period and the learner's solution is put into effect. Participants then review the effectiveness of the action taken and obtain lessons from other projects as well as their own (Snape, et al., 1994:77).

6. Outdoor training

This training technique represents an attempt to develop team building and leadership skills. Benefits of outdoor training in management development: improving communication, encouraging creativity, helping participants cope with stress, improving interpersonal, planning, decision-making and time management skills, help revitalise a diminishing management team. Participants work in teams, on tasks involving obstacles of distance, terrain and weather. However, the context is so radically different from the workplace that there are doubts about such learning being transferred to the organisation. Outdoor training is usually expensive, requiring a high tutor-participant ratio (Snape, et al., 1994:77-79). Team building might transpire from this training technique as the group is forced to work together and has to make use of their organising, planning and communication skills.

7. Job rotation

Job rotation means moving from one job assignment to another within the same organisation. It provides the inexperienced manager with a broad understanding of the organisation and changes specialists into generalists. Job rotation provides a person with experience in several different positions, usually following a pre-planned sequence and a set time schedule. Intent is to expose the trainee to different departmental environments to increase understanding of departmental workings and interrelationships. Job rotation as training technique for manager training is not practical. The manpower situation implies that managers are appointed in a specific position and are not to rotate between positions.

8. Mentoring

Mentoring is a relationship between two individuals, one being more experienced than the other in terms of age, work history or time with the organisation. In this relationship the senior partner provides advice, assistance or opportunities to the other in excess to those provided in the normal supervisory or evaluative functions of the organisation. A major disadvantage of mentoring is that it can be time consuming for senior managers. It is important that mentors are themselves given training, as the role is particularly demanding and complicated, requiring excellent interpersonal skills (Anderson, 1993:148-189; Snape, et al., 1994:81 and Kelly & Post, 1995:153-156). Mentoring as training technique is not implemented. The manpower within organisations does not allow for such comprehensive training technique to be implemented.

9. Manager learning contracts (MLC)

MLC is a written agreement between a participating manager and trainer, setting out what and how the manager wishes to learn. It permits the trainee to have a hand in designing the program and thus ensures relevance. This involves the trainee accepting the responsibility to learn, enhances the motivation to learn and commits the trainee to action. The contract has to be precise, realistic and achievable, given the available time and resources. It is important to avoid an over emphasis on tasks to be completed rather than learning objectives to be achieved (Snape, et al., 1994:81-82). Van Dyk, et al. (1998:222-223) identify the development of a learning contract as an eight step procedure. Researcher does not consider the manager learning contracts as a separate training technique, but as a technique to be used within all other techniques. The manager and trainer agree on objectives to be achieved e.g. with case studies or role-playing. The agreement should include an evaluation in order to assess the results achieved.

10. Peer training

Weinbach & Keuhner (1987:222) describe the peer training concept as *"the planned, structured use of a more experienced fellow employee to teach specific knowledge and skills to a newer employee of the same level and job description. Peer training involves the full or part time assignment of the more experienced employee to training functions on a time-limited basis, under the direction of permanent agency training staff."* As a general rule, peer training tasks should be those that can be accomplished in a relatively short period of time. Tasks that are difficult to learn are not appropriate because they require an extended commitment from the trainer that could easily result in neglect of his own job responsibilities and that could present a threat to permanent lines of supervision. The value of peer training is limited to system maintenance and control. Appropriate uses are (Weinbach & Keuhner, 1987:222):

- Orientation to office practices such as work hours, office routines, introduction to other personnel and general procedures.

- Programmatic information, referring to an overview of agency programs, client population, service objectives and referral resources.
- To some extent, basic skills training such as the interpretation and application of policy, the completion of forms and the use of techniques regarding caseload management.

The peer training concept is not generally implemented in organisations. In cases where one supervisor has more than six subordinates, this training can be used sensibly. The selection of the peer trainers should be done with utmost care and they should receive the necessary training. Role identification is important as well as allocating a timeframe to the training, as the peer training tasks should be completed within a relatively short period of time.

11. Committees and Junior Boards

The intent of this technique is to use committees and junior boards as training mechanisms and is also known as multiple management. It gives trainees opportunity to interact with experienced managers; they become acquainted with a variety of issues that concern the whole organisation. Trainees become aware of how the organisation operates and what the responsibilities of management really entail. This could be a valuable training technique as trainees gain knowledge and experience from observing the board members and participating in the discussions and the decision making process.

12. Coaching

An employee's direct supervisor has the responsibility for coaching. The supervisor delegates assignments, establishes standards and monitors performance and is therefore uniquely equipped with sufficient information, opportunity and authority to perform coaching effectively. Anderson (1993:141) defines coaching as *"a joint process in which manager and employee work together to find solutions to present work problems."* It is an important approach in developing the capability and confidence of employees. It is work related and problem centred. It is a planned approach, which involves setting learning objectives. The key advantage of this technique is that it provides fast feedback on performance and learning by doing. Managers should be prepared to devote time to coaching even though they are busy and should persist with their coaching role even though other pressures make it easy to abandon coaching. The supervisor acts as model for correct behaviour or skills. Based on the aforesaid, the conclusion is made that coaching as a training technique can be related to supervision as implemented in the social work profession. The process of coaching depends on the type of relationship that exists between the manager and the employee.

13. Conference programs

Conferences are specific discussions on predetermined topics and are conducted according to a specific plan. It should not be confused with ordinary discussion groups. At internal conferences

employees may be instructed in the history of the organisation, its purposes, policies and relationships with customers and consumers. External conferences may range from programs on specific managerial techniques to programs on broad topics such as the relationship between business and society. The topics of conferences should be related to the needs of managers and employees and the cost component should be taken into account. Van Dyk, et al. (1998:322-323) differentiate between three types of conferences:

- Direct discussions aiming at helping students to acquire a better understanding and to develop the ability to apply facts, principles, concepts, policies or procedures.
- Training conferences aiming at combining existing knowledge and skills as well as past experience of the students in order to develop new or more principles, concepts, policies or procedures.
- Seminars aiming at finding an answer to a question or a solution to a problem. The answer to the problem is found or developed by the group with the assistance of the trainer.

14. University programs

This refers to the available courses, workshops, conferences and formal programs for training managers and employees, conducted by universities. These programs expose employees to theories, principles and new developments in their work field. Employees should be motivated to register for these programs on their own accord and not to wait for the organisation to nominate and register them.

15. Readings

Readings refer to planned reading of relevant and current applicable literature. It is essentially self-development. Employees should take responsibility for part of their development and this could easily be done through readings.

16. Counselling

Counselling involves discussions on a wide range of issues, many of which might extend beyond the job into aspects such as personal matters and career development. It is a necessary skill to assist in the development of future managers. The essential skills of counselling are concerned with helping people to help themselves referring to the processes of identifying problems, facilitating the exploration of solutions and encouraging them to draw on their inner resources. It is important to help employees to cope with stress and with the problems of overcoming difficulties associated with change. In the increasingly flexible, high performance organisations of the future, managers will experience greater pressures than ever before. Counselling is likely to have an increasing important role to play in encouraging managers to withstand pressure and progress in their development.

17. Networking

Networking implies the relationship between one individual and another individual, group or organisation that provides an additional benefit in terms of information, advice, knowledge or collaboration. Kelly & Post (1995:156-157) have identified the objectives of networking:

- To develop relationships with people or groups in organisations that are in the same field, involved in serving clients.
- Developing an early warning system to address change in a proactive manner.
- To use as an opportunity to influence public understanding of an organisation.
- Providing information about opportunities that might otherwise have been missed.

Networking is an important activity to be applied on a continuous basis to ensure the achievement of the above indicated objectives.

18. Leader match training

This training teaches managers how to understand their primary leadership style and the situations in which that style can be expected to produce the best results. All managers have to receive this training to understand the manner in which they present themselves as leaders. The aim would be to support managers in choosing the leadership style that suits them best but at the same time give the best results in contact with employees.

19. Orientation training

Orientation training is intended to prepare the new employee to function effectively in the organisation. The objective is to provide knowledge of the work and organisational environment in a condensed form. A specific orientation program should be planned and implemented. This will ensure that all new employees receive the same orientation information. It is recommended that orientation training can be extended to employees moving to the next position in their specific work situation, which could have the effect of employees being prepared for the expectations of their new positions.

20. Traditional classroom lectures

The lecture is the most commonly used training technique and is used for the purpose of conveying specific job-related knowledge to employees. Employees within the same job families can be combined in a group to attend lectures related to their job. Lectures have the advantage that a skilled instructor can transmit much information to a large audience over a short period of time, particularly when the information consists of fairly simple facts. Van Dyk, et al. (1998:322) highlight a few disadvantages of the lecture: learners play a passive role while the instructor does all the work which makes it a one-way communication activity; instructors are often ill-prepared or lack effective communication skills; it does not consider individual learning differences; it limits feedback from participants and because of the limited activity by the student, attention fluctuates

during the lecture. This training technique should be used conditionally by capable instructors and in conjunction with other training techniques.

21. On-the-job training

A supervisor or an experienced employee provides this training. It is criticised for being unsystematic, for passing on bad practice and as being costly in terms of possible errors made whilst learning. On-the-job training is applicable and effective for training of technical skills where demonstrations of the job are valuable.

22. Programmed instruction

This training technique involves the presentation of material to be learned in logical sequence, with the employee being required to actively respond at each step of the process and then receive feedback on the effectiveness of this response before progressing. It is a highly standardised process that permits learning at the employee's own pace. Once the program is being created, it does not require the services of an instructor, employees teach themselves. This is an effective training technique and could be used in conjunction with most of the already mentioned techniques. However, a high degree of learner motivation is necessary for programmed instruction to succeed because learning depends entirely on the learner.

23. In-basket exercise

This training technique consists of a simulation of a manager's in-basket, which normally contains a number of documents, files and matters that must be dealt with during the course of the daily or weekly activities. Learners are given a limited time to complete the required task, in the normal order or in order of priority. Prior to the exercise, instructors provide learners with background information concerning the organisation represented in the in-basket exercise. Learners are not allowed to communicate during the exercise, which forces them to undertake independent thinking and problem solving. At the end of the exercise, learners compare and discuss their individual solutions with other members of the group. The in-basket exercise is used to give learners a chance to experience real-life problems but can also be used to develop skills in report preparation, customer relations, disciplinary procedures and time management (Van Dyk, et al., 1998:325). It is recommended that this training technique be used with the orientation training technique where employees have been promoted.

24. Brainstorming

This technique is usually used in conjunction with lectures and conferences. Brainstorming serves as a creative problem-solving method because it concentrates on the maximum possible solutions to a specific problem, which can be generated within a limited time. It is used to develop new ideas to solve problems and to encourage creativity and the participation of learners. The problem is that the quantity of ideas takes precedence over the quality of ideas. The actual evaluation of ideas

only takes place at the end of the session to ensure that the creative spirit of learners is not dampened (Van Dyk, et al., 1998:329).

25. Demonstration

The demonstration is an instructional technique whereby an instructor demonstrates to the learners what to do and how a job or task should be performed. During the demonstration the instructor also explains why, where and when the job or task is performed. Learners are often required to perform the job or task themselves after the demonstration (Van Dyk, et al., 1998:329). Demonstration is a technique that can be used effectively during on-the-job training.

4.5 Benefits of training and development

Training and development are important for employees as well as organisations. Both are to meet new needs and adapt to changes in the environment. Training and development are the only means through which the requirements and the expectations of the changed environment can be met. The organisation and the employees obtain certain benefits from training and development (Koontz, et al., 1984:444; Werther & Davis, 1993:322 and Van Dyk, et al., 1998:377-378):

4.5.1 Benefits to the organisation

- Improves the job knowledge and skills at all levels of the organisation.
- Helps create a better organisational image.
- Encourages genuineness, transparency and trust among employees and among employees and management.
- Improves the relationship between manager and subordinate.
- Aids in organisational development.
- Helps prepare guidelines for work.
- Aids in understanding and carrying out of organisational policies.
- Provides information for future needs in all areas of the organisation.
- More effective decision making and problem solving.
- Aids in developing leadership skills, motivation, loyalty and better attitudes resulting in improved management performance.
- Ensures increasing productivity and quality of work.
- Develops a sense of responsibility to the organisation for being competent and knowledgeable.
- Stimulates proactive management.
- Creates an appropriate climate for growth and communication.
- Aids in handling conflict thereby helping to prevent stress and tension.
- Provides measurable results or improvements in the employees and the organisation in terms of lower turnover, accidents, and absenteeism.

4.5.2 Benefits to the individual employee

- Helps the employee in making better decisions and in effective problem solving.
- Through training and development, motivational variables of recognition, achievement, growth, responsibility and advancement are internalised and operationalised.
- Aids in encouraging and achieving self-development and self-confidence.
- Helps employees handle stress, tension, frustration and conflict.
- Provides information for improving leadership, knowledge, communication skills and attitudes.
- Increases job satisfaction and recognition.
- Moves an employee towards personal goals while improving interaction skills.
- Develops a sense of growth in learning.
- Develops employees' speaking and listening skills; also writing skills when exercises are required.
- Helps eliminate fear in attempting new tasks.
- Helps employees to identify with organisational goals.
- Helps employees adjust to change.

4.6 Conclusion

Broadwell (1987:17) makes the conclusion that organisations train employees *"not because we always have"* or *"the employees expect it"*. *There needs to be a better reason for training and a stronger commitment by everyone to the value of training."* Reasons identified for employees wanting to learn are that they have a desire for reward; have a fear of punishment; are curious or are incompetent. There are also reasons why employees do not learn: lack of motivation to learn; lack of background knowledge to understand the training; wanting to be rebellious against authority and failure to relate the training they receive to the work.

Researcher recommends that a total change in attitude towards the training and development of employees and managers should be made. Organisations should change their attitude and implement the strategic human resources development management strategy more specifically and effectively. Middle managers should accept responsibility for implementing the training and development model as the practical component of the SHRD management strategy. This can ensure that managers are in control of the performance in their section. They can ensure that employees receive applicable and necessary training to achieve individual and organisational goals.

5. MANAGEMENT INFORMATION SYSTEMS (MIS)

5.1 Introduction

"Personal computers have the capability of increasing both the productivity of managers and the quality of their decisions." This is a statement by Ivancevich, et al. (1989:135) but unfortunately not all organisations accepted the value of the statement. Many managers do not have direct access

to computers and can thus not benefit from computer technology. However, having access to a computer and being computer literate are not sufficient for managers to make use of management information systems as a strategy of management. Knowledge on available management information systems as well as available software can ensure managers make informed decisions in terms of applicable systems and software resulting in management practice being accountable.

As early as 1986 Mutschler & Hasenfeld (1986:345-349) described Integrated Information Systems for social work practice. They indicate that the attitudes of social services organisations toward computer technology changed due to two main reasons:

- There are greater demands on social services organisations for accountability and demonstrated efficiency. These demands require organisations to generate information about their activities and to document the quantity and quality of the services they provide as well as how accessible their resources are.
- The rapid development of low-cost computer-based management information systems presents an opportunity to organisational administrators to use such technology to cope with the increasing informational demands faced by the organisation.

The use of MIS by social work supervisors as a management tool is a new development within social work practice. Supervisors have to identify their needs in terms of MIS that can contribute to their control in their sections. These systems should enable them implement cost-effective and accountable management practice.

5.2 Defining MIS

The computer, being the main component of MIS, is an aid for use by people. It is a machine that can solve problems by accepting data, processing it and providing the processed results. It is thus an aid applied for a specific purpose. Ackermann (1995:23) indicates that the computer consists of three components:

- hardware which is the apparatus and includes a computer that physically processes data;
- software which refers to the program or instructions that tell the computer what to do; and
- the computer user who is the person that activates the computer by providing the instructions and operating it.

Galliers & Baker (1995:19) refer to the late 1970s when Keen and Scott Morton indicated that the management information system was a prime example of a "content-free" expression. They implied that the concept meant different things to different people and that there was no generally accepted definition. When MIS are interpreted practically, MIS imply computers and the phrase "computer-based information systems" is used, as it seems to be more precise. Galliers & Baker (1995:19) also refer to Sprague and Carlson (1982) who gave meaning to MIS by identifying it as a computer system with certain characteristics. These characteristics are aspects such as an

information focus aimed at middle managers; structured information flow; integration of data processing according to job functions e.g. personnel MIS; and a database for inquiries and reports.

Information on management information systems within the literature was confusing in terms of the tendency throughout to use abbreviations. To be sure about the contents of management information systems, the following definitions are provided to prevent confusion (Robson, 1994:70-71):

- Information Technology (IT): Any "kit" concerned with the capture, storage, transmission or presentation of information.

- Management Information Systems (MIS): Represent the entire portfolio of computer-based systems and their complementary manual procedures. Together these systems strengthen the operation of a business and include everything from routine data processing (DP), transaction processing activities, through to decision orientated support.

- Decision Support Systems (DSS) and Executive Information Systems (EIS): Those systems designed and implemented specifically to address the need to provide automated support during the decision making process, including the problem awareness and definition stages.

- Strategic Management Information Systems (SMIS): Contains systems considered critical to the current or future business competitiveness of an organisation. One must assess the competitive circumstances of a given organisation before attaching the title SMIS to a particular system.

- Information Systems (IS): That part of the whole organisation and/or that part of an individual manager's activity related to IT, MIS, DSS or SMIS.

5.3 Implementation of MIS

To effectively utilise MIS the operation of the computer must be mastered. The operation of the computer consists of three basic actions: input, processing and output. The process is also referred to as data processing. MIS are the computerisation of all activities within an organisation. When any event occurs, the event provides the raw material for the MIS. The event may be recorded (input), appropriately stored, transmitted, combined with other raw materials (processed) and ultimately presented in some appropriate way (output).

Robson (1994:72) indicates that the technologies and techniques for doing all this may be complex and naturally develop and change over time. He therefore identifies (1994:91) circumstances that contribute to the necessary modification of the MIS objectives:

- major organisational changes
- external competitive opportunities or threats
- advancement and changes in IS.

The main objective in the modification is to regain control over information, irrespective of the strategy for the technical delivery of it and consequently to be able to take advantage of the use of information to improve the performance of the organisation.

When applying MIS and thus computer technology, it must be done with a specific purpose. To have MIS in place that are effective and efficient for the specific organisation, the following factors should be taken into account and decided upon before any expenditures are made on purchasing hardware or software:

• what activities are to be recorded,

• which of the organisation's activities require monitoring,

• to what extent do they need to be monitored, and

• what format for input and output will be effective for the specific organisation.

Different levels of MIS within the management hierarchy are applicable:

• Top management using MIS for strategic planning.

• Middle management using MIS for management control and tactical planning.

• Operational employees using MIS for operational planning and control.

The effectiveness of MIS support to each level is cumulative i.e. informed decision making at each level depends upon the MIS constructed for that level plus those of the lower ranks. In the study of MIS this perception of serving different levels of management activity is important since it has an impact on the nature of the decision making process such as the degree of structured or unstructured decisions and the significance of internal or external sources of raw material to the MIS (Robson, 1994:73-74).

According to Mutschler & Hasenfeld (1986:345) most social services organisations adopt computer technology to develop a management information system (MIS) primarily to support administrative decisions such as accounting and budgeting. The interests of administration and management consequently dominate the entire design of MIS. Such systems are seldom designed to accommodate the needs of social workers themselves, even though they are the primary sources of the data being used by the MIS. Contradictory to the above indication, Clark (1988:15-19) indicates that computer technology can be used with positive results by social workers themselves. The implication is that specific MIS should be developed to accommodate the needs of social workers.

Since the focus is on the use of MIS as a management strategy, possible computer applications of MIS are the following:

• Personnel applications with direct access to personnel files. Information such as promotion date, personnel evaluation date, leave taken and leave available, any official complaints made by the employee and any official complaints against the employee are important for the manager. The manager will also be able to make direct notes on the file on all actions taken pertaining to the employee.

- Administrative applications referring to all other types of reports to be compiled e.g. monthly reports and general office administration. Each office can have access to the section of the financial budget applicable to their office. This results in managers being able to take responsibility for the expenses within their offices.
- Research applications through direct access to information search systems at university libraries.
- Statistical applications are also possible, as managers keep record of every aspect of the work done in their sections.

According to Robson (1994:77) the effects of management information systems can be good or bad. Good may represent an increase in job satisfaction whilst bad includes the sense of distance created from the loss of personal communications. However, the degree of disruption and distress that can be experienced from the introduction of a new MIS is an issue for the management of change. Training and development of employees can become a challenge.

5.4 Available and applicable software

As the implementation of MIS in any organisation can be confusing and disruptive, it is important that an organisation first do research on available systems (Clark, 1988:16) and identify the needs of the organisation to be satisfied by the MIS. Ackermann (1995:25) identifies two broad groups of software within computer literature:

5.4.1 System software includes programs such as DOS and Windows. These programs support, guide and control a computer system.

5.4.2 Application software refers to computer programs that, together with the system software, give instructions to a computer regarding how the work must be done. A distinction is made between application software and integrated software.

- Application software programs refer to individual programs that have already been developed. These programs are divided into two categories: specific application programs that are developed for one specific application only and general application programs that serve more than one purpose. According to Ackermann (1995:25) the most common and popular application software programs are databases, electronic spreadsheet programs, word processors, graphic packages and electronic communication (e-mail).
- Integrated software programs integrate several functions into one program and allow different programs such as identified above, to use the same data. There are four approaches to integrated software: the integrated family of programs, all-in-one integrated package, integrated operational environment and suite. The last two approaches are the latest and most popular development with regard to integrated software (Ackermann, 1995:26).

o The integrated operational environment is a program, known as the integrator or window manager, which allows multiple applications to run simultaneously while using the same data.

o The suite enables the computer user to buy different programs in one package instead of buying each individually.

The conclusion is made that there are software packages available that will satisfy the needs of each organisation. It is also possible to develop MIS for a specific organisation when their needs are of such a nature that the present available software is not sufficient.

5.5 Limitations of MIS and computer technology

The benefits of MIS have been indicated within the above discussions, specifically the discussion on the implementation of MIS. However, there are limitations to the use of MIS of which most have a direct link to the human factor activating the systems. In the social work profession, the use of MIS has ethical dilemmas and limitations (Schoeman & Botha, 1993:307-318). The following limitations are indicated by Ackermann (1995:26-27) as being the most serious in the present organisational environment:

- The computer cannot create application programs or create inputs by itself. It requires human input and a human operator to operate and maintain it.
- Although the computer is an aid enabling managers to manage cost-effectively and purposefully, it can also lead to the wasting of time if managers undertake tasks that should rather be performed by administrative staff like a typist.
- Money is also wasted by continually pursuing the latest technology. It is important for the technology purchase to suit the specific long term and short term needs of the organisation and not the individual preferences of managers.
- Client confidentiality must be protected by ensuring that there is no unauthorised access to the organisation's database. This limitation has a direct link with the ethical dilemmas as referred to by Schoeman & Botha (1993:307-318).

5.6 Conclusion

The potential of management information systems and the use of a computer are summarised in the fact that it enables managers to perform tasks quickly, accurately and reliably. A computer's capability includes aspects such as speed, storage capacity, reliability, adaptability and the identical multiple repetition of a command. The progress made in the use of computers in social services organisations suggests that this technology is an integral component of management and practice. Most important is that the manager must have basic computer knowledge and skills to utilise this technology to the benefit of the organisation and the client system. The attitude with which this technology is applied must promote service rendering. MIS can be viewed as supportive

to optimising services to the client system, as the manager is enabled to meet the requirements of accountable and cost-effective management practices.

Presently, the value of personal computers is widely known but the attitude of organisations in some cases proves to be a problem. In the more computerised organisations, management is better organised, better motivated and have a wider view on the world outside their organisation. The end result could only be improvement in their management style to the benefit of the organisation, the employees and the client system.

6. STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT

6.1 Introduction

Strategic management is also referred to as strategic planning. The concept creates the impression that it is only applicable to the most senior management within an organisation. However, all managers participate in strategic management and use it to effectively manage their specific sections within the organisation. The process of strategic management is implemented within each section of the organisation as each section has a vision of needed development.

Researcher is of the opinion that a social work manager can implement the steps of the process of strategic management in the planning of the development of each social worker in his section as well as in the development of the total section. Strategic management can thus be successfully implemented as a management strategy.

6.2 Defining Strategic Management

In defining strategic management it was evident that the concept has reference to the long term planning of an organisation as well as the different aspects related to the successful implementation of the selected strategic plan. There is a comparison between the processes of strategic planning and problem solving. Both allow for alternatives to be identified and a choice to be made in terms of the best possible alternative. Implementation of the choice and the evaluation of results are present in both processes.

Definitions from different authors on the concept of strategic management or strategic planning are:

- Strategic management is the set of decisions and actions resulting in formulation and implementation of strategies designed to achieve the objectives of an organisation (Pearce & Robinson, 1988:6).

- Strategic management is a systematic approach to a major and increasingly important responsibility of general management to position and relate the organisation to its environment

in a way, which will assure its continued success and make it secure from surprises. Strategic management is the decision process that aligns the organisation's internal capability with the opportunities and threats it faces in its environment. Strategic management encompasses the entire organisation and looks beyond day-to-day operating concerns in order to focus upon the organisation's long term prospects and development (Robson, 1994:5,6).

- Strategic planning defines the objectives of an organisation, the resources required to pursue the objectives and the policies that govern the acquisition, deployment and use of the resources (Fidler & Rogerson, 1996:23).

For the purposes of this study, the manner in which Wootton & Horne (1997:8) have illustrated strategic management as three fundamental parts (Figure 4.6) is accepted as the most practical description of strategic management as a management strategy. Each fundamental part has three specific steps implying strategic management to be a nine-step process. These steps are included in the discussion on the process of strategic management.

Figure 4.6   **STRATEGIC PLANNING**

Gathering Information

(Strategic Analysis)

Taking Decisions

(Strategic Direction)

Taking Action

(Strategic Implementation)

(Wootton & Horne, 1997:8)
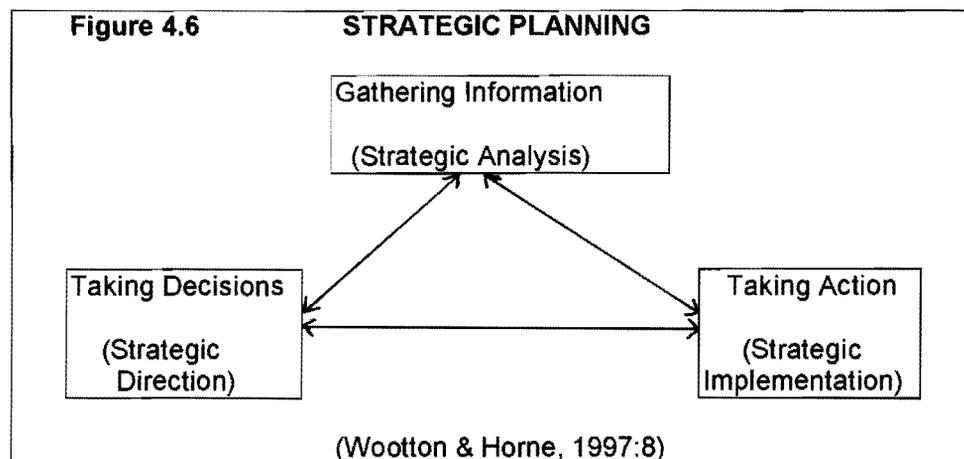
6.3 Assumptions of strategic planning

Certain aspects are essential for success in strategic management. Managers must ensure that these aspects are present during the strategic planning process. These assumptions can be related to the progress during the strategic management process. Van Dyk, et al. (1998:150) identify the assumptions of strategic planning as:

- Organisational purpose is the starting point for strategic planning.
- Strategy planning is, in part, based on identification of organisational strengths and weaknesses.
- It is based on examination of the future and the external environment.
- Future implications of present decisions and not future decisions are the main aim of strategic planning.

- Strategy planning is a mental activity that requires holistic thinking. Creativity and problem solving are essential to the process.

6.4 Levels of strategic planning

There are different levels of strategic planning within the planning hierarchy of an organisation. The levels are differentiated according to responsible managers and time periods (Van Dyk, 1998:153).

- Strategic planning is the responsibility of top level management. It is directed towards achieving long term goals and objectives over several years. Strategic plans are uncertain and involve high degrees of risk. They contribute to decision makers being able to anticipate changes in an external environment over which management do not have control. Strategic plans play an important role in organisational success or failure.
- Coordinative or tactical planning is of intermediate term. It is primarily the responsibility of middle managers. It determines the distribution of the available resources of the organisation to achieve objectives. The policies and strategies established in the strategic planning process are followed in tactical planning.
- Operational planning is short term. It is the primary concern of the first line supervisors. Annual budgets are expressions of operational plans. It involves scheduling and moving needed resources. These plans are linked to their longer term strategic and coordinative counterparts.

It is concluded that social work managers have a responsibility toward tactical planning and operational planning. Within tactical planning the managers provide input in the coordination of planning between different sections of the organisation. In operational planning the input is directed towards the individual section and the individual employees of the section.

6.5 Process of Strategic Management

"A process is an identifiable flow of information through interrelated stages of analysis directed toward the achievement of an aim." (Pearce & Robinson, 1988:57.) In the strategic management process the flow of information involves historical, present and forecast data on the organisation, its services and the environment. This information is evaluated in terms of the values and priorities of influential individuals and groups within the external environment of the organisation.

6.5.1 The process of strategic management:

This process is identified and discussed by different authors (Pearce & Robinson, 1988:52-57; Robson, 1994:25-26,49,58-59; Genus, 1995:11; Wootton & Horne, 1997:7-125 and Van Dyk, et al., 1998:147-150). The following process is a combination of the information derived from these authors and divides the process into three phases each with specific steps. Phase 1 is the

Strategic Analysis entailing steps 1, 2 and 3; Phase 2 is providing Strategic Direction according to steps 4 to 9; and Phase 3 is the Strategic Implementation according to steps 10 and 11.

Phase 1: Strategic Analysis

Step 1: Determine the mission of the organisation

This entails a general, lasting statement of the purpose of the organisation, implying the image the organisation wants to project. The mission reflects the organisation's self-concept and indicates the principal service areas and primary client needs the organisation will attempt to satisfy. The task during this step is to determine the mission of the organisation considering the above mentioned information.

Step 2: Organisational profile

The profile reflects the quantity and quality of financial, human and physical resources available to the organisation. The profile assesses the inherent strengths and weaknesses of the organisation's management and structure. It also compares the historical successes of the organisation and the traditional values and concerns of the organisation's present capabilities in an attempt to identify the future. This step entails the developing of an organisational profile that reflects internal conditions and capabilities.

Step 3: External environment

The external environment consists of all the conditions and forces that affect the organisation's strategic options but are beyond the control of the organisation. It consists of two interactive and interrelated parts:

- Operating environment consisting of the forces and conditions within a specific competitive operating situation, external to the organisation, that influence the selection and attainment of alternative objectives. Changes in the operating environment result from strategic action taken by the organisation or its competitors or clients.
- Remote environment referring to forces and conditions that originate beyond and usually irrespective of any single organisation's immediate operating environment. It provides the general economic, political, social and technological framework within which competing organisations operate.

During this step the external environment of the organisation is assessed in terms of both these environments.

Phase 2: Strategic Direction

Step 4: Strategic analysis and choice

Simultaneous assessment of the external environment and organisation profile enables an organisation to identify a range of possibly attractive interactive opportunities. The full list must be screened through the criterion of the mission of the organisation before a set of possible and desired opportunities is generated. This process results in the selection of a strategic choice. It is

meant to provide the combination of long term objectives and grand strategy that will optimally position the organisation in the external environment to achieve its mission. Critical assessment of strategic alternatives involves developing criteria for comparing one set of alternatives with all others. The alternatives are compared to determine which option will have the most favourable overall, long term impact on the organisation.

Step 5: Long term objectives

The results an organisation aims at over a multi-year period are its long term objectives. Each objective must be specific, measurable, achievable and consistent with other objectives of the organisation. Objectives are statements of what is expected from performing a given set of activities. During the previous step a strategic choice was made and this step entails the specification of the long term objectives to achieve the expected results.

Step 6: Grand strategy

The comprehensive, general plan of major actions through which an organisation intends to achieve its long term objectives is called the grand strategy. This statement of means indicates how the objectives are to be achieved. It combines all plans to ensure that they do not work at cross-purposes.

Step 7: Annual objectives

The results an organisation seeks to achieve within a one-year period are annual objectives. Short term or annual objectives involve areas similar to those entailed in long term objectives. The differences between them result principally from the details specified in short term objectives. This step ensures that annual objectives and short term strategies, compatible with long term objectives and grand strategies, are developed.

Step 8: Functional strategies

Within the general framework of the grand strategy each section of the organisation needs a specific and integrative plan of action. Most strategic managers attempt to develop an operating strategy for each related set of annual objectives. Operating strategies are detailed statements of the means to be used to achieve objectives in the following year. During this step functional strategies for the achievement of objectives are developed.

Step 9: Policies

Policies are directives designed to guide the thinking, decisions and actions of managers and their subordinates in implementing the strategy of the organisation. They provide guidelines for establishing and controlling the ongoing services of the organisation consistent with the organisation's strategic objectives. Policies are often referred to as standard operating procedures and serve to increase managerial effectiveness by standardising many routine decisions and limiting the options of managers and subordinates in implementing operation strategies. This step

ensures that the applicable policies are identified and implemented for the achievement of the objectives.

Phase 3: Strategic Implementation

Step 10: Implementation of the strategy

Annual objectives, functional strategies and specific policies provide important means of communicating what needs doing to implement the overall strategy. Successful implementation requires effective management and integration of structure, leadership and culture to ensure the strategy becomes an integral part of the daily functioning of the organisation. This step in the process of strategic planning is usually the most neglected step because top managers too often change strategy without making adjustments to support the change within the organisation. Common problems in implementation usually result from failures to align duties, reporting relationships, leadership talent, employee talent, incentives and policies with the desired strategy. This step thus entails the implementation of strategic choice decisions based on budgeted resource allocations and emphasising the matching of tasks, employees, structures, technologies and reward systems.

Step 11: Control and evaluation

An implemented strategy must be monitored to determine the extent to which objectives are achieved. Managers must apply monitoring and controlling methods to ensure their strategic plan is followed. In the final analysis, an organisation is only successful when its strategy achieves predetermined objectives. During this step the success of the strategic process to serve as a basis for control and as an input for future decision making are reviewed and evaluated.

6.5.2 Certain implications of the strategic management process are to be considered to ensure success. Pearce & Robinson (1988:58-59) identify these implications:

- A change in any component will affect several or all other components.
- Components follow in a specific order.
- There should be feedback from implementation, review and evaluation in terms of post implementation results collected as input for the enhancement of future decision making. Strategic managers should attempt to assess the impact of implemented strategies on external environments.
- The process should be viewed as a dynamic system. Dynamic describes the constantly changing conditions that affect interrelated and interdependent strategic activities. Change is continuous and the dynamic strategic planning process must be constantly monitored for significant changes in any components as a precaution against implementing an obsolete strategy.

6.5.3 Practical implementation of strategic management

On grounds of the above discussed process of strategic management researcher is of the opinion that the practical implementation of this process can be done within a section. The steps are interrelated and are reviewed continually to ensure the planned objectives are achieved. This practical implementation is illustrated in Figure 4.7 and each step explains itself and additional explanation is not provided.

Figure 4.7   STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT

Determine mission of section/individual

Compile profile of section/individual

Assess environment in terms of
knowledge, skills and attitudes

Identify range of possible opportunities
for development of section/individual

Identify: Long term objectives,
grand strategy (methods), annual
objectives (activities) and resources

Policies, regulations, procedure
manuals applicable to the section

Implementation of plan

Control and evaluation - intermediate
evaluation and annual evaluation

6.6 Benefits of strategic management

Strategic management as a management strategy emphasises interaction throughout the process between managers at all levels of the organisational hierarchy as well as between managers and subordinates. As a result, certain behavioural consequences characteristic of participative decision making come to the fore. Pearce & Robinson (1988:19-20) identified several of these behavioural effects that contribute to the improvement of the welfare of the organisation:

- The activities in the formulation of strategy improve the problem prevention capabilities of the organisation. The result of encouraging and rewarding subordinates giving attention to planning

considerations is that subordinates support managers in their monitoring and forecasting responsibilities.

- Group-based strategic decisions are likely to reflect the best available alternatives. Better decisions are outcomes of the process for two reasons:
  - o generating alternative strategies is facilitated by group interaction; and
  - o screening of options is improved because group members offer forecasts based on their specialised perspectives.

- Employee motivation is improved as employees better appreciate the relationships between productivity and reward. When employees participate in the strategy formulation process, a better understanding of the priorities and operation of the organisation's reward system is achieved.

- Differences and overlaps in activities among different individuals and groups are reduced as participation in strategy formulation leads to a clarification of role differentiation. The group meeting format, which is characteristic of several stages of a strategy formulation process, promotes an understanding of individual and subgroup responsibilities.

- Resistance to change is reduced through the required participation of employees as it helps eliminate the uncertainty associated with change. The acceptance of new plans is more likely if employees are aware of the boundaries that limit the available options.

6.7 Risks or unintended negative consequences of strategic management

Due to the lengthy process of strategic management, there are certain risks or negative consequences resulting from it. Pearce & Robinson (1988:20) identified them but also made suggestions for the handling thereof:

- The strategic management process is costly in terms of hours invested by participants. The negative effects of managers spending time away from work should also be considered as having an effect in terms of costs. Managers must be trained to schedule their duties to provide the necessary time for strategic activities while minimising any negative impact on operational responsibilities.

- If the formulators of strategy are not involved in the implementation of the strategy, individual responsibility for input to the decision process and subsequent conclusions can be neglected.

- Strategic managers must be trained to anticipate, minimise or constructively respond when participating subordinates become disappointed or frustrated when expectations are not achieved. It frequently happens that subordinates perceive an implied guarantee that their involvement in strategy formulation will result in acceptance of their preferred plan and an increase in clearly associated rewards. They may also make the wrong conclusion that a strategic manager's application of their input on selected issues will extend to other areas of decision making. Managers should be sensitive to these issues and be prepared with effective means of neutralising or minimising such negative consequences.

The second and third consequences as identified can create the most problems. Managers must ensure that within their own sections, employees understand and accept full responsibility for participating in decision making and the implementing of decisions.

6.8 Conclusion

Strategic management as a management strategy can be implemented with success but it requires total commitment and understanding from the manager and his subordinates. Bunning (1992:59) suggests that a staff development program be available to enhance, when necessary, the knowledge, skills and attitudes required at various levels for the successful implementation of the strategic plan. He also indicates that the reward systems of the organisation be reviewed to ensure that the new behaviours required by the strategic plan are acknowledged and rewarded. Plans should be closely linked with the financial budget to ensure that funds are allocated to the areas of intended activity. By implementing these suggestions the likelihood of the strategic planning to achieve the intended level of change and development will increase as employees will be motivated to participate.

7. SUMMARY

A wide variety of information was available on management strategies. This chapter aimed at discussing five management strategies i.e. performance management, management by objectives, strategic human resource development, management information systems and strategic management as possible support systems for managers in the management of their work load and their subordinates.

In the discussion of performance management attention was given to the objectives of performance appraisal and the performance management process. Certain implementation issues in performance management were identified and discussed. The problems that can be experienced in performance management as well as the benefits that can be derived from effective implementation of performance management were identified to be important as it could have an influence on performance management being a support to managers. Managerial performance management was identified as a neglected area as managers experience themselves as being above evaluation. Potential appraisers such as peer appraisers, self-appraisal and subordinate appraisal were identified and their value within the performance appraisal process discussed. Performance appraisal instruments were only briefly discussed.

Management by objectives is a management strategy that has objectives as central component. Objectives were thus extensively discussed as well as the characteristics of MBO. It was indicated that the implementation of a MBO strategy within an organisation rely on the training managers and employees receive on the strategy. The decision to implement MBO within an organisation has to flow down from top management to employees to ensure acceptance of the strategy. The

limitations and benefits of MBO were discussed with emphasis on the role of management in the process. The MBO process can be implemented on two levels: senior management planning objectives for the organisation and individual employees planning individual objectives for themselves within their sections.

The importance of training and development of managers was stressed in the discussion of strategic human resource development as management strategy. Clarity was provided on the concepts of education, training and development. The SHRD model was discussed but the training and development process was identified as the responsibility of the middle manager. The SHRD model implied the development of a HRD strategy for the organisation. A multiple possible training techniques such as computer based training, case studies, role play, outdoor training, mentoring and peer training were identified and discussed. The benefits of training and development for the organisation as well as the individual employee were identified and discussed.

Management Information Systems as a management strategy have many possibilities. However, the attitudes of organisations toward providing managers with access to these systems need to be changed. It was found that different MIS are applicable to different management levels in an organisation – top management has access to all systems, middle management has access to systems on their level and the lower level and the operational employees have access only to systems applicable to their service delivery. The available and applicable software were briefly indicated but it was recommended that an organisation has to do research in order to establish which type of hardware and software will serve their specific purpose. The limitations of MIS and computer technology were highlighted as it has an impact on decisions concerning this technology.

Strategic management was the most difficult of the five identified management strategies to be discussed, as its process is very comprehensive. The levels of strategic planning i.e. strategic planning, tactical planning and operational planning provided more clarity on the responsibilities of the different levels of management within the strategic planning process. The process of strategic planning was discussed according to three phases enclosing eleven steps and researcher made a suggestion on the practical implementation of the process within one section of an organisation. The benefits and the risks of strategic management indicated that certain positive behavioural consequences could be experienced as well as unintended negative consequences with the implementation of strategic management as management strategy.

CHAPTER FIVE

OTHER SUPPORT SYSTEMS

1. INTRODUCTION

Within organisations certain systems can be identified as possible support systems for supervisors or managers. These systems could provide supervisors with the necessary support in the sense of giving them strength, encouragement and motivation to continue with their effective functioning within difficult management circumstances.

The systems discussed in this chapter are indicated as procedures, interventions or individuals available to employees within the organisation. These systems should be effective for employees to identify the value thereof and to be motivated to utilise the systems to their own benefit. Although these systems might be available within the organisation, employees might not have the knowledge to utilise of them effectively.

The systems identified as possible support systems and discussed in this chapter are employee benefits, employee incentives, job descriptions, knowledge of the budget and financial controls, employee assistance programs, the supervisors' peer support group, career planning, organisational culture, organisational climate and the immediate superior. In the discussion efforts are made to identify the elements and the procedures of operation of the systems.

2. EMPLOYEE BENEFITS

2.1 Introduction

Employee benefits are available to all employees according to their position levels within a specific organisation. These benefits are not related to performance but are part of the employment package when an employee accepts a job offer from an organisation. Benefits can have an indirect influence on work performance as it contributes to the upliftment of the morale of employees.

Haimann (1994:338) identifies morale within the workplace as "...a composite of feelings, sentiments, attitudes, satisfaction, well-being and happiness that every employee experiences throughout his employment..." at an organisation. Factors that have an influence on the morale of employees are factors that originate mainly within the scope of the activities the social work supervisor or manager performs, such as benefits, incentives, working conditions and the quality of supervision.

Since many employee benefits are part of a hidden payroll, their value must be regularly and clearly communicated to all employees through all available media to ensure awareness amongst

employees of the available benefits. McCaffery (1992:234) indicates that communication within an organisation is the keystone to the management of employee benefits. Researcher supports the reasons for his statement:

- Employees must be made aware of the benefits provided by their organisation. Simply handing out summary descriptions of the available employee benefits is not sufficient. Employees have to be reminded of their coverage periodically and must know how to apply for the benefits.
- The information on the benefits provided to employees must be understandable for them to gain full advantage.
- Employees must get immediate answers to their questions and be able to trust the information they receive.

2.2 Planning environment for employee benefits

Policy indicating the fundamental purpose and guiding principles of employee benefits available in the organisation is essential. Operational planning should make provision for improvements of employee benefits and annual goals must be set for the implementation of changes. McCaffery's (1992:20) illustration of the planning environment for employee benefits is indicated in Figure 5.1.

It is evident from Figure 5.1 that a policy on employee benefits can never be stagnant. Continuous attention should be given to employee benefits as internal and external circumstances have an influence on its effectiveness. There is a close link between the planning environment as identified by McCaffery (1992:20) and the issues that should receive attention in the revision and improvement of an organisation's employee benefits policy as identified and addressed by Hume (1995:152-154).

The planning environment of employee benefits is discussed according to the information gained from the above mentioned authors.

2.2.1 Which employee benefits should be provided? The actual or perceived needs of employees as well as their expectations are considered when deciding upon the content of employee benefits. Organisations must ensure the provision of any benefits is cost-effective by assisting in the achievement of organisational objectives and therefore justify expenditure.

2.2.2 On what scale should employee benefits be provided? When designing employee benefits, the cost of the benefits in relation to the cash element of remuneration in the form of salary or wage should be considered. The employer must decide what proportion of the total remuneration package he is willing to devote to benefits. Whatever scale of employee benefits the organisation decides upon, it must support their objectives and mission statement.

Figure 5.1   EMPLOYEE BENEFITS PLANNING ENVIRONMENT

(McCaffery, 1992:20.)
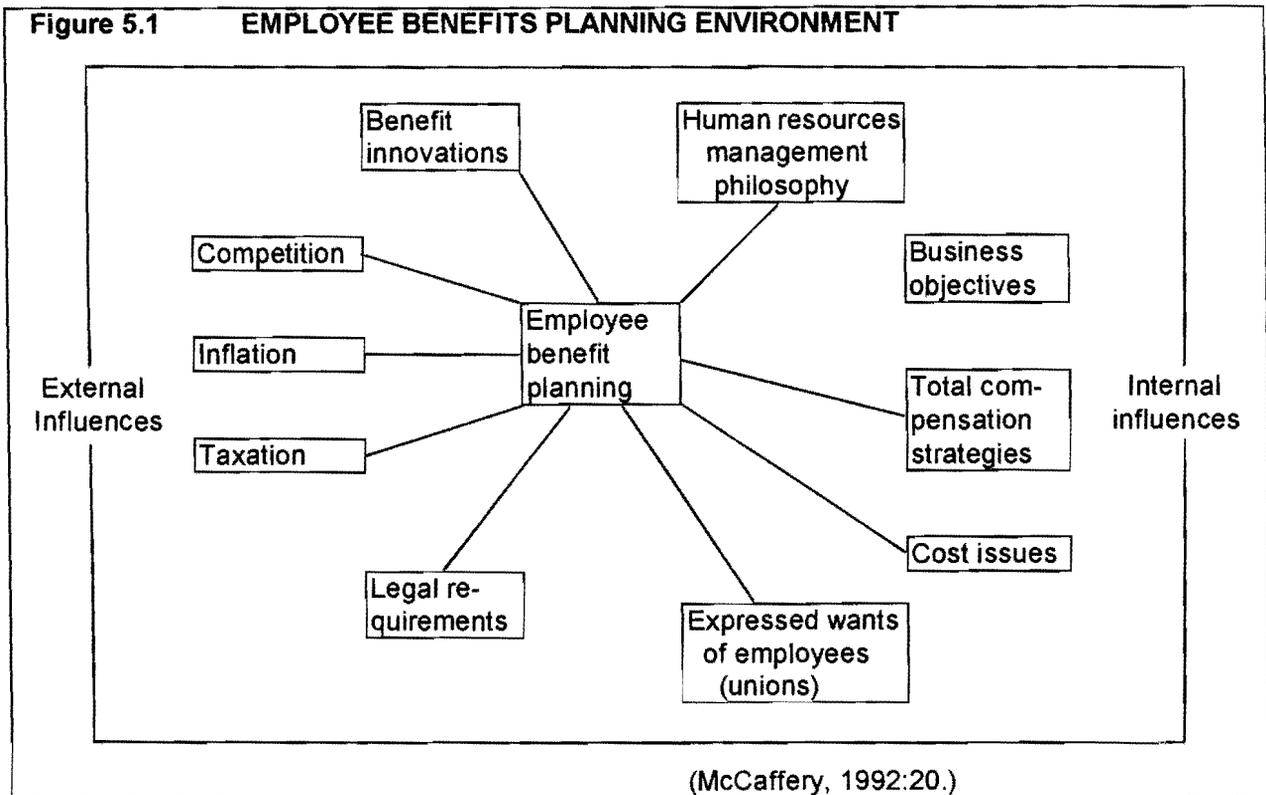
2.2.3 Should employees be given an element of choice regarding their benefits package? Since every individual has a unique set of physiological, cognitive and social needs, it is inevitable that each employee's opinion regarding the ideal benefits package will be different. In an attempt to overcome this problem, it may be desirable to allow employees a certain amount of choice regarding the content of their benefits package.

2.2.4 How should the employee benefits be allocated? There are three possibilities:

- The content of the benefits package to be identical for all employees, any differentiation regarding aspects such as responsibility and contribution should be reflected only in pay.

- A hierarchy of employee benefits, the type and range of benefits dependent primarily on grades of employee and seniority within the organisation.

- One range of benefits for all employees with an additional range of benefits dependent on the individual's position within the organisational hierarchy.

2.2.5 Should there be a relationship between the employee benefits package and the financial position of the organisation? It may be beneficial and socially acceptable to provide employees with comprehensive and competitive benefits, but the present and future financial position of the organisation must be able to support such an initiative.

2.2.6 Should representatives of employees be consulted regarding the employee benefits policy? It is probably sensible to involve the representatives in negotiations regarding the formulation of an employee benefits policy. As in most decision making processes, if the individuals who are affected by the benefits package are involved in the design stage, they are more likely to be committed to the end product.

2.2.7 What should be the approach to devising a benefits package for key employees? There are always likely to be skills and qualifications that are short in supply within of an organisation. In order to attract and retain employees, who possess such skills and qualifications, it is often necessary to offer a total remuneration package, which not only equals that of competing employers but also is considered to be more attractive. In relation to the remuneration package, it may be appropriate to offer to key employees a competitive selection of benefits, such as an executive company car and improved pension arrangements.

By asking these questions and objectively answering them, an organisation can develop a policy on employee benefits acceptable to all employees. Unfortunately, organisations do not actively plan to revise or improve their policies on employee benefits. Considering the planning environment, it is evident that it is a huge and responsible task and organisations seldom have the personnel with the time and necessary skills to attend to it. However, it is recommended that organisations must make provision for revision and improvement of these policies in their strategic planning - at least attend to it within a five year planning framework.

2.3 Motivation for providing benefits to employees

The development of a policy on employee benefits and the responsibility to ensure the policy is implemented correctly and employees do receive benefits can be avoided by just remunerating employees on a higher scale. However, Snape, Redman & Bamber (1994:147-148) and Hume (1995:155-156) have identified reasons for organisations to offer benefits packages to employees rather than simply providing them with the whole amount in cash:

- The provision of employee benefits is an effective method of rewarding employees without the limitation of the taxation implications applied to cash payments. Employers are concerned to provide benefits that minimise the tax liability for themselves and the employees.
- Some positions necessitate the provision of certain remuneration benefits - the work requires that employees be provided with particular benefits to allow them to fulfil their duties e.g. mobile telephone, company car and specific clothing.
- A competitive employee benefits package is a method of attracting and retaining employees. This is specifically applicable in the competition for managerial talent.
- Provision of particular remuneration benefits motivates employees to increase their commitment to the organisation.
- The provision of employee benefits can encourage specific forms of desired behaviour.
- The provision of employee benefits promotes a paternalistic and caring attitude towards employment conditions for employees.
- Benefits must hold a value for the employee. The employee has a variety of needs and expectations, including current income, longer term security, recognition and status. Providing

cash may not necessarily be the most effective way of satisfying each of these needs and expectations. Through an outstanding benefit such as a company car, the need for status can be satisfied.

2.4 Operational conditions for employee benefits

It is to the advantage of the employee to receive a benefits package. It is argued that the individual employee may have input in the development of this benefits package. However, certain conditions are applicable for the operation of the package (Tyson & York, 1996:188). The conclusion is made that these conditions are applied unconditionally with the exclusion of the last condition as listed below as the human resource personnel of organisations are not trained or skilled to provide the statements or the counselling.

- Certain important elements in the package cannot be traded or changed, such as a significant proportion of base pay, pension, life insurance and medical insurance.
- There are rules concerning how the benefits can be changed, e.g. the extent to which the model of a company car can be traded up or down.
- There is a limited list of benefits in the package.
- Employees are only allowed to make changes and to exercise their flexible options at specific times, e.g. when the car is due for change.
- Employees should periodically receive a detailed statement and sometimes free financial counselling on the employee benefits package.

2.5 Identified employee benefits

The following employee benefits are identified and divided according to the following categories:

2.5.1 Time-off employee benefits

- Paid rest periods or on-the-job breaks e.g. lunch, coffee/tea breaks, travel time. These benefits are beneficial to the health and attitudes of employees. It is subjected to specified time limits, but the adherence to these limits depends on a combination of employee respect and supervisory observation. The total costs of paid rest periods are rarely included in statements on employee benefits and employees are not inclined to recognise such costs as meaningful. The costs can be considerable either in terms of work not completed or in terms of extra personnel required to absorb the loss of productive time.
- Sick days. Certain cycles of sick leave are available to employees.
- Annual leave. Reasons for granting annual leave are:
  - Employees need time away from the physical demands and mental stresses of their work.
  - Employees are rewarded with vacations in exchange for their commitment of service to the organisation.
- Holidays - e.g. Christmas Day.
- Maternity leave and maternity pay.

- Career breaks - also referred to as long leave.

- Study leave.

- Paid personal absences for events beyond the control of the employee that causes absence e.g. military service, death of a close relative and graduation ceremonies.

(Weiner, 1982:482; McCaffery, 1992:168; Werther & Davis, 1993:478-479 and Hume, 1995:164-165.)

2.5.2 Work scheduling benefits

- Shorter work weeks.

- Flexible work schedules. Employees are given autonomy to adjust their work schedule to fit their life styles and to choose the hours they prefer to work.

- Job sharing e.g. two persons doing the same job but working different hours and/or days.

- Working shifts.

- Compressed work week.

- Part time employment.

(Matteson & Ivancevich, 1987:148; Werther & Davis, 1993:480-481; Haimann, 1994:120.)

2.5.3 Employee benefits related to financial security and assistance:

- Pension schemes represent postponed pay and are critical in providing employees with long-term security. For junior staff the pension scheme may appear remote and be of little immediate interest, whilst for more senior employees, the pension scheme may be the key benefit when it comes to considering a job move.

- Company cars are of major significance as highly visible status symbols. In addition to the value of the use of the car, there is the benefit of the relief from concerns of car purchase, depreciation and maintenance. There are conditions, linked with the job content, controlling the award of a company car.

- Health insurance. Corporate health insurance schemes attract a discount on services available to the individual. It provides a degree of security for the employee, with the advantage to the employer that key staff receives immediate, high quality treatment, contributing to effective performance.

- Medical schemes. The employee has the choice of available medical schemes and the organisation contributes towards the monthly premium according to a specific formula e.g. the employee pays two thirds and the organisation one third of the premium.

- Group disability and survivor benefits. The employer provides disability benefits for different classifications of employees. Survivor benefits are provided to survivors of deceased employees based on salary levels and the cause of death rather than the status or needs of the survivors.

- Personal accident insurance.

- Business travels insurance and travel allowances.

- Sabbaticals.
- Long service awards.
- Child care such as an employer-sponsored child care centre.
- Elder care. The attendance and productivity of employees having care giving responsibilities for an older adult (parent, grandparent, spouse) are affected by this kind of responsibility. Many organisations offer their employees assistance through flexible work schedules and programs.
- Adoption benefits. This is a sponsored program financially assisting or reimbursing employees for expenses related to the adoption of a child and making provision for paid or unpaid leave for the adoptive parent employee.
- Sports and social facilities within the physical work environment.
- Subsidised catering / luncheon vouchers.
- Mobile phone / telephone costs.
- Free or discounted parking.
- Working condition fringe benefits such as the use of a company car for business purposes.
- Clothing allowance / company uniform.
- Funding for training or studies.

(McCaffery, 1992:75-107,171-177, 187 and Hume, 1995:166-167.)

2.6 Conclusion

It is difficult to comprehend that so many employee benefits are available for implementation in different organisations. It is obviously impossible to apply all the identified benefits in one organisation. The fact that so many employee benefits are available is an important motivation for organisations to revise and improve their policy on employee benefits regularly.

It is recommended that, depending on the type of organisation, as many as possible of the identified employee benefits should be available. Benefits with a financial impact, however, should be linked to the financial position of the organisation. Individual employees should have the opportunity to choose from a range of benefits and thus have a direct input in their benefits package.

3. EMPLOYEE INCENTIVES

3.1 Introduction

An incentive is described as an incitement, encouragement, a stimulus and an inducement applied particularly to increase output within the work situation. Holt (1987:389) describes employee incentives as compensation methods rewarding employees in an equitable manner for effective performance. Incentives are 'allowances' (additional pay) an employee is entitled to according to performance on the expected standard.

Employee incentives are related and directly linked to the performance of employees. As with employee benefits, organisations must have policies in terms of employee incentives. Employee incentives or the lack thereof, have a significant influence on the effective and efficient functioning of employees. Managers must ensure that they are well informed on the available employee incentives in their organisation as well as the application procedures thereof.

Awarding incentives to employees should be handled with caution and care. It should be based on specific practical guidelines to prevent some employees from benefiting to the detriment of other employees. Performance appraisal is the instrument that can ensure equality in awarding incentives. Managers should continually be aware of the needs and expectations of employees related to incentives.

3.2 Employee expectations related to incentives

Employee incentives should have a significant influence on the attitudes, the motivation and the work satisfaction of employees. According to the Harvard Business Review Book (1990:15-17), Baron (1993:257-258) and Snape, et al (1994:157), if incentive systems are to have this influence on employees, their needs and expectations related to incentives should be considered:

- An employee's satisfaction with incentives is related to what he expects and what he receives. Feelings of satisfaction or dissatisfaction arise when employees compare their input (skills, education, effort, and performance) to output.
- Employee satisfaction is also affected by comparisons they make with employees in similar positions and organisations. Employees tend to overestimate the pay of fellow employees in similar positions and underestimate their performance. This misperception can cause employees to become dissatisfied.
- An employee may believe that his salary level compares favourably to those salary levels of others inside and outside the organisation and therefore he may be satisfied with the salary. However, the same employee may be dissatisfied with the pay system if it is designed to reward performance, but employees who perform well are not rewarded because they will not participate in organisational politics. There is evidence within the changed work environment that political connections and dependence on the expertise of subordinates do sometimes play a role in decisions of managers concerning pay raises or incentives awarded.
- Overall satisfaction with incentives results from a mix of rewards rather than from single rewards.
- To motivate employees through incentives, certain conditions must be met:
  o employees must believe that effective performance leads to certain rewards;
  o employees must feel that rewards offered are attractive; and
  o employees must believe that a certain level of individual effort will lead to achieving the standards of performance as set by the organisation.

- Extrinsic rewards are expected to come from the organisation as money or promotion and from the supervisor or co-workers as recognition.

- Intrinsic rewards are related to the performance of the task itself. It may include satisfaction in terms of accomplishment or the sense of having influence. The work process and the individual response to it provide the intrinsic reward.

- The organisation seeking to increase intrinsic rewards must provide a work environment that allows these satisfactions to occur.

- Employee incentives should be related to objectives over which the employee has significant influence.

- Incentives should be visible to all concerned.

- Employee incentives should be given immediately. Rewards have to follow performance without undue delay.

3.3 Types of employee incentives

3.3.1 Short-term employee incentives

Employee incentives are based on the achievement of the short-term objectives of the organisation. It rewards the performance of employees on a once-off basis. The following employee incentives are short-term:

- Profit-sharing plans: All employees can participate in this plan. The management sets aside a predetermined percentage of pre-tax profits to share with employees if the organisation achieves its financial targets. If the targets are successfully achieved, employees receive lump sum awards. The aim is to provide employees the sense of participating in the future growth of the organisation. Researcher makes the conclusion that profit sharing plans have limited advantages as only strong for-profit organisations can apply this incentive.

- Profit related pay: Profit related pay is defined as being an element of an employee's pay but formally linked to the profits of the organisation. When the profits of the organisation increase, the profit related pay element of pay also increases. When profits fall, so does the profit related pay element of the pay. The problem with this incentive is that employees can become dependent on the additional pay they receive. They will not be able to cope with their pay if the profit and thus their pay decrease.

- Cash bonuses / Production bonuses: The aim of bonus schemes is to provide an incentive for high levels of effort and performance. Bonus payments are related to the quantitative and qualitative aspects of group or individual performance and are effective remuneration approaches in the motivation of employees. This type of employee incentive is flexible as it is based on obtained financial or non-financial group performance goals. The flexibility is important, since it allows for qualitative criteria e.g. completing a project ahead of schedule.

Employees are rewarded for saving time. Cash bonuses are made in lump sum amounts and on a once-off basis. Researcher supports the fact that this incentive can contribute to motivating employees toward high levels of performance.

- Individual bonus schemes: This employee incentive is directed at individual employees and has certain advantages:
    - Rewards employees for high levels of performance.
    - The schemes are simple enough to allow for easy administration.
    - It is simple enough for employees to understand.
    - Lump sum cash payments appeal to some people.
    - Time differences between performance and payment are usually minimal.
    - Bonuses are linked to achievements and targets from which a reward and an incentive are created.

    Disadvantages of the system:
    - It is sometimes difficult to create a consistent relationship between the performance and the reward.
    - It is difficult to apply to employees who do not have an easily quantifiable output.

- Performance related cash bonuses: This type of bonuses are directed at senior executives and the aim is to make pay an incentive and to link it to the achievement of organisational objectives. Since such bonuses are usually not accumulated into basic salary, managers are effectively being asked to accept a greater risk element in their remuneration package. Such bonuses are related to target levels of performance, although it is also common to incorporate personal performance in the calculation of the bonus. A typical scheme for senior executives would involve an annual lump sum bonus related to the achievement of profit targets. It is recommended that this incentive should be applied with caution. An organisation using performance related bonuses must be certain that the senior executives, who qualify for the incentive, are persons of high quality and skill who are able to handle the risk effectively.

- Incentives for piecework: This refers to compensating the employee for each unit of output. It involves designed standards of hourly or daily production. Employees receive a basic wage for production meeting the prescribed standard and incentive payments for production above the standard. Incentives can only be paid for piecework that are quantifiable measurable. Types of piecework are:
    - Straight piecework where employees are paid a flat rate (piece rate) for each item / operation completed.
    - Differential piecework refers to the adjustment of the piece rate as production rate increases. Whilst the employee's earnings continue to increase as production increases, the rate at which earnings increase declines after a specified production level.

- o Measured day work relies on work measurement to ascertain the appropriate daily production level for each individual.

- o Group incentive schemes are applicable if the production output of the work group reaches a predetermined and agreed level, the employees within that work group receive a cash payment which can either be paid equally to the individuals or proportionally according to each individual's input.

- **Overtime payments:** This is an incentive of a 'non-contractual' nature wherein payment is only made if the employee was required to work the excess hours. The payment of overtime pay is generally held to be reasonable as long as the nature and amount of overtime working is strictly controlled. Employees do not work well and consistently if excessive overtime is worked and they should never be allowed to take on too much to supplement what they may perceive to be an inadequate basic salary. Managers and professionals rarely receive overtime pay. If a professional works 8 hours overtime, he can take off 8 hours with pay at some time that is mutually convenient for the professional and the organisation. The conclusion is made that the payment of overtime to professionals is a disputable aspect handled differently within different organisations. Taking time off as compensation is not a convenient way out.

- **Sales incentives:** These incentives are applicable to only sales staff. Employees are given a choice on the work they do, where they concentrate their efforts and how they plan their time. Pay increases are linked to specific individual contributions, such as the satisfactory completion of a major project or meeting a quantitative sales target. The basis for all sales incentive schemes is a relationship between the levels of sales value (performance) and the pay of the employee - as the sales levels increase, so should the level of pay. Types of sales incentives: commission only; salary and bonus; salary and commission; salary and bonus and commission. Commission refers to the payment of a percentage of the selling price.

- **Pay-for-knowledge:** Compensation is provided to employees through higher pay and/or an once-off amount calculated as a percentage of the employee's base salary scale for each new skill they learned or additional diploma or certificate they obtained.

- **Merit pay:** It is based on a systematic salary structure, a formal appraisal system and a more or less systematic link between appraised performance and individual rewards. Also referred to as pay for performance or performance related pay. It includes incentives where increases are discretionary and not automatic and based on individual assessment. The central feature of merit pay is the reward of remuneration in the return for the achievement of a predetermined level of performance. Crucial to the success of any merit payment system is an effective method of assessing the performance of employees. The assessment is used to determine

whether or not the employee has satisfied the necessary 'merit criteria' and is eligible for a remuneration reward.

(Weiner, 1982:481; Von Glinow, 1988:59-60; National Research Council, 1991:23,78-79; Harrison, 1993:281-282,287; Werther & Davis, 1993:446; Snape, et al., 1994:132,138-139; Hume, 1995:186-187,189-190,194-196,200,201-203 and Tyson & York, 1996:186-187.)

3.3.2 Long-term employee incentives

These incentives are grant awards based on performance over a period of time longer than one year. It is designed to reward sustained performance consistent with the goals of the organisation. The following employee incentives are indicated (Von Glinow, 1988:60; Harvard Business Review Book, 1990:44; Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, 1990:19; Werther & Davis, 1993:446-448 and Snape, et al., 1994:140) to be long-term in nature:

- Stock options: This incentive involves the granting of company stock to initially attract and then reward managers. It is only available to a selected few within the executive management of an organisation.
- Stock purchase plans: These are long-term incentive plans for firms trading stock on the public market. Employees are able to purchase company stock at a discount from market price and the firm makes up the difference.
- Maturity curves: This incentive makes adjustments to the top of the rate range for selected positions where employees are rated on productivity and on experience.
- Share option schemes: This involves granting the employee the option to purchase shares in the company at some future date at a specified price, based on the share price ruling at the date the option was granted. The employee will only be able to exercise the option to buy the shares after, say, three years have past and the option is withdrawn if in the meantime the employee leaves the organisation. The benefit to the recipient comes partly from any discount offered on the original share price, but mainly from any increase in the market price of the shares following the granting of the option. The main advantage is the fact that managers are discouraged from leaving the organisation. As in the case of stock options, this incentive is only available to a selected few within the executive management of an organisation.

3.4 Coordinated approach

Many employee incentives are available and a coordinated approach in applying incentives can be effective. Such approach can result in motivating desired behaviour; attracting and keeping achievement orientated employees; and retaining good performers and discouraging poor performers. A coordinated approach indicates the provision of a range of incentives to employees but aimed at different time scales. Snape, et al (1994:143) gives the following example: a remuneration package consisting of performance related pay increments, annual cash bonuses

linked to the achievement of specific job targets, profit sharing and a share option scheme for executives and senior managers.

3.5 Conclusion

Effectively implementing employee incentives is a necessity as it has an important influence on the motivation of employees and their work performance. All of the above mentioned incentives cannot be implemented in all organisations, as the type of organisation determines which incentives will be most effective within the specific work environment and the type of service rendered. Whichever employee incentive is applied, the management must ensure that it is utilised continually and correctly.

4. JOB DESCRIPTION

4.1 Introduction

The assumption is made that every position in any organisation has a job description. Every employee thus knows what his position entails and what the organisation expects him to do. When a new employee accepts employment at a specific organisation, he has to know what will be expected of him. The availability of a correct job description ensures effective workflow within the organisation resulting in the achievement of organisational objectives.

Employees have to know when they are performing well. They will know they are performing well when their actions are guided by detailed job descriptions written in terms of what is expected of an employee in the specific position. The implication is that specific standards are set according to which it will be easy to determine if an employee is performing well. Since the employee knows what is expected of him, he will know according to which standards he will be evaluated and he will be able to identify his training needs. This contributes to employees being motivated to be effective in their work performance.

4.2 Contents of a job description

For the purposes of this study, the contents of a job description as identified by Tyson & York (1996:74) are accepted. A job description contains the following details:

- Basic details - exact title and grade, location of office, area of operation.
- Purpose - objectives and relationship to the aim of the organisation.
- Main tasks and key areas. Occasional tasks. Secondary duties, hours of work.
- Standards for effective performance of tasks. Criteria indicating that tasks have been effectively performed.
- Responsibilities linked to the level of the position in organisational structure. Manager/supervisor to whom employee is accountable. Subordinate staff for whom employee is responsible. Responsibilities for finance, materials, equipment, and classified information.
- Physical and social environment - particular features of work environment, contacts with others.

- Training/education - on-the-job training and educational courses normally associated with the position.
- Advancement opportunities - for promotion and career development.
- Conditions of employment - salary and benefits, possible overtime requirements, medical and pension schemes, welfare, social and other facilities, leave entitlement, special employment conditions applicable to the position.
- Job circumstances referring to aspects of the position commonly accepted as being pleasant or unpleasant and easy or demanding.

4.3 Fundamental concepts influencing the job description

The compilation of a job description is a complicated task. Researcher has identified (Koontz, et al., 1984:398-399; Miner & Luchsinger, 1985:419; Holt, 1987:338-339; Broadwell, 1987:74; Burack & Mathys, 1988:72,79; Broadwell, 1990:101-102; Jeanneret, 1991:143-144; Werther & Davis, 1993:135, 140, 146-152; Harris & DeSimone, 1994:41-42; Watling, 1995:21 and Tyson & York, 1996:74) the following fundamental concepts necessary to understand the complete concept of a job description. The concepts are mostly interlinked and can be confusing. However, it is important that they be addressed within the job description to ensure the job description is comprehensive and fulfils its purpose: the employee understands his responsibilities, the expectations he has to meet as well as the standards for evaluation.

4.3.1 Job description

The job description provides a clear idea of the performance requirements of an employee in a particular position. It may allow some flexibility to take advantage of individual characteristics and abilities. It is a written statement of the tasks, duties and behaviours required in a given position. It provides an explanation of the duties, working conditions and other aspects of a specified position; in other words, it provides a profile of the position. The reporting relationships, overall job responsibilities, detailed job responsibilities and cooperative working relationships are outlined.

4.3.2 Person specification

This concept refers to the description of the requirements for effective performance in personal terms. Job responsibilities are interpreted in terms of desired skills, experience, education and training. A profile of the human characteristics of the employee in the specific position e.g. experience, education, training, physical and mental characteristics is compiled. The formal degree of preparation, skills and demonstrated competency and the informal physical and mental capabilities expected from employees for given positions are spelt out. Responsibility is indicated according to the perceived degree of accountability including appropriate attitudes, values and beliefs implicit in positions. General and specific health requirements are indicated. Special conditions linked to the position such as travel and after hour responsibilities are listed.

4.3.3 Job analysis

The job analysis is a systematic process of collecting, organising, analysing and documenting the content, requirements and context of a collective set of work activities performed by one or more employees. The job analysis makes it possible to accurately establish the work related requirements of targeted positions. An abilities assessment is done that helps to determine the relative importance of the abilities necessary for job success. At the same time the assessment permits the comparison of an employee's scope and degree of abilities against what is needed.

Specifications that have an influence on the position and employee have to be specifically attended to during the job analysis. These specifications are aspects such as physical physique and appearance, academic attainments, mental alertness, special aptitudes, personal interests and motivation. The job analysis does a comprehensive investigation on the job duties of each employee.

According to Raelin (1984:130-138) the rationale for undertaking a job analysis is three-fold:
- There are many skills and abilities an employee performs in his work. Without careful analysis, only a few of the key activities might come to mind, overlooking a number of secondary but critical tasks and skills.
- Career mobility inside an organisation can be opposed if management does not know the critical activities associated with certain positions. Employees cannot be prepared to take anyone's place since information on job behaviours is largely unavailable.
- Performance in a position is more appropriately evaluated against the key behaviours of the position as opposed to some gross measures of performance.

Researcher supports the recommendation made by Schein (1993:4) namely that every manager and employee should conduct an annual job and role analysis of his own position. They should participate with others in analysing the positions of all subordinates, key peers and superiors with whom organisational relationships exist. An organisation cannot achieve its strategic objectives until they have been translated into concrete goals. Goals cannot be met until they have been clearly understood by employees. Understanding requires not only self-insight but also clear communication of expectations on the part of managers, peers and subordinates. Joint job and role analysis is the means of achieving such understanding and insight.

Schein (1993:11-41) proposes a job analysis process consisting of five steps:
Step 1 - Employee analyses his present job and role
Step 2 - Analyse changes in the environment
Step 3 - Analyse the impact of the identified environmental changes on stakeholders and the job
Step 4 - Redefine the job and role
Step 5 - Redefine the requirements for doing the job and fulfilling the role

Researcher adds a sixth step:

Step 6 – Compile job description

The result of the job analysis is that employees are clear on their expectations and performance standards. The achievement of individual goals as well as organisational goals provide job satisfaction and motivation and employees experience themselves as being performing according to expected standards.

4.3.4 Job design

Employee productivity and satisfaction provide feedback on how well a job is designed. Job design and job analysis are closely linked - a job cannot be designed without first conducting a job analysis. Job design implies the grouping of tasks into natural work units, putting tasks that are related into one category and assigning an employee to perform the tasks. Vertical job loading is also a means of designing a job as it results in increasing the individual employee's responsibility for planning, controlling and performing his work. Factors that influence job designing in an organisation are job requirements of the organisation; the nature of the task and the technology related to the job; the organisational structure; and the costs of changing to new job designs. Researcher recommends that job design should be addressed as a specific element of the job description to ensure clarity on specific tasks.

4.3.5 Position

A position refers to a specific set of tasks and duties performed by a specific employee in an organisation at a particular time. It entails an organised and related group of duties and tasks to be performed by an employee.

4.3.6 Position analysis

A position analysis is a study of the tasks and duties that are performed by one person.

4.3.7 Job family

A job family is a collection of two or more positions that require similar employee characteristics or contain parallel tasks.

4.3.8 Job

Jobs are described as very similar positions within an organisation; the number depends on the scope of the organisation and can be as small as one. It can also be seen as a group of positions that are nearly identical with respect to primary duties and tasks and are sufficiently similar to be included under one title.

4.3.9 Job title

The job title refers to what the job is called within the organisation and outside it, including alternative and slang titles.

4.3.10 Occupation

Occupations refer to similar jobs existing in different organisations and at different points in time.

4.3.11 Work activities

Work activities indicate what needs doing, including the tasks and duties, materials used, machinery operated, required interaction with others, supervision given and received and reporting relationships. Variety in work activities ensures a number of different tasks or actions as prescribed with respect to defined roles and job expectations. The degree to which employees have discretion to make decisions about activities associated with their positions is related to the delegated authority linked to the performance of the work activities.

4.3.12 Task

A task refers to a distinct work activity performed with a specific purpose. Can also be described as a specific or discrete unit of work activity that typically has a beginning and end point.

4.3.13 Duty

Duty refers to a collection of related tasks that comprise a large segment of work activities.

4.3.14 Physical environment

The physical environment refers to the physical working conditions, including heat, lighting, noise, ventilation, geographical location and safety hazards.

4.3.15 Social environment

The social environment of an organisation consists of the nature and number of employees in the work environment as well as nearby facilities and recreational opportunities.

4.3.16 Employment conditions

These conditions are determined by the level of the position in the organisation in such terms as wage structure, working hours, payment method, position permanency, seasonal or part-time nature, benefits, relation to other positions and job families and opportunities for transfer and promotion.

4.3.17 Interactions

Distinction is made between:

- Required interaction referring to the necessary or prescribed interdependence between employees who must cooperate to ensure tasks are accomplished.

- Optional interaction with the purpose of voluntary cooperation, communication or joint efforts to be incorporated into tasks.

4.3.18 Abilities

Abilities are general capabilities related to the performance of a set of tasks, developed over time through the interaction and experience. Abilities are long-lasting.

4.3.19 Skills

Skills are a combination of abilities and capabilities developed as a result of training and experience. Skills are often categorised as psychomotor activities (while abilities tend to be more cognitive) and are typically measured in terms of the ease and precision evident in the performance of some task.

4.4 Benefits of job description for the individual employee and the organisation

- The employee has a concise picture of why he is employed.
- Employees can see what results are expected (at least in a general sense).
- The employee can easily identify how he will be assessed.
- The parameters for authority and accountability are clear.
- Given the 'big picture' i.e. the mission statement, the value of this specific position for the organisation can be identified.
- The job description assists in placing the right person in the right position.
- Enthusiasm and morale are enhanced to a higher level when job descriptions are available to individual employees.
- As the expectations of specific positions are clear and accessible through job descriptions, career development planning is made easier.
- The job description provides the opportunity for personal development being more precise.
- There is more efficiency and effectiveness throughout the organisation as tasks and responsibilities are clear.

4.5 Conclusion

The importance of a job description for each employee cannot be overestimated. Certain actions and activities will not be performed if employees are not provided with job descriptions. It contributes towards planning for future human resource requirements, as clarity is available on what the tasks and responsibilities of all positions in an organisation entail. It is thus evident that a job description is important for the individual employee as well as for the organisation.

5. KNOWLEDGE OF BUDGET AND FINANCIAL CONTROLS

5.1 Introduction

The budget is identified as a support system. Not all managers or supervisors are mathematically focused but they have to be equipped to assume responsibility for national funding policies and to better manage the finances of their sections. Within the social welfare field, managers are often not seen to be able to handle the finances of their sections. This attitude results in them not being involved in the budgeting process. Mostly they are just informed when they are overspending. If these managers are involved during the total budgeting process, they will be enabled to have control over the finances of their sections.

Koontz, et al. (1984:571) define budgeting as *"the formulation of plans for a given future period in numerical terms. By stating plans in terms of numbers and breaking them into components consistent with the organisational structure, budgets correlate planning and allow authority to be delegated without loss of control."* The budget is thus the annual estimation of income and expenditure of an organisation.

Every organisation has a specific financial year and the estimation covers the financial year. Managers responsible for a section of the organisation should provide direct input during the process of budgeting for their section. However, they should also be equipped with knowledge on the total budget to understand where their section fits into the total budget of the organisation. This will enable managers to assume responsibility for national funding policies and to manage their section's finances better.

5.2 Budget format

Financial budgets can be in the format of:

- Income and expenditure indicating individual items of income and of expense.
- Time, space, material and product such as machine hours.
- Capital expenditure such as equipment or buildings.
- Cash refers to the forecast of cash receipts and cash payments.
- Balance sheet that covers the forecast status of assets.
- Expenditure sheet indicating individual items of expense.

The budget in the format of an expenditure sheet is the budget applicable to managers in the social services organisations. This budget covers the expenditures needed to implement the programs and achieve the planned objectives of the organisation. The advantage of this budget format is that the budget is compiled according to the different sections and that it is possible for each section to manage their own budget.

5.3 Dangers in budgeting

There are certain dangers that can be encountered in budgeting:

- Over-budgeting which could mean an inflated estimation of income and expenditure.

- Budgetary goals can be made more important than the goals and objectives of the organisation.

- The budget can be hiding inefficiencies unless budgeting is accomplished by constant re-examination of standards and transformation factors and the planning then be translated into numerical terms.

- Inflexibility of the budget - if events prove that a larger amount should be spent for a kind of material, the budget must be flexible to accommodate the need.

5.4 Budgeting process

Budgeting is done according to a specific process. Ivancevich, et al. (1989:503-504) divide the budgeting process into three stages:

Stage 1: Pre-control of financial resources

A primary means for pre-controlling financial resources are the various plans prepared during the planning phase. These plans are supported by budgets allocating funds to each major expense category and organisational unit. A primary responsibility of accounting personnel is to develop the procedures and processes that enable management to keep track of how financial resources are allocated and who is accountable for expending and safeguarding them.

Stage 2: Concurrent control of financial resources

Concurrent control is implemented primarily through internal control with the following characteristics:

- No one person should have complete control over all phases of an important transaction. E.g. the same individual should not be responsible for preparing purchase orders and for making out the cheques in payment for those purchases.

- The flow of work from employee to employee should not be duplicative - the work of the second employee should provide a check on the work of the first.

- Employees who handle assets should not also be responsible for the record keeping of those assets. This provision is implemented when employees who receive and store materials do not also verify the receipt of those materials.

- Definitions of job responsibilities must be clearly established, so that accountability can be fixed for each aspect of a financial transaction. In other words, the organising function of management must be the primary source for this important aspect of internal control.

Stage 3: Post control of financial resources

Periodically, the manager receives a set of financial statements, which usually includes a balance sheet, an income statement and a sources-and-uses-of-funds statement. These statements summarise and classify the effects of transactions in terms of assets, liabilities, equity, incomes

and expenses - the major components of the organisation's financial structure. A detailed analysis of the information contained in the financial statements enables management to determine the adequacy of the organisation's income power and its ability to meet current and long term obligations.

5.5 Conclusion

It is important for the middle manager to be involved in all three stages of the budgeting process. It provides him with knowledge in terms of all activities within the organisation and ensures that his section keeps within the budget. Involvement in the budgeting process gives the manager the "big picture" of the financial state of the organisation with a clear indication of where his section fits in the picture. Knowledge of the budget provides the manager with control over the management of the finances of his section. Being able to participate in budgeting for his section motivates the manager to accept responsibility for the finances of his section and to ensure that they keep within the budget.

6. EMPLOYEE ASSISTANCE PROGRAM (EAP)

6.1 Introduction

The Employee Assistance Program grew out of a quasi-volunteer, alcoholism intervention effort. The primary purpose of these "industrial alcoholism programs" was to offer alcoholic employees an opportunity to get sober and to retain their positions in the organisation. According to Walsh (1991:113), McCaffery (1992:104) and Harris & DeSimone (1994:292-293), the EAP can be defined as a job-based program operating within a work organisation with the purpose of identifying troubled employees, motivating them to resolve their troubles and providing access to counselling or treatment for those employees who need these services. It is also designed to help employees suffering from physical, mental or emotional problems that adversely affect their work performance and to provide assistance in reducing or resolving these problems.

Walsh (1991:114) indicates that in certain instances, EAP engages in longer term counselling with clients and becomes involved in a variety of client concerns other than drug and alcohol-related problems. This is especially true in light of rising costs associated with employee health care. The EAP is increasingly placed in a position to address such employee concerns as marital and family related problems, employee feelings of incompetence or obsolescence, relocation difficulties, workplace burnout, co-dependency issues, stress and anxiety difficulties, retraining requirements.

As EAP is an organisational sponsored assistance program, employees are not charged for using the service although there may be limitations on the number of visits related to a specific matter. Employees are assured that all contacts and information will be treated as completely confidential. This is essential to ensure program success. If employees do not trust the program they will not use it.

Employers confronting employees with serious job problems will insist that individual employees seek assistance through the company sponsored EAP or an alternative source without direct subsidisation. The superior to the manager must be able to identify when a manager has to be referred for intensive and specific counselling and the manager has this responsibility toward his subordinates. The Employee Assistance Program is a support system that could be utilised for this counselling.

6.2 Contents of an EAP

According to Harris & DeSimone (1994:290-291 and 297-299) the typical Employee Assistance Program consists of:

- A policy and procedure statement that makes clear the responsibilities of both organisation and employee concerning health and personal problems influencing performance.
- Employee education campaign on the services of EAP, which may include letters, poster campaigns or extensive training programs.
- A supervisory training program that teaches problem recognition and performance documentation to managers. Training includes providing information about the nature, prevalence, likely causes and consequences of the problem and perhaps ways the problem can be avoided.
- Clinical services include the actual interventions to solve problems and may be provided by professional in-house staff or community agencies.
- Follow-up monitoring is done to ensure the employee is making use of the treatment and to obtain information on progress made and to ensure real problem resolution has occurred.

6.3 EAP as a change agent

Walsh (1991:116-117) identified the following characteristics supporting EAP as being a change agent for organisations:

- Employees' personal problems are based on job performance. The context within which EAP works with a client centres on this construct.
- EAP has a responsibility to advise supervisors, managers and union representatives of services provided by the EAP, as well as provide guidance and expertise regarding constructive confrontation.
- The EAP attempts to facilitate positive growth within individuals. This will frequently result from direct counselling functions performed by EAPs. It may also imply helping to identify a drinking problem, assisting in the resolution of employee/supervisor conflict, or any number of other issues.
- The EAP therapist is usually not a psychologist. It is usually not his role to conduct psychotherapy or to devise a complex program of behaviour modification. There are, however, certain strategies that the therapist can employ in the EAP to be more effective in the more

limited helping relationships. The effective therapist, when working with clients, should manifest empathy, active listening and positive attitudes.

A primary responsibility of the EAP therapist is to provide linkage with community resources when necessary. This has always been an important obligation for the EAP and with the numerous social service organisations now available in most communities, this has never been a more complicated task. It is helpful, but not necessary, for the EAP therapist to have knowledge of each of these organisations in an attempt to reduce the uncertainty that may arise during a time of emergency. The EAP therapist is often in an excellent position to refer clients to appropriate services or organisations. However, the EAP therapist should not refer clients to outside resources without sufficient cause. Accurate assessment and appropriate referral is critical for the effective EAP (Walsh, 1991:117-118).

6.4 Conclusion

Employee Assistance Programs can play a vital role in any organisation. Unfortunately this type of counselling is only available to employees employed by organisations that are part of the EAP system. To be able to receive counselling for assistance in the resolution of conflict with subordinates and superiors provides support to any manager.

7. SUPERVISORS' PEER SUPPORT GROUP

7.1 Introduction

Walsh (1990:87) emphasises that for training to be effective, peer resources are essential for supervisors and may need to be formally organised. He indicates that supervisors experienced the lack of a peer group as a major frustration as they needed to discuss the pressures they faced with their peers. However, researcher is of the opinion that a peer group providing support is not only essential during training but is necessary at all times for discussions of pressures that are faced by supervisors or managers.

Within a peer group situation supervisors and managers have opportunities to monitor their management practice on a regular basis for the purpose of improving specific management skills. According to Remley, Benshoff & Mowbray (1987:59), the mutual support and confirmation of the importance of their work received within the peer group also help managers who experience job related stress to cope more effectively.

Borders (1991:248) identifies a peer group as a peer supervision group. Within the peer supervision group supervisors and managers are provided with opportunities for continued professional growth. In many organisations such groups may be the only available line of feedback on their management performance. As in other supervision experiences, the peer support group members identify learning goals during the initial meetings and the members contribute to

establishing a supportive atmosphere that is conducive to open and honest interactions. During subsequent meetings, managers take turns presenting videotapes of supervision sessions for peer review.

Within the structured peer group supervision situation peers observe specific skills or supervisory techniques, focus on the nonverbal behaviour of the person supervised or the supervisor, assume the role of the supervised person or client being discussed or take different theoretical perspectives of the session. It is stressed that one important goal of the structured peer group approach is to teach managers methods they can adapt for self-monitoring or self-supervision.

It should be noted that peer group meetings are not necessarily helpful or productive. Peers may be overly supportive and inclined to giving advice and the group may experience difficulty with staying on task. There should be some procedures followed as well as responsibilities divided between members of a peer group to ensure productivity within the group. The members should experience a feeling of commitment for the peer group to function successfully as a support group.

To identify how and where a supervisors' peer support group can fit into an organisation, the nature of committees and groups functioning within organisations is to be established. This will contribute to identifying other factors that can influence the effective functioning of a supervisors' peer support group.

7.2 Nature of committees

Haimann (1994:198) describes a committee as *"a formal group of people with defined purposes and reporting relationships within the organisation to whom certain matters have been committed. They meet for the purpose of discussing those matters that have been assigned to them."* This description gives a clear indication of what the purpose of a committee is within an organisation.

The method of discussions during committee meetings can be different. A committee passes information on or discusses certain aspects. A committee can thus have an informational meeting where the chairperson does most of the talking presenting certain information and facts. Committee members have the chance to ask questions and discuss the implications of the announcement. During a discussion meeting the chairperson encourages more participation from committee members to share reliable ideas and opinions and to give recommendations.

Some committees undertake managerial functions, others make decisions, while others merely discuss problems without having authority to make decisions. Some committees have authority to make recommendations to a manager, while others purely provide information without making recommendations or decisions. According to Koontz, et al. (1984:334) and Haimann (1994:200) committees are formal if established as part of the organisational structure, with specifically

delegated duties and authority. Committees organised without specific delegation of authority and by a person needing group thinking or group decision on a particular problem are informal. Committees can be temporary e.g. established for the sole purpose of studying the advisability of starting a new section within a specific department of the organisation and be disbanded immediately upon completion of its task. Committees can be relatively permanent e.g. to help coordinate services between the government and the private sector.

7.3 Benefits of committees

Committees are frequently used in organisations, which prove that there are specific benefits in utilising committees. The benefits of committees as identified by Koontz, et al. (1984:337-340) and Haimann (1994:200-201) are the following:

- Groups of individuals exchanging opinions and experiences often produce a better answer than any one person thinking through the same problem on his own. The advantage of group deliberation and judgment is stressed, as results obtained by group judgment are superior to those obtained by individual judgment.

- Committees are useful for coordinating activities among various organisational units, coordinating planning and operating programs.

- Continuity in the organisation is ensured as committees seldom replace all their members at the same time.

- Information can be transmitted and shared effectively through a committee. All group members affected by a mutual problem or project can learn of it simultaneously and decisions and instructions can be received uniformly with opportunities of clarification.

- Splintered authority can be consolidated through a committee. A special purpose committee can be established to study a problem and to use the combined authority of its members to make a decision.

- The committee provides a good environment for junior managers and executives to learn how decisions are made, to understand the philosophy of the organisation and to experience how it functions.

7.4 Disadvantages of committees

Unfortunately, committees also have specific disadvantages for the committee members as well as the organisation. These disadvantages of committees are the following (Koontz, et al., 1984:340-341 and Haimann, 1994:201-202):

- Committees require a high cost in terms of time and money. Meetings can be time consuming taking the members away from their work and responsibilities.

- The time required for thorough deliberation and the difficulty of reaching agreement often result in adjournment without decisions taken.

- There can be a tendency to be self-destructive when one person in the group emerges as the leader, other become yes-sayers.
- Individual committee members do not feel personally responsible for any action within the group. Responsibility for group action is thus not accepted individually.
- Committees can be formed to delay decisions and action. Managers sometimes appoint committees when they want avoidance of action and members are carefully selected with delay in mind.

7.5 Nature of groups or teams

A group can be described as two or more people acting interdependently by common agreement toward the achievement of common goals. The characteristics of groups or teams that differentiate them from committees are identified (Koontz, et al., 1984:350; Paradise, 1991:587 and Tyson & York, 1996:14):

- Group members share one or more common goals and they join voluntary.
- The agreement between and the interdependent efforts among the group members contribute to achieving the common purpose of the group.
- Members of the group have to reach a degree of cohesive understanding in order to perform effectively and fulfil their purpose.
- They require interaction and communication among themselves.
- Members within a group accept specific roles.
- In order to maintain collaboration and to keep the group moving towards its goal a coordinating leadership function is necessary.
- Groups are usually a part of a larger group.
- Groups interact with other groups.
- Groups develop norms that identify expected behaviour of group members. If members deviate from the norms, pressure is exercised to make them obey.
- Skills, knowledge and ability required to get the task done are held collectively by the group members.

7.6 Benefits of groups

Groups also have certain advantages or benefits for the group members as well as the organisation. The benefits are as follows:

- Groups are powerful mechanisms in changing behaviour, attitudes and values and in disciplining members.
- The group has clear direction. The members understand and mutually agree with the goals of the group and are contracted by the task.

- Groups can be used for decision making, negotiating and bargaining. Groups are thus a means of getting a task accomplished by interacting, communicating and cooperating.
- The structure of the group influences communication patterns. Transparency and mutual trust characterise these communication patterns.
- Effective group interaction results in motivated, committed and supportive members.
- A group provides a sense of satisfaction to individual members as they experience friendship and companionship within the group. Their need for belonging is fulfilled.
- The group acts as a source of security, support and collective power. It provides balance and protection to group members.
- The members experience themselves as being within a supportive group environment and a supportive organisational environment.
- The group provides achieved status to individual members because it enables them to belong to a particular little organisation that is exclusive.
- Within the group information is secured as uncertainties created through the grapevine are decreased.
- The group provides opportunities for promoting self-esteem through recognition from and acceptance by peers.

When comparing the nature and benefits of committees with that of groups, it is evident that the supervisors' peer support group is not a committee. Supervisors partake in a peer support group voluntary and due to their need for support. Committees are established groups prescribed by management with specific objectives. A peer support group provides supervisors with the opportunity to make their own decisions in conjunction with their own needs.

7.7 Factors within groups that may become dysfunctional

Even though groups have many advantages, there are factors within groups that may become dysfunctional and result in the dissolution of the group. Paradise (1991:589) identify four factors that can have this result:

- Communication between members and interpersonal relationships among members can become dysfunctional. Especially issues involving power, influence, cohesion and inclusion can lead to misunderstanding and conflict.
- A lack of clarity regarding the goals, objectives, mission or vision of the group can result in them not achieving any goals.
- A disagreement with roles and responsibilities of members can create misunderstanding and conflict.
- The ineffective use of resources can result in the group not functioning on its best level.

7.8 Formal and informal groups

To understand the functioning of groups within organisations, a distinction is made between formal groups and informal groups. The differences as indicated by Miner & Luchsinger (1985:161), Ivancevich, et al. (1989:408-410) and Haimann (1994:215) are accepted:

- Within formal groups the boundaries are defined by existing organisational charts, position descriptions and other indicators of organisational structure. Each member of the group is certain of what his position and responsibility is within the group.

- Informal groups do not include representatives of management and they are formed for various reasons. An informal group is a small group, consisting of a few people who are physically near to each other and who have regular contact. Employees have certain needs such as emotional support they want to have satisfied. The formal organisation cannot satisfy these needs and informal groups are formed in order to have these needs satisfied. The supervisors' peer support group is an informal group.

7.9 Types of groups

Five types of groups are identified and are described by Miner & Luchsinger (1985:162) and Siegel (1995:84-85) in the following manner:

- Apathetic group - This type of group has few grievances and uses few pressure tactics. It lacks clear leadership and has internal disharmony and conflict. It is an inactive and passive type of group. The members are from different units in the organisation with no concentration of workers doing identical tasks.

- Erratic group - This group is engaged in specific operations with members performing similar work. The group behaviour is unstable and demonstrative and members are easily excited. The group uses poorly controlled pressure tactics, exhibit quick changes to ensure good relations with management. The leadership of the group is highly centralised. The members of the group are active in union activities.

- Strategic group - This type of group performs individual operations and the jobs of the members are more desirable and more skilled. They show self-interest and exercise continuous pressure on management. Their grievance activities are well planned and consistent. The group is internally alike and the members participate in the union on a sustained basis. The group has relatively good production records.

- Conservative group - This group performs individual operations in different areas, but maintains pressure for the achievement of specific objectives. They show average internal unity and self-assurance, but vary from time to time in their degree of union and grievance activities. This group is stable.

- Employee support groups - These groups are divided into three categories:

o Groups that are formed to meet developmental needs. These groups are an ongoing part of the work process and are usually led by a supervisor or manager from within the organisation. It includes self-managing teams and interdisciplinary teams.

o Groups that are formed in response to work related needs. These groups are usually led by outside consultants that support the work process but are not an ongoing part of the work process itself. It is orientated towards addressing individual worker weaknesses and the need for skill and support mechanisms. It includes team building and training groups.

o Treatment groups. The central point of a problem is defined explicitly as being within an individual employee. These groups include short term crises treatment groups and support groups related to specific individual problems.

The supervisors' peer support group can be described as a strategic group as well as an employee support group formed in response to work related needs. Supervisors participate in the peer support group with intended self-interest and due to their need for skill development and support with their work related problems. However, this employee support group is led by the participants themselves on a rotating basis and not by outside consultants.

7.10 Factors that have an influence on the functioning of a group

From the literature (Ivancevich, et al., 1989:416-428; Harris & DeSimone, 1994:47-48 and Tyson & York, 1996:16-18) it was evident that certain factors within groups have an important influence on the successful functioning of the group. The following factors were identified:

- Group leader: The most important role in a group is that of the group leader. The effective performance of a group is determined by the skill of the leader in coordinating the efforts of the individual members, but also by the degree to which the style of leadership is appropriate to the task and the nature of the group.

- Group status: Status is the rank, respect or social position an individual has in a group.

- Group norms and acting in agreement with the norms: Group norms and informal rules for appropriate behaviour serve as guidelines for appropriate behaviour in the group. Norms provide a clear message on desired behaviour and represent an implicit or explicit agreement among the group members on their behaviour. The more a member acts in agreement with norms, the more he accepts the group's standards of behaviour.

- Group cohesiveness: Cohesiveness refers to the extent that group members are attracted to each other and to the group values. It is the pressure on the individual member to remain active in the group and to resist leaving it. There are certain conditions that can enhance or reduce group cohesiveness:

o Size of the work group: If a group is too large and members do not know one another, the group will not be cohesive.

o Dependence of the members on the group: A group able to satisfy a meaningful portion of an individual's needs will be attractive to that individual. Group processes such as interaction with co-workers and overall friendship make the group a key factor in the individual's life.

o Achievement of goals: Groups that have successfully achieved goals are likely to be more cohesive. The members tend to be more attracted toward one another because they have worked together in the past and their efforts have resulted in achieving goals.

o Status of the group: The higher a group ranks in the intergroup status hierarchy, the greater its cohesiveness.

o Management demands and pressure: The members of groups tend to stand together when they are pressured by superiors to conform to some organisational norm.

o Task: The nature of the work and the way it is arranged can have an influence on either stimulating or hindering group cohesiveness.

- Intergroup conflict: Conflict occurs when one group member perceives that another group member has prevented or is about to delay the accomplishment of a goal. Reasons for conflict are:
  o Limited resources.
  o Communication problems.
  o Different interests and goals.
  o Different perceptions and attitudes.
  o Lack of clarity.
  o Managing conflict indirectly.
  o Managing conflict directly.

- Environment: Groups operate mainly within the setting of the organisation. The meaningfulness of the group's environment is determined by its relationship with the organisation as well as with the other groups existing in the organisation.

- Group dynamics: The dynamics within the group influence the behaviour of members when they interact in the group. Dynamics such as:
  o 'group think' occurs when group members are primarily concerned with general agreement amongst each other, with the result that they make poor decisions by failing to realistically assess alternatives and
  o social loafing which refers to the tendency for group members to reduce their participation as group size increases.

7.11 Process of group development

Any group passes through a process of development before it performs well and is able to achieve predetermined goals and objectives. To be successful and effective in providing in the needs of the group members, the group must progress towards cohesive collaboration. Kruger, Cherniss, Maher & Leichtman (1988:610), Ivancevich, et al. (1989:413) and Tyson & York (1996:15) identified different stages in the group development process. The following stages in the progressive process are representative of those identified:

Stage 1: Forming/Mutual acceptance

This is the initial stage, when members are uncertain about the task, about each other and the group leadership. Group members are concerned with becoming socially comfortable with each other. Extremes of view are kept under control during this stage of forming. Members test each other and draw up rules of conduct. In a leaderless group, leaders may be chosen. The leaders can be changed in later stages.

Stage 2: Storming/Decision making

The members become acquainted with each other and are prepared to put forward their views. This can lead to conflict between individuals, leaders or sub-groups that may have been formed. Problem solving and decision making are undertaken and issues related to power are resolved. Members trust each other's viewpoints and beliefs; they develop strategies to make the job easier and to help one another perform more effectively.

Stage 3: Norming/Motivation

Conflicts begin to be controlled as the members realise the need to cooperate to perform the task. The group produces and sets norms for appropriate group behaviour.

Stage 4: Performing/Control

The group has developed the required degree of understanding to work as a team and to concentrate on the problems it has to overcome to achieve its goal. The group has organised itself successfully and its members are contributing according to their abilities and interests. The group has entered its most productive stage with regard to attending to work related tasks. The group exercises sanctions when control is needed to bring members into line with the group's norms.

Stage 5: Adjourning

The group experiences a decrease in performance during the last stage of their existence. The goals and objectives of the group have been achieved and it is counter productive to continue with the group.

7.12 Group maintenance processes

Groups utilise certain maintenance processes to ensure that equilibrium is maintained and the groups continue effectively. These maintenance processes are activities such as openness of communication, mutual trust, mutual support, tolerance of differences and tension relief that help to keep the group united. According to Paradise (1991:589), the group must have a commitment to work on team performance; a common language or frame of reference for discussing team performance issues; valid data on the present level of team performance; and time to work on team performance issues. This will contribute to the success of the maintenance processes. From time to time, groups experience difficulty to continue and to focus on the task at hand. During this period team building will be effective as a maintenance process. The purposes of team building are the following:

- To clarify the mission, vision, goals and priorities of the group.
- To facilitate the effective distribution of work among group members.
- To analyse and improve interpersonal relationships among group members.
- To analyse and improve the group process.

7.13 Stages within the team building process

To ensure the purposes of the team building process are achieved, the team building should be well planned and specific. The signs presenting themselves in the group, such as ineffective group meetings, lack of initiative, apathy and general lack of interest, will influence the team building process. Siegel (1995:89-97) suggest four methods for team building to ensure positive results: set goals or priorities; analyse the way work is performed according to the roles and responsibilities of the group members; examine relationships among group members; and examine the way the group works on its processes.

The four stages within the team building process identified by Paradise (1991:590) are connected with the above indicated methods. The stages ensure that team building is performed according to a specific procedure and that the achievement of results will be measurable. The stages are as follows:

- Information gathering: Management has questions about the reasons why team building is requested, the issues of concern of the group and how the group members view the issues. The brief history of the group, the stated goals and objectives of the group are important information.
- Team building design: A team building process is designed and based upon the nature of the group and the issues to be addressed.
- Intervention: Management intervenes by initiating the team building process. The intervention consists of introducing the team building effort to the group, identifying the key issues identified during the information gathering phase, setting objectives for the team building and implementing the team building design.

- Ending: The team building itself may have no formal ending to the extent that the group accepts and continues to use the new process skills and insights gained through implementation of the team building design.

7.14 Open systems model of support groups

To ensure a supervisors' peer support group is established within an organisation, awareness of the open systems model of support groups as suggested by Galinsky & Schopler (1995:5-6) is recommended. There is a direct link between this open systems model and the important factors that have an influence on the successful functioning of a group.

- Environmental conditions: Environmental resources and pressures affect the initial formation of support groups and their development over time. Resources are the pools of potential members, the meeting place and collaborative arrangements.
- Characteristics of participants: Although the importance of the specific characteristics varies with the purpose of the group, the way the group develops and what it will accomplish are shaped by the size of the group, the specific composition and the intervention technology. The size and composition vary widely from groups with constantly changing members and leaders to groups with a stable, predetermined membership and leadership.
- Group conditions: Successful support groups must organise their work to maintain common goals and develop a structure that is flexible enough to adapt to changing conditions over time. Typical goals include emotional release, validation of concerns, reduction of social isolation, information, improved coping, decreased stress, problem solving, and at times, advocacy. Structure can be described in terms of roles and limitations, norms and culture, group operating procedures and the meeting format.

7.15 Conclusion

Considering all the information on committees and groups, the supervisors' peer support group is not identified as a committee. However, the nature of groups is applicable to what is referred to as the supervisors' peer support group, such group does satisfy the conditions and characteristics of groups. Team building can counterbalance the situations resulting in groups becoming dysfunctional. The supervisors' peer support group can, to an inferior extent, be identified as a strategic group, but its main aim is to be a support group formed in response to work related needs and for meeting developmental needs. All the factors identified as being influential on the effectiveness of the group are present in a supervisors' peer support group. The stages in the development of groups should be followed to establish an effective supervisors' support group.

8. CAREER PLANNING

8.1 Introduction

"Social work morale seems to be low. Primarily the causes presented are the unstable social environment, lack of career paths and low salaries. Career advancement in social work is bottlenecked - advancement is through management only instead of by specialisation as well. It is clear that management posts in social work are very limited" (Smit, 1994:10).

The above statement gives an indication of the attitude and the discouraged feelings experienced within the social work profession. Career planning is an unknown factor within the profession resulting in many social workers leaving the profession, seeking for greener pastures. If career planning was done, social workers will experience the feeling of support and encouragement resulting in them being motivated to stay within the profession of social work.

By providing individual employees with information and skills helpful to the development of their careers, organisations assist both employees and themselves. Relationships are likely to be improved due to increased opportunities for linking skills and interest with organisational and individual employee needs. Matteson & Ivancevich (1987:131) highlight that *"by providing career planning activities the organisation is demonstrating its interest in and commitment to its human resources".*

Career planning involves the joint consideration of four elements: the individual, the work, the organisation and expected future developments. An individual employee's career aspirations are matched with the opportunities available in the organisation. Employees are not motivated by pay when they have achieved what they interpret as a good basic standard. Then they are motivated by promotion possibilities offering developmental opportunities, more opportunities to experience the job's intrinsic satisfaction as well as more money. Career planning and career paths must fit the task requirements and the individual employee's expectations.

Harris & DeSimone (1994:327) describe career planning as *"an activity performed by the individual to understand and attempt to control his work life".* They see career planning as a deliberate process of:

- becoming aware of self, opportunities, constraints, choices and consequences;
- identifying career related goals; and
- programming work, education and related development experiences to provide the direction, timing and sequence of steps to attain a specific career goal.

Central to career planning within an organisation is the managing of the managerial career. Organisations have to retain a core of flexible managers able to learn new skills and to adjust to continually changing jobs, yet content to remain with the organisation without it necessarily being

able to deliver a conventional promotional ladder. Conventional career ladder systems have traditionally been concerned with recruitment and selection, training and development, succession planning, promotions and exiting, including retirements, retrenchments and dismissals. Organisations have to provide career counselling and development programs to help their managers with career choices and encourage them toward career decisions that benefit the organisation.

There is often more than one route to senior positions and an individual employee's career path may involve a combination of horisontal and vertical moves. Lateral cross-functional moves in particular may result in multi-skilled managers with a broad view of the organisation. Such movement only works without resistance and stress if the managers concerned understand and are committed to the idea that not all moves need to be vertical to be successful.

The analysis of career structures in an organisation is important to ensure effective and successful career planning. Snape, et al. (1994:104) indicate that the box-flow model is a simple but powerful way to analyse career structures in an organisation. All groups of employees that are linked by possible career moves are regarded as part of a personnel system. The process of drawing such a chart can have beneficial effects. Managers' perceptions of career paths and processes can be verified against the data held by the organisation on actual recruitment, promotions and departures. This can assist in establishing a more realistic view of possible career paths.

The risk in career planning and development is that there may be a tendency to concentrate on younger employees and high-fliers, to the exclusion of both older managers and solid performers. When attention is focused on those with great potential, it is easy for organisations to overlook the competent manager who would prefer new challenges irrespective of promotion. Ignored, such employees are no longer given challenging assignments and can become demoralised. It could be predicted that the demoralised employees and managers would become stagnated. Such managers need recognition and challenge within a steadfast career, offering expansion rather than a ladder to climb. Snape, et al. (1994:117) make the suggestion that a flatter matrix-style organisation with only a few levels between junior and senior employees is more conducive for career growth. In such an organisation career growth can be gained from expansion of the work rather than from promotion.

8.2 Concepts applicable to career planning

Important concepts applicable to career planning in an organisation are identified and discussed to understand the complexity of career planning. Awareness of these concepts is essential for successful career planning and to avoid stating that career planning is done but that it is not effective. It is noticeable that most of the concepts surpass each other but can be clearly distinguished.

8.2.1 Career

The concept of career is work related, but it must be understood that a person's non-work life and roles also play a significant part in it. Different authors defined the career concept. Four of these definitions are quoted below and the definition of Harris & DeSimone (1994:325) is accepted as the most comprehensive and clear definition of the career concept.

Burack & Mathys (1988:40) describe a career as:

• Purposeful work patterns that occur over time.

• Improving the human experience e.g. through job related satisfaction.

• The framework of a particular job, job sequences within an occupation or movements between occupations.

• Patterns of successful individual development over time e.g. in terms of skills and knowledge, as they apply to various professional groups.

"The career is the individually perceived sequence of attitudes and behaviours associated with work-related experiences and activities over the span of the person's life" (Ivancevich, et al., 1989:672). This definition emphasises that career does not imply success or failure, except in the judgment of the individual. It also emphasises that a career consists of both attitudes and behaviours and it is an ongoing sequence of work related activities.

"Career is best described as the pattern of work related experiences that span the course of one's life. Includes objective events such as jobs and subjective views of work, such as the person's attitudes, values and expectations. Both a person's work related activities and his reactions to those activities are part of the career. Careers develop over time, all persons have careers, regardless of profession, level of advancement or stability of work pattern" (Harris & DeSimone, 1994:325).

Snape, et al. (1994:96) describe a career as *"a sequence of work activities and positions and associated attitudes and reactions experienced over an individual's life."*

Both the individual and the organisation have an influence on the individual employee's work life. The employee is driven by his skills, knowledge, abilities, attitudes, values and life situation. Organisations provide the jobs and information about jobs as well as the opportunities and constraints within which one may pursue other jobs in the future. These actions refer to the career planning responsibility of the organisation towards the individual employee.

8.2.2 Career management

Career management is an ongoing process of preparing, implementing and monitoring career plans undertaken by the individual employee alone or in conjunction with the organisation's career

systems. Career management is a management activity performed by all managers in an organisation. The organisational responsibility in career management requires forecasts and analysis of manpower planning. This assists in establishing the overall, feasible plan for future staffing needs in terms of both numbers and composition.

Individual employees also have a responsibility in their career planning. The individual cannot be separated from active participation in his own career planning. It is expected of organisations to set up systems, programs and policies supporting individual career activities, but individuals should assume a more active personal role if they wish to make progress beyond their present position in the organisation. The Guidelines for manpower, training and development planning (1990:34-35) has identified a short, clear and direct career planning process to be followed by individual employees. This process can be successful if implemented consciously and consistent and if clear record is kept of each step in the process. The steps are as follows:

- Self-appraisal - for individual employees to know themselves.
- Identify opportunities - based on the self-appraisal, employees examine opportunities (internal and external) available.
- Prepare plans - based on self-appraisal and opportunities.
- Implementation of plans.

Individual employees are to be informed and involved in the career planning process implemented by the organisation. This can ensure that employee needs are addressed in career planning. Management must be aware of the fact that employees want equity in the promotion system with respect to career advancement opportunities. This is linked with their need for awareness and knowledge of career advancement opportunities. However, it should be considered that employee interest differ in terms of employees needing different quantities of information and having different degrees of interest in career advancement. Employees want their supervisors to play an active role in career development and to be provided with timely feedback.

Managers have an important role in career planning. They are the central figures in employee counselling and discussions regarding careers. A factor to consider is that the manager usually is the most knowledgeable regarding a particular individual. Harris & DeSimone (1994:340) suggests that managers play the following different roles in the management of subordinates' careers:

- Coach - one who listens, clarifies, probes and defines employee career concerns.
- Appraiser - one who gives feedback, clarifies performance standards and job responsibilities.
- Advisor - one who generates options, helps set goals, makes recommendations and gives advice.
- Referral agent - one who consults with the employee on action plans and links him with available organisational people and resources.

Distinctions are made between organisational career management and individual career planning activities for a clearer description of the differences in the focus of the activities. Burack & Mathys (1988:36) indicate the differences in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1: Distinctions between organisational career management and individual career planning activities

Organisational career management	Individual career planning
* Assessment of potential	* Life planning
* Appraisal of performance	* Occupational information
* Manpower-career planning connections	* Occupational / job counselling
* Career ladders	* Occupational choice
* Succession planning	* Organisational choice
* Personnel information system	* Job preferences
* Career information	* Self-direction
* Counselling service	* Self (guided) development
* Personnel system functioning	

Harkness & Mulinski (1988:343) stresses that supervisors, in their teaching function, have the responsibility to guide subordinates in planning their development as professionals. This guidance should include not only in-service training related to organisational needs but also ongoing continuing education consistent with the employee's long term career goals. The supervisory role may be expanded to include helping employees develop a career plan, which must include the reality that, for many employees, career advancement eventually will necessitate a move to a different organisation. Managers have to be open-minded about their career management responsibilities.

8.2.3 Career pathing

The processes of career planning and career pathing are connected. According to Ivancevich, et al. (1989:688) planning a career involves identifying the means for achieving desired ends, and, in the context of career plans, career paths are the means for achieving aspirations. Career planning is a way to pro-act rather than react to the problems associated with early and mid-career crises.

Career pathing is a series of developmental activities involving formal and informal education, training and job experiences assisting in transforming the individual employee's skills to meet present job responsibilities as well as those in the work situation in the future. *"Career pathing is a deliberate process that designs the individual training and development experiences and job assignments to meet future work responsibilities and assignments"* (Burack & Mathys, 1988:39). Career pathing refers to the patterned sequence of jobs within an organisation. Raelin (1984:143)

indicates that *"depending upon the attitudes and practices of management, career paths can run the gamut from a subjective feeling about a series of jobs to an objective description, from a prescribed lockstep pattern of the way to get ahead to a sequence of flexible position moves which can lead in many different directions."*

The three approaches to career paths described by Raelin (1984:143-145) are important information for managers. It contributes to expand the vision of managers in terms of how they can best approach career planning and career pathing. The three approaches are:

- Historical career paths: This approach is informal and based on the past patterns of the career movements of employees presently in senior positions. These paths represent the past practices of senior people who have followed their own footsteps, so to speak. Although these paths may have worked well in the past, there is no assurance that they will be effective in the future.
- Organisational career paths: This approach is reflected in the business plans and organisational structure of the organisation. It is defined by management as meeting the present organisational needs for staffing the organisation.
- Behavioural career paths: These career paths are based upon the logical and possible series of positions that could be held, based upon an analysis of what people actually do in an organisation. To accept the behavioural approach to career paths, the following preparation has to be done:
  - The positions in the organisation must first be analysed according to their specific content. The focus is on what people do rather than on the qualifications or experience they bring to the position.
  - The similarities among the positions in the organisation should be considered. It is important that similarities are not only taken from work-content or technical skills but are also linked to functional skills.

Once the common characteristics among a wide variety of positions have been identified, it is easy to develop behavioural career paths or promotion lines. It is evident that these lines do not have to be strictly vertical, but in fact can take many different shapes. The end result of behavioural career pathing is a wide range of career opportunities for individual employees in the organisation.

Researcher supports the implementation of the behavioural approach to career pathing, as a wide variety of positions can become potentially available to employees. The listing of these positions is an essential activity in developing a personal career development plan. It displays opportunities for growth within the organisation beyond the present position.

Once the career opportunities for the professional employee are identified, using the behavioural approach, he still has to make strategic decisions regarding the specific and accepted means to move forward in his profession and to maintain loyalty towards his organisation. In some cases it is possible to do both.

8.2.4 Career development

8.2.4.1 Career development processes

Career development is described as an ongoing process within individual employees' careers. Their careers progress through a series of stages, each stage being characterised by a relatively unique set of issues, responsibilities and tasks. Two processes are involved in career development:

- Career planning referring to activities performed by an individual employee with the assistance of counsellors, peers and superiors, to assess his skills and abilities to establish a realistic career plan.
- Career management meaning taking the necessary steps to achieve that plan.

8.2.4.2 Activities that influence career development

An individual employee's input can determine his career development. In other words, he accepts responsibility for his career development and performs certain activities to ensure advancement for himself. Werther & Davis (1993:391-394) identified these activities:

- Effective and efficient job performance as career progress depends largely upon performance.
- Exposure in the sense of ensuring he becomes known by those who decide on promotions or transfers. Exposure can be obtained through performance, written reports, oral presentations, committee work and even the hours he works.
- Resignations. For an employee to further his career with another employer, he has to take risks and resign from his present employer. If resignations are done effectively, the result is promotion, pay increase and new learning experiences.
- Organisational loyalty. Employees can use their dedication and loyalty to the organisation as a career tactic.
- Using mentors and sponsors. A mentor is someone who offers informal career advice and if the mentor can nominate the employee for career development activities (training programs), the mentor becomes a sponsor. A sponsor is someone in the organisation that can create career development opportunities.
- Using growth opportunities e.g. enrolling in a training program, obtaining an additional degree and seeking a new work assignment can contribute to employee growth.

8.2.4.3 Career development programs

The organisation has a responsibility towards career development of employees. The organisation contributes toward individual career development by implementing career development programs such as:

- Job rotation.
- In-house human resource development programs.
- External seminars / workshops.
- Tuition reimbursement / educational assistance.
- Supervisor training in career counselling.
- Dual-career programs.
- Mentoring programs.
- Career information systems.
- Human resource planning and forecasting.
- Career counselling.
- Career sequencing and monitoring.
- Skills assessment and training.
- Career development for disadvantaged groups.
- Career development for fast-track employees.
- Career development workshops for supervisors.

8.2.4.4 Effective planning of the career development program

Career development must be individually planned for each employee. Watling (1995:139) provides a list of rules to contribute to the effective planning of career development programs:

- Discuss career aspirations early with employees.
- Know the qualifications, both academic and personal needed to achieve the furthest target.
- Know the time frame for achieving what is wanted.
- Do not be afraid to divert ambitions.
- Do spell out the cost in terms of study and improvement.
- Do not make promises that cannot be kept.
- Be prepared to lose good employees who are impatient to achieve.
- Clearly set out a route for each employee to enable him to achieve his ambitions.
- Be prepared to change the plan if redirection is necessary.
- Quarterly and annual appraisals should be part of an overall career development plan and the appraised employees should be able to recognise that they are on route to achieving a long term goal.

8.2.4.5 Benefits of discussing career development during appraisal interview

Both the organisation and the individual employee will benefit if career development issues are discussed during appraisal interviews. Such discussions can have a positive impact on the motivation of the employee as well as his vision of the future within the organisation. Anderson (1993:129-130) identifies a few benefits related to discussing career development issues during appraisal interviews:

- The line manager as the appraiser is seen as taking an active interest in the careers of employees and is not focusing only on short term performance improvement. Employees are motivated and encouraged if their line managers show interest in their careers.
- Discussions of career development issues remind line managers that they have certain responsibilities in enhancing the career development of their subordinates.
- Information and advice about career paths provide a medium and long term context for employees in which to operate and shall assist in motivating them by clarifying career goals they can seek to attain.
- Because of the speed of change in organisations and in the environments in which they operate, all employees obtain benefits from a periodic update about their career opportunities.

8.2.5 Succession planning

Organisations have to plan for succession. There will always be a constant flow of managers out of the organisation caused by retirements, unexpected deaths and employees leaving to join other organisations. Other vacancies may occur when new management positions are created due of changes in policy and objectives or by increased activities. Succession planning is concerned with particular individuals and positions. According to Snape, et al. (1994:108), a traditional approach is to examine the organisational chart and to identify possible successors for particular positions and groups of positions from within the organisation. Some maintain that the ideal is to identify three or four suitable replacements for each position. Such an approach allows for the clear identification of succession problems and may provide notice of a need to develop staff or to recruit externally.

A replacement chart may also be useful in tracing the possible effects down the hierarchy of a particular vacancy. Such an approach may be less useful in a dynamic organisation where positions and structures are changing rapidly. Even where suitable successors have been identified through succession planning, this does not necessarily mean that the short list is restricted to these individuals. Succession planning is not necessarily inconsistent with an open promotion policy. In a sense the major benefit is not when succession planning identifies a particular candidate for a specific position, but rather when it gives forewarning of a possible succession problem and allows corrective action to be taken.

8.2.6 Career anchor

Challenges early in a career are important in producing good leaders. Exposure to the right type of challenge assists the individual employee to establish his career anchor. The career anchor is the dominant career concern the employee will consider whenever a choice has to be made in terms of job choices or job movements. The employee will not necessarily always be performing work consistent with his career anchor, but once formed, it serves as a reference point for career decisions. In the middle phase of the employee's career, once the basic career anchor has been established, the priority is to achieve logical career advancement.

Job moves younger employees eager to explore their career interests may welcome every two years, but employees in management positions are in the middle phase of their careers and may not rate such frequent moves as necessary. The manager may now face greater demands from family and domestic life, so that a change in jobs every four or five years might be more appropriate. Similarly, training needs change from basic skills to more strategic business issues.

8.2.6.1 Career anchor components

Anderson (1993:134) identifies three components to the career anchor concept which researcher suggests as being important for understanding the meaning of a career anchor:

- Self-perceived skills and abilities - based on perceived successes and failures in different work situations.
- Self-perceived motives and needs - based on self-diagnosis resulting from experience in different work settings and on feedback from others.
- Self-perceived attitudes and values - based on encounters between the individual and the values and norms of employing organisations.

8.2.6.2 Main career anchors

The main career anchors as identified by Raelin (1984:82) and Snape, et al. (1994:115) can also contribute to a clearer understanding of the concept. The career anchors are the following:

- Technical/functional - employees with this career anchor prefer to remain in their chosen functional area and reject general management opportunities.
- Managerial competence - employees with this career anchor are strongly motivated to become managers and believe that they have the analytical, interpersonal and emotional competence to rise to this level.
- Creativity - those with this anchor are often successful entrepreneurs, fulfilling an inner need to create something that reflects them alone.
- Autonomy and independence - those who hold such a career anchor, do not have any liking for large organisations. They often have technical or functional expertise which, combined with their desire for autonomy, leads them to act as consultants or professionals.

- Security - long term job security is the prime concern of this group, who will passively accept the careers meted out to them by the organisation as long as stability is maintained.

- Service - this group is interested in using interpersonal skills to help others.

- Identity - these employees are interested in the status and prestige gained from belonging to certain organisations.

- Variety - employees in this group desire a maximum variety of job assignments and work projects especially for the challenge involved.

8.2.7 Career ladders and dual career ladders

In many organisations, if professionals are to progress in their careers, they must leave behind their technical qualities and skills and move into a managerial role. This implies that attention has to be given to the present career structure for managers and professionals. Lawler & Hearn (1997:200) suggest if professionals see the only route to promotion, both personal and hierarchical, as being through management positions, the professional career structure has to be considered in another light. Dual career ladders systems are to be considered, aiming at providing professionals with career opportunities, without them necessarily moving into totally managerial jobs. The implication is that career paths should be lengthened in areas of specialisation but carry the same rewards as the management positions.

Von Glinow (1988:142) states that *"The dual career ladder is a set of positions for professionals that is designed to be parallel to the managerial ladder, but with evaluation, control, authority and advancement criteria appropriate for the professional."* He also identifies the objectives for using such a dual ladder as:

- to provide advancement opportunities for professionals who are unable or unwilling to move up the management ladder;

- to provide compensation, recognition and prestige equivalent to that of successful managers;

- to provide professionals with greater independence; and

- to create a set of positions with administrative duties light enough to not interfere with professional contributions.

Anderson (1993:137) stresses that a sound career ladder should consist of several progressive steps, each showing a requirement for the ability, skills and experience to perform work of growing complexity, responsibility and importance. Career ladders should be published and all relevant staff should be given access to this information. Clear criteria should be laid down for each rank on a career ladder. This type of information provides an objective base for the discussion of an individual employee's career at an appraisal interview. A creative manager can make use of career ladders very effectively by working out career ladders for all job families and working out processes (including training) that help move employees over onto the bottom rank of a new career ladder.

However, Snape, et al. (1994:119) identified specific problems with dual career ladder systems that have to be considered:

- Those occupying senior technical posts may experience a lack of role definition due to the unclear relationship between the technical and management ladder.
- There is also a danger that such posts are seen simply as a second-class reward for long service and organisational loyalty, rather than for technical excellence.
- Promotion within the technical ladder may even be seen as a sign of managerial inadequacy and thus stigmatised as a convenient 'shelf' to place problem professionals.
- There is a lack of power and authority of posts in the technical ladder compared with their management equivalents.

8.3 Career effectiveness

Consideration should be given to career effectiveness when career planning is done. An employee cannot expect to progress and to be promoted if his job performance is not effective and efficient. Ivancevich, et al. (1989:674-675) identify criteria to be used in the evaluation of career effectiveness and are as follows:

- Career performance: Salary and position are the usual indicators of career performance. Specifically, the faster an employee's salary increases and he advances up the hierarchy, the higher his level of career performance. As an employee is promoted, there is an increase in responsibility in terms of employees supervised and budget allocated. The rate of salary and position advancement reflects in most instances the extent to which the individual employee has contributed to the attainment of the organisation's objectives.
- Career attitudes: Refers to the way individual employees view and evaluate their careers. The more positive these perceptions and evaluations, the more effective are the careers. Positive attitudes have important implications for the organisation, as employees with positive attitudes are more likely to be committed to the organisation and to be involved in their jobs. It is evident that positive career attitudes are maintained to the extent that career demands and opportunities are consistent with individual employees' interests, values, needs and abilities.
- Career adaptability: Professions are seldom stagnant and dormant. Changes occur in the profession itself requiring new knowledge and skills. Employees unable to adapt to these changes and to adopt them in the practice of their careers run the risk of early obsolescence. Organisations benefit through the adaptability of their employees. Thus, career adaptability implies the application of the latest knowledge, skill and technology in the work of a career.
- Career identity: To use this as one of the criteria, employees are to answer the question: "What do I want to be and what do I have to do to become what I want to be?" Two important components would help with answering the question:

o The extent to which individual employees have clear and consistent awareness of their interests, values and expectations for the future.

o The extent to which individual employees view their lives as consistent through time, the extent to which they see themselves as extensions of their pasts.

8.4 Human resource portfolio

The human resource portfolio identified and discussed by Smit (1995:144-146) is useful in the practical implementation of the above mentioned criteria. According to Smit, employees can be "categorised" as workhorses, stars, and deadwood or problem employees. The career effectiveness of individual employees is interpreted as being related to their performance and potential. Figure 5.2 represents the human resource portfolio.

Figure 5.2   HUMAN RESOURCE PORTFOLIO

High Perfor- mance	Workhorses	Stars
	Deadwood	Problem employees
Low	Potential	High

(Smit, 1995:144.)
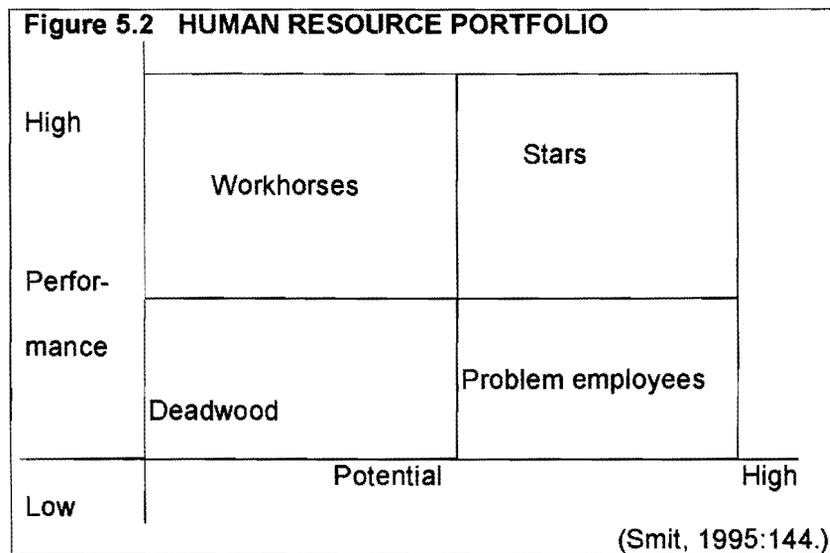
The different categories of employees are explained in the following manner:

• Workhorses: They are employees who have limited potential, who have reached high peak of performance. They require training or development to improve their present job performance or to prepare them for job changes. They should be trained to deal with stress, since these employees often find it difficult to deal with change, but have no choice.

• Stars: These are employees with high potential who are performing at the highest level of their potential. The best training method for them is to make use of mentors.

• Problem employees: They are employees who have great potential but are performing well below their capacity. It is important to first identify the cause of poor performance before an appropriate strategy can be implemented to improve performance. Managers can implement the following steps to correct poor performance:

o Specify performance standards clearly in advance.

o Remove obstacles to success.

o Provide access to necessary training.

o Ensure that the consequences are favourable if the employee has performed well.

- o Provide feedback.
- o Encourage self-control.
- o Correct personal causes of poor performance.
- Deadwood: These are employees who have both low potential and low performance. The above steps can be implemented, but if unsuccessful, the employee must be encouraged to leave the organisation.

8.5 Career stages

Career stages are important and have to be considered in career planning. Just as a career anchor has an influence on which career moves will be acceptable to employees, can the career stage within which the employee finds himself at a specific time influence the career decisions that he makes. Different authors (Raelin, 1984:125-127; Raelin, 1986:96-100; Ivancevich, et al., 1989:675; Howard, 1991:454-461 and Snape, et al., 1994:113) have identified and discussed the different career stages.

Ivancevich, et al. (1989:675) gave the simplest version of the career stages. It includes four stages:

- pre-work stage - attending school;
- initial work stage - moving from job to job;
- stable work stage - maintaining one job; and
- retirement stage - leaving active employment.

For the purposes of career planning, this version is not complete. It does not provide a clear indication according to which it is possible to identify where an individual employee is placed. It covers the life span of an individual and not only his career life. The following discussion of four career stages is more comprehensive and useful for the purposes of career planning.

Stage 1: Exploration

This stage begins as soon as the employee joins an organisation. Employees are eager to prove themselves. However, employees are considerably vulnerable and disappointments can be intense. During this stage employees seek jobs that provide intrinsic satisfaction. With the result that they tend to be highly mobile, preferring to try different organisations if they do not find what they are looking for in the first.

During this early period, the young professional employee uses both formal and informal communication to distinguish which tasks are critical to the organisation and how he has to get them done. Although under rather close supervision and performing somewhat routine assignments, the employee is also expected to show some initiative and help the superior achieve his work goals. He has to show some patience, make the most of the experience shared with older

professionals and superiors and gradually take on more independent work as opportunity allows. The supervisor must play the role of a mentor in this stage.

Stage 2: Establishment

The employee has accepted his role in the organisation and he experiences acceptance. He still has an urge to make his mark on the organisation and to prove his merit. He shows an increasing interest in the content of his work and a will to master problems and challenges. The role of the supervisor is that of sponsor, as he has to ensure that the job has sufficient challenge to inspire the employee's growing achievement motivation. During this stage the professional employee gets the chance to achieve independent technical competence. Although still under supervision at this stage, direction becomes more general as he relies on his supervisor, colleagues and the profession as a whole for ideas and advice.

As this is the mid-career stage, employees have developed a fair degree of trustworthiness and they have adapted to the organisational culture. Employees still have the tendency to resist organisational rules and procedures, to resist supervisors and to maintain only conditional loyalty to the organisation. Important during this stage is that employees have to develop a working relationship with peers from other disciplines, supervisors and administrations. They have to develop trusting relationships with immediate colleagues to whom they might be able to turn for support and advice. They have to establish an organisational identity. This is the period when many professional employees choose to specialise and others begin a transition to management. It is also the time when employees are most vulnerable to burnout.

Stage 3: Maintenance

By this stage, the organisation and its management have awarded certain rights and privileges to the professional employee, such as steady salary increases, promotions, trust in his performance, the sharing of organisational secrets and other manifestations of membership. During this stage guidance and support are no longer needed. Employees require little emotional, technical or political support and freedom is a primary motivation for them.

The more experienced professional employees should begin to take responsibility for guiding and developing young professional employees who are in stage one. The professional employees broaden their area of expertise as a benefit to the organisation and develop contacts outside the organisation. To perform the more responsible work and to be of service to clients, they need the assistance of others who can help to do the detail work and develop their ideas.

Not only must professionals at this stage have the interpersonal and managerial skills to guide younger professionals, they must also know how to cooperate with their peers to get things done. At the same time, they must still understand and negotiate orders from the top. The key to being a

successful mentor is the ability to develop the confidence of younger professional employees, the self-control to let them move on and the judgment to pull away from his technical background in order to supervise, while not neglecting his own development.

Stage 4: Disengagement

The importance of work begins to decrease as thoughts turn to retirement and the enjoyment of other activities. The key responsibility for the supervisor is to show respect for the decision the employee has to take about his future. Employees may become less identified with the organisation, while not necessarily lowering their performance levels. The supervisor can support this natural process but should do so without making the employee feel rejected or unappreciated.

8.6 Conclusion

To experience career planning as support system for supervisors or managers, there should be a balance between the pursuit of a career and the quality of their life. Raelin (1986:163-165) made very important remarks when he compared career and career planning against quality of life. Within the work environment, quality of life requires being treated as a person, not a number and being accepted for your honourable behaviour rather than for your connections. Although quality of life has many sides, to the manager it means the opportunity to explore all aspects of his own qualities and qualifications within the work environment but with interconnections between the work environment and his personal environment.

The career is viewed as the means in which an employee can achieve the best possible quality of life. Independence and alternatives within the career are treasured, but so is the opportunity to make a contribution to an employee's loved ones as well as to the wider community. The establishment of a career anchor serving as a reference point for all career decisions is an important milestone in the decision between career and quality of life. Given the opportunity to maintain a balance between career planning and quality of life can contribute to career planning being a support for effective functioning as a manager.

9. ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

9.1 Introduction

Organisations consist of a number of systems that are combined in a specific manner to achieve certain functions and results. Culture is part of all organisations and is produced by system values and involves system norms. It is a feature of the total organisation and not the individual employee. Culture is what employees perceive and how this shared perception creates a pattern of beliefs, values and expectations. Smit (1995:32) describes organisational culture as *"The set of important assumptions (often unstated) that members of an organisation share in common. Organisational culture can be observed in the opinions and actions of employees."*

The description of culture provided by Alkhafaji (1995:59) is accepted for the purposes of this study. He describes culture as: *"Patterns of behaviour that are attributed to the members of any given society, learned and passed on from generation to generation. It includes the language, religion and customs of a group of people, along with their feelings and attitudes. Parents, the government, schools and society can pass it on in general. Culture is conservative in that it resists serious change and promotes continuity. Because culture is shared and passed on, it should be noted that each culture has a history and everything that happens becomes a part of the cumulative history of a culture."* It is clear that culture has a strong influence on the actions of individuals. Within an organisation this will be more enforced, as individual employees do not want to act against the general flow of the organisation.

9.2 Organisational culture and its effects

Managers can experience many difficulties related to the prevalent culture of the organisation. It is difficult to methodically deal with a phenomenon of such importance in real situations. Culture is intimately linked to personality and the way people think, act and react. It is important to understand that culture affects almost everything that a person does in his daily life. This is because culture is learned as opposed to being inherited. Culture influences personality development in terms of how people interact with each other, social patterns and morals and beliefs. It encompasses all of the influencing factors in a person's environment, passive (e.g. one's home) as well as active (e.g. mass media).

To successfully handle the difficulties, managers must develop a cultural sensitivity. This indicates that a manager must be creative, responsive and tolerant. Managers should understand and respect the organisation and be able to coordinate complicated issues, work with diverse behaviours and solve organisational problems. Through a commitment to teamwork, managers should try to find ways of integrating the various units of the organisation. By doing this, managers will convey a sensitivity and acceptance of the existing organisational culture.

Culture is the shared and relatively lasting pattern of basic values, beliefs and assumptions in an organisation. If an organisation's culture involves the basic values, assumptions and beliefs of its members, the conclusion is made that culture is influential in determining the types of rewards that are available in an organisation, the conditions under which the rewards are allocated to groups or individuals, the way in which the rewards and their criteria are selected and the manner in which the total reward system is administered.

An organisation's culture can influence its reward system indirectly through its human resource approach and practices. Culture is concerned with controlling the behaviours and attitudes of organisational members and the reward system is a primary method of achieving control. In

contrast, reward systems can shape culture because they influence motivation, satisfaction and membership. The behaviours caused by reward systems become the dominant patterns of behaviour in the organisation and lead to perceptions and beliefs about what an organisation stands for, beliefs in and values (Von Glinow, 1988:88-89).

Culture is the result and the cause of behavioural patterns supported and rewarded inside an organisation. The patterns become the style of performance and the culture becomes stronger. The impact of culture is that it provides and encourages a form of stability resulting in employees developing a sense of organisational identity. A strong culture is characterised by core values shared by employees. The more employees share and accept the core values, the stronger the culture is and the more influential it is on behaviour. This is a dynamic process that happens over time and the culture is maintained in a way that helps the organisation but may hinder it when change is required. How influential a culture is or how resistant to change it is, will depend to a large extent on how strong the culture is within the organisation.

Organisational culture is extended to accommodate the ideology of professionalism. Reeser & Epstein (1990:100) refer to this extension as a set of socio-psychological attitudes, beliefs and values linked to the aspiration to professional status. However, this extension of organisational culture is individualised, as professional employees are mostly concerned with their own progress and promotion rather than that of their colleagues.

The social work profession is value-driven occupation and it is predicted that culture within social work organisations will be relatively strong and resistant to change, especially where professional values and moral principles are concerned. According to Thompson, Stradling & O'Neill (1996:650) this is an advantage in times of stability but a potential weakness in times of rapid and major change.

A public service organisation not adapting to changes in public needs and expectations will have only limited effectiveness. Strong cultures are more resistant to change and, in the present climate of immense change for social work, they can easily become out of step with the external environment. The conflict and tension generated by a situation in which an organisation's culture (internal environment) is not compatible with its external environment can be a potential stressor. For a profession such as social work, with its inherent stresses and tensions, the development of negative, anxiety avoiding cultures can be a real danger. It is considered that the substantial changes social work has experienced and continues to experience, can create a need to avoid painful, anxiety provoking situations.

9.3 Elements of culture

The elements of culture are different in different types of organisations. However, the main elements present in all the descriptions, definitions and discussions of organisational culture is accumulated into the following:

- Tangible mechanisms and creations reflecting the physical evidence and products of cultural activity and might survive even after the employees and their social unit cease to exist. It includes mechanisms such as the annual report, an organisational newsletter, logos and badges.

- Structures reflecting the patterns of activity within the organisation. These structures can be observed by outsiders and contribute to solving basic organisational problems such as coordination and adaptation. It includes mechanisms for decision making, coordination and communication.

- Behavioural norms referring to employee beliefs or basic assumptions regarding acceptable and unacceptable behaviour. These norms promote mutual anticipated behaviour and inform individual employees e.g. about the consequences associated with substandard performance, performance goals, human relationships and the performance of colleagues.

- Values referring to conscious, affective desires or needs or aspects that are important to employees. Every culture has its own set of attitudes and values, which influence employees. Values are shared beliefs that have been internalised by individual employees and attitudes are behaviours based on those values.

- Unconscious assumptions not even directly known to employees have an influence on their behaviour. An example is friendly competition amongst a specific manager's subordinates.

- Language capability referring to more than just vocabulary. It is the ability to communicate effectively, which includes cultural aspects. To overcome differences in language, employees must deal with both fact and interpretation of culture. Fact can be learned, whereas interpretation can be gained only through experience.

9.4 Typology of different cultures

Organisational culture can be negative or positive. When culture is negative, it is defensive, counterproductive and dysfunctional for the organisation as an entity. It is indicated that culture relates to shared values, meanings and symbols. A situation in which a negative culture has evolved could thus be very destructive for the employees concerned, the organisation and its service recipients. A negative culture results in low morale that undermines motivation, commitment, creativity and job satisfaction.

Von Glinow (1988:90-97) identifies a typology of different cultures having a direct relation to the organisational culture being positive or negative:

- The apathetic culture shows relatively little concern for the organisation's human assets and indifference to their performance.
- The caring culture shows high concern for employees as assets and has relatively undemanding performance expectations.
- The exacting culture exhibits little sensitivity to the employees of the firm, but has demanding and strict performance expectations.
- The integrative culture shows high concern for employees and has high performance expectations.

Management should be continually culturally sensitive in relation to the prevailing organisational culture. Managers must be aware of developments or changes that might have an influence on the assumptions employees have of their responsibilities. The informal communication channels in an organisation are thus very important information systems through which to establish the observations that employees have of the prevailing organisational culture.

9.5 Changing organisational culture

Imposing a culture on employees is difficult and is usually met with resistance. When disagreement exists between reality and the imposed set of values, employees become confused, irritated and sceptical. When a false image is portrayed, employees lack enthusiasm, cooperation and respect. Culture cannot be imposed but evolves over a period of time according to a specific process. The culture that eventually evolves in a particular organisation is a complex outcome of external pressures, internal potentials, responses to critical events, and probably, to some unknown degree, change factors that could not be predicted. The implication is that management cannot impose a "new" culture overnight, but can, through certain interventions, influence the culture to change over time.

Ivancevich & Matteson (1993:682-683) indicate intervention methods that can contribute to changing organisational culture:

- Change the behaviour of employees to change their beliefs and values and thus the culture. However, behaviour change does not necessarily produce culture change because of the process of justification.
- Managers must convince employees to accept the intrinsic worth in behaving in a new way.
- Managers must apply different methods of communication to motivate the new behaviours. These methods include announcements, memos, dress and rituals.
- Socialisation, orientation and incorporation of new employees are method to apply.
- It might be necessary to remove existing employees that deviate from the culture.

To ensure effective application of these intervention methods for influencing a change in the culture of the organisation, Anderson (1993:4) stresses that the following aspects be considered first as they have a direct impact on the employees' reaction to the above interventions.

- The manner in which employees relate to organisational objectives.

- The interaction between employees.

- How employees develop values and beliefs supportive to the achievement of strategic goals.

- The manner in which employees are rewarded.

- How the performance of employees is evaluated and developed - this point suggests that a system of performance appraisal can make an important contribution to cultural change and the development of appropriate cultures in organisations.

9.6 Conclusion

The above discussion stresses that organisational culture has a specific influence on the effective and efficient performance of employees. A positive and strong organisational culture will contribute towards supporting employees in their work responsibilities. The opposite is also true, namely that a negative organisational culture can be a stressor instead of a support. In an organisation with a culturally sensitive management, intervention methods can be implemented timeously to ensure the culture within the organisation is positive, strong and supportive.

10. ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE

10.1 Introduction

Climate refers to the prevailing weather conditions, translated into organisational terms it is the prevailing atmosphere in an organisation. This is related to issues coming forth from practices, procedures and rewarded behaviours characteristic of a work setting. Schneider & Gunnarson (1991:543) indicate that these issues develop from activities employees are exposed to, especially those activities that are rewarded formally (pay and incentive systems) and informally (peer and supervisory rewards and recognition) within the organisation. Schneider (1990:14) refers to the fact that early studies of the concept of organisational climate considered climate as directly related to work motivation and productivity.

The concept of organisational climate refers to a set of measurable characteristics of the work environment, perceived directly or indirectly by the employees in the environment and assumed to influence their motivation and behaviour. Litwin & Stringer (1968:5) already indicated three decades ago that organisational climate refers to *"the perceived, subjective effects of the formal system, the informal 'style' of managers and other important environmental factors on the attitudes, beliefs, values and motivation of people who work in a particular organisation"*. The influence of organisational climate on work motivation and productivity has thus not changed since the early studies on the concept.

10.2 Dimensions of organisational climate

The characteristics and environmental factors indicated in the description of organisational climate can be differentiated in terms of dimensions of the concept. These dimensions are identified by Litwin & Stringer (1968:45-65), Raelin (1984:168), Schneider (1990:296) and Moos & Billings (1991:553). To change the motivation and productivity of employees, changes should be brought about in one or more of these dimensions. The dimensions of organisational climate are:

- Structure and tensions in the work environment referring to factors such as how many rules, regulations and procedures there are and the extent to which management makes the methods and procedures known that employees are expected to use in performing their work.
- Emphasis on individual responsibility reflecting the positive attitude of employees not having to verify their decisions and knowing their job responsibilities.
- Atmosphere of warmth and support with the emphasis on mutual support from below and above; the prevalence of friendly and informal social groups and the perceived helpfulness of the managers and other employees in the group. This dimension represents the socio-emotional support provided to employees by a kind, considerate and humane management.
- The manner in which reward and punishment, approval and disapproval are implemented. Aspects such as the opinion of being rewarded for a job well done; emphasising positive rewards rather than punishments and the perceived fairness of the pay and promotion policies are important.
- Effective conflict management implicating that employees are of the opinion that management is not afraid of different opinions or conflict and the emphasis is on resolving problems, rather than ignoring them.
- The extent to which management makes known the performance standards and outcomes employees are expected to accomplish.
- The importance placed on organisational identity and group loyalty providing employees with the awareness that they are part of the organisation and they are valuable members of the working team.
- The sense of accepting challenges in the work situation and the extent to which employees perceive that they are being supplied with the materials, equipment, services and resources necessary to perform their work.

10.3 Guidelines for a positive organisational climate

Management can change the climate of the organisation by changing any of the above indicated dimensions. Some changes can have an immediate impact such as a 10% increase for all employees or a 10% workforce reduction. These types of changes are extreme and will not result in the maintenance of a positive long term organisational climate. It is beneficial for any organisation to implement the guidelines for a positive organisational climate as suggested by Van Staden (1992:21). It can establish a continuation of motivating employees and not be the

implementation of sudden changes that might not have a permanent positive influence on the organisational climate.

- Management style must convey warmth, friendliness and security to employees.
- Tasks must be clear and not be changed continuously.
- Responsible employees have to be directly informed of any changes in responsibilities as well as the responsibilities not to be met anymore.
- Formal tasks must be communicated from top management through the correct channels to prevent confusion.
- An effective and efficient system for evaluation must be developed.
- A system for giving recognition is essential.
- Management must be genuine in their support and concern for employees resulting in employees experiencing job satisfaction and job security within the positive organisational climate.
- All employees must be treated the same. Recognition for effectiveness and efficiency is important.

10.4 Conclusion

Environmental events, processes and structures prevalent in an organisation have specific meaning and significance for individual employees. These issues or characteristics in the work environment represent the organisational climate to the individual employee. Every employee has specific personal values that influence the importance attributed to these different issues and characteristics. The implication is that the organisational climate has an impact on the employee in terms of the degree to which these issues are experienced as beneficial for the maintenance and protection of his personal well-being within the work environment. The more positive and supportive the organisational climate, the more personal value the individual employee will derive from it.

11. IMMEDIATE SUPERIOR

11.1 Introduction

It is taken for granted that the immediate superior of any employee will provide the employee with support. However, on the middle management level managers are not always sure who is their immediate superior. They do not have access to immediate superiors when needed. When accepting the position as middle manager the problem of identifying who the superior is should be resolved immediately.

11.2 Role of the psychological contract

The Harvard Business Review Book (1990:32) refers to the psychological contract existing between an organisation and an individual employee. The psychological contract refers to mutual

expectations between the individual employee and the organisation. It is unwritten and unspoken expectations. One of these mutual expectations is that an employee must be able to depend on his immediate superior for support.

The immediate superior has a specific responsibility in fulfilling the organisation's end of the contract and reminding individual employees of their contractual obligations. The superior has to take into consideration that each individual has a history of different developmental experiences and certain personality characteristics. The superior must be aware of the nature of the individual employee's needs and recognise that the employee may have a variety of needs with different intensities. To fulfil the psychological contract, the superior must have a diagnostic perspective and be sensitive to differences among employees. A certain relationship must exist between the immediate superior and the individual employee to ensure fulfilment of the psychological contract.

11.3 Relationship between superior and manager

The immediate superior should develop a climate of openness between himself and the individual employee (manager). The manager finds himself "trapped" between management and his subordinates and he has to know there is a person whom he can trust and where he can get support when necessary. Within the trusting relationship, the manager is supported to feel at ease with himself in his work and the expectations he has to meet.

Kadushin (1992:229) stresses that the relationship should provide the supervisor with opportunities for:
- reinforcement of ego defences;
- strengthening the capacity of the ego to deal with work stresses and tensions;
- reassurance, encouragement and recognition of achievement;
- realistically based expressions of confidence, approval and commendation;
- catharsis ventilation;
- desensitisation and generalisation; and
- attentive listening communicating interest and concern.

Although a trusting relationship can exist between the immediate superior and the manager, the policies and procedures of the organisation still need to be complied with. However, through the consistent and congruent implementation of the policies and procedures, the superior can act as support system to the manager. The superior is then believed to be reliable and trustworthy.

11.4 General principles for supporting managers

The immediate superior must assume a supportive role to his subordinate managers. In performing this role he can follow these principles:

- Create regular opportunities and encourage general discussions on the manager's workload. Job related issues should be discussed and managers given the opportunity to identify problem situations. Opportunity is thus provided for discussing problems in an objective manner and for managers to identify solutions in the effective handling of the problems in a supportive atmosphere.

- Attend to the needs of managers related to their work environment. Reasonable requests for additional office equipment and other resources necessary for effectively performing management responsibilities have to be attended to with respect.

- Do not underestimate the importance of education and training opportunities. Encourage managers to discuss their career goals as well as the education and training needed to achieve these goals. The superior has a direct responsibility to ensure the manager has the opportunities to attend to education and training needs.

- Accept responsibility and act as an effective role model. Through positive attitudes and behaviours and the demonstration of effective work habits, the superior can motivate managers toward effective and efficient managerial performance.

- Ensure that evaluation systems are compatible with task requirements and the individual manager's expectations and abilities.

- Ensure that reward systems are effective and that rewards are directly linked to work performance and outcomes.

11.5 Conclusion

A written agreement between an immediate superior and the manager is essential. This agreement should include aspects such as the availability of the immediate superior, planned regular contacts, communication opportunities, planned development opportunities, informal performance appraisal discussions and the formal performance appraisal. Such an agreement can contribute to a trusting relationship between the manager and the immediate superior. The result can be that the immediate superior is a support system to the manager in the execution of his duties.

12. SUMMARY

In this chapter the focus was on the identification and discussion of other systems available in organisations that can be possible support systems to supervisors or managers. Although employees and managers may know about the existence of these systems, they may not be well informed on their operating procedures.

Employee benefits were the first of the support systems identified and discussed. Communication was identified as a keystone in the management of employee benefits. Employees have to be made aware of the benefits available to them. This information has to be followed-up periodically. To ensure employee benefits meet the needs of the employees as well as the organisation,

regular revision and improvement of employee benefits are important. Organisations should plan for these actions. Certain conditions are applicable in the operation of employee benefits. This ensures for example that certain benefits cannot be traded or changed. Employee benefits were identified and listed according to categories such as time-off benefits, work scheduling benefits and benefits related to financial security and assistance.

Employee incentives were described as additional pay an employee is entitled to. Employees have certain needs and expectations related to incentives that should be considered if the incentives are to have an influence on motivation and work satisfaction. Short-term and long-term employee incentives were identified. The conclusion was made that the short-term incentives are available to all employees but the long-term incentives focus specifically on the executive management of organisations.

The job description was also identified as a possible support system to managers. Fundamental concepts were identified and discussed to clarify the job description concept. The most important concepts were the job description itself, the job analysis and the job design. The identified benefits of a job description testified that employees are not able to function effectively without a job description.

Knowledge of the budget and financial controls were found to be important, as supervisors need this knowledge to manage their sections effectively. This implies that managers should be involved in the total process of budgeting. The process was identified as being done in three stages.

The Employee Assistance Program (EAP) represents a counselling service for employees of organisations that are part of the EAP system. Employees are referred to the EAP when they encounter personal problems influencing their job performance. EAP also provides training to supervisors on the identification of problems to ensure employees are referred for counselling. Clinical services are rendered to employees without financial implications for employees. Follow-up monitoring is done to ensure that the employees follow the treatment and that the problems are solved.

The supervisors' peer support group was identified as an important support system for managers. A distinction was made between committees and groups to identify the role of each within an organisation. A committee is a formal group of employees existing for specific purposes as assigned to them. Groups can be formal or informal; the supervisors' peer support group is the latter type of group. Different factors such as group leader, group status and group cohesiveness were identified as being influential in the success of the group. The group develops through a process and team building is important for maintaining the group within its status and structure.

Career planning has proved to be a joint consideration of the individual employee, the work itself, the organisation and expected future developments. Different important concepts such as career, career pathing and succession planning were identified and discussed with the aim of providing a better understanding of the complexity of career planning. Career effectiveness is essential in effective career planning as the performance and potential of individual employees determine the future possibilities for them. It is also essential to identify the career stage in which an individual employee finds himself to ensure that career planning fits his vision of his career future.

The prevailing organisational culture has a noticeable influence on the motivation and production of employees. The culture was described as the shared and relatively lasting pattern of basic values, beliefs and assumptions in an organisation. Culture has specific effects in an organisation such as influencing the award system and opposing change. A "new" culture cannot be imposed on employees but certain intervention methods can be implemented to encourage change in culture over time.

The organisational climate refers to the influence of organisational characteristics and environmental factors on the attitude and motivation of employees. The atmosphere, the methods of handling conflict and implementation of the award system are some of the dimensions of the climate. Management can maintain a positive climate through implementing the guidelines for a positive organisational climate.

The immediate superior is identified as a support system for managers if he is promptly available and if there is mutual agreement on expectations. The psychological contract existing in all organisations should be the basis of these expectations. An immediate superior must accept the supportive role towards his subordinate supervisors and implement the general guidelines for providing the necessary support.

CHAPTER SIX

EMPIRICAL RESEARCH ON SUPPORT SYSTEMS
FOR SOCIAL WORK SUPERVISORS

1. INTRODUCTION

The developmental research model as proposed by Thomas (1987:382-387) and discussed by Van Rooyen (1994a:16-21 and 1994b:276-283) was implemented for the purposes of this study. Developmental research is a sub-model of the Developmental Research and Utilization Model (Van Rooyen, 1994b:276). It has three basic phases, each with certain operational steps. The empirical research was implemented as step 6 – gathering and evaluation of data – within the development phase. The empirical research was done through the implementation of the quantitative research technique. A mailed questionnaire was used as data gathering method.

The social work supervisors of the Department of Welfare were the research population. Three Provinces were requested to participate, as demarcation of the research population was necessary. The participating Provinces were Mpumalanga Province, Free State Province and the Province of the Eastern Cape. The number of social work supervisors within the three provinces was found to be 27 in Mpumalanga Province, 40 in the Free State Province and 70 in the Province of the Eastern Cape, a total of 137 respondents.

The questionnaire was compiled after the literature study was done. A pilot test of the questionnaire was done by requesting two respondents to complete the questionnaire. The result was that modifications could be made to the questionnaire after which it was distributed to the research respondents in order to gather empirical data. The questionnaires were accompanied by clear explanatory covering letters and franked envelopes, hoping to ensure a high response rate. The analysis and evaluation of the data were done after receiving the questionnaires back from the respondents. Relevant data gathered from respondents and the literature formed the basis of the development of the guidelines to be discussed in the next chapter. The questionnaire consisted of four sections: general information on respondents, social work supervision, management and support systems. The analysis and interpretation of the gathered data were done according to the four sections.

A total of one hundred and thirty seven questionnaires were sent to the identified research respondents. Within Mpumalanga Province 27 questionnaires were sent to three different distributing points, within the Free State Province 40 questionnaires were sent to one distributing point and in the Province of the Eastern Cape 70 questionnaires were sent to five distributing points. According to Fouchè (1998:153) the response rate is adequate if 50% of mailed

questionnaires are received back, good if 60% of mailed questionnaires are received and excellent if 70% of mailed questionnaires are received. Unfortunately, the response rate on the mailed questionnaires in this study was not very high – 51 of the 137 mailed questionnaires were received back from respondents. The response rate of the three provinces was as follows: 16 (23%) of the 70 questionnaires send to the Province of the Eastern Cape; 17 (63%) of the 27 questionnaires send to Mpumalanga Province and 18 (45%) of the questionnaires send to Free State Province. The total response rate was 37,2%.

Two questionnaires were received incomplete. The indication was that these respondents received two questionnaires; they completed one and mailed the other back incomplete. In both cases the questionnaires were received in one envelope. The implication was that the data of only 49 (36%) questionnaires could be used for interpretations (N=49).

2. GENERAL INFORMATION ON RESPONDENTS

The aim of the first part of the questionnaire was to get a clear picture of the respondents participating in the research. It provided an indication of the experience of the respondents, their post levels, the number of supervisees they are responsible for, the distance they have to travel to meet the supervisees and the qualifications of the respondents.

2.1 Years experience as a social worker (question 1)

2.1.1 Factual data

Respondents were requested to indicate, according to a grouped frequency distribution of years, their years of experience as social workers. They had to distinguish between experience at the Department of Welfare and other Welfare Organisations. Table 6.1 represents the responses from all the respondents (N=49).

2.1.2 Interpretation

It is clear that the period 7-12 years represents the experience of most (24 - 49%) of the respondents at the Department of Welfare. Only 20 of the 49 respondents indicated experience at other organisations of which the most experience is within the 1-3 year period. Five (10%) of the respondents have 16 and more years experience at the Department. It was not possible to identify the average number of years of experience as social workers for the 49 respondents due to the grouped frequency distributions of the years of experience that were used. However, it is possible to make the conclusion that 38 (78%) of the respondents do have more than 7 years experience as social workers. Within the Department of Welfare, according to the Government Personnel Administration Standards, the minimum years of experience as social worker in order to become a social work supervisor, is 6 years. The implication is thus that most of the respondents "legally qualified" for their positions as social work supervisors.

Table 6.1: Years experience as social worker (N=49)

Years experience	Total Dept	Other
1-3 years	6	7
4-6 years	5	3
7-9 years	12	3
10-12 years	12	3
13-15 years	9	2
16 + years	5	2

2.2 Years experience as a social work supervisor (question 2)

2.2.1 Factual data

According to a grouped frequency distribution of years, respondents were requested to indicate their number of years of experience as social work supervisors. One respondent did not answer this question (N=48). Table 6.2 gives the responses of the respondents according to the grouped frequency distribution of years.

Table 6.2: Years experience as supervisor (N=48)

Years experience	Total
Less than 2 years	12
3-4 years	13
5-6 years	8
7-8 years	6
9-10 years	3
11 + years	6

2.2.2 Interpretation

Twelve respondents (25%) have less than 2 years experience as social work supervisors. Fifteen respondents (31%) have 7 and more years experience as supervisors. The time period representing 3 to 6 years experience has the highest number of responses i.e. 21 (44%). The conclusion is made that most (69%) respondents have between 2 years to 6 years experience as social work supervisors. The implication is that these supervisors are dependent on support in terms of guidance and training to be effective in their supervisory practice.

2.3 Present post level of supervisors (question 3)

2.3.1 Factual data

Respondents had to identify their present post levels from specific identified post levels. The responses of all respondents (N=49) are presented in Figure 6.1.

Figure 6.1: Post level of respondents

Legend:
- ■ Senior social worker
- ☐ Chief social worker
- ▨ Assistant Director
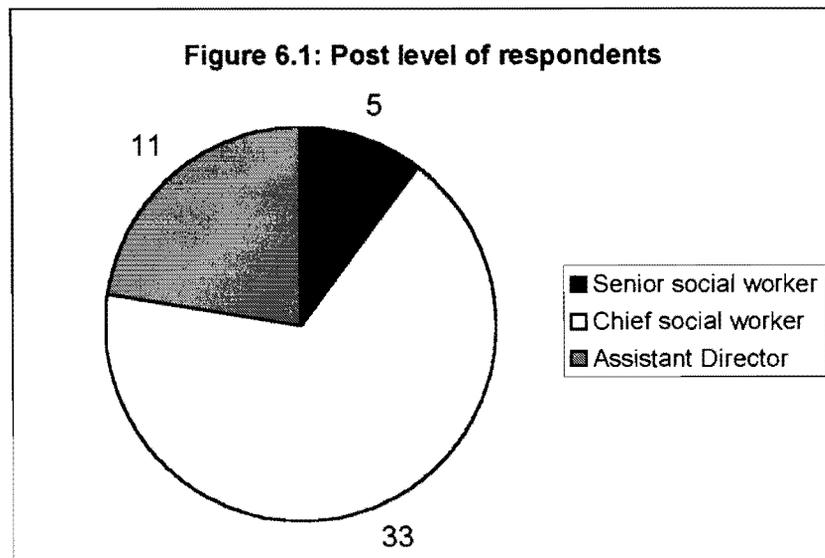
2.3.2 Interpretation

Five respondents are senior social workers, thirty three respondents are chief social workers and eleven respondents are assistant directors. The conclusion is that the post level of the majority (68%) of supervisors is that of chief social worker. Important data resulting from the responses to this question is that 4 of the eleven assistant directors indicated that they have less than two years experience as social work supervisors and another 4 assistant directors have 9 and more years experience as supervisors. It is concluded that the number of years experience as a social work supervisor is not considered when supervisors (chief social workers) are promoted to the post level of assistant director. This can have a negative impact on the motivation and attitude of social work supervisors.

2.4 Number of supervisees allocated to supervisors (question 4)

2.4.1 Factual data

Respondents were requested to indicate the number of supervisees allocated to them. Three respondents did not answer this question (N=46).

2.4.2 Interpretation

One respondent indicated that he is presently not responsible for any supervisees and another respondent indicated that he is responsible for only one supervisee. The highest number of supervisees allocated to one supervisor is 31. Thirty two (70%) of the respondents are responsible for an average of 4 supervisees per supervisor. The rest (14) of the respondents are responsible for between 8 and 31 supervisees. There is a limit to the number of persons a manager can

supervise – referred to as the effective span of management. There are certain factors that have an influence on the effective span of management (Koontz, et al., 1984:240-242; Ivancevich, et al., 1989:210-211 and Haimann, 1994:138-139) and each organisation has to take these factors into consideration when determining the number of subordinates a manager can effectively manage. Within the Department of Welfare the effective span of management has been indicated to be between 6 and 8 subordinates. The conclusion can be made that the effective span of management is not taken into consideration with the allocation of supervisees to social work supervisors. The result is that the "overloading" that supervisors are experiencing negatively influences the effectiveness of the supervision services provided to these supervisees.

2.5 Number of offices where supervisees are stationed (question 5)

2.5.1 Factual data

The number of offices where the supervisees of the social work supervisors are stationed had to be indicated by the respondents. Two respondents did not answer this question (N=47).

2.5.2 Interpretation

The responses indicated that most supervisors (11) have supervisees stationed at only two offices. Ten supervisors have supervisees stationed at more than 4 offices, ranging from 5 to 9 offices. The conclusion is made that there is a connection between the number of supervisees allocated to a social work supervisor and the number of offices where they are stationed. The number of offices adds to the demands placed on the supervisors already overloaded with a high number of allocated supervisees. It is recommended that the number of offices where supervisees are stationed should be taken into consideration as an influential factor when the effective span of management is determined.

2.6 Distance to travel to meet supervisees (question 6)

2.6.1 Factual data

Having supervisees stationed in more than one office implies that supervisors need to travel to meet these supervisees. Respondents were thus requested to indicate the distance that they have to travel in order to meet their supervisees. Two respondents did not answer this question (N=47). Table 6.3 represents the responses on this question.

2.6.2 Interpretation

Sixteen (34%) of the respondents do not have to travel to meet their supervisees. Ten (21%) respondents have to travel 151 and more kilometres to meet their supervisees. The conclusion is made that the number of offices within which supervisees are stationed and the distances that supervisors have to travel to meet their supervisees can have a direct correlation with the quality and regularity of supervision services provided to supervisees. It is recommended that the

distance that supervisors have to travel in order to meet their supervisees should be taken into consideration as an influential factor when the effective span of management is determined.

Table 6.3: Distance to travel to meet supervisees (N=47)

Distance	Total
No	16
Less than 30 km	3
31-60 km	4
61-90 km	2
91-120 km	8
121-150 km	4
151 + km	10

2.7 Qualifications of respondents (question 7)

2.7.1 Factual data

The respondents were requested to identify their qualifications from specific indicated possible qualifications. Figure 6.2 represents the responses of all the respondents (N=49).

Figure 6.2:Qualifications of respondents
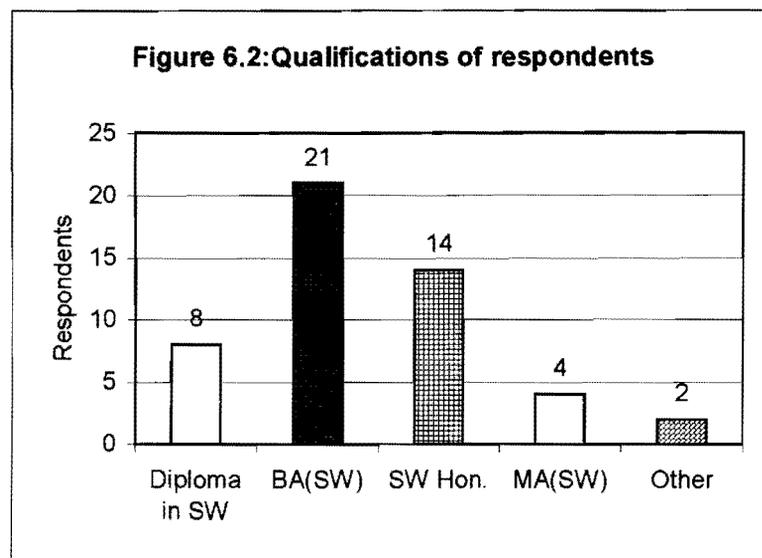
2.7.2 Interpretation

Only 4 (8%) of the respondents have obtained post-graduate qualifications i.e. Masters Degrees. Unfortunately it was not indicated if these qualifications are related to social work supervision. Fourty three (88%) respondents have the usual qualifications necessary for the social work profession. Two respondents indicated a specific qualification in management i.e. Masters Diploma in Human Resource Management and Gengold Management. These two respondents also indicated this as their only qualifications – it is thus uncertain if they have social work qualifications. The fact that qualifications specific in terms of social work supervision could not be established is experienced as a weakness within the data pertaining to the respondents.

2.8 Conclusion on data pertaining to respondents

The majority of respondents do have sufficient experience as social workers and as social work supervisors to be effective in providing supervision services to their subordinates. Responses on the post levels justify the conclusion that social work supervisors are mainly chief social workers. The number of supervisees allocated to supervisors, the number of offices where these supervisees are stationed and the distances that supervisors have to travel in order to meet the supervisees raise concern. It results in the conclusion that the effective span of management is not considered at all. The impression is created that many social work supervisors are "overloaded" with the result that it is impossible not to have a negative influence on the quality and quantity of supervision services are provided to supervisees. The implication is that supervisors will need support in order to deliver effective supervisory services to supervisees. Data on the qualifications of the respondents creates the impression that post-graduate Social Work qualifications are not a foremost concern or motivation of social work supervisors.

3. SUPERVISION

Including social work supervision within the questionnaire aimed at establishing what the view of respondents was on the necessary personal and professional qualities of social work supervisors. An attempt was also made to identify the level of practical and theoretical knowledge that respondents have on the functions of social work supervision. The important expectations of good supervisory practice and the support respondents receive in order to meet these expectations were also established.

3.1 Importance of personal qualities in the effectiveness of a supervisor (question 1)

3.1.1 Factual data

Respondents were requested to indicate, according to a 4-point scale, which of the identified personal qualities are important for social work supervisors to be effective. One respondent did not answer this question (N=48). The responses of the respondents are represented in Table 6.4. The 4-point scale is the following:

1. Most important (100%)
2. Important (70%)
3. Less important (30%)
4. Not important at all (0%)

3.1.2 Interpretation

Fourty six (96%) respondents identified responsibility as the most important personal quality for a supervisor to be effective. Emotional maturity was graded by 40 (83%) respondents as the second most important personal quality. Thirty six (75%) respondents graded three personal qualities namely self-confidence, integrity and self-knowledge as the third most important qualities necessary for supervisors to be effective. Problem solving abilities were not far behind the

previous three qualities: 35 (73%) respondents were of the opinion that it is an important personal quality for supervisors. Joy of life and sense of humour are personal qualities that were identified by only 12 (25%) respondents as important personal qualities. The first five qualities graded as most important are directly related with what and who individuals are in their total beings and guide their behaviour or performance as Realin (1984:76) and McLoud (1989a:14-15) describe it. These qualities can also influence the effectiveness of the supervisory practice of individual supervisors.

Table 6.4: Importance of personal qualities (N=48)

Scale Personal qualities	1	2	3	4
Responsibility	46	1	0	0
Emotional maturity	40	7	0	0
Self-confidence	36	10	0	1
Integrity	36	10	0	0
Self-knowledge	36	9	0	0
Problem solving abilities	35	10	3	0
Sensitivity for people	32	14	0	0
Self-acceptance	31	15	1	0
Perseverance	29	16	2	1
Nerve and courage	28	16	0	1
Self-consciousness	21	19	3	2
Intelligence	20	22	4	0
Self-actuality	16	24	4	0
Joy of life	12	24	9	1
Sense of humour	12	22	10	2

N is not 48 for each personal quality as some respondents only graded the most important personal qualities while others graded only four personal qualities.

3.2 Importance of professional qualities in the effectiveness of a supervisor (question 2)

3.2.1 Factual data

Respondents were requested to indicate which of the identified professional qualities are important for social work supervisors to be effective. One respondent did not answer this question (N=48). Table 6.5 represents the responses to this question. The following 4-point scale had to be used by respondents:

1   Most important (100%)

2   Important (70%)

3   Less important (30%)

4   Not important at all (0%)

Table 6.5: Importance of professional qualities (N=48)

Scale Professional qualities	1	2	3	4
Ability to enable subordinates	42	6	0	0
Ability to manage	38	10	0	0
Ability to act as a model for subordinates	36	10	0	0
Ability to support	32	14	1	1
Ability to motivate	32	12	3	1
Ability to train	31	14	1	0
Ability to enrich the personalities of subordinates	28	13	5	0

N is not 48 for each professional quality as some respondents did not grade all the professional qualities.

3.2.2 Interpretation

When the first (most important) and second (important) categories of the 4-point scale are taken into consideration, the combination of the grading results in the conclusion that all respondents were of the opinion that all the identified professional qualities are important. The ability to enable subordinates and the ability to manage are both indicated to be important by 48 (100%) of the respondents. Even though the ability to enrich the personalities of subordinates is graded the lowest, 41 (85%) of respondents still were of the opinion that it is an important professional quality. As professional qualities refer to the specialised knowledge and skills that are necessary for the effective performance of the supervisor (Realin, 1984:76; McLoud, 1989a:14-15 and Broadwell, 1990:22), the conclusion is made that the respondents are well aware of the professional qualities they need as social work supervisors.

3.3 Practical knowledge or experience of supervision (question 3)

3.3.1 Factual data

Respondents were requested to indicate which functions of social work supervision represent their best practical knowledge or experience of supervision. Two respondents did not answer this question (N=47). Table 6.6 represents the responses on this question. Respondents had to mark their level of knowledge according to the following 4-point scale:

1 Excellent
2 Good
3 Average
4 Poor

Table 6.6: Practical knowledge of supervision functions (N=47)

Scale Function	1	2	3	4
Supportive	19	25	2	1
Administrative	19	20	7	0
Modelling	15	21	7	1
Educational	15	20	10	1
Motivational	15	19	12	0
Personality enrichment	9	15	17	4

N is not 47 for each function as not all respondents indicated their level of practical knowledge on each function.

3.3.2 Interpretation

Most of the responses indicated a good practical knowledge of all the supervision functions. Nineteen (40%) respondents indicated their practical knowledge of the supportive and administrative functions of supervision to be excellent. Only 9 (19%) respondents indicated their practical knowledge of the function of personality enrichment as excellent. It was noted with interest that the educational, modelling and motivational functions were graded the same i.e. 15 respondents indicating their practical knowledge on these functions to be excellent. In a sense this supports the findings of Pelser (1988:440) that there is a change in attitude to the traditional three functions of supervision in the sense that the scope of supervisory practice has broadened in order to accommodate additional functions such as modelling, motivation and personality enrichment, even though the educational, modelling and motivational functions were graded the same. There is a connection between this result and the result of question 2 where respondents identified the ability to enrich the personalities of subordinates as the professional quality that is least important of the indicated qualities. The conclusion is made that the function of personality enrichment is not purposefully implemented with the result that respondents do have the least practical knowledge or experience thereof.

3.4 Theoretical knowledge of supervision (question 4)

3.4.1 Factual data

Respondents were requested to indicate, according to a 4-point scale, which function of social work supervision represents their best theoretical knowledge of social work supervision. One respondent did not answer this question (N=48). Table 6.7 represents the results of this question. The 4-point scale is the following:

1   Excellent
2   Good
3   Average
4   Poor

Table 6.7: Theoretical knowledge of supervision functions (N=48)

Scale Function	1	2	3	4
Supportive	17	23	6	1
Administrative	14	25	7	1
Educational	15	22	9	1
Modelling	13	21	10	0
Motivational	15	18	14	1
Personality enrichment	8	18	16	4

N is not 48 for each function as not all respondents indicated their level of theoretical knowledge on each function.

3.4.2 Interpretation

Again, most of the respondents graded their theoretical knowledge of supervision functions to be good. The supportive function represents the theoretical knowledge of the highest number (17 - 35%) of respondents as excellent. Only 15 (31%) respondents have excellent theoretical knowledge of the educational and motivational functions. 14 (29%) respondents graded their theoretical knowledge of the administrative function as excellent and 13 (27%) respondents graded their theoretical knowledge of the modelling function as excellent. Only 8 (16%) respondents indicated to have an excellent theoretical knowledge of the function of personality enrichment. The findings of Pelser (1988:443-444) that social work supervisors need to receive post-graduate specialised training and continuous in-service training and courses are still applicable as the conclusion is made from the responses that supervisors are not receiving the recommended training or opportunities to training.

3.5 Expectations of good supervisory practice (questions 5 and 6)

3.5.1 Factual data

In question 5 respondents were requested to indicate, according to a 4-point scale, to which degree they agree that the identified expectations relate to good supervisory practice. In question 6 respondents were requested to indicate which of these expectations of good supervisory practice have been directly communicated to them as social work supervisors. All the respondents answered these questions (N=49). The relation between the expectations of good supervisory practice and the expectations that were communicated is presented in Table 6.8. The 4-point scale for question 5 is the following:

1   Fully agree (100%)

2   Agree (70%)

3   Agree to a small extent (30%)

4   Don't agree at all (0%)

3.5.2 Interpretation

When taking both the first (fully agree) and second (agree) categories of the 4-point scale into consideration, more clarity is obtained on the agreement of respondents on the expectations of good supervisory practice. The result is that there are five of the expectations all respondents agree to be expectations of good supervisory practice. These expectations are that the supervisor is to promote the positive morale of his subordinates; to improve his own job-related knowledge, skill level and personal adjustment as well as that of his subordinates; to ensure that the necessary time is taken for quality supervision; to establish open communication channels between himself and the staff for whom he is responsible; and to continually give feedback to the social workers on their performance. Only 33 (68%) respondents agreed with the expectation that the supervisor has to be aware and have knowledge of his liability as supervisor implying that he is responsible for the wrongful acts of his subordinates. When comparing these responses to the responses on question 6 where respondents had to indicate which of these expectations have been directly communicated to them, the conclusion is made that social work supervisors are not informed on what is expected of them. Thirty seven (75%) respondents represented the highest indication of an expectation that was directly communicated to them, namely that the supervisor is to establish open communication channels between himself and the staff for whom he is responsible. Only 16 (33%) respondents indicated that it was communicated to them that they have to seek additional training in clinical supervision if their skills are not according to standard. The low responses support the conclusion the researcher has made namely that the expectations of good supervisory practice are seldom verbalised to social work supervisors and they perform on a "trial and error" basis depending on the way in which their transition from social worker to supervisor has developed.

Table 6.8: Expectations of good supervisory practice (N=49)

Expectations	Agreed (%)	Communi-cated (%)
1. To promote the positive morale of his subordinates.	49(100)	28(57)
2. To improve his own job-related knowledge, skill level and personal adjustment as well as that of his subordinates.	49(100)	29(59)
3. To perform supervision responsibilities in a professional manner.	48(98)	32(65)
4. To ensure that the necessary time is taken for quality supervision.	49(100)	27(55)
5. To seek additional training in clinical supervision if his skills are not according to standard.	40(82)	16(33)
6. To verify financial resources for the achievement of organisational goals and objectives.	38(78)	20(41)
7. To establish a favourable work environment with adequate physical conditions and material resources to facilitate productivity and promote staff comfort and morale.	40(82)	23(47)

| Expectations	Agreed (%)	Communi-cated (%)
8. To develop positive interpersonal relationships with the social workers and the support staff.	48(98)	34(69)
9. To establish open communication channels between himself and the staff for whom he is responsible.	49(100)	37(75)
10. To model productive performance to social workers and support staff.	47(96)	24(49)
11. To exercise fair, impartial control in the management of subordinates.	48(98)	29(59)
12. To be a good boss, a good manager and a leader of the subordinates for whom he is responsible.	41(84)	24(49)
13. To be a competent subordinate to the next higher manager.	47(96)	22(45)
14. To act as a connecting link between the social workers and the support staff and the management of the organisation.	45(92)	28(57)
15. To accept responsibility for the administration, education and support of his subordinates, which implies an ultimate responsibility for the client.	45(92)	32(65)
16. To continually give feedback to the social workers on their performance.	49(100)	34(69)
17. To provide training and career development opportunities for subordinates.	43(88)	29(59)
18. To ensure that the work is challenging enough, meaningful enough and provides enough recognition in order for the subordinates to fulfil enough of their own needs and thus get satisfaction from the work.	44(90)	20(41)
19. To stay aware of the "big picture" – to be sensitive to what's happening in the total organisation.	47(96)	28(57)
20. To execute his ethical responsibility to protect clients' rights and to foster an atmosphere in which social workers will do the same.	46(94)	30(61)
21. To support the ethical behaviours of the social workers and to stop their unethical behaviours.	41(84)	23(47)
22. To be aware and have knowledge of his liability as supervisor. As a result of the legal principle that holds the more powerful people responsible for those who report to them, supervisors are responsible for the wrongful acts of their subordinates.	33(68)	23(47)

3.6 Receiving support in order to meet the expectations (questions 7 and 8)

3.6.1 Factual data

In question 7 respondents were requested to indicate if they receive any form of support in order to meet the expectations of good supervisory practice. Four respondents did not answer question 7 (N=45). Twenty one (47%) respondents indicated that they do receive support and twenty four (53%) respondents were of the opinion that they do not receive support to meet the expectations of good supervisory practice. The respondents that answered positively on question 7 were requested in question 8 to identify the support that they do receive. Figure 6.3 represents the responses on receiving support to meet expectations of good supervisory practice.

3.6.2 Interpretation

Most (53%) respondents are of the opinion that they do not receive the support to meet the expectations of good supervisory practice. The lack of support provided to supervisors raises concern as Munson (1993:37) stresses that supervisors that do not receive support from within the organisation will internalise problems, fail to acknowledge their difficulties and might seek support through supervisees.

Figure 6.3: Support in meeting expectations
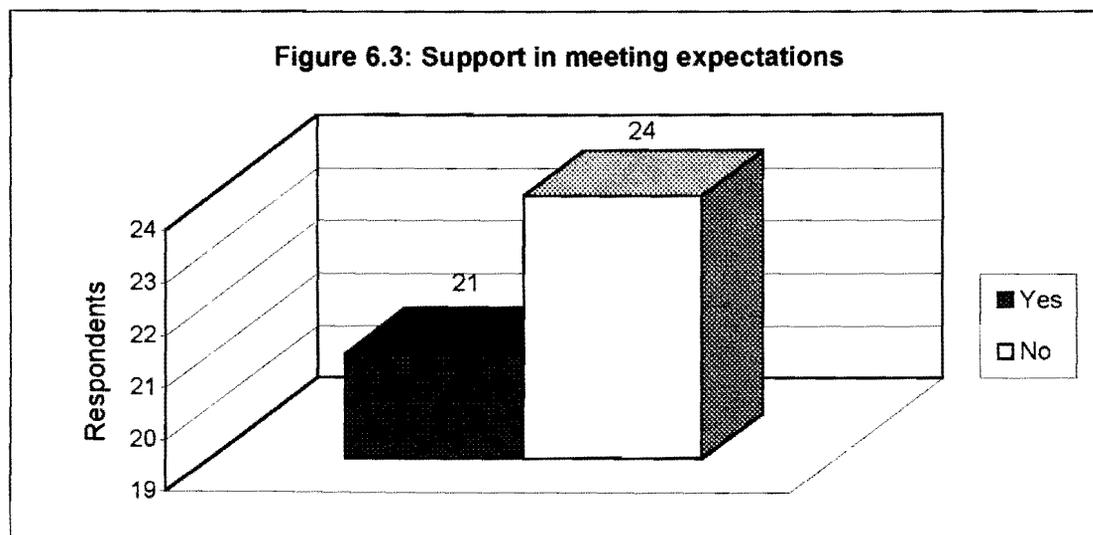
Although question 8 requested respondents that responded positively to question 7 to identify the support that they do receive, a few negative responses were also identified. These responses are self-explanatory and are combined and presented in the following manner:

- Supervisors need more training such as in-service training on an annual basis even though they have attended courses pertaining to supervision and management.
- It was requested that study leave should be available for supervisors to further their studies.
- A need to receive training in computer skills was raised.
- In some instances supervisors did attend management meetings, but they were not exposed to all the facets of supervision.

- Supervisors seldom received definite, realistic and practical support.
- Supervisors connected lack of transport and finances to lack of support.
- One supervisor indicated that his supervisor is not a social worker and thus could not assist him in most aspects.
- Supervisors indicated that it was presumed the training they received enabled them to act independently with the result that they had to rely on their own knowledge and discretion without receiving support from superiors.

The positive responses on the support received are described in the following manner:

- The Assistant Director provided peer group supervision.
- Training was received on the Personnel Performance System and general management.
- Supervisors attended management meetings where they were informed on important issues that enabled them to assist their supervisees. The extended management meeting at Regional level provided verbal support that could be used as guidelines in the work situation. Standards were also emphasised during management meetings.
- The Human Resource Section provided support in terms of labour relations.
- Peer consultation and consultation on an individual basis were provided. Monthly consultations with the sectional head where problems and successes were discussed materialised. Attention was also given to the identification of the strengths and weaknesses of individual supervisors. Advice and guidelines were provided on ways of meeting the expectations.
- The Department organised training for supervisors in order to make them aware of and to support them in the expectations.
- The Head of the office provided support. Immediate senior provided support.
- A supervisors' meeting was held once a week and problems were discussed.
- Within the limitations of budget constraints the Regional Manager gave support.
- Within the Free State Province the Department of Social Welfare organised a management education scheme by open learning. This was attached to the University of the Free State and lecturers were made available to supervisors for three days a quarter.
- In-service training was provided.
- Many manuals were available to supervisors on specific procedures and regulations.

The negative responses on the support that was (not) received referred to more training that was requested, management meetings that were attended but did not provide sufficient support, the lack of transport and finances to do their work and the fact that definite realistic and practical support were not provided. An important negative response is the referral to the fact that it was presumed that the training provided to supervisors enabled them to act independently according to their own knowledge and discretion. The conclusion is made that it was taken for granted that supervisors that received training did not need support in the implementation of the training as the training provided them with everything they need to be effective on a continuous basis. This can

be related to the statement made by Snape, et al. (1994:71) in terms of the attitude of senior management towards supervisors. They were of the opinion that managers either had what it takes and thus needed little development, or they had not, in which case manager development activities would be wasted.

The positive responses on the support received are related to specific persons providing the support and training that were received. The specific training organised in conjunction with the University of the Free State raised interest as it indicated a concern for providing management training to supervisors within the Department of Welfare in the Free State. Meetings that provided support seemed to be well organised and attended to specific aspects. The conclusion is made that the attitude of the individual supervisor towards support efforts and the relationship of the supervisor with the person(s) providing the support had an important influence on the acceptance of the efforts as support.

3.7 Conclusion on data pertaining to supervision

The overall responses on the questions in connection with supervision were valuable. The least responses (45) received for one question were the responses to question 7 on the indication if support were received or not. The most positive responses were towards the professional qualities as respondents indicated that all seven identified qualities are important for a social work supervisor to be effective. The function of personality enrichment was indicated to be the supervision function in which supervisors have the least practical knowledge or experience and the least theoretical knowledge. Respondents agreed with almost all the identified expectations of good supervisory practice. The responses on the expectations that were directly communicated to supervisors were mostly negative. The conclusion was made that the expectations of good supervisory practice were not directly communicated to supervisors and they were expected to make use of their training, experience and knowledge without support from their superiors. The specific indications of support that were received by supervisors in order to meet the expectations could be related to specific persons making specific efforts to provide support.

4. MANAGEMENT

Including management within the questionnaire was aimed at establishing the views of respondents on the necessary qualities, the managerial skills and the managerial roles of a successful manager. An attempt was also made to identify which functions were seen as managerial functions. The responsibility and involvement of the respondents in the transformation process had to be established. The important expectations of good management practice and the support that respondents received for the implementation thereof were to be established.

4.1 Important qualities of a successful manager (question 1)

4.1.1 Factual data

Respondents were requested to indicate, according to a 4-point scale, which of the identified qualities of a successful manager are important for them as social work supervisors. All respondents answered this question (N=49) and their responses are represented in Table 6.9. The 4-point scale is the following:

1   Most important (100%)

2   Important (70%)

3   Less important (30%)

4   Not important at all (0%)

Table 6.9: Importance of the qualities of a successful manager (N=49)

Scale Qualities	1	2	3	4
Encourages open communication.	41	8	0	0
Provides clear direction.	40	9	0	0
Consistently demonstrates a high level of integrity and honesty.	39	10	0	0
Encourages innovative and new ideas.	34	15	0	0
Understands the financial implication of decisions.	34	14	1	0
Coaches and supports people.	29	19	1	0
Provides objective recognition.	28	20	0	1
Has the desire to manage.	27	20	2	0
Selects the right people to staff the organisation.	24	23	1	1
Establishes ongoing controls.	20	25	2	2

4.1.2 Interpretation

The qualities of a successful manager such as encouraging open communication, providing clear direction and consistently demonstrating a high level of integrity and honesty are graded the highest in importance by the majority of respondents. The quality for establishing ongoing controls is graded as most important by only 20 (40%) respondents. When taking both the first (most important) and second (important) categories of the 4-point scale into consideration it is clear that between 100% and 92% of the respondents grade all the identified qualities of a successful manager as important for them as social work supervisors. The conclusion is made that the identified qualities seem to fit all managers (in this case social work supervisors) regardless of their age and sex and the size of the organisation as indicated by different authors (Ivancevich, et al., 1989:26; Kasselman, 1990:80 and Tepper, 1994:4).

4.2 Important managerial skills (question 2)

4.2.1 Factual data

Respondents were requested to indicate which of the identified managerial skills are important for them as social work supervisors. One respondent did not answer this question (N=48). The responses to the question are presented in Table 6.10. The following 4-point scale was applicable:

1   Most important (100%)

2   Important (70%)

3   Less important (30%)

4   Not important at all (0%)

Table 6.10: Important managerial skills (N=48)

Scale Skills	1	2	3	4
Communication skills	45	3	0	0
Decision making skills	40	8	0	0
Human relations skills	40	8	0	0
Conceptual skills	35	12	0	1
Technical skills	29	17	1	1
Specialist skills	28	17	2	1
Analytical skills	27	18	2	1
Computer skills	8	28	10	2

4.2.2 Interpretation

45 (94%) respondents graded communication skills as most important. These skills refer to the manager's ability to communicate in ways that other people understand and to seek and use feedback from subordinates to ensure that he is understood. Fourty (83%) respondents indicated decision making skills and human relations skills as the second most important of the identified managerial skills. Decision making skills refer to the ability of the manager to choose from among alternatives and human relations skills represent the manager's ability to work with, communicate with and understand subordinates and colleagues. Conceptual skills that provide managers with the ability to see the big picture, the complexity of the overall organisation and how the various parts fit together were graded by 35 (73%) respondents as most important managerial skills.

Specialist skills referring to the ability to use aids, procedures and techniques in a field of specialisation – in this situation social work supervision - were graded by only 28 (58%) respondents as most important. This grading raises concern, as these skills are important for effective supervisory and managerial practice. Computer skills, referring to the conceptual understanding of computers, were graded by only 8 (17%) respondents as most important managerial skills. Presently there is an attitude change regarding the importance of computer

technology in management in the social work profession even though Mutschler & Hasenfeld (1986:345) have indicated that this change has taken place since the early 1980's. Due to the low response to the importance of computer skills, it is concluded that this attitude change is slow within the Department of Welfare.

The general conclusion is that respondents graded the importance of the managerial skills according to their knowledge and expertise in the specific skills. However, it is important that managers continually seek to develop these skills, as they are all important for effective management practice.

4.3 Managerial roles that are fulfilled (question 3)

4.3.1 Factual data

Respondents were requested to indicate which of the identified managerial roles do they fulfil as social work supervisors. All the respondents answered this question (N=49). Table 6.11 represents the respondents' responses to this question.

Table 6.11: Managerial roles fulfilled

Roles	Response rate
Disseminator	49 (100%)
Liaison	47 (96%)
Leadership	46 (94%)
Monitor	45 (92%)
Welfare	43 (88%)
Spokesperson	43 (88%)
Negotiator	41 (84%)
Disturbance handler	40 (82%)
Entrepreneur	33 (67%)
Resource allocator	23 (47%)
Figurehead	16 (33%)

4.3.2 Interpretation

The general response was positive in the sense that only three of the identified managerial roles are fulfilled by less than 40 respondents. The conclusion is made that most of the respondents recognise the importance of all the managerial roles and the fact that they are interrelated. Ivancevich, et al. (1989:40) have indicated that neglecting one or more of the roles hinders the total progress of the manager. The entrepreneur role (33 respondents) related to changing the work unit for the better, the resource allocator role (23 respondents) related to deciding who gets what resources i.e. money, people, time and equipment and the figurehead role (16 respondents) referring to duties that are symbolic or ceremonial in nature, are fulfilled by the least respondents.

All respondents indicated that they do fulfil the disseminator role that entails the provision of important information to subordinates. Fourty seven (96%) respondents identified the liaison role where contacts inside and outside the organisation are important as the role that they fulfil the second most. The leadership role of directing and coordinating the activities of subordinates are fulfilled by 46 (94%) of the respondents. The welfare role is a newly identified managerial role yet 43 (88%) of the respondents indicated that they do fulfil the role. Tyson & York (1996:200) stated that the immediate supervisor would be the first to notice the signs that a subordinate has a problem. The conclusion is made that social work supervisors as managers of social workers do maintain positive relationships with their subordinates by fulfilling all the managerial roles.

4.4 Managerial functions (question 4)

4.4.1 Factual data

Respondents were requested to indicate which of the identified concepts they see as managerial functions. All respondents answered this question (N=49) and their responses are presented in Figure 6.4.

Figure 6.4: Managerial functions
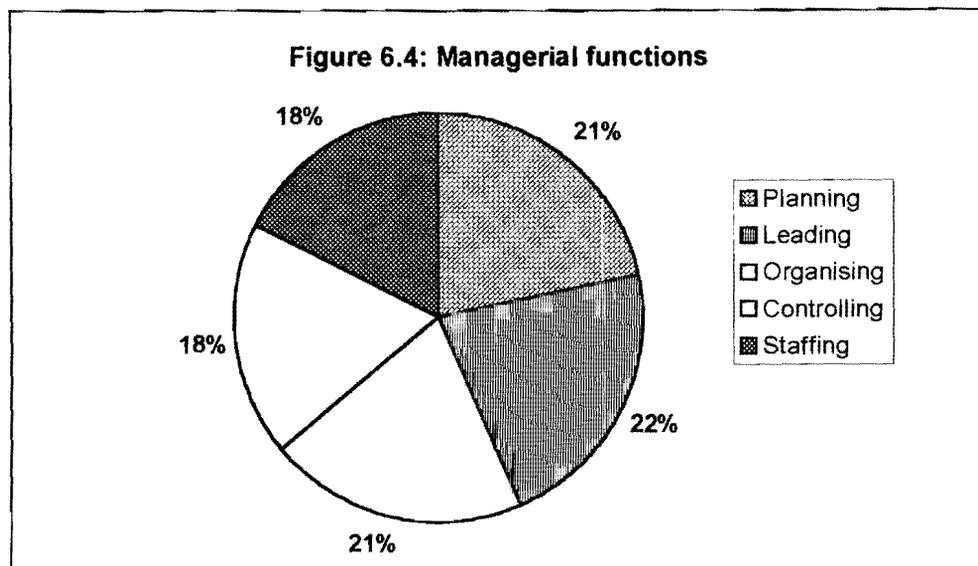
4.4.2 Interpretation

Most of the respondents agreed that the identified concepts represent the managerial functions. The least respondents (39 – 80%) indicated staffing as a managerial function. This "negative" response to staffing as a separate managerial function can be related to the reasons given by Koontz, et al. (1982:307) for this separation of which one specifically refers to managers that often overlook the fact that staffing is their responsibility and not that of the personnel section. The conclusion is made that the respondents have knowledge of which concepts refer to the managerial functions but it was not possible to establish if they have the necessary knowledge of the content of these functions.

4.5 Responsibility in the process of transformation (question 5)

4.5.1 Factual data

Respondents were requested to indicate if they are of the opinion that they, as middle managers, have a responsibility in the process of transformation taking place in the Department. One respondent did not answer the question (N=48). Fourty seven (98%) respondents were of the opinion that they do have a responsibility in the process of transformation.

4.5.2 Interpretation

It is clear from the responses of the majority of respondents that the process of transformation presently taking place in the Department does have an impact on their responsibilities as social work supervisors and middle managers. According to Costello (1994:46) transformational change is threatening, intense, traumatic and difficult to control. The responses to this question are not sufficient to establish the intensity of the responsibility of the social work supervisors in the transformation process or the emotional impact thereof on them.

4.6 Direct involvement in transformation priorities (question 6)

4.6.1 Factual data

This question requested the respondents that responded positively to question 5 to indicate in which of the transformation priorities they are directly involved with. The transformation priorities are according to the White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service. Even though 47 respondents responded positively to question 5, 48 respondents identified the transformation priorities that they are directly involved with (N=48). These responses are reflected in Table 6.12.

4.6.2 Interpretation

It is evident that, due to the fact that 43 (90%) respondents responded positively to two specific transformation priorities, the social work supervisors are directly involved in them. The two priorities represent firstly, the transformation of service delivery in the sense of ensuring that services are rendered to citizens living below the poverty line in urban and rural areas and other groups who have previously been disadvantaged in terms of service delivery and secondly, democratising the State in terms of ensuring that the public service's relationship with the public is transparent, consultative, participative and democratic. Thirty five (73%) respondents were of the opinion that they do have to be involved with the transformation priority of human resource development and capacity building in the sense of ensuring that all public servants are equipped with necessary knowledge, skills and competencies to carry out their jobs effectively.

Table 6.12: Direct involvement in transformation priorities (N=48)

Priorities	Yes
Transforming service delivery.	43
Democratising the State.	43
Human resource development and capacity building.	35
Institution building and management.	30
Representativeness and affirmative action.	28
Employment conditions and labour relations.	14
Creating a leaner and more cost-effective service.	13
Contracting-out of services through partnerships.	10

The transformation priorities with which the least respondents indicated to be involved are the priorities on employment conditions and labour relations (14 respondents), creating a leaner and more cost-effective service (13 respondents) and the contracting out of services through partnership (10 respondents). The transformation that has to take place according to Nadler, et al. (1995:23) is a complete break with the past and a major change in almost every element in the organisation. The conclusion is made that social work supervisors do have a responsibility to ensure that transformation does take place in terms of the accessibility and the availability of the services rendered to the public. The improvement of the quality of the services rendered is also a priority in which supervisors do have a responsibility as they have to ensure that their subordinates are competent in their service delivery skills and knowledge.

4.7 Expectations of good management practice (questions 7 and 8)

4.7.1 Factual data

In question 7 respondents were requested to indicate, according to a 4-point scale, to which degree they agree that the identified expectations relate to good management practice. In question 8 respondents were requested to indicate which of these expectations of good management practice have been directly communicated to them as middle managers. Two respondents did not answer these questions (N=47). The responses in terms of the expectations of good management practice and the expectations that have been communicated to the supervisors are combined and presented in Table 6.13. The 4-point scale for question 7 is the following:

1   Fully agree (100%)

2   Agree (70%)

3   Agree to a small extent (30%)

4   Don't agree at all (0%)

Table 6.13: Expectations of good management practice (N=47)

Expectations	Agreed (%)	Communi-cated (%)
1. To have the ability to exercise his authority of expertise based on demonstrated competence, particular knowledge and skills and credibility as a manager.	47(100)	28(60)
2. To participate in determining, formulating and effecting organisational goals.	46(98)	29(62)
3. To meet the organisation's liabilities toward socially responsible activities such as subordinate training and education.	43(92)	28(60)
4. 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.	47(100)	30(64)
5. To establish an environment for effective planning.	44(94)	28(60)
6. To be involved in the planning process and to ensure that planning is well organised.	45(96)	29(62)
7. To be motivated to manage.	46(98)	24(51)
8. To ensure that the performance of subordinates results in high productivity.	44(94)	33(70)
9. To set reasonable work performance objectives for subordinates.	45(96)	27(57)
10. To create a favourable work environment, with physical conditions and material resources adequate to facilitate productivity and promote staff comfort and morale.	36(77)	26(55)
11. To model and instruct subordinates in appropriate conduct.	43(92)	28(60)
12. To model and instruct subordinates in productive performance.	45(96)	32(68)
13. To exercise fair, impartial control of subordinate behaviour.	44(94)	31(66)
14. To be responsible for the recruitment of competent supervisory personnel.	38(81)	19(40)
15. To establish and maintain an effective feedback loop to ensure a satisfied work force.	44(94)	31(66)
16. To implement professional consultation and peer review in performance evaluation.	44(94)	25(53)
17. To be a good boss and leader of the subordinates for whom he is responsible.	41(87)	27(57)
18. To continually review and if necessary, revise procedures and make plans concerning improved work methods and processes.	44(94)	29(62)
19. To teach subordinates the proper use of materials and supplies.	35(75)	24(51)

Expectations	Agreed (%)	Communi-cated (%)
20. To manage the time of subordinates in the sense that the manager plans reasonable performance requirements based on average conditions and not on emergencies.	34(72)	23(49)
21. To sort and grade problems by deciding which ones he must attend personally and those that can be assigned to someone else.	42(89)	28(60)
22. To fulfil the organisation's end of the psychological contract and reminding individual subordinates of their contractual obligations.	38(81)	24(51)
23. To help set organisational objectives.	44(94)	33(70)
24. To be involved in the financial planning and review of the organisation.	44(94)	29(62)
25. To accept responsibility for inter-departmental coordination.	43(92)	31(66)
26. To accept responsibility in the transformation of the organisation.	44(94)	31(66)
27. 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.	45(96)	26(55)
28. 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.	45(96)	29(62)
29. To implement supervisory practices.	46(98)	32(68)
30. To accept responsibility for his own self-development and improvement.	45(96)	29(62)
31. To promote positive community-organisation relations.	43(92)	31(66)
32. To be able to draw clear lines between his role and that of the management of the organisation.	42(89)	19(40)
33. To accept a responsibility towards himself – he should take time for regular exercise, sensible eating and whatever kind of leisure activity recharges his batteries.	44(94)	21(45)

4.7.2 Interpretation

By taking both the first (fully agree) and second (agree) categories of the 4-point scale into consideration, more clarity is obtained on the agreement of respondents on the expectations of good management practice. The result is that respondents agreed on only two of the expectations as being expectations of good management practice. These two expectations are that the manager, firstly 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 and secondly, has to have the ability to exercise his authority of expertise based on demonstrated competence, particular knowledge and skills and credibility as a manager. 46 (98%) respondents agreed on three
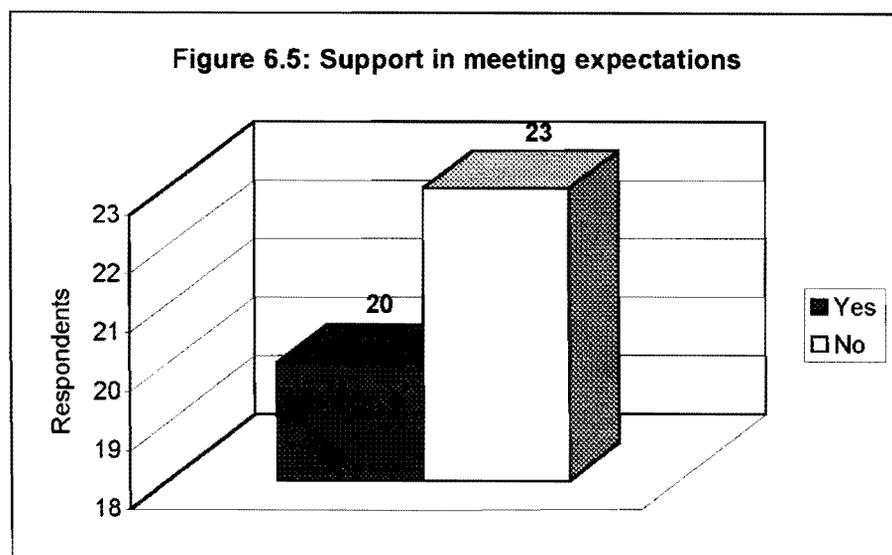
expectations of good management practice: to participate in determining, formulating and effecting organisational goals; to be motivated to manage and to implement supervisory practices. Thirty five (75%) respondents agreed with the expectation that the manager must teach subordinates the proper use of materials and supplies. Only 34 (72%) respondents agreed with the expectation that the manager should manage the time of subordinates by planning reasonable performance requirements based on average conditions and not on emergencies.

When comparing these responses to the responses on question 8 where respondents had to indicate which of these expectations have been directly communicated to them, the conclusion is made that supervisors as managers of social workers are not informed on what is expected of them. Thirty three (70%) respondents represented the highest indication of only two expectations that were directly communicated to them, namely that the manager has to ensure that the performance of subordinates results in high productivity and that he has to help set organisational objectives. Only 19 (40%) respondents indicated that it was communicated to them that they are responsible for the recruitment of competent supervisory personnel and that they should be able to draw clear lines between their own roles and that of the management of the organisation. The low responses supported the conclusion made by researcher namely that social work supervisors as middle managers are seldom verbally informed of the expectations of good management practice.

4.8 Receiving support in order to meet the expectations (questions 9 and 10)

4.8.1 Factual data

In question 9 respondents were requested to indicate if they receive any form of support to meet the expectations of good management practice. The respondents that answered positively were requested in question 10 to identify the support that they do receive. Six respondents did not answer question 9 (N=43). Twenty (46%) respondents indicated that they do receive support and twenty three (54%) respondents were of the opinion that they do not receive support to meet the expectations of good management practice. Figure 6.5 represents the responses on receiving support.

Figure 6.5: Support in meeting expectations

4.8.2 Interpretation

The majority of respondents were of the opinion that they do not receive support to meet the expectations of good management practice. Although question 10 requested respondents that responded positively to question 9 to identify the support that they do receive, a few negative responses were also identified. These responses are self-explanatory and are combined and presented in the following manner:

- Training was received but it was not sufficient. More thorough training for middle managers was recommended as well as study leave to be available for the training.
- One supervisor indicated that he had to establish his own support systems to deal with challenges/problems and for information sharing. He needed opportunities for the sharing of experiences and to ventilate, even to have someone to provide encouragement and acknowledgement that he is correct in the execution of his duties.
- Expectations were communicated through the attendance of courses but very little support was received from top management.

The positive responses on the support that were received are described in the following manner:
- Supervisors attended courses and training on management. Training for supervisors (sessions once in three months) was arranged such as the distant learning program on management. Training sessions on finances and budgeting were arranged. Capacity building courses were also attended.
- According to one respondent, the Council for Social Workers provided journals or pamphlets to update social work personnel and offer voluntary courses.
- The Assistant Director provided peer group supervision and consultation aiming at individual development.
- Management meetings and panel discussions were attended. Discussions were held on progress of subordinates and on service plans.
- Provincial forums provided support through discussions at meetings.
- Head Office, Regional Manager and immediate senior were indicated as specific persons providing support.
- Some supervisors received daily guidance and advice.
- Support was provided in the form of feedback.

The negative responses on the support that were (not) received referred to more training that was requested, the lack of support in terms of sharing information and experience and the lack of opportunities for ventilation and recognition. An important negative response is the referral to the fact that the information on the expectations of good management practice was received through attending training but no support was provided by top management to ensure middle management meet the expectations. The conclusion is made, as in the case of the expectations of good

supervisory practice, that it is taken for granted that supervisors that received training do not need support in the implementation of the training. The positive responses on the support received are related to specific persons providing the support and training. The conclusion is again made that the attitude of the individual supervisor towards support efforts and the relationship between himself and the superior providing the support had an important influence on the acceptance of the efforts as support.

4.9 Conclusion on data pertaining to management

The overall responses on the questions in connection with management were useful and provided an indication of the respondents' attitude towards management. Almost all the qualities of a successful manager were indicated to be important. Most of the respondents identified the managerial functions within the provided concepts. The least responses (43) received for one question were the responses to question 9 on the indication if support was received for meeting the expectations of good management practice. The most negative responses were on the expectations that were (not) directly communicated to the supervisors while the most positive responses were towards the agreement on the identified expectations of good management practice. The conclusion was made that the expectations of good management practice were not directly communicated to supervisors and that they have to act on the training, experience and knowledge they have on the subject. The specific indications of support received by supervisors in order to meet the expectations of good management practice could be related to specific persons making specific efforts to provide support.

5. SUPPORT SYSTEMS

Support systems are the central concepts of this study. Questions were thus formulated on the identified support systems. The aim of the questions was to establish if the support systems are available to the supervisors and, if they are available, do they provide support to supervisors in the execution of their duties and responsibilities.

5.1 Available employee benefits (question 1)

5.1.1 Factual data

Respondents were requested to indicate which of the identified employee benefits are available to them in their organisation. All respondents answered this question (N=49). The identified employee benefits were divided into four categories namely time-off benefits, work scheduling benefits, benefits related to financial security and assistance and other general benefits. Figure 6.6 represents the responses on the time-off benefits, Figure 6.7 the responses on work scheduling benefits, Figure 6.8 the responses on the benefits related to financial security and assistance and Figure 6.9 the responses on the other benefits.

5.1.2 Interpretation

5.1.2.1 Time-off benefits

Figure 6.6: Time-off benefits
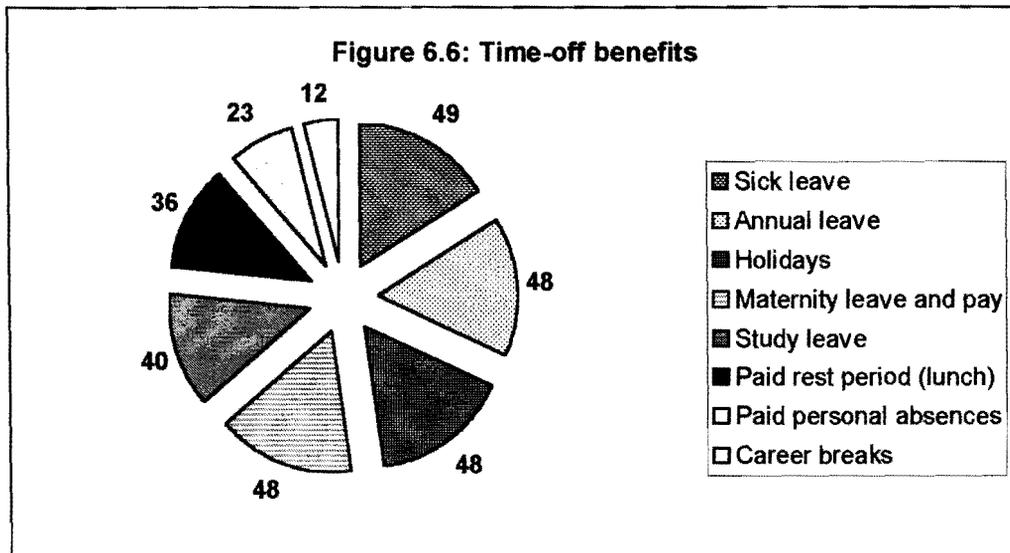
Some respondents indicated that all the identified time-off benefits are available to them. Within the Department of Welfare, according to the Public Service Staff Code, most of the identified time-off benefits are available. Only two of the benefits are not available in the Public Service: paid personal absences for events beyond the control of the employee such as death of a close relative and graduation ceremonies, and career breaks also referred to as long leave. Twenty three respondents indicated that paid personal absences are available and the conclusion is made that personal arrangements between employees and their immediate superiors were referred to. Career breaks or long leave as indicated by 12 respondents are not possible and it is concluded that these respondents might not have understood the implication of career breaks when they responded positively.

The fact that only 36 respondents responded positively to the availability of paid rest periods or on-the-job breaks such as tea-time and lunch was related to the possibility that the other respondents (11) were not making use of this benefit or laying claim on it. Fourty respondents did know that study leave as a time-off benefit is available to them, but 6 respondents seemed to be under the impression that it is not available. However, there are certain regulations applicable to the implementation of this benefit of which the most important is the proof of registration at the educational institution and the time-table of the exams when applicable. The general conclusion made on the time-off benefits is that most of the respondents are aware of the benefits that are available to them.

5.1.2.2 Work scheduling benefits

Figure 6.7: Work scheduling benefits
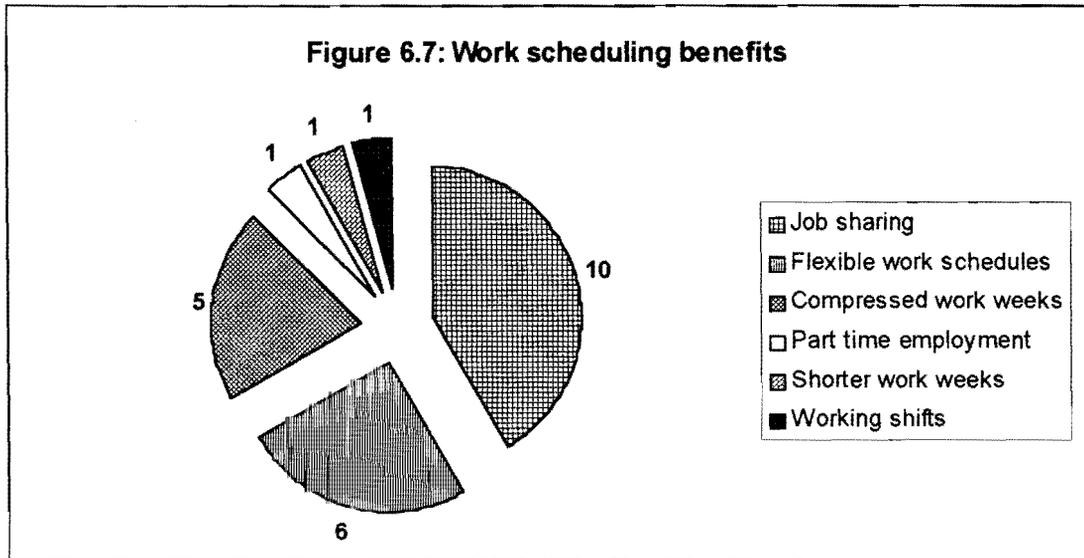
None of the identified work scheduling benefits are available within the Public Service. As 10 respondents responded positively to job sharing as a benefit that is available to them the conclusion is made that they are not aware of what is meant with the concept of job sharing i.e. two persons doing the same job but working different hours and/or days. Their interpretation of the concept could not be established, as more specific information would be necessary.

Six respondents indicated that flexible work schedules are available to them. With flexible work schedules are meant that employees are given autonomy to adjust their work schedule to fit their life styles and to choose the hours they prefer to work. This is not possible within the Public Service and the conclusion is that respondents might refer to mutual agreements between individual employees and their immediate superiors to be flexible in terms of the working hours in cases where the working of overtime is unavoidable.

Compressed work weeks and shorter work weeks are related to each other and both are not available as work scheduling benefits. The general conclusion in terms of work scheduling benefits is that most respondents are aware that these benefits are not available to them within the Public Service.

5.1.2.3 Benefits related to financial security and assistance

According to the Public Service Staff Code many of these benefits are available to employees within the Public Service. Pension schemes, medical schemes and housing subsidy are available benefits and as all respondents responded positively (except only 46 to the availability of medical schemes), it is concluded that respondents are aware of these benefits and that they do make use of them. Within the Public Service company cars are available as subsidised vehicles. Certain regulations are applicable and specific conditions are implemented such as that the workload and

the type of work should warrant the use of a subsidised vehicle. Unfortunately budget constraints also have an influence on the availability of this benefit. Only 30 (61%) respondents gave a positive response on the availability of company cars and the conclusion is made that the applicable regulations and conditions had an impact on the negative responses of the rest of the respondents (19).

Twenty seven respondents are correct when they indicated that relocation expenses are available as a benefit to employees within the Public Service. The rest of the respondents might not have had to make use of the benefit nor had subordinates that needed to make use of it. 22 respondents indicated that employee recognition such as suggestion awards are available to them, but this benefit is difficult to access due to the many applicable conditions and procedures. Business travel insurance in itself is not available as a benefit, but travel allowances are available in the Public Service in the form of Travel and Subsistence allowances. Only 18 respondents are aware of the availability of this benefit. Educational assistance is available as a benefit in terms of study bursaries but is directly linked with the budget. As only 12 respondents were positive about the availability of educational assistance as a benefit it is concluded that due to budget constraints, this benefit is not always accessible.

Employee benefits such as health insurance and life insurance are not available within the Public Service although 10 and 7 respondents respectively indicated that it is available. Longevity pay or payment for years of service is available in the Public Service in the form of financial compensation to the value of 10 days vacation leave. Only 10 respondents are aware of the availability of this benefit. Personal accident insurance and group disability and survivor benefits are not available as benefits within the Public Service even though 7 and 4 respondents respectively indicated it to be available as benefits. Six respondents indicated that the payment of professional association subscriptions is available as a benefit but it is not done within the Public Service. Company housing, better known as government housing, is only available in exceptional circumstances and to specific employees such as the superintendent at certain provincial hospitals. Only 3 respondents responded positively and it could be related to the above knowledge on the availability of government housing.

The general conclusion is that the respondents are not well aware or informed on the available employee benefits related to financial security and assistance and thus do not make use of them or lay claim on them. The statement made by McCaffery (1992:234) namely that employees must be made aware of the benefits provided by their organisation supports this conclusion. Simply handing out summary descriptions of the available employee benefits are not enough and employees have to be reminded of their coverage periodically and they must be informed on how to utilise the benefits.

**Figure 6.8: Benefits related to financial security and assistance**
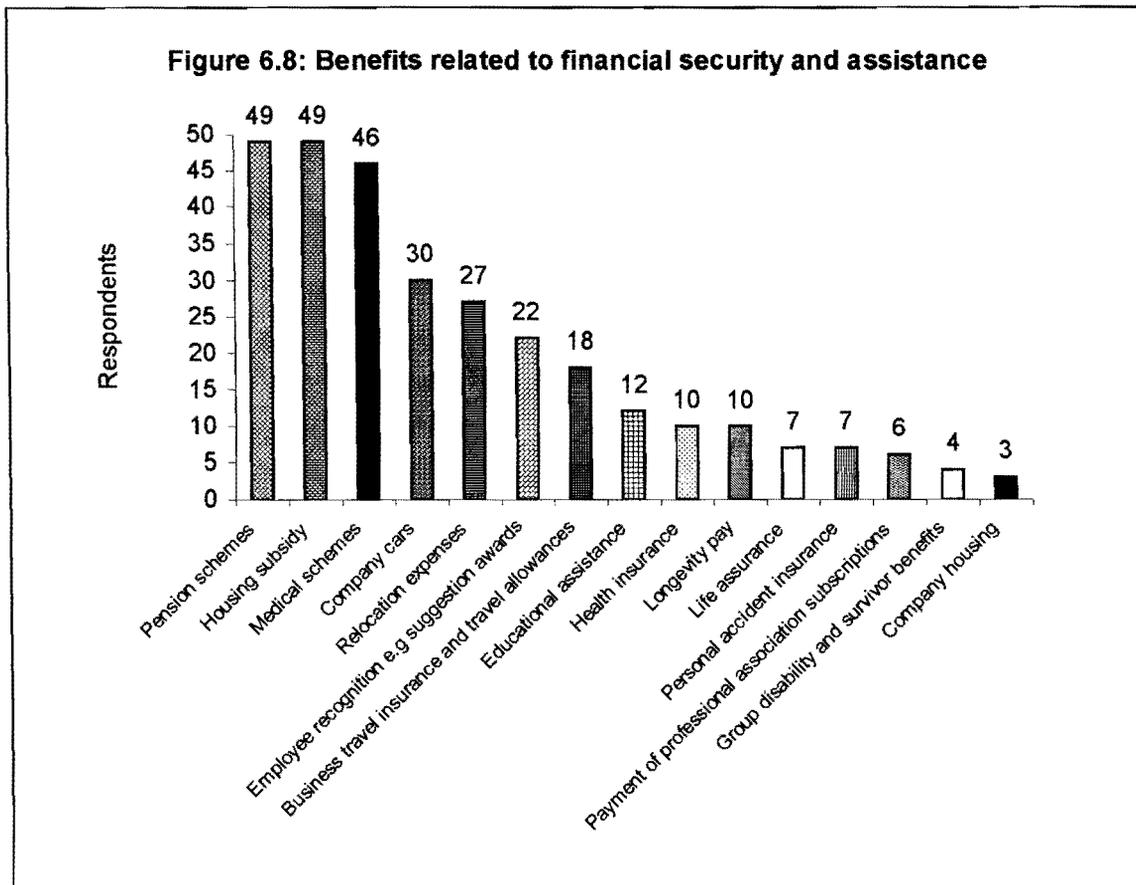
5.1.2.4 Other employee benefits

Most of the identified additional employee benefits are not available within the Public Service. The only benefits available are the use of a company car for business purposes, funding for training, long service awards, free or discounted parking and mobile phones or telephone costs. These five benefits also received the most positive responses. The use of a company car is essential for social workers to perform their work, but the fact that only 24 respondents are positive about this benefit, can be related to the budget constraints and the fact that not enough vehicles are available to provide in the need for transport. This could also have lead to the previous responses of respondents where the lack of transport was linked with the lack of support.

Funding for training is available in cases where an employee is assigned to attend specific training courses and 22 respondents indicated that they are aware of this benefit. Long service awards and the longevity pay that has been referred to under benefits related to financial security and assistance are the same type of benefit. Sixteen respondents responded positively by indicating that this benefit is available. Only 13 respondents indicated that free or discounted parking are available to them. The conclusion is made that the type of building and the environment of the building have a direct influence on the availability of this benefit. The benefit of mobile phones and telephone costs is available in the form of subsidised cellular phones. Specific regulations and

conditions are applicable with the result that only 12 respondents are positive about the availability of this benefit.

Figure 6.9: Other benefits
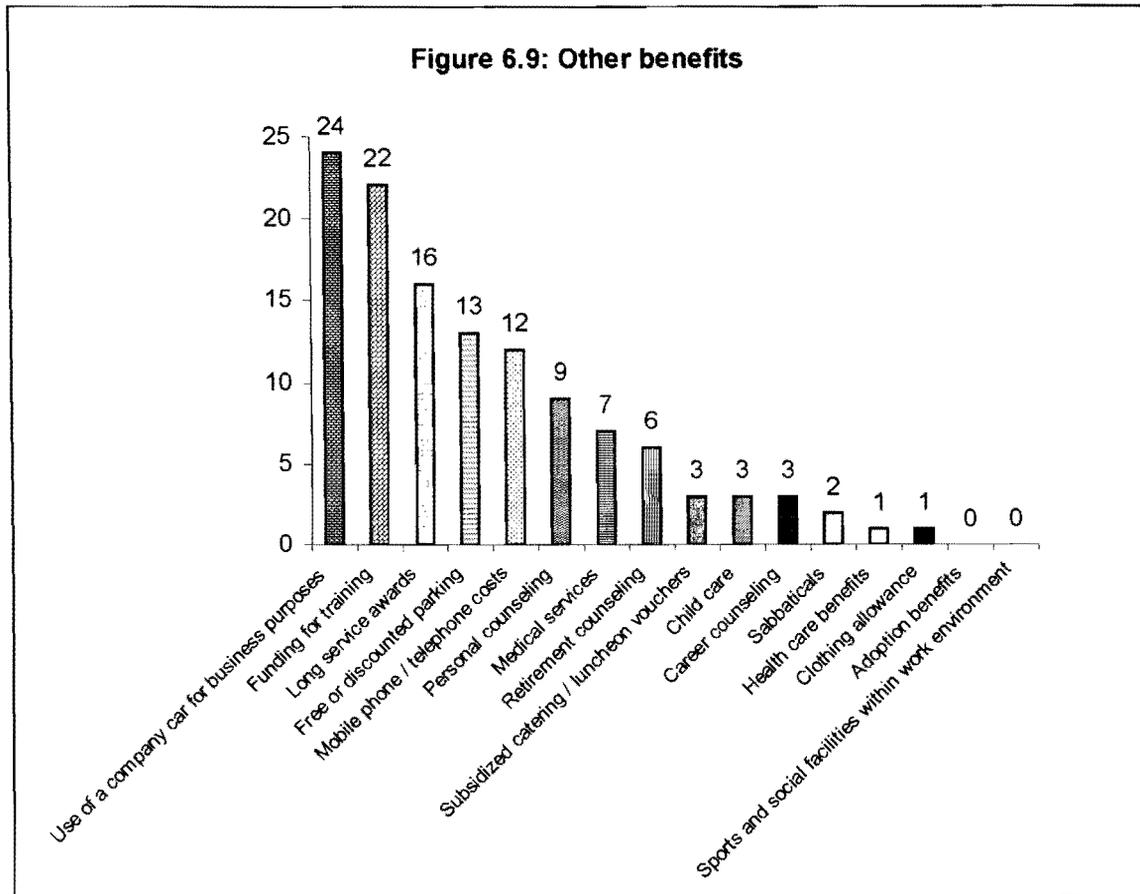
The other identified additional employee benefits i.e. personal counselling, retirement counselling, career counselling, medical services, health care benefits, subsidised catering or luncheon vouchers, adoption benefits, child care, sabbaticals, clothing allowances or company uniform and sports and social facilities within the work environment are not available. Nine respondents are the maximum that responded positively to one of these identified benefits with the result that the general conclusion can be made that most of the respondents are aware and knowledgeable on the available additional benefits within the Public Service.

5.2 Employee benefits to provide support (question 2)

5.2.1 Factual data

Respondents were requested to indicate if they are of the opinion that employee benefits can provide them with support in the execution of their responsibilities as supervisors. Five respondents did not answer the question (N=44). Fourty two (95%) respondents indicated that employee benefits could be a support to them. Only two respondents were of the opinion that

employee benefits will not provide support to them in the execution of their responsibilities. The responses are presented in Figure 6.10.

Figure 6.10: Employee benefits provide support
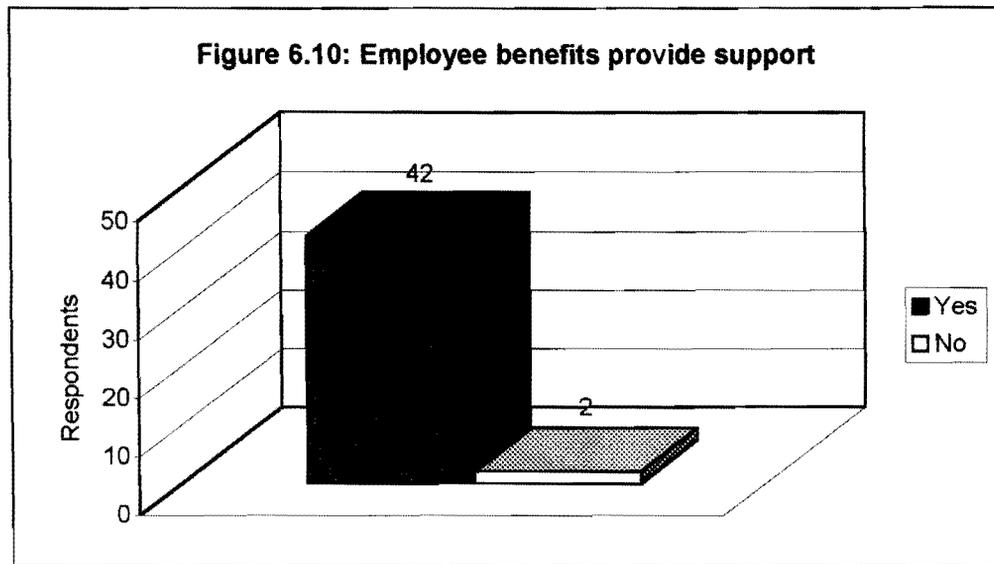
5.2.2 Interpretation

Due to the fact that the majority of respondents (95%) were of the opinion that employee benefits can support them in the execution of their responsibilities, it is accepted that employee benefits are available support systems that could provide support to social work supervisors.

5.3 Available employee incentives (question 3)

5.3.1 Factual data

Respondents were requested to indicate which of the identified employee incentives are available to them in their organisation. One respondent did not answer this question (N=48). The respondents' responses are presented in Table 6.14.

5.3.2 Interpretation

Only three of the identified employee incentives are available within the Public Service i.e. merit pay, overtime payments and pay-for-knowledge. Twenty five (52%) respondents indicated merit pay as an available employee incentive. Due to the fact that 28 respondents indicated individual bonus schemes and 25 respondents indicated performance related cash bonuses as available employee incentives, the conclusion is made that there is confusion amongst respondents on what each of the incentives entails. Merit pay is based on a systematic salary structure, a formal appraisal system and a more or less systematic link between appraised performance and individual rewards. Individual bonus schemes are directed at individual employees rewarding them for their efforts and high levels of performance and the cash amount is linked to the target to be achieved. Performance related cash bonuses are directed at senior executives and the aim is to make pay an incentive and to link it to the achievement of organisational objectives. Researcher thus accepts that respondents are positive about the availability of merit pay as an employee

incentive. The fact that only 25 respondents seem to have knowledge of the availability of merit pay can be related to the possibility that the procedures for effectively implementing this incentive are not actively followed by immediate superiors.

Table 6.14: Available employee incentives (N=48)

Incentives	Yes
Individual bonus schemes	28
Performance related cash bonuses	25
Merit pay	25
Overtime payments	9
Production bonuses	4
Incentives for piecework	2
Stock options	1
Stock purchase plans	1
Maturity curves	1
Share option schemes	1
Pay-for-knowledge	1
Profit sharing plans	0
Profit related pay	0
Sales incentives	0

Overtime payments are available yet only 9 respondents indicate that it is available. The conclusion is made that the respondents have the attitude that regulations and conditions applicable to overtime payments are too difficult and thus simply indicate that, as an incentive, overtime payments are not available to them. The employee incentive pay-for-knowledge implemented in the Public Service is the payment of a once-off amount calculated at a percentage of the employee's base salary scale for each additional diploma or degree he obtains. The fact that only 1 respondent indicated that this incentive is available can be linked with the qualifications of the respondents in the sense that only 4 respondents furthered their studies and could thus possibly have qualified for this incentive.

The other identified employee incentives such as production bonuses, incentives for piecework, stock options, stock purchase plans, maturity curves, share options schemes, profit sharing plans, profit related pay and sales incentives are not available in the Public Service and the majority of respondents are aware of this fact. The general conclusion is that employee incentives are not utilised to their full extent and the main reason for this can be the lack of knowledge on the procedures to follow to access the incentives.

5.4 Employee incentives to provide support (question 4)

5.4.1 Factual data

Respondents had to indicate if they are of the opinion that employee incentives can be a support to them in the execution of their responsibilities as supervisors. Two respondents did not answer the question (N=47). Fourty six (98%) respondents indicated that employee incentives could be a support to them. Only one respondent was of the opinion that employee incentives will not provide support to him in the execution of his responsibilities. Figure 6.11 represents the responses.

5.4.2 Interpretation

The majority of the respondents (98%) responded positively by indicating that they are of the opinion that employee incentives can be a support to them in the execution of their responsibilities. Researcher makes the conclusion that it can be accepted that employee incentives are available as support systems and could provide support for social work supervisors.

Figure 6.11: Employee incentives provide support
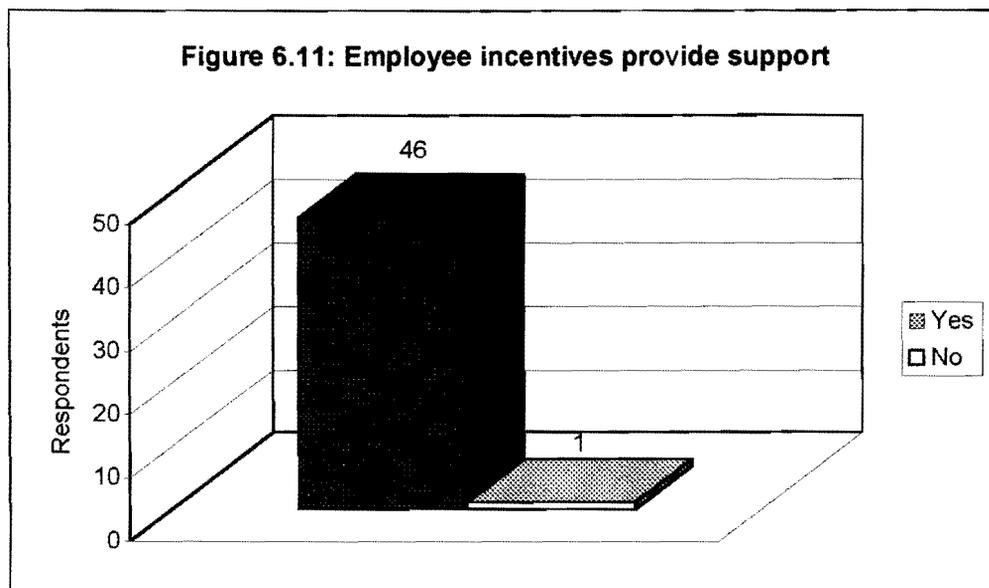
5.5 Availability of a job description (question 5)

5.5.1 Factual data

Respondents were requested to indicate if they have a job description. Three respondents did not answer this question (N=46). One respondent indicated that he compiled his own job description without assistance from his supervisor. Twenty six (57%) respondents indicated that they do have job descriptions while twenty (43%) respondents indicated that they do not have job descriptions. The responses are presented in Figure 6.12.

5.5.2 Interpretation

A small majority of respondents (57%) responded positively by indicating that they do have job descriptions. The fact that one respondent specifically indicated that he compiled his own job description can be an indication that supervisors are in need of job descriptions to guide work

activities. Fourty three percent of the respondents do not have job descriptions. Watling (1995:21) and Tyson & York (1996:75) indicated that the job description gives an explanation of the duties and tasks of a specific position. Employees without job descriptions can result in certain duties and tasks not being executed.

Figure 6.12: Job description available
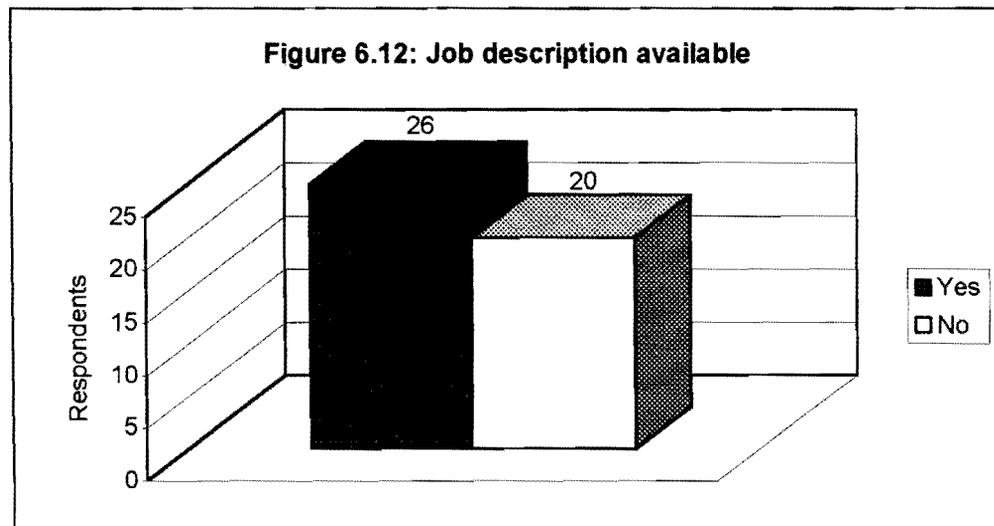
5.6 Job specification (question 6)

5.6.1 Factual data

Respondents had to indicate if they know what the job specification or job requirements in personal terms are for a social work supervisor. Two respondents did not answer this question (N=47). Thirty two (68%) respondents indicated that they do have knowledge of the job specification of a supervisor. Fifteen (32%) respondents indicated that they do not know what the job requirements in personal terms are for their positions as supervisors.

5.6.2 Interpretation

The majority (68%) of the respondents are aware of what the job requirements in personal terms are for a social work supervisor. The job specification refers to the human characteristics that are needed by the person performing the job in terms of experience, education, training, physical and mental abilities (Werther & Davis, 1993:140). The conclusion is made that the majority of social work supervisors are aware of the skills, experience, education and training that they have to comply with to be able to effectively function within the position as supervisor.

5.7 Job analysis (question 7)

5.7.1 Factual data

Respondents had to indicate if they have done a job analysis since their appointment in their present positions. Two respondents did not answer this question (N=47). Nineteen (40%) respondents indicted that they have done a job analysis. Twenty eight (60%) respondents have not done a job analysis since their appointment in their present position.

5.7.2 Interpretation

The job analysis is a comprehensive investigation that is done on the duties of a specific position. According to Raelin (1984:130) there are many key activities that are performed in a position and without careful analysis only a few of these activities may come to mind. A job analysis is thus essential before compiling a job description. As the majority (60%) of the respondents have not done a job analysis the conclusion is made that this was not expected of them and they are not aware of the value an analysis can provide for their effective functioning in their positions as social work supervisors.

5.8 Support from job description (question 8)

5.8.1 Factual data

Respondents had to indicate if they are of the opinion that the availability of a job description can provide them with support in the execution of their responsibilities as supervisors. One respondent did not answer the question (N=48). One respondent indicated that sometimes he does not know what is actually expected from him and what tasks are not included in his job description. Fourty seven (98%) respondents indicated that the availability of a job description could be a support to them. Only one respondent was of the opinion that a job description would not provide support to him in the execution of his responsibilities. The responses are presented in Figure 6.13.

5.8.2 Interpretation

The majority of the respondents (98%) responded positively by indicating that they are of the opinion that the availability of a job description can provide them with support in the execution of their responsibilities. The conclusion is made that a job description is a support system that can be available to provide support to social work supervisors.

Figure 13: Job description provide support
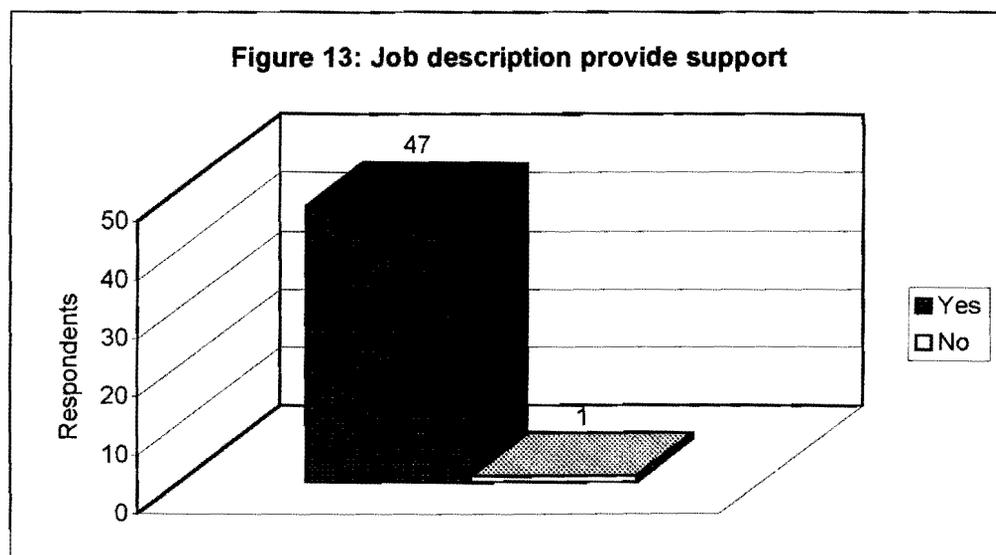
5.9 Knowledge of performance appraisal system (question 9)

5.9.1 Factual data

Respondents were requested to indicate if they do have knowledge of the performance appraisal system implemented in their organisation. One respondent did not answer this question (N=48). Thirty seven (77%) respondents indicated that they do have knowledge of the performance appraisal system in their organisation. Eleven (23%) respondents do not have knowledge of the performance appraisal system implemented in their organisation.

5.9.2 Interpretation

The majority (77%) of the respondents indicated that they do have knowledge of the performance appraisal system implemented in their organisation. Anderson (1993:73) recommends that all employees should be fully briefed on the performance appraisal system implemented in the organisation and that the briefing should be extended to training of employees to be appraised as well as the appraisers themselves. Unfortunately it was not possible to establish if respondents were briefed and trained on the performance appraisal system implemented in their organisation. The extent of the knowledge that the majority of the respondents do have can thus not be determined.

5.10 Performance appraised in present position (question 10)

5.10.1 Factual data

Respondents were requested to indicate if their performance was appraised since their appointment in their present position. One respondent did not answer this question (N=48). Thirteen (27%) respondents indicated that their performance was appraised since their appointment in their present position. Thirty five (73%) respondents' performance was not appraised since their appointment in their present position. Figure 6.14 represents the responses.

5.10.2 Interpretation

It is clear that the majority (73%) of the respondents have not had their performance appraised since their appointment in their present positions. Taking into account that 36 of the respondents (see experience as social work supervisors) have more than 3 years experience as social work supervisors the fact that the performance of only thirteen respondents have been appraised raises concern. A conclusion can be made that the knowledge that 37 respondents claim to have on the implemented performance appraisal system (question C9) is not utilised. The system allows for employees, depending on their position, to be appraised three years after appointment for promotion but that they can be appraised annually for a notch increment on their salary scale. Individual employees thus need to lay claim on being appraised as it can result in a financial benefit. Informal performance appraisal on a more regular basis can contribute to the improvement of employees within their present positions.

Figure 6.14: Performance appraised in present position
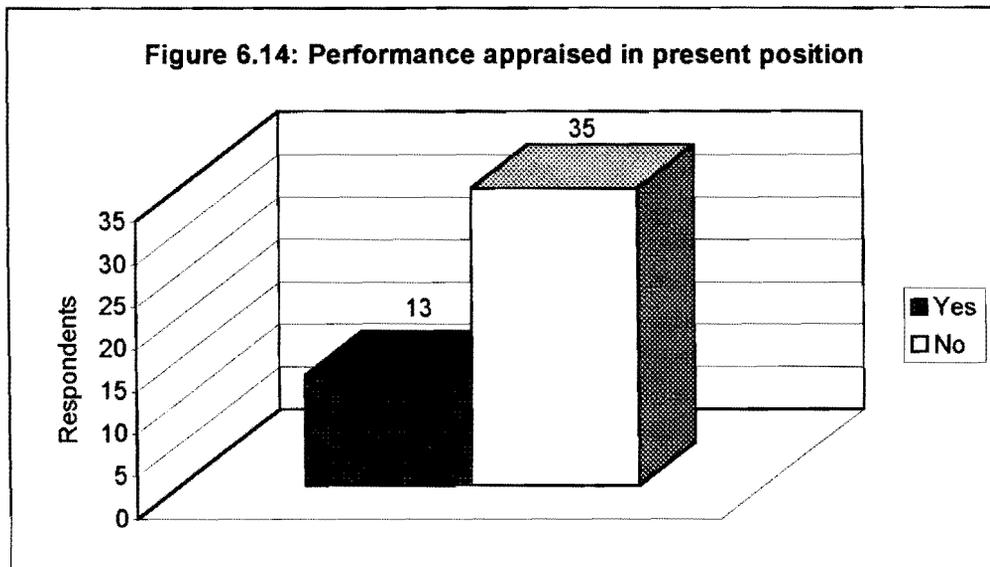
5.11 Need for performance to be appraised (question 11)

5.11.1 Factual data

Respondents were requested to indicate if they want their performance to be appraised. Two respondents did not answer this question (N=47). One respondent indicated that he is on the top of his scale and cannot go further. He was also the only respondent that indicated that he does not want his performance to be appraised. However, the rest (46) of the respondents indicated that they want their performance to be appraised.

5.11.2 Interpretation

The fact that all the respondents but one indicated that they want their performance to be appraised is indicative of the value that they do allocate to performance appraisal. This overwhelming positive response is also against the general impression that employees are negative towards performance appraisal and that they do not want their performance to be appraised. In this specific case, the employees are in middle management positions where performance appraisal is considered to be a waste of time and not useful to them (Snape, et al., 1994:43). It can be accepted that this opinion cannot be generalised towards all organisations.

5.12 Regularity of performance appraisal (question 12)

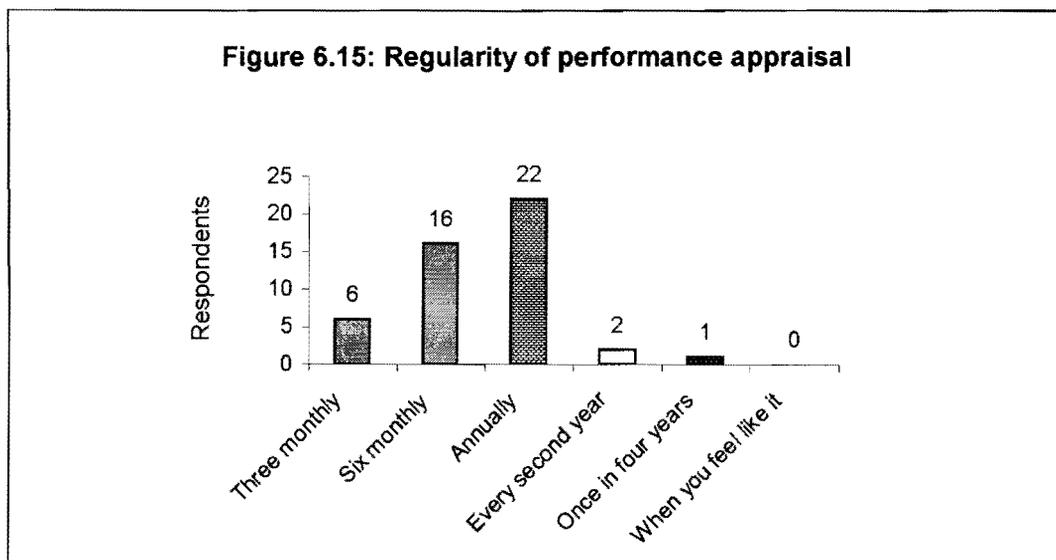### 5.12.1 Factual data

In question 12 the respondents that responded positively to question 11 were requested to indicate how regularly they want their performance to be appraised. Although 46 respondents indicated that they want their performance to be appraised, 47 respondents indicated how regularly they want their performance to be appraised (N=47). The responses are presented in Figure 6.15.

5.12.2 Interpretation

As discussed under 5.10.2 the performance of employees can be appraised annually for a notch increment on their salary scale and then according to the position that they hold, they can be appraised after three years and when promotion positions are available for them to be promoted. Six (13%) respondents wanted their performance to be appraised on a 3-monthly basis and 16 (34%) respondents wanted the appraisal to be done on a 6-monthly basis. The implication of such performance appraisals is that it should be done on an informal basis. The conclusion is made that these 22 (47%) respondents requesting the more regular appraisal need regular feedback on their performance to ensure that they are correct in their performance and that they meet the expectations. Informal appraisals also allow for improvement of performance that could result in employees being "ready" for formal appraisals.

Twenty two (47%) respondents requested that their performance be appraised on an annual basis that can be connected with the notch increments on the salary scale that can be awarded if the results of the performance appraisals indicate that employees have earned it. It is concluded that the three respondents that indicated that they only want their performance to be appraised every second year or once in four years are not well informed on the performance appraisal system implemented in their organisation. The general conclusion is that respondents expressed a need for more regular appraisal of their performance and informal appraisal will also be valued.

Figure 6.15: Regularity of performance appraisal

5.13 Possible appraisers (question 13)

5.13.1 Factual data

Respondents had to indicate which of the identified possible appraisers they would prefer to appraise their performance. They had to indicate their preference according to a scale of 1 to 7 where 1 was their first choice and 7 their last choice. Twelve respondents did not answer this

question (N=37). Table 6.15 represents the responses of the respondents according to the scale of 1 to 7.

5.13.2 Interpretation

To be appraised by their immediate superior is indicated to be the first choice of 29 (78%) of the respondents while 9 respondents identified to be appraised by persons outside the immediate work environment as their last choice. Being appraised by higher level managers seems to be the second choice of most (13) respondents. The responses to the other possible appraisers namely peers, subordinates, self appraisal and multiple appraisal are scattered between the 7 possible choices and it can be related to the fact that being appraised by any person other than the immediate superior is a strange or new concept to many employees. It is concluded that the single superior performance appraisal is the approach most commonly used and this approach is often found acceptable to those involved (Dendinger & Kohn, 1989:42 and Snape, et al., 1994:55).

Table 6.15: Possible appraisers according to preference (N=37)

Possible appraisers Scale	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Immediate superior	29	3	3	1	0	0	0
Higher level managers	4	13	6	4	2	2	3
Peers	1	3	7	5	8	5	5
Subordinates	3	7	4	7	1	9	6
Persons outside the immediate work environment	2	3	6	3	6	5	9
Self appraisal	5	7	4	5	6	4	5
Multiple appraisal resources	1	2	7	6	8	4	6

Scale: 1 = 1st choice up to 7 = last choice. N is not 37 for each possible appraiser as some respondents did not grade each possible appraiser.

5.14 Support provided by performance being appraised (question 14)

5.14.1 Factual data

Respondents were requested to indicate if, being appraised on a regular basis would provide support to them in the execution of their responsibilities as social work supervisors. All respondents answered this question (N=49). One respondent indicated that performance appraisal could also serve as a measurement or mechanism to indicate improvement or not. Fourty six (94%) respondents were positive about the support that being appraised regularly would provide. Only three respondents indicated that regular appraisal of their performance would not be supportive to them in the execution of their responsibilities as supervisors. The responses are presented in Figure 6.16.

5.14.2 Interpretation

The majority of the respondents (94%) responded positively by indicating that they are of the opinion that if their performance is being appraised on a regular basis it can provide them with support in the execution of their responsibilities as social work supervisors. The conclusion is made that regular appraisal of performance as element of the management strategy of performance management is a support system that can be available to provide support to social work supervisors.

Figure 6.16: Performance appraisal can provide support
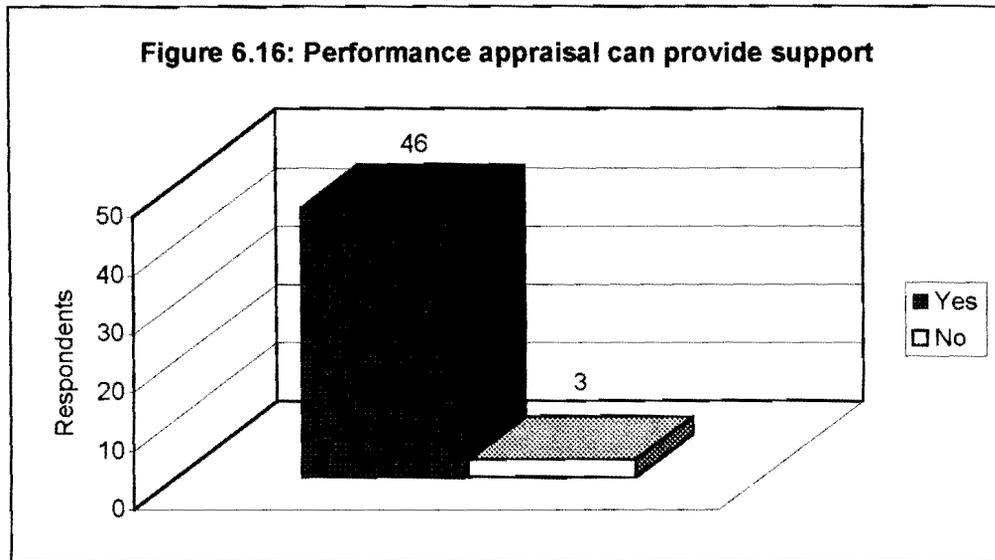
5.15 Supervisory training received (question 15)

5.15.1 Factual data

Respondents were requested to indicate if they have received any supervisory training since their appointment in their present position. One respondent did not answer this question (N=48). Twenty five (52%) respondents indicated that they did receive supervisory training. However, 23 (48%) respondents did not receive supervisory training since their appointment in their present position.

5.15.2 Interpretation

A small majority of the respondents have received supervisory training since their appointment in their present positions. The conclusion is made that supervisory training is provided but that it is not a priority in training considerations.

5.16 Managerial training received (question 16)

5.16.1 Factual data

Respondents were requested to indicate if they have received any managerial training since their appointment in their present position. One respondent did not answer this question (N=48). Twenty eight (58%) respondents indicated that they did receive managerial training. Twenty (42%) respondents did not receive managerial training since their appointment in their present position.

5.16.2 Interpretation

The majority (58%) of respondents have received managerial training since their appointment in their present positions. It is concluded that more effort is made to provide managerial training to social work supervisors than is the case with supervisory training.

5.17 Training techniques used (question 17)

5.17.1 Factual data

Respondents that responded positively to questions 15 and 16 were requested to indicate which of the identified training techniques have been used or followed in their training. Even though 25 respondents indicated that they received supervisory training and 28 respondents indicated that they received managerial training, 39 respondents identified training techniques that were used (N=39). These responses are presented in Table 6.16.

5.17.2 Interpretation

Readings or "self-training" resulted in the most positive responses i.e. 30 respondents. This training technique is essentially self-development with the result that it is concluded that respondents have taken responsibility for their own development through reading of relevant and applicable literature. Twenty six respondents indicated that they received on-the-job training. The implication is that supervisors are appointed in their positions and that they act as supervisors without formal training as supervisors.

Case studies have been used in the training of 24 of the respondents. Twenty two respondents indicated that they received basic skills training that is related to computing skills training. Counselling and orientation training were provided to 21 respondents. The counselling technique refers to discussions on a wide range of issues, many of which might extend beyond the job into aspects such as personal matters and career development. This training technique is also a technique through which support can be provided to employees. Orientation training is intended to prepare a new employee to function effectively in the organisation. It could not be established whether respondents received orientation training in preparation for the position as social work supervisor.

The rest of the identified training techniques were positively indicated by the minority of the respondents (less than 45%) as been used in training. Even though 2 respondents indicated that other training techniques were used only one respondent specified the techniques as workshops on supervision where lectures and self-do exercises were used. The general conclusion is that the training techniques that were used or followed are mainly the techniques that could be used in the one-to-one situation.

Table 6.16: Training techniques used (N=39)

Techniques	Yes
Readings – "self training"	30
On-the-job training	26
Case studies	24
Basic skills training e.g. computing skills	22
Counselling	21
Orientation training	21
Conference programs	17
Role-playing	16
Managerial work role training	16
Job rotation	14
Interpersonal communications training	14
Networking	14
Traditional classroom lectures	14
Action learning	11
Formal university training	11
Mentoring	10
Computer assisted learning	9
Peer training	8
Manager games and simulations	7
Temporary promotions	6
Coaching	6
Outdoor training	5
Manager learning contracts	5
Technical training	5
Programmed instructions – step-by-step training	5
Sensitivity training	3
Other	2

5.18 Need for supervisory training (question 18)

5.18.1 Factual data

Respondents were requested to indicate if they need supervisory training. All respondents answered this question (N=49). Thirty three (67%) respondents indicated that they need supervisory training. Sixteen (33%) respondents indicated that they do not need supervisory training. The responses are presented in Figure 6.17.

Figure 6.17: Need supervisory training
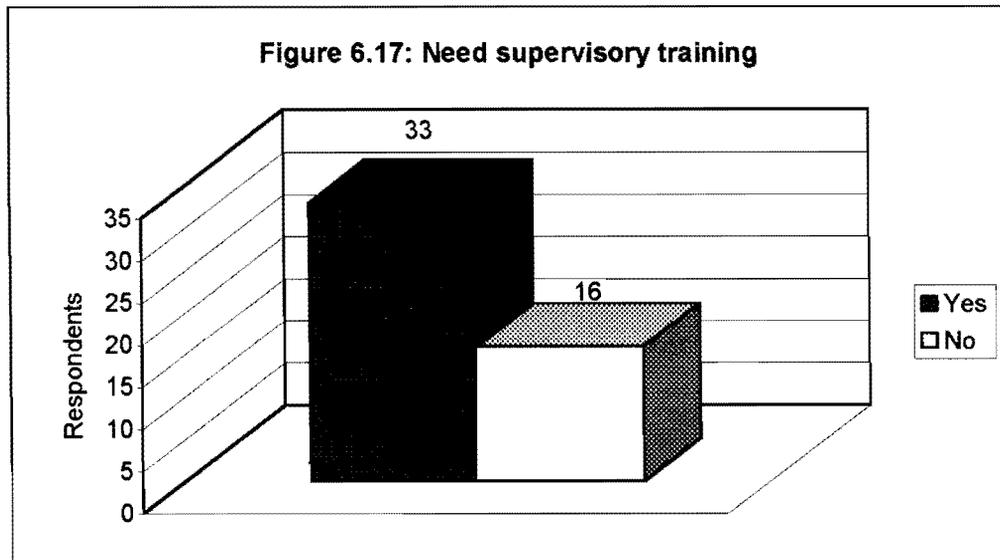
5.18.2 Interpretation

A majority of 67% respondents indicated that they do need supervisory training. In question 15 48% of the respondents indicated that they have not received supervisory training. The conclusion is made that even though 52% of the respondents have received supervisory training, some of them need more training as well as those respondents that have not received any supervisory training.

5.19 Need for managerial training (question 19)

5.19.1 Factual data

Respondents had to indicate if they need managerial training. All respondents answered this question (N=49). One respondent indicated that both supervisory and managerial training are important, as new levels with new requirements have to be mastered. Another respondent indicated that he is engaged in a management course at the university. Fourty four (90%) respondents indicated that they do need managerial training. Only five (10%) respondents indicated that they do not need managerial training. Figure 6.18 presents the responses.

5.19.2 Interpretation

An overwhelming majority of 90% respondents indicated that they do need managerial training even though the responses to question 16 indicated that 58% of the respondents have received managerial training. The conclusion is that the need for managerial training is more intense than the need for supervisory training and that training should be provided on a continuous basis.

Figure 6.18: Need managerial training
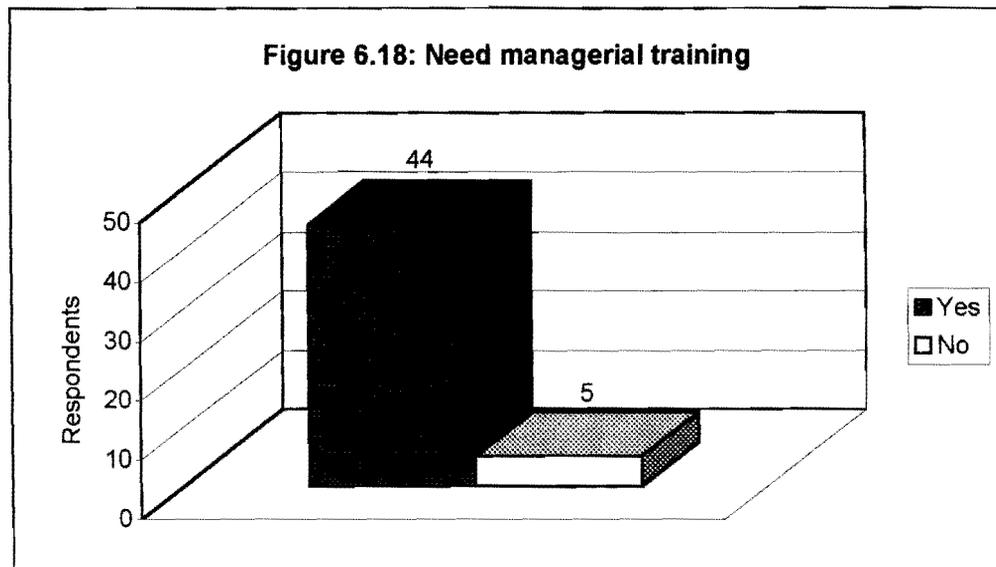
5.20 Support provided by training (question 20)

5.20.1 Factual data

Respondents that responded positively to questions 18 and 19 had to indicate if supervisory and managerial training could provide support to them in the execution of their duties as social work supervisors. Only two respondents did not answer this question even though 16 respondents indicated that they do not need supervisory training and 5 respondents indicated that they do not need managerial training (N=47). Fourty six (98%) respondents indicated that supervisory and managerial training could provide them with support in the execution of their responsibilities. Only one respondent indicated that supervisory and managerial training could not be supportive to him as supervisor. Figure 6.19 presents the responses to this question.

Figure 6.19: Training can provide support
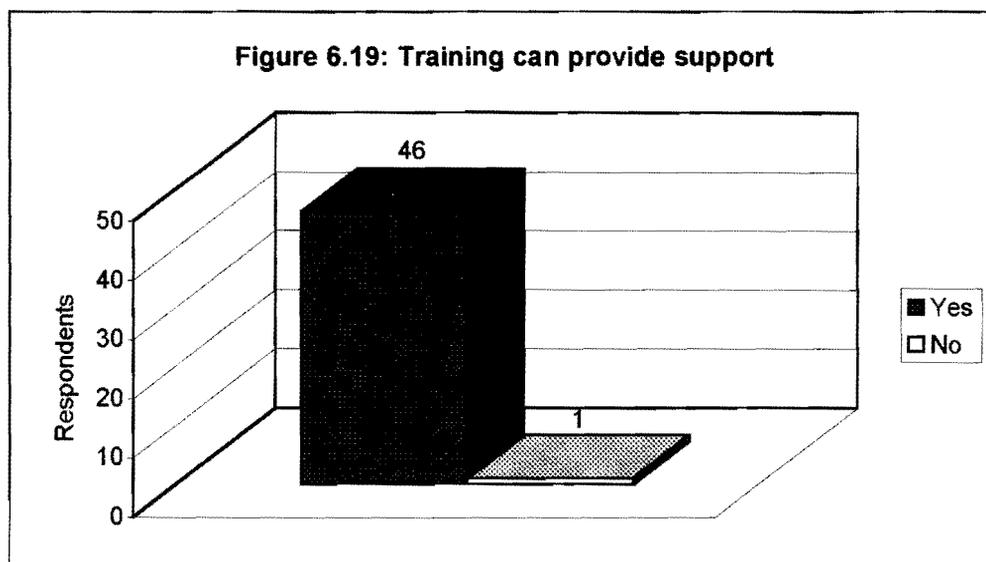
5.20.2 Interpretation

Again an overwhelming majority of the respondents (98%) responded positively by indicating that they are of the opinion that supervisory and managerial training can provide them with support in the execution of their responsibilities as social work supervisors or middle managers. It is

concluded that supervisory and managerial training as part of the management strategy of strategic human resources development is a support system that can be available to provide support to social work supervisors.

5.21 Knowledge of the budget (question 21)

5.21.1 Factual data

Respondents were requested to rate their knowledge of the budget for their section according to a 4-point scale. One respondent did not answer this question (N=48). The responses are presented in Figure 6.20. The 4-point scale is the following:

1 Excellent
2 Good
3 Average
4 Poor

5.21.2 Interpretation

Fifteen (31%) respondents rated their knowledge of the budget above average i.e. excellent or good. The rest of the respondents rated their knowledge of the budget as average (18 – 38%) and poor (15 – 31%). The majority (69%) of respondents thus have an average or below average knowledge of the budget. The conclusion is that respondents' knowledge of the budget is not sufficient for them to act with confidence when contributing to the budget.

Figure 6.20: Knowledge of the budget
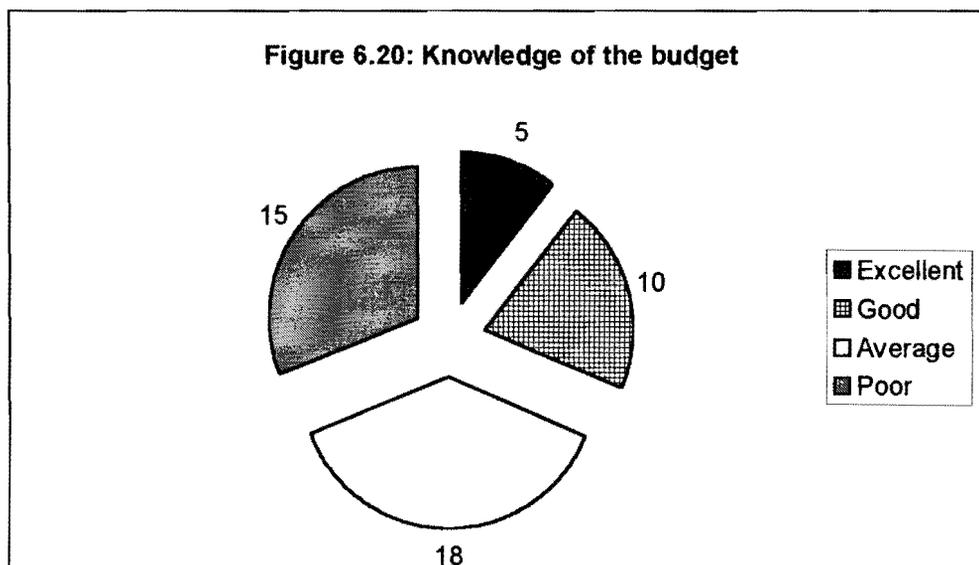
5.22 Knowledge of financial controls and input during the budgeting process (question 22)

5.22.1 Factual data

Respondents had to indicate if they do have knowledge of the financial controls to be implemented. Four respondents did not answer this question (N=45). Thirty (67%) respondents indicated that they do have knowledge of the financial controls to be implemented, but fifteen (33%) respondents indicated that they do not have knowledge of the financial controls.

In the same question (22) respondents were requested to indicate if they have any form of input during the budgeting process. Thirty (67%) respondents indicated that they do give input and fifteen (33%) respondents indicated that they do not give any form of input during the budgeting process. One respondent did not answer the question but indicated that they do not deal with the budget.

5.22.2 Interpretation

In terms of the responses on knowledge of financial controls to be implemented, the majority (67%) of respondents indicated that they do have knowledge thereof. The same number of positive responses (67%) is applicable to input that is provided during the budgeting process. The general conclusion is that most of the respondents do have knowledge of the financial controls to be implemented and do provide input during the budgeting process. Unfortunately the degree of this knowledge and input could not be established through these questions. The degree of knowledge and input would have provided an indication of the confidence with which the financial controls are implemented which would also have a positive influence on the quality of input that could be provided during the budgeting process.

5.23 Support from knowledge of the budget (question 23)

5.23.1 Factual data

Respondents were requested to indicate if they are of the opinion that knowledge of the budget would provide support to them in the execution of their duties as social work supervisors. All respondents answered this question (N=49). Fourty eight (98%) respondents were positive about the support that knowledge of the budget would provide. Only one respondent indicated that knowledge of the budget would not be supportive to him in the execution of his responsibilities as supervisor. The responses are presented in Figure 6.21.

5.23.2 Interpretation

Again an overwhelming majority of the respondents (98%) responded positively by indicating that they are of the opinion that knowledge of the budget can provide them with support in the execution of their responsibilities as social work supervisors. The conclusion is that knowledge of the budget is an available support system to provide support to social work supervisors.

Figure 6.21: Knowledge of the budget can provide support
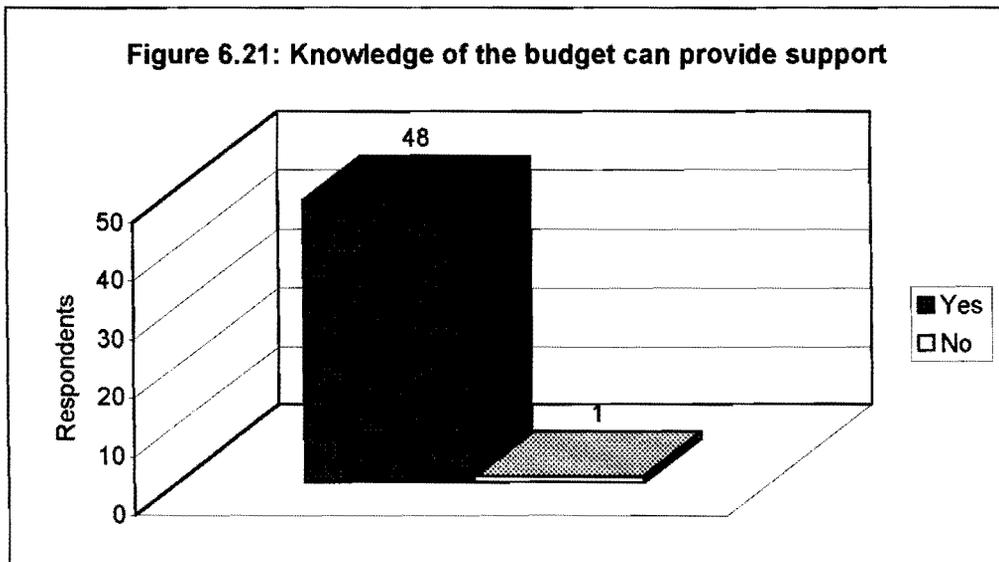
5.24 Support from active participation in the budgeting process (question 24)

5.24.1 Factual data

Respondents had to indicate if they are of the opinion that active participation in the budgeting process will provide support to them in the execution of their duties as social work supervisors. One respondent did not answer this question (N=48). All respondents were positive about the support that active participation in the budgeting process would provide to them in the execution of their responsibilities as supervisors.

5.24.2 Interpretation

As the response to this question was 100% positive it can be accepted without a doubt that active participation of social work supervisors in the budgeting process will provide them with support in the execution of their duties. The conclusion is made that active participation in the budgeting process as a result of knowledge of the budget ensures that the budget is an available support system to provide support to social work supervisors.

5.25 Availability of the services of an Employee Assistance Program (question 25)

5.25.1 Factual data

Respondents were requested to indicate if the services of an Employee Assistance Program (EAP) are available within their organisation. Three respondents did not answer this question (N=46). Nine (19%) respondents indicated that the services of an EAP are available to them. Thirty six (79%) respondents indicated that the services of an EAP are not available to them and one (2%) respondent indicated that he does not know if such services are available.

5.25.2 Interpretation

Employee Assistance Programs are categorised under personal counselling as an employee benefit. The Public Service Staff Code (revised edition 10 June 1994) makes provision for

psychological and related professional services in respect of vocational adjustment of employees in the Public Service. The fact that only 9 (19%) respondents have indicated that the services of an Employee Assistance Program are available within their organisation results in the conclusion that supervisors are not aware of this service or that the service is not effectively implemented and thus not utilised.

5.26 Willingness to make use of services of an EAP for personal support (question 26)

5.26.1 Factual data

Respondents were requested to indicate if they would make use of the services of an Employee Assistance Program in order to support them personally in the handling of their supervisory and managerial problems and frustrations as social work supervisors. Four respondents did not answer this question (N=45). Fourty (89%) respondents indicated that they would make use of the services of an EAP for personal support. Four (9%) respondents responded negatively and one (2%) respondent indicated that he could not answer the question. Figure 6.22 represents the responses.

Figure 6.22: Employee Assistance Program can provide support
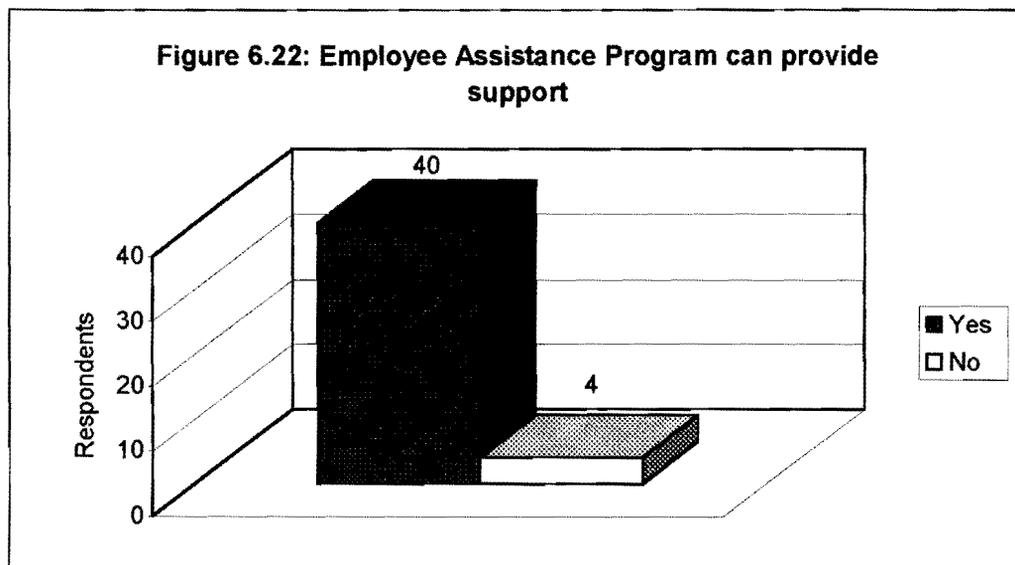
5.26.2 Interpretation

A majority of the respondents (89%) responded positively by indicating that they would make use of the services of an Employee Assistance Program for personal support in the handling of their supervisory and managerial problems and frustrations as social work supervisors. It is concluded that the services of an Employee Assistance Program can be a support system to provide support to social work supervisors if available and functioning effectively.

5.27 Discussion of supervisory and managerial problems and frustrations with colleagues (question 27)

5.27.1 Factual data

Respondents were requested to indicate if they do discuss supervisory and managerial problems and frustrations with colleagues in similar positions as themselves. One respondent did not answer this question (N=48). Fourty four (92%) respondents responded positively and four (8%) respondents indicated that they do not discuss their supervisory and managerial problems and frustrations with colleagues.

5.27.2 Interpretation

As 44 (92%) respondents responded positively by indicating that they do discuss their supervisory and managerial problems and frustrations with their colleagues. It is thus accepted that social work supervisors have a need to discuss their problems and frustrations with their colleagues in similar positions as themselves. The statement of Remley et al. (1987:59) namely that the mutual support and acknowledgment received within the peer group can help managers who experience job related stress to cope more effectively, confirms this conclusion.

5.28 Supervisors' peer support group (question 28)

5.28.1 Factual data

Respondents had to indicate if they are of the opinion that they could benefit from a structured peer group of middle managers also referred to as supervisors' peer support group. One respondent did not answer this question (N=48). One respondent was very specific in terms of the benefits that can be derived from a structured peer group: within the group, members will share their experience, advice and knowledge on how to handle supervisory and managerial problems and frustrations. The group will also provide general support. Fourty six (96%) respondents were positive that they could benefit from a peer support group. Only two (4%) respondents were of the opinion that they would not benefit from such support group. The responses are presented in Figure 6.23.

5.28.2 Interpretation

It is accepted that the supervisors' peer support group can be available as a support system to provide support to social work supervisors, as an overwhelming majority of the respondents (96%) responded positively by indicating that they could benefit from a peer support group.

Figure 6.23: Supervisors' peer support group can provide support
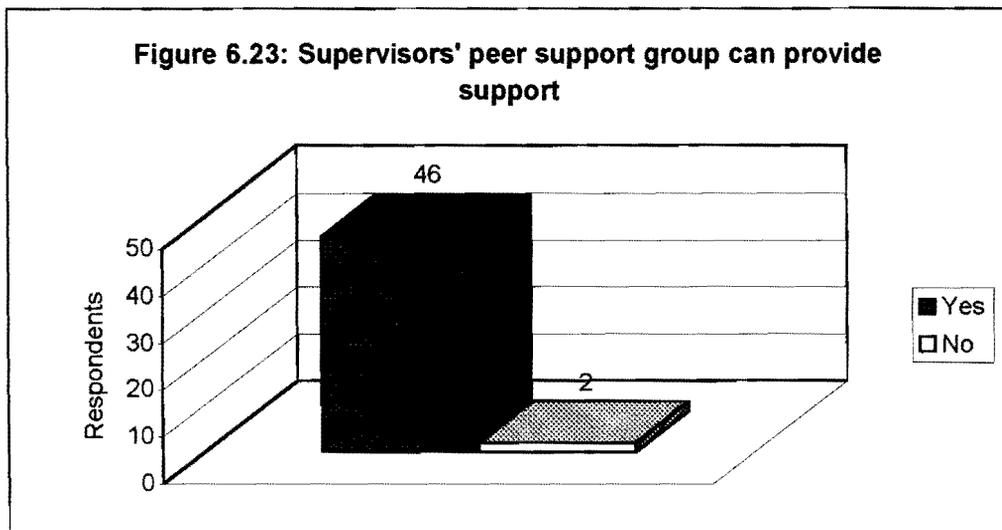
5.29 Vision of career advancement (question 29)

5.29.1 Factual data

Respondents had to indicate if they have a positive vision of career advancement for themselves in their sections. One respondent did not answer this question (N=48). One respondent stressed that due to affirmative action there is no possibility of "advancement" – he will stay a supervisor forever. Twenty (42%) respondents have a positive vision of their career advancement but 28 (58%) respondents have no vision of career advancement for themselves in their sections. The responses are presented in Figure 6.24.

Figure 6.24: Vision of career advancement
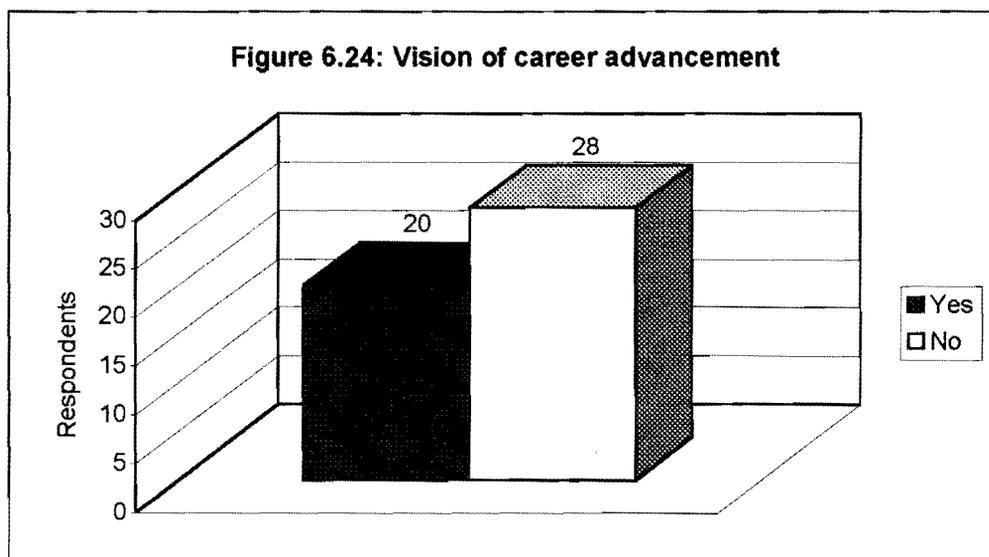
5.29.2 Interpretation

A majority (58%) of the respondents responded negatively in the sense that they have no vision of career advancement for themselves in their sections. The direct referral by one respondent to the negative influence of affirmative action on possible career advancement has to be taken serious

note of. The implication is that the manner in which the transformation of the Public Service is handled has a negative influence on the vision that employees have of their future within the Public Service.

5.30 Initiative for career planning (question 30)

5.30.1 Factual data

Respondents that responded positively to question 29 were requested to indicate who has taken initiative for their career planning: themselves, their immediate superiors or the human resource sections. Even though 20 respondents were positive about career advancement in their section, 21 respondents answered this question (N=21). The responses are indicated in Table 6.17 according to the combinations of possibilities for taking initiative for career planning as indicated in the questionnaires.

Table 6.17: Initiative for career planning (N=21)

Possibilities	Response	%
Yourself	13	62
Yourself and human resource section	1	6
Immediate superior	2	9
Yourself, immediate superior and human resource section	3	14
Yourself and immediate superior	2	9

5.30.2 Interpretation

It is clear from the responses that initiative for career planning is taken by employees themselves in the majority of cases (62%). Only 2 (9%) of the respondents indicated that their immediate superiors took initiative in supporting their career planning. In all the other possibilities the individual employee was part of the career planning. Burack & Mathys (1988:26) stressed that the individual cannot be separated from active participation in his own career planning even though organisations are expected to set up programs, systems and policies to support these individuals. It is concluded that employees do have a responsibility towards their own career planning but they do need support from the organisation.

5.31 Support from specific career planning (question 31)

5.31.1 Factual data

Respondents were requested to indicate if they were of the opinion that specific career planning for themselves would provide support to them in the execution of their responsibilities as social work supervisors. Two respondents did not answer this question (N=47). Fourty two (89%) respondents responded positively about the support that specific career planning would provide to them in the execution of their responsibilities as supervisors. Only 5 (11%) respondents indicated that career planning would not provide support to them in the execution of their responsibilities.

One respondent specifically indicated that due to affirmative action career planning is not necessary, as there is no possibility of promotion. Figure 6.25 represents the responses.

5.31.2 Interpretation

A majority of the respondents (89%) responded positively by indicating that specific career planning would support them in the execution of their duties as social work supervisors. The fact that affirmative action is indicated to negatively influence employees in terms of their vision of the future should be taken note of as work motivation and satisfaction can also be negatively influenced. It is concluded that specific career planning can be available as support system to provide support to social work supervisors if superiors execute their career management responsibilities.

Figure 6.25: Career planning can provide support
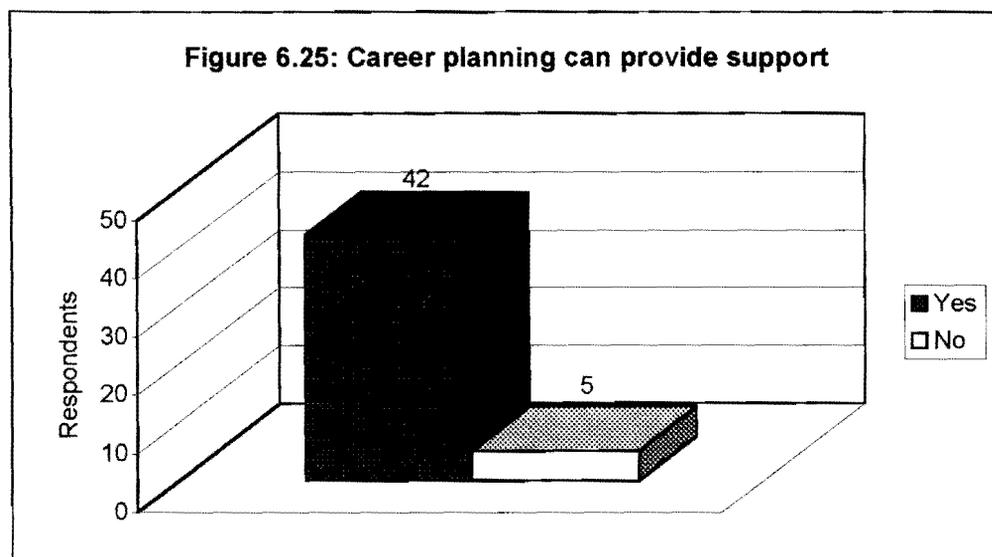
5.32 Types of organisational cultures (question 32)

5.32.1 Factual data

Respondents had to indicate, according to a 4-point scale, to which degree the identified organisational cultures are present in their organisations. Five respondents did not answer this question (N=44). One respondent graded caring, exacting and integrative cultures as prominent but indicated that it is present in a mixture and it is different from manager to manager. The responses are presented in Table 6.18. The 4-point scale is the following:

1   Prominent (100%)

2   Less prominent (70%)

3   Vaguely noticeable (30%)

4   Absent (0%)

5.32.2 Interpretation

The responses of the respondents reflect a very negative picture of the culture present in the Department of Welfare in the three provinces. A majority (43%) of respondents indicated that the

exacting culture with little sensitivity for employees but demanding and exacting performance expectations is prominent in their organisations. The apathetic culture with little concern for human assets and indifference to their performance is indicated by 12 (27%) respondents to be less prominent. By taking the first (prominent) and second (less prominent) categories of the scale into consideration, the exacting culture is indicated to be prominent by 29 (66%) respondents. 23 (52%) respondents indicate the apathetic culture to be prominent and 17 (39%) respondents indicate both the integrative and caring cultures as prominent. The conclusion is made that organisational culture present within the Department of Welfare has little concern for the employees and is either very demanding or indifferent towards the performance of the employees.

Table 6.18: Organisational cultures present in organisations (N=44)

Scale Type of culture	1	2	3	4
Exacting culture – little sensitivity for employees but demanding and exacting performance expectations.	19	10	10	1
Apathetic culture – little concern for human assets and indifference to their performance.	12	11	12	8
Integrative culture – high concern for employees and high performance expectations.	9	8	16	7
Caring culture – high concern for employees as assets and relatively undemanding performance expectations.	6	11	16	7

N is not 44 for each type of culture as some respondents did not grade each type of culture.

5.33 Organisational culture providing support (question 33)

5.33.1 Factual data

Respondents were requested to indicate if they were of the opinion that organisational culture could be supportive to them in the execution of their responsibilities as social work supervisors. Two respondents did not answer this question (N=47). Fourty five (96%) respondents responded positively about the support that the organisational culture would provide to them in the execution of their responsibilities as supervisors. Only 2 (4%) respondents indicated that organisational culture would not provide support to them in the execution of their responsibilities. Figure 6.26 represents the responses.

5.33.2 Interpretation

A majority of the respondents (96%) responded positively by indicating that the organisational culture present within their organisation can provide them with support in the execution of their duties as social work supervisors. It is concluded that organisational culture can be available as a support system to provide support to social work supervisors.

Figure 6.26: Organisational culture can provide support
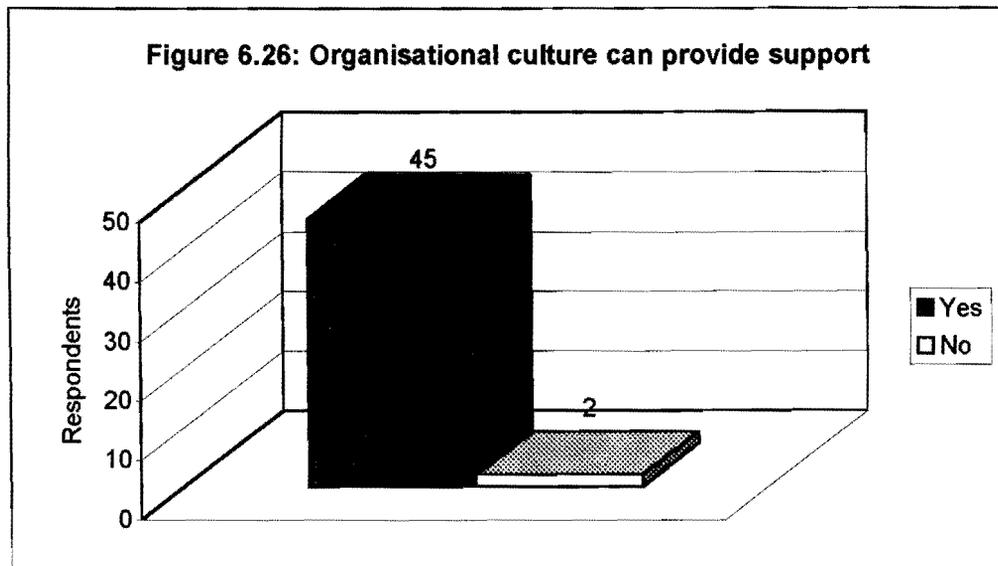
5.34 Organisational climate (question 34)

5.34.1 Factual data

Respondents had to indicate, according to a 4-point scale, to which degree the identified organisational climates describe the climate in their organisations. One respondent indicated that a system for recognition is in place but is not effectively implemented. All respondents answered this question (N=49). The responses are presented in Table 6.19 as prevalent organisational climates. The 4-point scale is the following:

1   Excellent

2   Good

3   Average

4   Poor

5.34.2 Interpretation

The responses of the respondents are mostly negative in the sense that the categories average and poor represent the most responses. A negative picture of the organisational climate prevalent in the Department of Welfare is thus created through the responses of the respondents. No respondent identified the organisational climate of being supportive and resulting in job satisfaction as indicative of the climate in their organisation. Only 2 (4%) respondents identified the climates of employees knowing that management is concerned about them and a system for recognition is in place as excellent descriptions of the climate in their organisation. Only 7 (14%) respondents indicated that the climate of formal tasks being communicated from top management via the correct channels is an excellent description of the climate in their organisation. The general conclusion is that employees experience the present organisational climate within the Department of Welfare negative and it needs urgent attention.

Table 6.19: Prevalent organisational climates (N=49)

Scale Type of climate	1	2	3	4
Formal tasks are communicated from top management via the correct channels.	7	10	19	11
Changes in responsibilities are passed on to the persons involved.	5	11	23	8
Management style conveys warmth, friendliness and security to employees.	4	10	25	10
All employees are treated the same.	4	3	17	23
An effective and efficient system for evaluation is in place.	3	8	18	19
Tasks are clear and are not changed continuously.	3	4	19	23
Employees know that management is concerned about them.	2	5	20	21
A system for giving recognition is in place.	2	5	19	22
The organisational climate is supportive and results in job satisfaction.	0	7	18	23

N is not 49 for each type of climate as some respondents did not grade each type of climate.

5.35 Organisational climate providing support (question 35)

5.35.1 Factual data

Respondents were requested to indicate if they are of the opinion that the organisational climate can be supportive to them in the execution of their responsibilities as social work supervisors. One respondent did not answer this question (N=48). Fourty six (96%) respondents responded positively about the support that the organisational climate could provide to them in the execution of their responsibilities as supervisors. Only 2 (4%) respondents indicated that organisational climate would not provide support to them in the execution of their responsibilities. Figure 6.27 represents the responses.

Figure 6.27: Organisational climate can provide support
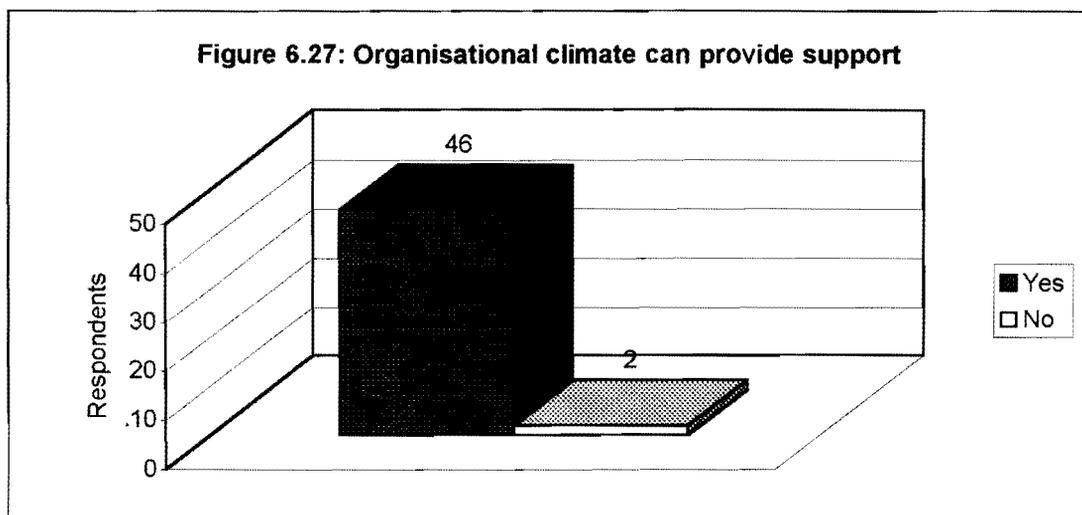
5.35.2 Interpretation

It is accepted that organisational climate can be available as a support system to provide support to social work supervisors, as an overwhelming majority of the respondents (96%) responded positively by indicating that the organisational climate can support them in the execution of their duties as social work supervisors.

5.36 Immediate superior (question 36)

5.36.1 Factual data

Communication problems and persons acting (not permanently appointed) in senior positions due to structural changes resulted in supervisors not knowing who their immediate superiors are. Respondents were requested to identify their immediate superior from possible indicated superiors. All respondents answered this question (N=49). The responses of the respondents are presented in Figure 6.28.

5.36.2 Interpretation

Two respondents indicated that their superiors are the District Manager and the Medical Superintendent. Two respondents indicated that they do not know who their immediate superior is. In most cases (23 – 47%) the Assistant Director is the immediate superior. The conclusion is made that the majority (96%) of the respondents know who their immediate superiors are.

Figure 6.28: Immediate superiors
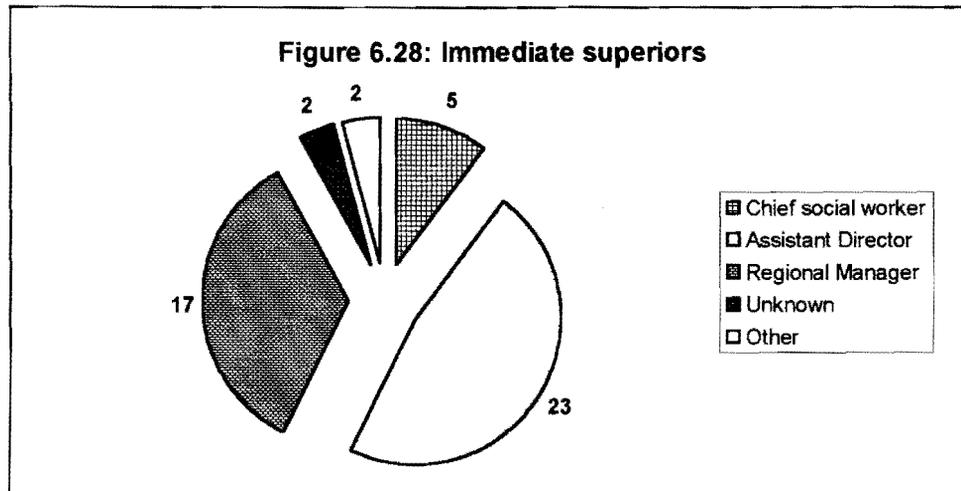
5.37 Support from immediate superior (question 37 and 38)

5.37.1 Factual data

Respondents had to indicate if they do receive support for the execution of their duties as social work supervisors from their immediate superiors. Three respondents did not answer the question and one respondent was ambivalent by indicating that sometimes he does receive support and sometimes not (N=45). Twenty six (58%) respondents indicated that they do receive support from their immediate superiors. Nineteen (42%) respondents responded negatively by indicating that

they do not receive support from their immediate superiors. Figure 6.29 represents the responses on question 37.

Figure 6.29: Receive support from immediate superior
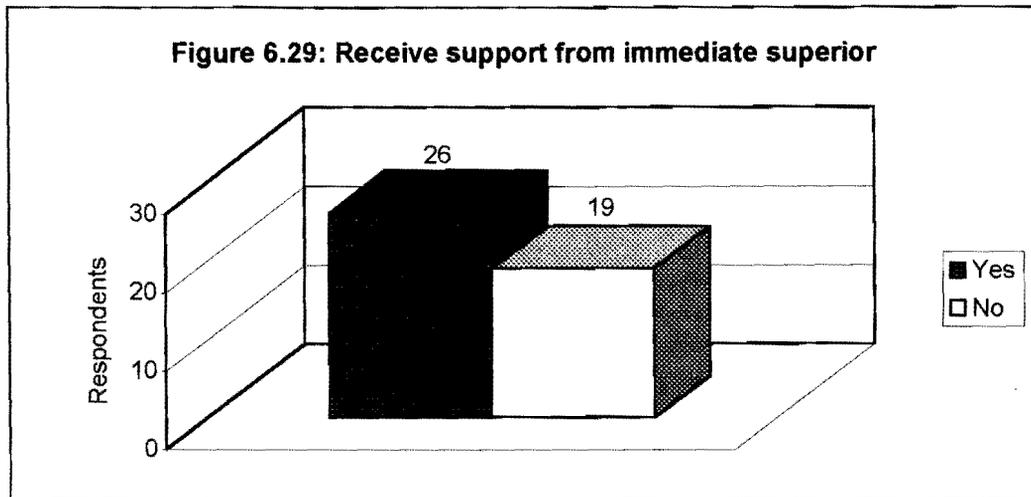
Question 38 requested respondents responding positively to question 37 to identify the support that they do receive from their immediate superiors. The responses produced a few negative indications in terms of the support that is (not) provided by immediate superiors:

- Support is limited as many employees are acting (not permanently appointed) in senior positions.

- Guidance is received when needed but the superior will not inform supervisors when work is of good quality. It is experienced that the superior sometimes does not accept the fact that supervisors can have different opinions.

- Supervisors experience it as a problem that there are aspects that the superior does not know.

The positive responses of the respondents with regard to support received from immediate superiors are summarised in the following comments:

- Meetings between supervisors and their immediate superiors materialised where problems were addressed and advice was given on handling the problems. The superior may also follow up on problems that were discussed and advice that was given.

- An open door policy ensured that the superior was always available for help when there was a problem.

- Immediate superiors organised workshops that were attended by supervisors and provided capacity building opportunities.

- The immediate superior intervened if there was a problem that could not be solved by the District Manager.

- Relevant information was regularly communicated to supervisors.

- Feedback, verbal support and motivation were provided during individual discussions. Supervisors were encouraged in terms of productive and positive growth.

- Assistance was provided in the handling of crisis situations.

- Emotional support was provided when frustration and stress were prevalent and influenced work performance.
- Peer consultation and peer group supervision were implemented.
- Support was provided through the sharing of responsibility.

5.37.2 Interpretation

A small majority (58%) respondents do receive support from their superiors for the execution of their duties as social work supervisors. The negative indication of support that is (not) received refers to superiors acting (not permanently appointed) in senior positions and not being competent in terms of their level of knowledge to support social work supervisors. The positive indications of support received are related to meetings, consultation, feedback and communication that take place on a regular basis. The open door policy implying the availability and accessibility of the superior seems to be very important to the respondents.

5.38 Management strategies (question 39)

5.38.1 Factual data

Respondents were requested to indicate if they implement specific management strategies. Seven respondents did not answer this question (N=42). Eighteen (43%) respondents do implement specific management strategies while twenty four (57%) respondents do not implement specific management strategies.

5.38.2 Interpretation

Only 18 (43%) of the respondents implement specific management strategies in their supervisory practice. This rather low positive response can be related to either a lack of knowledge on the different management strategies or an indifferent attitude towards management strategies as an important aid in the management of subordinates.

5.39 Management strategies implemented (question 40)

5.39.1 Factual data

Respondents that responded positively to question 39 had to indicate which of the identified management strategies they implement. Although 18 respondents indicated that they do implement specific management strategies, 24 respondents answered this question (N=24). Figure 6.30 represents the responses on this question.

Figure 6.30: Management strategies implemented
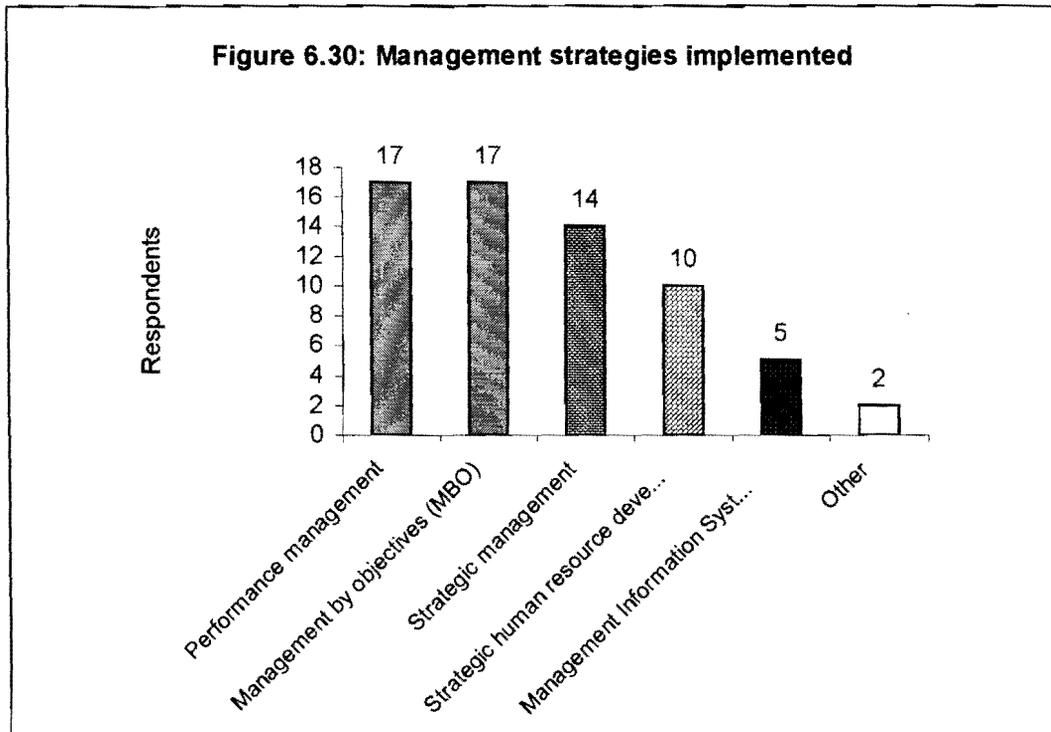
5.39.2 Interpretation

Two respondents specified that they also implement crisis management and participatory management as management strategies. The fact that these are referred to as management strategies confirms the conclusion that social work supervisors lack knowledge on management strategies. Performance management and management by objectives are the management strategies that are implemented by most (17 – 71%) of the respondents. The 24 responses to this question represents 49% of the total number of possible responses with the result that the conclusion is made that at least half of the respondents do not have sufficient knowledge of management strategies to implement them in their supervisory practice.

5.40 Need for training in specific management strategies (question 41)

5.40.1 Factual data

Respondents that responded negatively to question 39 were requested to indicate their need for training in the identified management strategies. Respondents had to use a scale from 1 to 5 where 1 represents the most needed and five the least needed training in the different management strategies. Although 24 respondents indicated that they do not implement specific management strategies, 32 respondents answered this question (N=32). Table 6.20 presents the responses to this question.

5.40.2 Interpretation

When taking the first and second categories of the scale into consideration, strategic human resource development represents the training most needed by 25 (74%) respondents.

Performance management as a management strategy represents the training most needed by 21 (62%) respondents. The fact that 32 and not 24 respondents indicated their needs for training in the different management strategies results in the conclusion that social work supervisors are in need of well planned and organised training in different management strategies.

Table 6.20: Need for training in management strategies (N=32)

Scale Strategies	1	2	3	4	5
Strategic human resource development	12	13	5	2	0
Performance management	12	9	4	3	4
Management by objectives (MBO)	10	4	3	11	4
Strategic management	8	6	10	6	2
Management Information Systems (MIS)	8	3	4	4	13

Scale: 1 = training most needed to 5 = training least needed

5.41 Knowledge of management strategies provide support (question 42)

5.41.1 Factual data

Respondents had to indicate if they are of the opinion that knowledge of management strategies would support them in the execution of their responsibilities as social work supervisors. All respondents answered this question (N=49) and responded positively that knowledge of management strategies would provide them with support in the execution of their responsibilities.

5.41.1 Interpretation

100% of the respondents responded positively by indicating that knowledge of management strategies can provide them with support in the execution of their duties as social work supervisors or middle managers. It is concluded that management strategies can be available as a support system to provide support to social work supervisors.

5.42 Accessibility to personal computers (question 43)

5.42.1 Factual data

Respondents were requested to indicate if they have access to a personal computer allocated to them. All respondents answered this question (N=49). Twenty three (47%) respondents indicated that they do have access to a personal computer. Twenty six (53%) respondents responded negatively indicating that they do not have access to personal computers. The responses are presented in Figure 6.31.

5.42.2 Interpretation

Approximately half of the respondents do have access to personal computers allocated to them.

Figure 6.31: Accessibility to personal computers
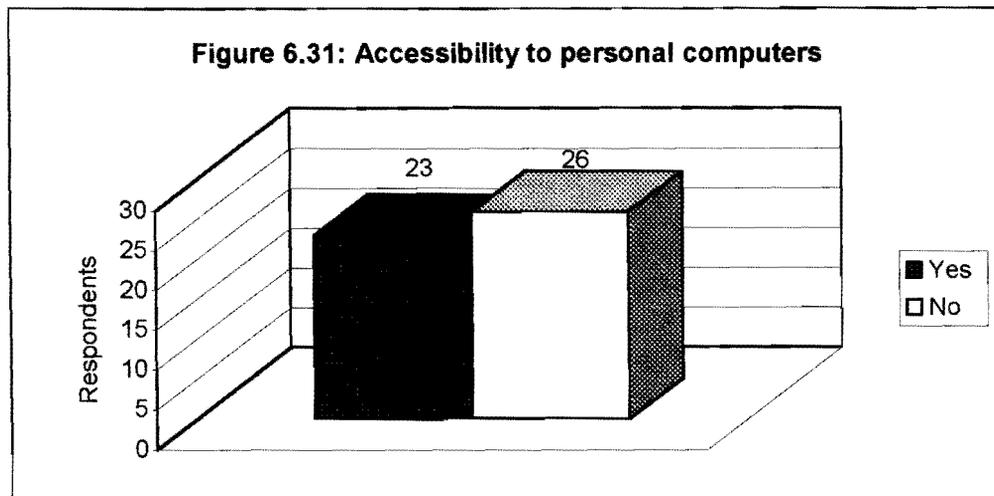
5.43 Computer literacy (question 44)

5.43.1 Factual data

Respondents that responded positively to question 43 had to indicate if they are computer literate. The comparison between the accessibility to personal computers and computer literacy is presented in Figure 6.32.

5.43.2 Interpretation

Three respondents indicated that they do not have access to personal computers allocated to them but they are computer literate. Only 12 of the 23 respondents with access to personal computers are computer literate. The conclusion is made that the allocation of personal computers to supervisors is not related to computer literacy. The planning and organising of the allocation and distribution of personal computers are to be revised within the organisation.

Figure 6.32: Computer accessibility and computer literacy
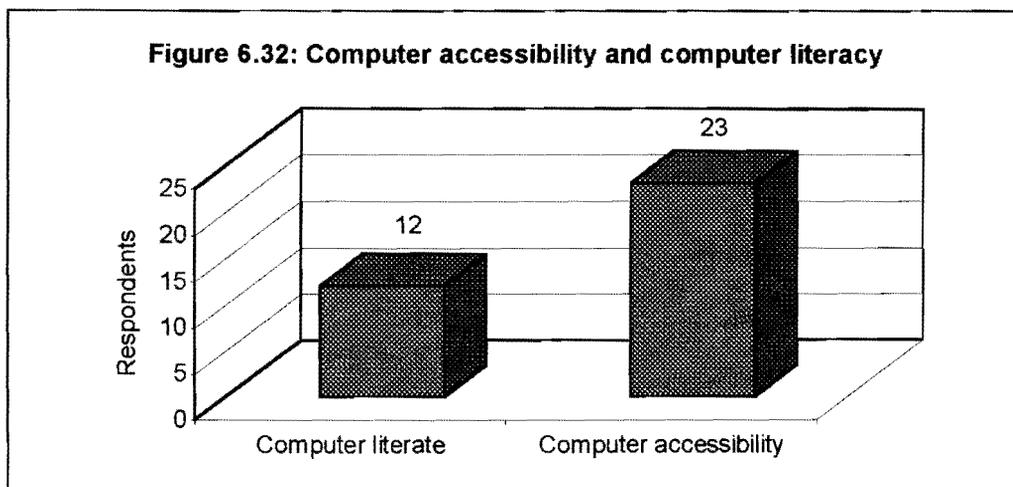
5.44 Support from access to personal computers (question 45)

5.44.1 Factual data

Respondents were requested to indicate if they are of the opinion that the accessibility to personal computers allocated to them and being computer literate would support them in the execution of their responsibilities as social work supervisors. All respondents answered this question (N=49) and responded positively indicating that the accessibility to personal computers allocated to them and being computer literate would provide them with support in the execution of their responsibilities.

5.44.2 Interpretation

100% of the respondents responded positively by indicating that the accessibility to personal computers allocated to them and being computer literate can provide them with support in the execution of their duties as social work supervisors. It is concluded that personal computers can be available as a support system to provide support to social work supervisors.

5.45 Suggestions on the implementation of the identified support systems (question 46)

5.45.1 Factual data

Respondents were requested to make suggestions on the implementation of the identified support systems to ensure that they do provide support to them as social work supervisors. The suggestions are summarised in the following manner:

- Senior managers should organise courses or training for supervisors on management strategies.
- All offices should have computers so as to help personnel do their work and keep their records properly. Computer courses must be organised.
- The employee benefits that are not implemented should be implemented.
- Senior management should organise in-service training.
- The performance appraisal system should be formally implemented.
- Constructive attention should be given to the transformation process and its influence on the supervisors.
- There should be clear policy guidelines for the training and support of persons promoted to supervisory / management levels.
- Senior management should be sensitive to the needs of supervisors. They have to acknowledge these needs and constructively develop and facilitate the implementation of identified support systems. It will lead to a more motivated and skilled work force.
- All relevant support systems should be applied to employees stationed in rural areas, as they are not treated equally with employees who are stationed in big cities or metropolitan areas.
- Job descriptions should be introduced as support in the management of subordinates.

- Supervisors should have full knowledge of and control over the financial resources of their sections.

- Clear channels of communication should be available and followed by all employees.

- Equipment such as fax machines, telephones and computers have to be provided.

- Networking in terms of sharing resources, information and skills should be promoted.

- The implementation of the identified support systems will lead to an effective public service, as the supervisor is the driving force of functional services. Supervision is important for the transformation and development of the organisation.

- Senior managers themselves must ensure that they have the skills and ability to maintain proper, professional relationships with supervisors.

- Peer support groups should be implemented where discussions on problems and blockages can take place, motivation can be received and group members can support each other.

- Provincial and Regional structures have to be finalised and appointments should be made.

- E-mail facilities should be provided in order to improve communication. The utilisation of personal computers in analysing of data should be promoted.

- Regular consultation – at least quarterly – between supervisors and immediate superior where the provision of feedback is very important should be ensured.

- Supervisors have to participate in the implementation of the support systems.

- Appointments of supervisors at all levels should be based not on friendship (personal) but on competency. Supervisors, who are informed that they were selected, should be appointed immediately, as these "supervisors" frustrate their present supervisor.

- Training and courses on financial management should be provided.

- Supervisors within the Regions must have more input in funds allocated to them.

- Senior management should be made aware of existing support systems.

- Immediate superiors must be trained to support middle managers and to manage. They are not competent and consistent and do not treat supervisors the same and do not provide the necessary guidance.

- The support systems should be implemented uniformly in a province. It should be accessible and transparent and all employees should have knowledge of the systems. The systems should not be exclusive to only certain employees.

5.45.2 Interpretation

The comments and suggestions made were not concrete methods for implementing the identified support systems. However, the conclusion is made that the respondents are of the opinion that their superiors need to ensure that the systems are available to them and are implemented in a transparent and consistent manner. Of great concern is the message in terms of the lack of competence among the immediate superiors and management and their lack of sensitivity for the need for support experienced by the supervisors. Training for employees promoted to senior positions as well as management training for those already in the senior positions are suggested.

The lack of equipment and transport has an important influence on the lack of support experienced by supervisors. Training and regular consultation are needs that are expressed by most of the respondents. The conclusion is that respondents accept the identified systems as support systems as no negative referral is made to any of the identified systems and they suggest that the systems be implemented consistently.

5.46 Suggestions on possible additional support systems (question 47)

5.46.1 Factual data

Respondents were requested to make suggestions on possible additional support systems that could provide support to them as social work supervisors. Following are the suggestions:

- Social work supervisors should have regular meetings where they can discuss and share managerial problems and frustrations.
- Middle managers should be trained frequently and have a clear job description.
- Social work supervisors should not be burdened with additional duties like coordinating Regional programs and attending Regional and Provincial meetings.
- Supervisors should be provided with resources e.g. finances to do their work. They are unable to implement even one program as they have to fundraise and businesses are not willing to help them anymore.
- In cases where employees are being promoted they must be empowered before they assume their duties and they must get full support from their superiors.
- An effective information system should be in place.
- Offices should have the necessary equipment such as a fax machine. Government pool vehicles or subsidised vehicles should be available for every social worker and for the supervisor to attend meetings at Regional and Provincial levels.
- Regular in-service training and capacity building is essential.
- Each supervisor should have a computer and a telephone with direct line in his office.
- Study leave should be granted.
- Full involvement in policy formulation and decision making is also vital, as well as full delegation of powers.
- Support is needed from senior management. Presently it seems that senior management has made it their duty to break down the morale of supervisors. They must give clear direction of what needs doing.
- Junior and middle management must be given more scope on national and international training.
- Supervisors identified a need for people with listening skills that could result in good communication.
- Peer support group should be established without the attendance of the immediate superior.

- Clarity on roles and responsibilities should be provided. Clear communication channels are essential. Agreed upon organisational structure should be finalised.

- Supervisors should not be blamed for all the wrongs of supervisees. Recognition and acknowledgement of the good they do as well as sharing in all negative actions and aspects are important.

- Acknowledge fatigue in supervisors. Stop demoralising supervisors by misusing friendship with social workers.

- There must at least be one person at a regional office who is responsible for training of personnel in all sections, not one only stationed at Head Office.

- Management meetings should be held regularly.

- Greater involvement from supervisor's superior is necessary.

- Competent managers should do regular evaluation of supervisors.

- Regular training sessions on topics identified by supervisors should be presented.

- Regular team building sessions are essential.

- Discussions with supervisors of other organisations should be organised.

- Administrative support must be in place such as typing and photo copying and an available personnel officer.

- Employee incentives such as merit award and overtime payment are to be implemented.

- An open style management that has feedback and a concern for people, giving support and providing incentives would be preferred.

5.46.2 Interpretation

The comments and suggestions in response to this question are a continuation of those in the previous question. Suggestions on possible additional support systems are not made. The need for training and equipment is stressed again. Management is accused of lack of support and understanding of supervisors and of breaking their morale. Most respondents recommend the consistent and purposeful implementation of the identified support systems.

5.47 Conclusion on data pertaining to support systems

The data received is sufficient for the purpose of this study i.e. the identification of the available support systems that could provide support to social work supervisors in the execution of their duties and responsibilities. One weakness in the questionnaire is the fact that the support that can be derived from only three of the management strategies i.e. performance management, strategic human resource development and management information systems, were investigated. Questions were asked on these strategies in addition to the general questions on management strategies.

6. SUMMARY

The analysis and interpretation of the data gathered through the mailed questionnaires were done according to the four sections in the questionnaire. The conclusion made from the data pertaining to the general information on the respondents was that supervisors are overloaded due to the fact that the effective span of management is not considered when supervisees are allocated to supervisors. The result is that quality and quantity of supervisory services are negatively influenced.

The data pertaining to supervision confirmed the fact that supervisors do not receive post-graduate training and continuous in-service training to improve their theoretical and practical knowledge of social work supervision. It was concluded that supervisors are not informed on the expectations of good supervisory practice and also do not receive support to meet these expectations. In terms of transformation management it was concluded that supervisors have a responsibility to ensure that transformation does take place with regard to the accessibility and the availability of services rendered to the public. However, supervisors were also not informed on the expectations of good management practice or supported in meeting these expectations.

The data received in terms of the identified support systems lead to the conclusion that available support systems are not applied or utilised effectively. Supervisors are of the opinion that the support systems can provide them with support in the execution of their responsibilities. Well planned and organised training was continually indicated as a need and its value as support in the management of subordinates stressed. The application of the Public Service Staff Code would ensure that many of the identified support systems could be effectively utilised to the benefit of supervisors as well as other employees.

CHAPTER SEVEN

CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND GUIDELINES

1. INTRODUCTION

The conclusions and recommendations made in this chapter are based on the literature study done for the purposes of this study and the results of the empirical research. The recommendations are presented in guideline format in order to provide guidelines for the application of the support systems available to social work supervisors. The conclusions on the research statements being true or false are also included in this chapter.

2. CONCLUSIONS

2.1 General information on respondents

2.1.1 Most supervisors do have more than 7 years experience as social workers – the minimum years of experience necessary as social worker in order to become a social work supervisor is 6 years.

2.1.2 The post level of the majority of supervisors is that of chief social worker.

2.1.3 The number of years experience as supervisor is not taken into account when supervisors (chief social workers) are promoted to the post level of assistant director.

2.1.4 The effective span of management is not taken into consideration with the allocation of supervisees to social work supervisors. Although the effective span of management was not specifically identified as an available support system, the empirical research proved that supervisors are "overloaded" resulting in the quality and quantity of supervisory services to be ineffective. The determined effective span of management can thus be an available support system to provide support to supervisors.

2.2 Supervision

2.2.1 The five most important personal qualities for supervisors are responsibility, emotional maturity, self-confidence, integrity and self-knowledge.

2.2.2 Supervisors are aware of the professional qualities they need as social work supervisors.

2.2.3 The practical and theoretical knowledge of supervisors concerning all the functions of social work supervision are not sufficient for the rendering of effective supervisory services to social workers.

2.2.4 Social work supervisors are not informed of what is expected of them in terms of good supervisory practice.

2.2.5 Most supervisors are of the opinion that they do not receive support to meet the expectations of good supervisory practice.

2.2.6 The attitude of the individual supervisor towards support efforts and the relationship of the supervisor with the person(s) providing the support have an important influence on the acceptance of the efforts as support.

2.3 Management

2.3.1 The identified qualities of a successful manager seem to fit all managers (in this case social work supervisors) regardless of their age and sex and the size of the organisation.

2.3.2 Supervisors grade the importance of the managerial skills in terms of their knowledge and expertise in the specific skills.

2.3.3 Social work supervisors do have a responsibility to ensure that transformation does take place in terms of the accessibility and the availability of the services rendered to the public. The improvement of the quality of the services rendered is also a priority in which supervisors do have a responsibility as they have to ensure that their subordinates are competent in their service delivery skills and knowledge.

2.3.4 Supervisors as managers of social workers are not informed on what is expected of them in terms of good management practice.

2.4 Support systems

2.4.1 Most supervisors are aware of the time-off benefits and the available additional employee benefits such as government transport within the Public Service.

2.4.2 In terms of benefits related to financial security and assistance, such as relocation expenses and travel and subsistence allowances, supervisors are not informed of the benefits that are available and thus do not utilise them or lay claim on them.

2.4.3 The majority of supervisors are of the opinion that employee benefits can be available as a support system if adequately applied.

2.4.4 Employee incentives are not utilised to their full extent and the main reason is the lack of knowledge on the regulations, conditions and procedures for accessing the incentives.

2.4.5 The majority of supervisors are of the opinion that employee incentives can be available as a support system if they are informed on the incentives and it is adequately utilised.

2.4.6 Only a small majority of supervisors do have a job description.

2.4.7 The majority of supervisors are of the opinion that a job description can be available as a support system in the execution of their responsibilities.

2.4.8 Social work supervisors have an average or below average knowledge of the budget which is not sufficient for providing valuable input in terms of any aspect concerning the budget.

2.4.9 It is accepted that active participation in the budgeting process as a result of knowledge of the budget ensures that the budget can be an available support system to provide support to social work supervisors.

2.4.10 The majority of supervisors will make use of the services of an Employee Assistance Program for personal support in the handling of their supervisory and managerial problems and frustrations as social work supervisors.

2.4.11 It is accepted that an Employee Assistance Program can be available as a support system to provide support to social work supervisors.

2.4.12 The majority of supervisors do discuss their supervisory and managerial problems and frustrations with their colleagues.

2.4.13 It is accepted that a supervisors' peer support group can be available as a support system to provide support to social work supervisors.

2.4.14 The majority of supervisors do not have a positive vision of career advancement for themselves in their sections due to the negative influence experienced from the transformation process and resulting affirmative action.

2.4.15 The majority of supervisors are of the opinion that specific career planning will provide them with support in the execution of their responsibilities.

2.4.16 The prevailing organisational culture within the Department of Welfare has little concern for employees and is either very demanding or indifferent towards the performance of employees.

2.4.17 The majority of supervisors are of the opinion that a positive organisational culture can be a support system to provide support in the execution of their duties.

2.4.18 A predominantly negative organisational climate is present in the Department of Welfare.

2.4.19 It is accepted that a positive organisational climate can be an available support system to provide support to social work supervisors.

2.4.20 The lack of support from immediate superiors is due to superiors acting (not permanently appointed) in their positions and the fact that superiors are not competent in terms of their level of knowledge to be able to support social work supervisors.

2.4.21 It can be accepted that an available and accessible immediate superior can be a support system to social work supervisors.

2.4.22 Management strategies are not consciously implemented by supervisors in their management of social workers and can be related to immediate superiors not applying management strategies.

2.4.23 Supervisors value performance management as management strategy in terms of the appraisal of performance that is applicable. Supervisors want their performance to be appraised on a more regular basis i.e. 3 to 6 monthly.

2.4.24 The value of strategic human resource development as management strategy is linked to the need of supervisors for regular supervisory and managerial training.

2.4.25 All supervisors are of the opinion that having access to a computer allocated to them personally and being computer literate can be an available support system. The implication is that management information systems as management strategy can provide supervisors with support in the execution of their duties.

2.4.26 Management by objectives as a participative management strategy results in improved communication between immediate superiors and supervisors and between supervisors and social workers. The implication is that this management strategy can be available as a support system to provide support to supervisors.

2.4.27 The strategy formulation process of strategic management characteristically taking place in the group meeting format, leads to clarification of role differentiation. It results in supervisors being provided with clarity on expectations in terms of the process of strategic management.

2.4.28 It can be accepted that knowledge of the management strategies can provide support to supervisors in terms of their management of social workers as well as the manner in which they are or should be managed by their superiors. The identified management strategies can thus be available as support systems to provide support to supervisors.

3. RESEARCH STATEMENTS FOR THE STUDY

The research statements were "tested" through the literature study and the empirical research. The conclusions in terms of the statements being proved to be true or false are as follows:

3.1 Insufficient support systems are available to supervisors in the social work profession. No referral to specific support systems for social work supervisors was found during the literature study. The empirical research proved that supervisors are in need of support and that it is not available to them. This statement has thus proved to be true.

3.2 The available support systems for social work supervisors are inadequately administered and utilised. This statement has proved to be true as it was found that supervisors are not informed of some support systems and that others cannot be accessed without the support from their immediate superiors. The fact that supervisors do not receive sufficient support from their immediate superiors, contributes to the available support systems not being adequately utilised.

3.3 Due to the inadequate utilisation of support systems, supervisors experience lack of support resulting in neglected supervisory and managerial practice. This statement has proved to be true as without support such as adequate training and a job description, supervisors are not prepared for their responsibilities and they neglect their responsibilities.

4. GUIDELINES FOR THE APPLICATION OF SUPPORT SYSTEMS FOR SUPERVISORS IN THE SOCIAL WORK PROFESSION

4.1 Guidelines for determining the effective span of management

4.1.1 Level of training and experience of social workers – well trained and experienced social workers require less time of and fewer contacts with supervisors.

4.1.2 Nature and importance of the work activities performed by social workers – concentrated work activities require concentrated supervisory services.

4.1.3 Level of competency of the supervisors themselves – training and experience of supervisors influence the number of social workers they are able to supervise and the intensity of supervisory services they can provide.

4.1.4 Management level of the position of the supervisor – quantity of management activities expected from and allocated to the supervisor, influence the intensity of supervisory services that can be provided.

4.1.5 Number of offices where social workers are stationed – less social workers should be allocated if they are stationed at more than one office.

4.1.6 Distances to travel to meet social workers at these offices – less social workers should be allocated if supervisors are to travel to meet them as time available for effective supervisory services is limited through travelling.

4.2 Guidelines on communication in terms of employee benefits and employee incentives

4.2.1 Distributing summary descriptions of the available employee benefits and employee incentives are not sufficient. Information sessions at least once in six months must be arranged to remind employees of the available benefits and incentives. Specific attention to procedures and conditions for effective utilisation thereof is essential.

4.2.2 Ensure that employees are able to understand the information provided to be able to gain full advantage.

4.2.3 Answer the questions of employees without delay and ensure that they receive correct information.

4.2.4 Periodically provide individual employees with a detailed financial statement and/or financial counselling in terms of the value of the applicable employee benefits and employee incentives.

4.3 Guidelines for conducting a job analysis and compiling a job description

4.3.1 Step 1: Employee to analyse his present job and role

The employee can do this on his own but it is recommended that two or three colleagues, peers, subordinates or superiors be requested to participate. The analysis involves the identification of the employee's complete role network and the key dimensions of his position. The role network includes all the persons who have some expectations of the employee whose position is being analysed. The key stakeholders are those members of the role network whose own work will be affected negatively if the employee does not meet their expectations.

4.3.2 Step 2: Analyse changes in the work environment

The transformation process and other changes in the work environment such as technological and interpersonal changes and their impact on the specific position are to be

analysed. This will reveal some probable changes in the key activities of the position being analysed that will have an impact on the role network and their expectations of the employee in the specific position. Changes in expectations will impact on the position being analysed.

4.3.3   Step 3: Analyse the impact of the changes on the position and the role network

Describe the impact or results of the changes on the position and the role network in detail.

4.3.4   Step 4: Redefine the position and the role

The content, requirements and context of the work activities of the position are redefined according to the impacts of the changes on the position and role. This step in the job and role analysis process provides the data for the job description in terms of the key activities and critical tasks essential for the position being analysed.

4.3.5   Step 5: Redefine the requirements for the position and the role

This refers to the requirements in terms of the skills, abilities, education, attitude and motivation that will be needed for employees in this position to be effective. This step in the job and role analysis provides the data for the job description in terms of the personal requirements essential for the position being analysed.

4.3.6   Step 6: Compile the job description

This step entails the formalisation of the job and role analysis according to the specified contents of a formal job description.

4.4 Guidelines on training in financial management and budgeting

4.4.1   Negotiate contract agreements with the Financing Section of the Department of Welfare to provide applicable training in financial management and budgeting to supervisors and social workers on a regular basis e.g. once in six months.

4.4.2   Training should include all applicable financial policies and legislation.

4.4.3   Link the training to the financial year and the conditions applicable during the budgeting process.

4.5 Guidelines in terms of the availability of an Employee Assistance Program

4.5.1   Investigate the provision for psychological and related professional services in respect of vocational adjustment of employees in the Public Service to establish the practical implementation of the service as described in the Public Service Staff Code (revised edition 10 June 1994), Chapter B.XIII.

4.5.2   Revise and correct the conditions, instructions and procedures in terms of this service to accommodate the supervisors' need for support in the handling of their supervisory and managerial problems and frustrations.

4.5.3 Apply partnerships through contracting-out services to design, implement and maintain an Employee Assistance Program within the Department of Welfare.

4.6 Guidelines for the establishment of a supervisors' peer support group

4.6.1 Stage 1: Forming and mutual acceptance

The initiative for forming the group can come from any supervisor who will initially fulfil the leader role. In later stages this leader role should be rotated among group members. Group members are initially concerned with becoming socially comfortable with each other. Members test each other and draw up rules of conduct. The aim and objectives of the group as a support system are identified and formulated. Functional arrangements such as regularity of meetings, venue, time and duration of meetings are determined.

4.6.2 Stage 2: Storming and decision making

Members are getting to know each other better and are prepared to put forward their views and opinions. This can lead to conflict between individuals but can result in problem solving and decision making in terms of issues related to power and responsibility within the group. Members get to trust each other's viewpoints and opinions. They support and help one another perform more effectively.

4.6.3 Stage 3: Norming and motivation

Conflicts begin to be controlled as the members realise the need to cooperate in order to achieve the aim and objectives of the group. They develop strategies to achieve the objectives of the group and establish and set norms for appropriate group behaviour.

4.6.4 Stage 4: Performing and control

The group has now developed the required degree of understanding to work as a team and to concentrate on the problems it has to overcome to achieve its aim. The group has organised itself successfully and its members are contributing according to their abilities and interests. The group has entered its most productive stage in regard to attending to work related tasks. The group exercises sanctions when control is needed to bring members in line with the group norms.

4.6.5 Stage 5: Team building

The group enters this stage when there is a decrease in group performance and the group experiences difficulty to continue and to focus on the task at hand. Team building as a maintenance process should then be followed. The purposes of the team building process should be to clarify the mission, vision, goals and priorities of the group; to facilitate the effective distribution of work among group members; to analyse and improve interpersonal relationships among group members; and to analyse and improve the group process. The

team building process ensures that equilibrium is maintained in the group and that it can continue effectively as a support system for the members.

4.7 Guidelines for effective career planning

4.7.1 Establish manpower needs for the organisation to enable individual employees to identify career opportunities available within the organisation.

4.7.2 Inform and involve individual employees in the career planning process implemented in the organisation.

4.7.3 Ensure that employee needs are addressed in career planning.

4.7.4 Apply equity in the promotion system in terms of career advancement opportunities.

4.7.5 Discussion of career aspirations in the early stages of the relationship between an employee and his immediate superior is essential.

4.7.6 Superiors must be familiar with the qualifications, both academic and personal, needed for each career opportunity within the overall personnel plan of the organisation. This information must be made known to employees.

4.7.7 Superiors must help and support individual employees to clearly set a route for career advancement that will enable them to be successful in the achievement of their ambitions.

4.7.8 Superiors must not make promises that cannot be kept.

4.7.9 Ensure that quarterly and annual performance appraisals are executed as part of the overall career development plan. The appraised employees must be able to recognise that they are on route to achieving a long term goal.

4.7.10 Motivate individual employees to accept co-responsibility for their career development.

4.8 Guidelines to contribute to a positive organisational culture

4.8.1 Apply tangible mechanisms reflecting the physical evidence and products of cultural activity such as the annual report, an organisational newsletter, logos and badges.

4.8.2 Ensure that structures such as mechanisms for decision making, coordination and communication, reflecting the patterns of activity within the organisation that contribute to solving basic organisational problems, are effective.

4.8.3 Promote behavioural norms referring to employee beliefs or basic assumptions regarding acceptable and unacceptable behaviour. Inform individual employees about the consequences associated with certain behaviours.

4.8.4 As the social work profession is a value-driven profession, the preservation of professional values and moral principles is essential.

4.8.5 Be aware that unconscious assumptions not even directly known to employees, have an influence on their behaviour.

4.9 Guidelines for a positive organisational climate

4.9.1 The management style should convey warmth, friendliness and security to the employees.

4.9.2 Tasks, duties and responsibilities should be clear and not be changed continuously.

4.9.3 Responsible employees have to be informed directly if there are any changes in responsibilities. It should also be specified which responsibilities are not to be met anymore.

4.9.4 Formal tasks must be communicated from top management through the correct channels in order to prevent confusion.

4.9.5 An effective and efficient system for performance appraisal and evaluation should be developed and should be implemented consistently.

4.9.6 A system providing formal and informal recognition is essential for the continued motivation of employees towards effective work performance. Recognition for effectiveness and efficiency is important for all employees.

4.9.7 Management must be genuine in their support and concern for the employees. This genuineness can contribute to job satisfaction and job security supported by a positive organisational climate.

4.9.8 All employees must be treated equal in terms of all aspects available in the work environment. Employees must not experience that they are marginalised.

4.10 Guidelines for immediate superiors in supporting social work supervisors

4.10.1 Be professional in the management of supervisors in terms of implementing specific management strategies providing supervisors with certainty and clarity on what they can expect from their immediate superior.

4.10.2 Create regular opportunities and encourage general discussions on the supervisor's workload. Job related issues should be discussed and supervisors given the opportunity to identify problem situations. Opportunity is thus provided for discussing problems in an objective manner and for supervisors to identify solutions in the effective handling thereof within a supportive atmosphere.

4.10.3 Attend to the needs of supervisors related to their work environment. Reasonable requests for additional office equipment and other resources necessary for effectively executing management responsibilities have to be attended to with respect.

4.10.4 Acknowledge the importance of education and training opportunities. Encourage supervisors to discuss their career goals as well as the education and training that will be needed to achieve these goals. The immediate superior has a direct responsibility to ensure that the supervisor has the opportunities to attend to education and training needs.

4.10.5 Accept responsibility and act as an effective role model. Through positive attitudes and behaviours and the demonstration of effective work habits, the superior can motivate supervisors toward effective and efficient functioning as middle managers.

4.10.6 Ensure that evaluation and appraisal systems are compatible with task requirements and the individual supervisor's expectations and abilities.

4.10.7 Ensure that reward systems are effective and that rewards are directly linked to work performance and outcomes.

4.11 Guidelines for implementing an integrated management strategy

Due to the value awarded to the identified management strategies and the fact that supervisors indicate that knowledge of the strategies can provide them with support, it is recommended that the strategies be integrated. An integrated management strategy provides a holistic approach to the management of social workers. The functions of supervision and management should be amalgamated into the steps of the management strategy. The guidelines are presented according to a process consisting of steps following a logical sequence. When the cycle is completed, it is repeated. The integrated management strategy should be implemented in a pilot study to determine the suitability and value of the strategy for social work supervisors in the management of social workers. The supervisors' peer support group should be used as a support system for regular monitoring of the practical implementation of the suggested integrated management strategy and to identify and discuss problems. The process is presented in Figure 7.1.

Figure 7.1: INTEGRATED MANAGEMENT STRATEGY

Step 1: Strategic analysis

Step 2: Orientation

Step 3: Objective setting

Step 4: Implementation

Step 5: Evaluation

Step 6: Feedback

Step 7: Consequences of Evaluation and feedback
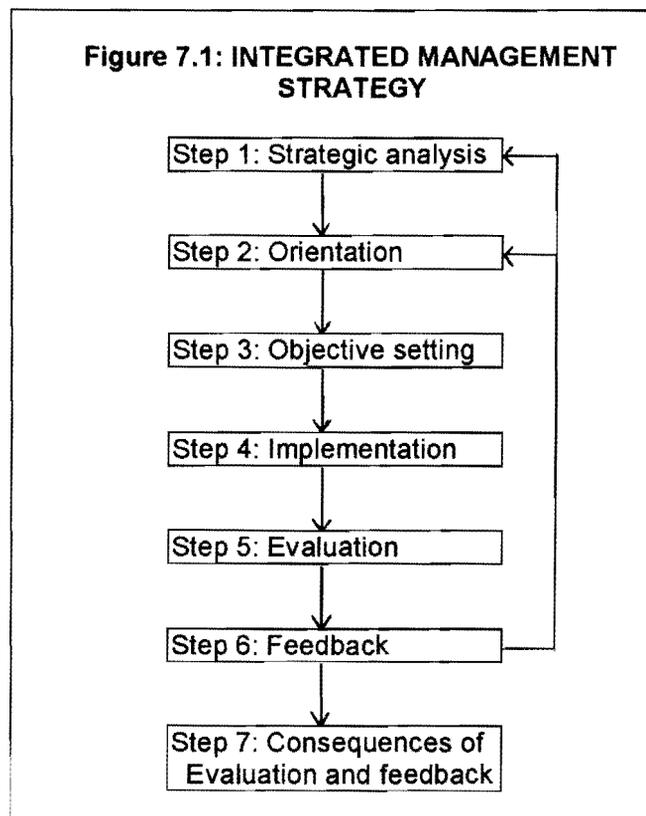
4.11.1 Step 1: Strategic analysis

During this step the mission and purpose of the organisation are determined. It entails a statement of the image of the organisation as well as the main areas of service delivery and primary client needs that the organisation will attempt to satisfy. A profile of the

organisation is compiled reflecting the internal capabilities and conditions of the organisation. This refers to the financial, human and physical resources available to the organisation. This process of compiling the profile enables the organisation to identify opportunities for achievement of its mission. The result is that a strategic choice is made and long term objectives are established for the organisation to achieve its mission. The main role players in this step are senior and middle management (supervisors). The middle managers provide specific input in terms of the human and physical resources available to the organisation.

4.11.2 Step 2: Orientation

This step refers to the orientation of the employees of each section by their manager in terms of the profile of the organisation and the organisational objectives. This entails orientation on the policies, regulations and procedure manuals applicable to the section. An assessment is done to identify trends, issues, problems and events in the environment that can have an influence on the objectives of the section. Assessment of the available and necessary management information systems is done to ensure technological support can be provided to the section. The final task in the orientation is to review the purpose of the section and to clarify the roles and responsibilities of the employees. Participative group discussions are the basis of the orientation.

4.11.3 Step 3: Objective setting

On grounds of the orientation, the objectives for the section are established. Joint discussions between the manager and employees result in the establishment of individual objectives for a specified period of time and linked to the section's objectives. Performance expectations are set by establishing standards for measuring and evaluating the outcomes of the objectives at the end of the period. An assessment is also done in terms of new knowledge and skills needed by employees to achieve the objectives and to meet the set standards. A training and development program is planned.

4.11.4 Step 4: Implementation

The implementation is the main step in the process and entails interrelated activities such as:

- Monitor employee performance by conducting periodic progress reviews.
- Provide opportunities for discussion, consultation and problem solving.
- Implement the training and development program.
- Utilise the management information system by recording and processing the progress according to activities completed.
- Adaptation of objectives when necessary.
- Taking corrective action when necessary.
- Continuous feedback throughout the implementation.

4.11.5 Step 5: Evaluation

This step represents the measuring and evaluation of employee performance on data gathered on performance against the set expectations and the achievement of objectives. A formal performance appraisal of each employee in the section is performed and discussed during a formal performance appraisal interview. During this step the effectiveness of the training and development program is measured in terms of the reaction of employees on the training, how much they have learned, have they used what they learned and did the training contribute to the achievement of their own as well as the section's objectives. The support provided by the management information system is determined in terms of the value of the processed data on the section's achievements.

4.11.6 Step 6: Feedback

Feedback is a central element in the communication process. It is identified as a step in the process to ensure that specific feedback is provided to individual employees and to the section as a whole on the achievements during the specified period of time. The same feedback is provided to the senior management to be accommodated in the evaluation of the achievement of the organisational objectives.

4.11.7 Step 7: Consequences resulting from evaluation and feedback

The purpose and objectives of the specific section determine the type of consequences. Possible consequences are identified:

- Modification of the management information system as support for the individual employee and the section.
- Areas for improvement are identified resulting in training and development opportunities for the individual employee and the section.
- Consequences in terms of human resource management such as salary increases, incentives and promotion opportunities.
- Increased motivation, productivity and job satisfaction among employees.
- Clarification of uncertainties and confusions about policies and procedures applicable to the section.
- Contributions are made to the strategic management process of the organisation through suggestions for improvement in areas such as the appraisal system, delegation of authority and procedures applicable to the section.

5. SUMMARY

The research resulted in the conclusions and recommendations that were made in this chapter. The recommendations were presented as guidelines for the application of the available support systems. Guidelines in the format of processes were developed for conducting a job analysis in order to compile a job description and for the establishment of a supervisors' peer support group.

The conclusions pertaining to the management strategies as support systems for social work supervisors culminated in the development of guidelines for an integrated management strategy. This strategy can serve as a basis for further research in the field of social work supervision and management.

QUESTIONNAIRE   **ANNEXURE 1**

Dear Respondent

RESEARCH ON SUPPORT SYSTEMS FOR SOCIAL WORK SUPERVISORS

I am doing research for a D Phil Degree at the University of Pretoria. The research is on support systems for social work supervisors employed in the Department of Welfare. I am employed at the Department of Welfare Mpumalanga Province.

The research elements for this particular research are the social work supervisors up to the level of Assistant Director. As the research population with these specific research elements is too small within one province, it was decided that three provinces would be requested to participate: Province of the Eastern Cape, Mpumalanga Province and the Free State Province.

The social work supervisors who are also middle managers within the Welfare Departments of the above mentioned three provinces are requested to participate in the research on support systems for social work supervisors. The aim of the research is to establish what support systems are available to them and if these available support systems provide the necessary support to the supervisors. It is planned to develop guidelines for these support systems through the results of the research.

Attached is a questionnaire on supervision, management and support systems. Since all supervisors and social workers in the long run will benefit through the results of the questionnaire, it is with confidence that you are requested to complete the questionnaire. Your honest and well thought through opinion will contribute greatly toward achieving the aims of the research.

In order to ensure that you give your opinion without reservation, the questionnaire is to be completed anonymous. All information will be treated with confidentiality.

You are requested to complete the questionnaire and mail it back to me in the attached envelope not later than _____

Your co-operation will be greatly appreciated.

AMELIA HARMSE
RESEARCHER

QUESTIONNAIRE

GENERAL INFORMATION ON RESPONDENT:

You are requested to give the applicable information by drawing a cross in the block indicating the most applicable answer.

1. Years experience as a social worker:

Years	At Department	At other organisations
1-3 years		
4-6 years		
7-9 years		
10-12 years		
13-15 years		
16 and more years		

2. Years experience as a social work supervisor:

Less than 2 years	
3-4 years	
5-6 years	
7-8 years	
9-10 years	
11 years and longer	

3. What is your present post level?

Social worker	
Senior social worker	
Chief social worker	
Assistant Director	

4. For how many supervisees (social workers) are you responsible?

2	
3	
4	
5	
6	
More (indicate number)	

5. In how many offices are your supervisees stationed?

1	
2	
3	
4	
More (indicate number)	

6. Do you have to travel long distances to meet your supervisees?

No	
Less than 30 km	
31-60 km	
61-90 km	
91-120 km	
121-150 km	
151 km and further	

7. What are your qualifications?

Diploma in SW	
BA(SW)	
SW Hon	
MA(SW)	
Other postgraduate training (give details)	

Thank you for your co-operation. You are requested to continue and complete the attached questionnaire by clearly indicating your honest opinion as requested at each question. At the questions requesting your motivation, please give a complete answer to ensure that your input is meaningful.

QUESTIONNAIRE

SUPERVISION:

1. Are the following **personal qualities** important for a social work supervisor to be effective? Mark each quality according to the 4-point scale:

    1 = most important (100%)
    2 = important (70%)
    3 = less important (30%)
    4 = not important at all (0%)

1. Self-consciousness	
2. Self-acceptance	
3. Self-confidence	
4. Self-actuality	
5. Emotional maturity	
6. Integrity	
7. Perseverance	
8. Nerve and courage	
9. Responsibility	
10. Joy of life	
11. Sensitivity for people	
12. Problem solving abilities	
13. Intelligence	
14. Self-knowledge	
15. Sense of humour	

2. Are the following **professional qualities** important for a social work supervisor to be effective? Mark each quality according to the 4-point scale:

    1 = most important (100%)
    2 = important (70%)
    3 = less important (30%)
    4 = not important at all (0%)

1. Ability to enable subordinates	
2. Ability to manage	
3. Ability to train	
4. Ability to support	
5. Ability to motivate	
6. Ability to act as a model for subordinates	
7. Ability to enrich the personalities of subordinates	

3. Which **function of social work supervision** represents your best **practical knowledge or experience** of social work supervision? Mark your level of knowledge of each function according to the 4-point scale:

    1 = excellent
    2 = good
    3 = average
    4 = poor

1. Educational function	
2. Administrative function	
3. Supportive function	
4. Motivational function	
5. Personality enrichment	
6. Modelling	

4. Which **function of social work supervision** represents your best **theoretical knowledge** of social work supervision? Mark your level of knowledge of each function according to the 4-point scale:

      1 = excellent
      2 = good
      3 = average
      4 = poor

1. Educational function	
2. Administrative function	
3. Supportive function	
4. Motivational function	
5. Personality enrichment	
6. Modelling	

5. Do you agree that the following are **expectations of good supervisory practice**? Mark each expectation according to a 4 point scale:

      1 = fully agree (100%)
      2 = agree (70%)
      3 = agree to a small extent (30%)
      4 = don't agree at all (0%)

1. The supervisor is expected to promote the positive morale of his subordinates.	
2. The supervisor is expected to improve his own job-related knowledge, skill level and personal adjustment as well as that of his subordinates.	
3. The supervisor is expected to perform supervision responsibilities in a professional manner.	
4. He should ensure that the necessary time is taken for quality supervision.	
5. He should seek additional training in clinical supervision if his skills are not according to standard.	
6. He should verify financial resources for the achievement of organisational goals and objectives.	
7. He should establish a favourable work environment with adequate physical conditions and material resources to facilitate productivity and promote staff comfort and morale.	
8. The supervisor is expected to develop positive interpersonal relationships with the social workers and the support staff.	
9. He is expected to establish open communication channels between himself and the staff for whom he is responsible.	
10. The supervisor should model productive performance to social workers and support staff.	
11. The supervisor should exercise fair, impartial control in his management of his subordinates.	
12. The supervisor is expected to be a good boss, a good manager and a leader of the subordinates for whom he is responsible.	
13. The supervisor must also be a competent subordinate to the next higher manager.	
14. He is expected to act as a connecting link between the social workers and the support staff and the management of the organisation.	
15. The supervisor has the responsibility for the administration, education and support of his subordinates, which implies an ultimate responsibility for the client.	
16. He should continuously give feedback to the social workers on their performance.	

17. He is expected to provide training and career development opportunities for subordinates.	
18. It is expected that the supervisor ensures that the work is challenging enough, meaningful enough and provides enough recognition in order for the subordinates to fulfil enough of their own needs and thus get satisfaction from doing the work.	
19. The supervisor is expected to stay aware of the "big picture" - to be sensitive to what's happening in the total organisation.	
20. The supervisor has an ethical responsibility to protect clients' rights and to foster an atmosphere in which social workers will do the same.	
21. The supervisor is expected to support the ethical behaviours of the social workers and to stop their unethical behaviours.	
22. The supervisor is expected to be aware and have knowledge of his liability as supervisor. As a result of the legal principle that holds the more powerful people responsible for those who report to them, supervisors are responsible for the wrongful acts of their subordinates.	

6. Which of the expectations in the previous question have been **directly communicated** to you as a social work supervisor?

Number	Yes	No
1		
2		
3		
4		
5		
6		
7		
8		
9		
10		
11		

Number	Yes	No
12		
13		
14		
15		
16		
17		
18		
19		
20		
21		
22		

7. Do you receive **any form of support** in order to meet these expectations?

Yes	No

8. If yes, **identify the support** you receive.

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

MANAGEMENT

1. Are the following **qualities of a successful manager** important for you as a social work supervisor? Mark each quality according to the 4-point scale:
   1 = most important (100%)
   2 = important (70%)
   3 = not important (30%)
   4 = not important at all (0%)

1. Provides clear direction.	
2. Has the desire to manage.	
3. Encourages open communication.	
4. Coaches and supports people.	
5. Provides objective recognition.	
6. Establishes ongoing controls.	
7. Selects the right people to staff the organisation.	
8. Understands the financial implications of decisions.	
9. Encourages innovation and new ideas.	
10. Consistently demonstrates a high level of integrity and honesty.	

2. Are the following **managerial skills** important to you as a social work supervisor? Mark each skill according to the 4-point scale:
   1 = most important (100%)
   2 = important (70%)
   3 = not important (30%)
   4 = not important at all (0%)

1. Technical skills (ability to use specific knowledge, methods, techniques, procedures and resources in performing duties as supervisor)	
2. Analytical skills (ability to diagnose and evaluate, to use scientific approaches or techniques to solve problems)	
3. Decision making skills (ability to choose from among alternatives)	
4. Computer skills (conceptual understanding of computers)	
5. Human relations skills (ability to work with, communicate with and understand subordinates and colleagues)	
6. Communication skills (ability to communicate in ways that other people understand and to seek and use feedback from subordinates to ensure that you are understood)	
7. Conceptual skills (ability to see the big picture, the complexities of the overall organisation and how the various parts fit together)	
8. Specialist skills (ability to use aids, procedures and techniques in a field of specialisation - in your situation: social work supervision)	

3. Do you as social work supervisor fulfil the following **managerial roles**?

	Yes	No
1. Figurehead role (duties that are symbolic or ceremonial in nature)		
2. Leadership role (directing and co-ordinating activities of subordinates)		
3. Liaison role (implies contacts inside and outside of the organisation)		
4. Welfare role (immediate supervisor will be the first to notice the signs that a subordinate has a problem)		
5. Monitor role (examining the work environment to gather information, changes, opportunities and problems that may affect the unit)		
6. Disseminator role (provides important information to subordinates)		
7. Spokesperson role (represents the unit to other people)		
8. Entrepreneur role (to change the unit for the better)		
9. Disturbance handler role (make decisions or take corrective action to bring about stability in the unit)		
10. Resource allocator role (decides who gets what resources i.e. money, people, time, equipment)		
11. Negotiator role (negotiate with other units and individuals to obtain advantages for your unit)		

4. Which of the following concepts do you see as **managerial functions**? Mark with an X.

1. Planning	
2. Organising	
3. Staffing	
4. Leading	
5. Controlling	

5. Are you of the opinion that you, as a middle manager, have a **responsibility in the process of transformation** taking place in your Department?

Yes	No

6. If yes, in which of the following **transformation priorities**, according to the White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service are you **directly involved** with?

Priorities	Yes	No
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.		

7. Do you agree that the following are **expectations of good management practice**? Mark each expectation according to the 4 point scale:
        1 = fully agree (100%)
        2 = agree (70%)
        3 = agree to a small extent (30%)
        4 = don't agree at all (0%)

1. The manager must have the ability to exercise his authority of expertise based on demonstrated competence, particular knowledge and skills and credibility as a manager.	
2. The manager has to participate in determining, formulating and effecting organisational goals.	
3. The manager is expected to meet the organisation's liabilities toward socially responsible activities such as subordinate training and education.	
4. The manager must comply with the ethics of management, as ethical misconduct by a manager can be extremely damaging and costly for the image of the organisation.	
5. An environment for effective planning has to be established by the manager.	
6. The manager should be involved in the planning process and should ensure that planning is well organised.	
7. The manager must be motivated to manage.	
8. The manager has to ensure that the performance of subordinates results in high productivity.	
9. He sets reasonable work performance objectives for subordinates.	
10. He creates a favourable work environment, with physical conditions and material resources adequate to facilitate productivity and promote staff comfort and morale.	

11. The manager models and instructs subordinates in appropriate conduct.	
12. He also models and instructs subordinates in productive performance.	
13. He exercises fair, impartial control of subordinate behaviour.	
14. He is responsible for the recruitment of competent supervisory personnel.	
15. He has to establish and maintain an effective feedback loop to ensure a satisfied work force.	
16. The manager must implement professional consultation and peer review in performance evaluation.	
17. The manager must be a good boss and leader of the subordinates for whom he is responsible.	
18. He should continually review and if necessary, revise procedures and make plans concerning improved work methods and processes.	
19. The manager must teach subordinates the proper use of materials and supplies.	
20. Subordinates' time should be managed by the manager in the sense that the manager plans reasonable performance requirements based on average conditions and not on emergencies.	
21. He must sort and grade problems by deciding which ones he must attend to personally and those that can be assigned to someone else.	
22.The manager has the responsibility to fulfil the organisation's end of the psychological contract and reminding individual subordinates of their contractual obligations.	
23. He has to help set organisational objectives.	
24. He has to be involved with the financial planning and review of the organisation.	
25. He is responsible for inter-departmental co-ordination.	
26. The manager has a responsibility in the transformation of the organisation.	
27. The manager 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.	
28. 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.	
29. He is expected to implement supervisory practices.	
30. He is responsible for his own self-development and improvement.	
31.The manager is responsible for promoting positive community-organisation relations.	
32. As an administrator, the manager should be able to draw clear lines between his role and that of the management of the organisation.	
33. 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.	

8. Which of these expectations in the previous question have been **directly communicated** to you as a middle manager?

Number	Yes	No
1		
2		
3		
4		
5		
6		
7		
8		
9		
10		
11		
12		
13		
14		
15		
16		
17		

Number	Yes	No
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20		
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22		
23		
24		
25		
26		
27		
28		
29		
30		
31		
32		
33		

9. Do you receive any form of **support** to enable you to meet these expectations?

Yes	No

10. If yes, **identify the support** that you receive.

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

SUPPORT SYSTEMS:

1. Which of the following **benefit systems** are available to you within your organisation? Mark with an X.

1. Time-off benefit systems:	Yes	No
1.1 Paid rest period or on-the-job breaks (tea time)		
1.2 Sick leave		
1.3 Annual leave		
1.4 Holidays e.g. Christmas Day		
1.5 Maternity leave and maternity pay		
1.6 Career breaks (long leave)		
1.7 Study leave		
1.8 Paid personal absences for events beyond your control e.g. death of a close relative, graduation ceremonies.		

2. Work scheduling benefit systems:	Yes	No
2.1 Shorter work weeks		
2.2 Flexible work schedules		
2.3 Job sharing		
2.4 Working shifts		
2.5 Compressed work week		
2.6 Part time employment		
3. Benefit systems related to financial security and assistance:	**Yes**	**No**
3.1 Pension schemes		
3.2 Company cars		
3.3 Health insurance		
3.4 Medical schemes		
3.5 Life assurance		
3.6 Group disability and survivor benefit systems		
3.7 Personal accident insurance		
3.8 Business travel insurance and travel allowances		
3.9 Housing subsidy		
3.10 Relocation expenses		
3.11 Educational assistance (tuition-aid plan)		
3.12 Payment of professional association subscriptions		
3.13 Employee recognition e.g. suggestion awards		
3.14 Company housing		
3.15 Longevity pay (payment for years of service)		
4. Other benefit systems:	**Yes**	**No**
4.1 Personal counselling		
4.2 Career counselling		
4.3 Retirement counselling		
4.4 Medical services		
4.5 Health care benefits		
4.6 Sabbaticals		
4.7 Long service awards		
4.8 Child care e.g. reimbursement account, employer sponsored child care centre		
4.9 Adoption benefits		
4.10 Sports and social facilities within the physical work environment		
4.11 Subsidised catering / luncheon vouchers		
4.12 Mobile phone / telephone costs		
4.13 Free or discounted parking		
4.14 Use of a company car for business purposes		
4.15 Clothing allowance / company uniform		
4.16 Funding for training		

2. Are you of the opinion that benefit systems can be a support to you in the execution of your responsibilities as a supervisor / middle manager?

Yes	No

3. Which of the following **incentive systems** are available to you? Mark with an X.

	Yes	No
1. Profit sharing plans		
2. Profit related pay		
3. Production bonuses		
4. Individual bonus schemes		
5. Performance related cash bonuses		
6. Incentives for piecework		
7. Overtime payments		
8. Sales incentives		
9. Pay-for-knowledge		
10. Merit pay		
11. Stock options		
12. Stock purchase plans		
13. Maturity curves		
14. Share option schemes		

4. Are you of the opinion that incentive systems can be a support to you in the execution of your responsibilities as supervisor / middle manager?

Yes	No

5. Do you have a **duty sheet or job description**?

Yes	No

6. Do you know what the **job specification** (job requirements in personal terms) is for a social work supervisor / manager?

Yes	No

7. Have you done a **job analysis** since your appointment in your present position?

Yes	No

8. Would the availability of a **job description** support you in the execution of your responsibilities?

Yes	No

9. Do you have knowledge of the **performance appraisal system** implemented in your organisation?

Yes	No

10. Was your **performance appraised** since your appointment in your present position?

Yes	No

11. Would you **want your performance to be appraised?**

Yes	No

12. If yes, **how regularly?** Mark one with an X.

1. Three monthly	
2. Six monthly	
3. Annually	
4. Every second year	
5. Once in four years	
6. When you feel like it	

13. Who of the following **possible appraisers** would you prefer to be appraising you? Number according to preference - 1 for your first choice up to 7 for your last choice.

Mark from 1 - 7

1. Immediate superior	
2. Higher level managers	
3. Peers	
4. Subordinates	
5. Persons outside the immediate work environment	
6. Self appraisal	
7. Multiple appraisal resources	

14. Would being appraised on a regular basis be supportive to you in the execution of your responsibilities as a supervisor / middle manager?

Yes	No

15. Have you received any **supervisory training** since your appointment in your present position?

Yes	No

16. Have you received any **managerial training** since your appointment in your present position?

Yes	No

17. If you have received training, which of the following **training techniques** have been used or followed? Mark with an X.

Training technique	Yes	No
1. Computer assisted learning		
2. Role-playing		
3. Case studies		
4. Manager games and simulations		
5. Action learning		
6. Outdoor training		
7. Job rotation		
8. Mentoring		
9. Manager learning contracts		
10. Peer training		
11. Temporary promotions		
12. Coaching		
13. Sensitivity training		
14. Conference programs		
15. Formal university training		
16. Readings - "self training"		
17. Basic skills training e.g. computing skills		
18. Technical training		
19. Interpersonal communications training		
20. Counselling		
21. Networking		
22. Managerial work role training		
23. Orientation training		
24. Traditional classroom lectures		
25. On-the-job training		
26. Programmed instruction - step-by-step training		
27. Other (specify)		

18. Do you need **supervisory training**?

Yes	No

19. Do you need **managerial training**?

Yes	No

20. If yes, are you of the opinion that such **training will support** you in the execution of your duties as supervisor / middle manager?

Yes	No

21. Rate your **knowledge of the budget** for your section according to the 4-point scale:
    1 = excellent
    2 = good
    3 = average
    4 = poor

Rating	

22. Do you have:
22.1   knowledge of **financial controls** to be implemented?
22.2   any form of input during the **budgeting process**?

	Financial controls	Budgeting process
Yes		
No		

23. Are you of the opinion that **knowledge of the budget** will support you in the execution of your duties as supervisor / middle manager?

Yes	No

24. Are you of the opinion that **active participation in the budgeting process** will support you in the execution of your duties as supervisor / middle manager?

Yes	No

25. Are the services of an **Employee Assistance Program** (EAP) available within your organisation?

Yes	No

26. Would you make use of the services of an Employee Assistance Program in order to **support** you **personally** in the handling of your supervisory and managerial problems and frustrations as supervisor / middle manager?

Yes	No

27. Do you discuss your **supervisory and managerial problems and frustrations** with colleagues in the same position as yourself?

Yes	No

28. Are you of the opinion that you could benefit from a **structured peer group of middle managers (supervisor's support group)**?

Yes	No

29. Do you have a positive vision of **career advancement** for yourself in your section?

Yes	No

30. If yes, who has taken the initiative for your **career planning**?

	Yourself	Immediate superior	Human resource section
Yes			
No			

31. Are you of the opinion that specific **career planning** for yourself can **support** you in the execution of your duties as a supervisor / middle manager?

Yes	No

32. Which of the following **types of organisational cultures** are present in your organisation? Mark each type according to the 4-point scale:
   - 1 = prominent (100%)
   - 2 = less prominent (70%)
   - 3 = vaguely noticeable (30%)
   - 4 = absent (0%)

1. Apathetic culture - little concern for the organisation's human assets and indifference to their performance.	
2. Caring culture - high concern for people as assets and has relatively undemanding performance expectations.	
3. Exacting culture - little sensitivity to the people of the organisation but has demanding and exacting performance expectations.	
4. Integrative culture - High concern for people and high performance expectations.	

33. Are you of the opinion that the **organisational culture** can support you in the execution of your duties as supervisor / middle manager?

Yes	No

34. Which of the following describe the **organisational climate** within your organisation the best? Mark according to the 4-point scale:
   - 1 = excellent
   - 2 = good
   - 3 = average
   - 4 = poor

1. Management style conveys warmth, friendliness and security to employees.	
2. Tasks are clear and are not changed continuously.	
3. Changes in responsibilities are passed on to the persons involved.	
4. Formal tasks are communicated from top management via the correct channels.	
5. An effective and efficient system for evaluation is in place.	
6. A system for giving recognition is in place.	
7. The organisational climate is supportive and results in job satisfaction.	
8. Employees know that management is concerned about them.	
9. All employees are treated the same.	

35. Are you of the opinion that **organisational climate** can support you in the execution of your duties as supervisor / middle manager?

Yes	No

36. Who is your **immediate superior**? Mark only one.

Senior social worker	
Chief social worker	
Assistant Director	
Regional Manager	
Unknown	

37. Do you receive **support** for the execution of your duties as supervisor / middle manager from your **immediate superior**?

Yes	No

38. If yes, **identify the support** that you receive from him/her.

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

39. Do you implement a specific **management strategy**?

Yes	No

40. If yes, which of the following **management strategies** do you implement?

Management strategy	Yes	No
1. Strategic management		
2. Strategic human resource development		
3. Performance management		
4. Management by Objectives (MBO)		
5. Management Information Systems (MIS)		
6. Other (specify)		

41. If no, do you need **training** in the following management strategies? Number from 1 (highest need) to 5 (lowest need) in order of preference.

Management strategy	Number
1. Strategic management	
2. Strategic human resource development	
3. Performance management	
4. Management by Objectives (MBO)	
5. Management Information Systems (MIS)	
6. Other (specify)	

42. Are you of the opinion that **knowledge of management strategies** would support you in the execution of your responsibilities as supervisor / middle manager?

Yes	No

43. Do you have the use of **computer technology** available to you personally?

Yes	No

44. If yes, are you **computer literate**?

Yes	No

45. Are you of the opinion that the availability of computer technology and being computer literate would **support** you in the execution of your duties as supervisor / middle manager?

Yes	No

46. What suggestions do you have on the **implementation** of the above indicated support systems for giving the support you as a supervisor / middle manager need?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

47. What suggestions do you have on **possible additional support systems** for social work supervisors / middle managers?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Thank you for your co-operation and perseverance in completing this questionnaire.

A HARMSE
RESEARCHER

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