ICPE
INTERNATIONAL CENTER
FOR PUBLIC ENTERPRISES
IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

INSTRAW
INTERNATIONAL RESEARCH AND
TRAINING INSTITUTE FOR THE
ADVANCEMENT OF WOMEN

A FRAMEWORK FOR TRAINING WOMEN MANAGERS IN PUBLIC ENTERPRISES IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

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International Centre for Public Enterprises in Developing Countries
(ICPE)

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A FRAMEWORK FOR TRAINING WOMEN MANAGERS IN PUBLIC ENTERPRISES IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

by

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The views expressed herein are those of the author and do not necessarily reflect the views of the International Center for Public Enterprises in Developing Countries/or INSTRAW.

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I MODULAR TRAINING FOR WOMEN IN DEVELOPMENT

One encounters several dangers when preparing texts relating to human resources development. Possibly, the most dangerous is the risk of using terms or phrases which convey different meanings to different audiences. Thus, there is the real hazard of causing confusion and/or non-acceptance of the idea being promoted.

In this particular case the danger revolves around the use of the word 'modular'. The term is subjected to various usages in the field of training or education. For instance, a module is often seen as any part of a training programme. One often hears that a supervisory management course is comprised of a set of modules, which in fact means that there are a number of subjects to be covered before the course is completed. Each subject provides a keener understanding of the role and the responsibilities of a supervisor. All together they provide a comprehensive picture of what is demanded of the supervisor and, maybe, provide guidelines of how the supervisor should respond to that demand.

Literally, this is an acceptable application of the term. However, in the field of training, the term 'module' has been given a particular meaning. It is used to describe special units of interventions which are in themselves complete and provide the individual (trainee) with expertise for performing a specific job. The person can then practice their new skills as many times as he/she wishes or when new modules are organized.

Modular Training in Management

The modular approach to training is mostly associated with skill training - and understandably so. For instance, an individual who wishes to learn auto-body repair can first learn how to 'beat out' dents. After learning the proper skills, the individual can accept a job where he/she will specialize in this area. Subsequently, the person can also learn other related skills, allowing for the possibility of taking on more complicated and demanding jobs. The process continues over time until the individual becomes fully skilled in all phases of the job. This approach has been used to assist unskilled, unemployed persons in gaining a niche in the labour market.

The application of this approach in the field of management is not well known. However, we consider this to be adaptable in the special circumstances relating to women in the labour force. Research has shown that women, although prominent in industry, are confined to lower levels of the hierarchy. In the garment, textile, and food industries for instance, women comprise as much as 90 percent of the labour force*. Yet surprisingly women occupy less than one percent of senior management

* The role of Women in Developing Countries: A Study; Ljubljana; ICPE; 1985.

positions. The situation is somewhat better at middle management level, but there is room for more improvement.

Apart from the moral questions that are germaine to such conditions, it can be argued that the practice of ignoring the integration of women in human resource development planning is inimical to the well-being of the enterprise. There are tremendous advantages in providing individuals within organizations with opportunities to 'grow'. Think of the impact on motivations. Consider the fact that a new entrant to the organization needs time to 'settle-in', and may not be as productive during the period when he/she is learning about the enterprise and at the same time is being oriented in the new job situation. And of course, there is the risk that the individual might not make it, causing the enterprise to go searching for a replacement. These considerations provide a strong argument for finding and training personnel from within the enterprise.

Of course, there are disadvantages associated with finding managerial personnel from within the enterprise. However, we believe that the positive aspects outweigh the negative and so we propose that effort will be made to ensure that the enterprise gets full benefit from the process of developing employees as a means of ensuring upward mobility, and making use of the existing potentials.

Systematic Approach

An ad-hoc approach to the advancement of women will not achieve this. The effort must be systematic. It must be well planned around the objectives of the enterprise and the need for an efficient and effective organization. We believe that this planning can take place within the framework of a modular approach to the training and development of women. We are convinced that the modular approach is applicable as a strategy for providing women with managerial competence within enterprises. In this case each module would fit the individual for performing a specific management role, or at a particular level - starting with that of first line (supervisor) manager. Women on the shop floor can be selected for the training of supervisors within the context of the first module. Subsequent training would allow them to make the necessary steps which would lead them right up to the most senior positions in the enterprise.

This point will be elaborated on later. Right now, however, it is necessary to indicate one other factor that is important to the success of such a programme.

Support Factors

No programme in human resource development (HRD) will succeed if it does not receive full support within the enterprise. Similarly, the enterprise will not benefit from HRD if it is not fully integrated with the operations and, indeed, linked to a sound management philosophy. This philosophy must have a commitment from management to facilitate and upgrade human skills, knowledge and attitude, at least to the extent that they will enable the individual to satisfactorily contribute to the goals and objectives aimed at.

Alternatively, that commitment has to be manisfested in a set of policy arrangements which are supportive of this need. Clear and sincere policy arrangements enhance a dynamic rational set of actions to integrate the human resource into every aspect of the operations of the enterprise. For instance, there are several enterprises that profess to be implementing 'succession planning'. Upon examination, however, this proves to be untrue. If they do have anything that resembles succession planning, it operates only to a limited extent, involving select areas, and a small group of individuals. However, very few enterprises in developing countries manifest the determination to create and sustain opportunities for individuals to enter at the lowest levels in the enterprise, and move to the very top on the basis of talent, skills and potential. In many instances, promotion to supervisory levels is based on judgement, influenced by technical skills without considerations for the new set of responsibilities. Hence, the promotees are ill-prepared for the tasks at the higher level and this is taken as justification to bar them from further promotion.

It is difficult to understand such behaviour. In effect, this behaviour suggests that those who are in senior management positions are willfully (or even inadvertently) rendering specific groups disfunctional. Taken that the human resource is so critical to the success of the enterprise, top management should have vested interest in enhancing the full utilization of the resource. A clear policy statement matched by systematic practices in respect of Career Planning, Succession Planning, training and development makes good sense and can prove to be very profitable in a practical sense. For instance, a certain bauxite company operating in Jamaica was faced with the reality of having to undertake massive redundancies. Such a move naturally can be expected to have severe effects on production, especially since the company expected to increase productivity in terms of massive increases in output per individual worker. Could the survivors of the redundancy live up to the added responsibilities and demand for applying new ranges of skills? Yes they could, and they did, because for years preceding the redundancy the company had invested heavily in training and development which enabled personnel to be very adaptable. In a long discussion with the manager of training for that organization we were able to agree that a cost-benefit approach can be used to prove that the years of training had a practical value to the company. This is ample proof that a systematic approach to HRD, backed by a sound management philosophy, can help companies survive difficult times.

APPLYING THE MODULES

The modules provide an oppportunity for women to receive training that will enhance their mobility within industrial organizations. They are aimed at women who are currently employed and are therefore in a position to compete for managerial positions. At present, according to research findings, women are at a disadvantage in this sort of competition. They are not adequately trained for such jobs. However, their increasing numbers in the labour market, demand that they be given the opportunity to attain their full potential and to make optimum contributions to their work environment.

The modules provide a framework for achieving this goal. In the first place, there is a focus (Module 1) on the need to involve more women at the supervisor/management level. Simultaneously, it is expedient to upgrade the competence of those who are already in such positions. In other words, Module 1 takes into account the fact that although women are a majority in the labour force in some industrial organizations, they have few possibilities of climbing up the management ladder. If such advancement is based on competence, both in terms of current expertise and potential, then such competence should be facilitated by relevant training and development. When this is done, organizations will not be able to ignore the rationality of 'promotions from within'. At the same time, the recipients of training will be in a position to negotiate or to bargain for their improved status within the enterprise.

The modules earn the right for consideration as a modular approach to training because although each is independent, each preceeding module will lay the foundation for the following ones. For instance, while Module 1 enhances competence at the first line management level, it includes components that are applicable at middle management level. Such components will form the basis for understanding the more advanced concepts at the higher level.

It cannot be over-emphasized that this modular approach should have strong support from the enterprise - both in terms of policy and structural frameworks as well as being integrated within the operations.

Policy and Structural Support

The enterprise needs to enact policies which:

a) Systematize the recruitment, selection and induction orientation of women to the enterprise;

b) Ensure adequate rational appraisal of performance as a means of understanding what is expected and how performance is meeting expectations;

c) Provide opportunities for career development as a means of fulfilling career aspirations and at the same time providing the enterprise with employees;

d) Dictate the commitment to human resource development within the framework of a 'human resource' plan.

At the same time the enterprise needs to ensure:

a) that the policies and plans are well known, and that line managers understand and share the overall philosophy on human resource development;

b) that line management is actively involved or responsive in such related issues as Training Needs Assessment (TNA), curriculum design, coaching and evaluation of training. This last aspect incorporates the important issue of 're-entry' after training, or the transference of new knowledge and skill to the job situation;

c) that training is related to specific performance issues and has as its objective the improved or competent performance of the job holder.

Training Need Assessment (TNA)*

Training must have the benefit of TNA if it is to accomplish the objective which is stated in (c). TNA provides an understanding of:

- The issues or problems which must be addressed;
- The deviation from what is considered satisfactory performance;
- The inhibiting forces to satisfactory performance;
- The support elements within the environment;
- Expected post-training behaviours; in what conditions will these be implemented, and how will they be evaluated. (In other words, what are the criteria by which post-training behaviour will be judged.)

Answers to these questions will vary from group to group, company to company, and country to country. For this reason, it is difficult to standardize TNA formats. Similarly, there is equal difficulty to standardize the content of modules. Fortunately, the principles and

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* For further guidance, read Stanley Lloyd A., Guide to Training Needs Assessment (ICPE; Ljubljana, 1987).

concepts of management are fairly consistent. They, therefore, provide us with a frame of reference for fashioning our training modalities and content.

For instance, within the ambit of 'Organization Theory and Behaviour' there are certain principles which have general application as a basis for action. The 'Delegation' principle is a case in point. Delegation is quite necessary and, in fact, quite inevitable within organizations. However, several factors dictate that delegation cannot be administered in a haphazard fashion. The nature of the task has to be taken into account. Similarly, the expertise of the delegates is important. This again raises questions relating to the purpose of delegation. Is it for the development of the workers or is it expected to ease some pressure from the manager as part of a time-management strategy? In either case the approach to delegation is quite specific in terms of strategy and approach.

Hence, the trainer needs to know something about the environment where the delegation will be implemented. Second, the trainer needs to know something about the individuals who are the most likely candidates. Third, what are the likely traits and idiosyncrasies which relate to culturally desired role perceptions and which may impede delegation and cause it to produce results other than those which were intended.

These are indicative of some critical issues which point to the importance of TNA as a means of fortifying the curriculum so that it produces the appropriate learning and, ultimately, the appropriate job behaviour.

The Curricula: A Head-Start

With this in mind, the Modular Curricula is prepared to provide trainers - who use it - with a head-start. The principles are outlined in two sections, TOPICS and COVERAGE. These are the guiding principles which are consistent and applicable in any management programme. Knowledge of these, by themselves, does not guarantee good performance. For that to happen the trainer needs to do some 'homework'. The trainer needs to relate these principles to actual situations, circumstances and personalities, and thereby incorporate 'real work' issues to determine content and methodology*. It is important to remember that the modular curricula is intended to enhance women's work place behaviour and, ultimately, contribute to the upward movement of women from the lowest levels of the company's hierarchy. The training which the curricula provide is expected to place women in a position to grasp opportunities for occupying higher level jobs.

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* Read Stanley, Lloyd A.; Guide to Training Curriculum Developement (ICPE; Ljubljana, 1987).

Once again it is necessary to emphasize that support systems are essential. For instance, human resource policies which rationalize the approach used in implementing human resource programmes are of utmost importance. Such policies must be translated into programmes that create new levels of competence among women.

The programmes cannot succeed if they, for all practical purposes, are conceived and implemented in isolation of the work situation. They must meld with organizational issues, and should be grounded in theories and concepts of behaviourism. For instance, training is concerned with performance - present and future. This means that the occurrence of a behaviour is expected to be maintained long into the future. But the probability of a behaviour's future occurrence is dependent on the effects of consequences which follow the particular behaviour. In other words, successfull training should be followed by opportunities to demonstrate the new found competence, with appropriate encouragement. This will ensure or increase the probability of successful transfer of learning, guaranteeing that the objectives of the curricula are met.

These considerations have nothing to do with granting of privileges and moral obligations. They represent hard facts. An organization survives and achieves effectiveness when it optimizes the use of its resources. Naturally, this includes the development of the human resource if its contribution to the goals of the enterprise is to be optimized. Enhancing and sustaining the development of the human resource by providing opportunities to practice new skills, and by encouraging the repetition of the behaviour desired, is known as <u>reinforcement</u>*.

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* Reinforcement means any event following a particular behaviour serving to strengthen and maintain it. When the reinforcement of appropriate behaviour is done on a regular basis, a 'schedule of reinforcement' is said to be applied. It is vital that women who receive training be exposed to a 'schedule of reinforcement' to facilitate the building of confidence and a growing sense of worth within the industrial framework.

Achieving Relevance

The application of the Modular Curricula therefore must be undertaken in the light that research work is necessary to ensure its relevance. Earlier, it was emphasized that in their present state the curricula are designed merely to give the implementer a head-start. This means that the user/implementer uses the OUTLINE as a guide to elaborating the various modules. For instance, the modules are presented in a format with seven (7) columns.

Column 1 - Headed SESSION- it is a mere indication of the number of sessions for each subject. A 'session' can last between one to three hours depending entirely on the judgement of the implementer.

Column 2 - Depicts the topical issues to be covered in each subject area. These are in sequence and interrelate (or flow) to ensure full and comprehensive coverage of the subject.

The topics, as they stand are not designed to favour men or women. They are topics which will be covered in any supervisory or management programme. Their meaningfulness in the case of women depend on special issues to be developed in the column which is titled coverage.

Column 3 - The 'aims' or goals of what the treatment of each aspect of the subject achieves are stated in this column. The purpose of this is to demonstrate the importance of maintaining focus. On the other hand the coverage of each subject must be determined in terms of knowledge, skills, and attitudinal aspects. By depicting the aim at every step of the curriculum design stage, it becomes feasible to differentiate between cognitive, behavioural and affective components in the learning process. Consequently, it becomes easy to determine or design appropriate methodologies for influencing learning in each component. Column 3 becomes, therefore, the base from which methods and techniques are conceived.

Of course, there are other considerations, such as:

- background of learners
- learning styles
- resource availability
- time frame

The 'aim' is the starting point of the activity and all other considerations become important only to the extent that they influence or affect the accomplishment of the aim or objective. Every aspect of the learning experience must be dovetailed for the specific purpose of influencing learning. The information regarding training related issues is necessary to foster that end.

Column 4 - Refers to the duration of presentation in relation to each topic, and must be carefully determined so that adequate time is given for comprehension and assimilation.

Column 5 - This column gives direction to the activity. It contains the full text of concepts, theories and principles in relation to practical situations which the trainee will encounter after completing the training. In other words, it contains the things which the trainee must learn, and this must be specifically related to the aim/objective of the activity.

The full understanding of what the training assessment uncovers is manifested in this column. For instance:

- what exactly should be taught;
- what experiences should be allowed of accommodated; and
- what particular focus should be maintained.

An appropriate training needs assessment will indicate the course of these things based on the assessment of the problem, its causes, and its effects in terms of its influence and outcome of the performance as well as the organizational issues that are involved, and the various linkages that are critical to it.

Column 6 - Complements column 5 by indicating the methods and techniques that are most appropriate for enhancing learning. Methods should be carefully selected in conformity with learning theories, especially in the area of adult learning. In other words, the trainer should carefully select methods which encourage learners to focus on performance oriented issues, and use their experience and intuitiveness to forge ideas of how to perform effectively as a manager.

Column 7 - Is merely a reference point regarding the learning aids - handouts, visual aids, audio-visual material etc. - which will be used throughout the activity. These should be carefully prepared beforehand.

The entire curricula are based on a challenge facing management in developing countries. That challenge is the need to ensure that management training has relevance and utility for those who practice managerial roles. Such training should be based on empirical evidence of the real role that managers perform and what constitutes managerial success. The rationale for relying on such empirical evidence is that managerial functions are complex. Their successful implementation demands timing and an acute understanding of environmental circumstances as well as the ability to impact an organizational culture.

Many management training activities concentrate merely on teaching what in effect are staff aspects - i.e., theories of financial management, accounting principles, marketing, personnel management. They completely ignore the fact that management involves interpersonal and informational roles; that managerial functions involve practical day-to-day issues which can cloud the application of theories. It is important to realize that managers need to apply a great deal of analytical thinking, flexibility and adaptability if the theory is to become meaningful.

The conclusion, therefore, is that the 'modular curricula' should be expanded through research, covering issues which make them even more oriented to performance. As an example of how to expand the curricula for first line supervisors, lets take the second topic on 'Organization: concepts and principles' in the module. The area of coverage would include such features as:

- Delegation of authority
- Chain of command
- Span of control

The 'delegation of authority', for instance, affects a woman in two ways - namely:

- In her acceptance of delegation;
- In her delegating of responsibility

Both instances come under the influence of 'formal and informal' behavioural practices. In some instances there is resistance to the woman being offered additional responsibilities, and the resistance does not come from men alone.

So it is not enough to teach the principles of delegation. It is important that the tangible manifestations of resistance be laid bare and that management training assists the trainee to focus on these in an effort to discover how to cope.

Similarly, the topical area 'Supervision and Leadership' deals with effective communication within the enterprise. Communication is the nervous system of the enterprise. It is susceptible to a myriad of forces, including those that relate to self-image, self-concept, role perception and other social factors. Many of these factors assume dreaded proportions in the case of women managers and can be dealt with only if their true nature is understood.

The same is true in the case of 'Top Management' regarding, for instance, controls in public enterprises. It is a known fact that public enterprises are monitored and supervised by a large number of government agencies. The nature of this monitoring and supervision is such that it places great strain on management to 'manage' those relationships. The nature of these relationships vary from country to country in terms of range and intensity. Hence, there is a need to provide empirically tested examples that are typical of the country in which the curricula are implemented.

II MODULAR CURRICULA FOR TRAINING WOMEN MANAGERS

INTRODUCING THE MODULES

There seems to be a consensus that women are not adequately utilized at the work place. Secondly, it is generally accepted that women are not given adequate opportunities to develop the knowledge and skills that would allow them to be optimally integrated within the work force. Futhermore, it is believed that public enterprises should be leaders in promoting the status of women, through appropriate human resource policy and training.

The intervention of intentional organizations is important in order to facilitate the integration and development of women within industrial public enterprises. This intervention should however, be used as a catalyst, based on the following reasons.

1. It is best that the process be internally dynamic. This means that public enterprises must themselves feel the need to integrate and develop women as important contributors to organizational results.

2. Prevailing conditions still restrict the extent to which women can become involved in training programmes that are organized away from "home base". In other words, it must be recognised that one of the forces inhibiting women's participation in training programmmes is that there seems to be some constraints to their being away from their families for extended periods.

3. Governments of developing countries should be involved in fostering human resources development as a vehicle to self-reliance.

These reasons suggest that public enterprises must themselves organize training, or attempt to influence the circustances to make it feasible for women to attend training programmes.

<u>Policy Support</u>

To fulfill such a role, public entrerprises need to formulate policies and develop supportive elements that facilitate the integration and development of women. In other words, any viable training and development activitiy must have the benefit of rational policies which have impact on:

- Recruitment
- Placement
- Performance Appraisal
- Career Planning and Career Guidance
- Training and Development
- Promotion
- Wage and Salary Administration

All policies developed must include these principles as a basic feature of the entire integration process.

TRAINING OF WOMEN MANAGERS

A similar process of rationalization must be taken into account in developing training activities for "women managers and cadres". In the first place, it is necessary to develop a classification system, or managerial groupings. This will allow for validation of the training curriculum by way of targeting specific training to individual groups.

In this sense, the following general management groupings have been identified.

1. Supervisory (first line) management

2. Middle Management
   a) Operations management
   b) Personnel Managers, Industrial Relations Managers

3. Senior (Top) Management.

Overall Objective

Taking into account what has been argued, the overall objective for developing a modular training programme for women managers in industrial public enterprises is not done to differentiate between training for men versus women. On the contrary, the effort is to:

a) Prepare curricula which highlight functional/applied knowledge and skills of general management.

b) Illustrate and analyse the issues confronting women in their endeavour to apply managerial knowledge and skills.

c) Offer a framework for implementation that will make it convenient for women to receive management training at levels comparable to what men currently receive.

Strategy

The following marks the strategy for implementing the training modules:

Module 1: Supervisory (first line management)

- To be carried out in the country by local trainers (possibly with the assistance of ICPE/UNIDO/INSTRAW networks);

- To be of two weeks duration and should be organized on the basis of public enterprises nominating personnel for the course. Evaluation formats are to be developed in conjunction with local team of trainers, and the implementation should involve public enterprise in-house capabilities in Training Needs Assessment and in organizing the activity.

Module 2: Middle Management

- To be carried out internationally or regionally with experts provided by ICPE/UNIDO and with the co-operation of regional training institutions. All material should be prepared well in advance of the training activity. The content of the presentations should reflect the special problems of implementation on the part of women, as distinguishable from men. This will come to light as the result of Training Needs Assessment, undertaken to build relevance and validity in an effort to make the activity performance oriented.

Module 3: Senior (Top) Management

- To be oriented towards full involvement of participants in the presentations, using concepts of experimental learning and self-development. Participants would be provided with relevant literature and information on "blocks" of subjects. They would also be given a project based on the literature. Such a programme could be carried out by local trainers with the supervision of ICPE/UNIDO;

- To be carried out in a six month schedule, with six week-end seminars for project presentation and discussion. In other words, the list of subjects would be divided into six "blocks". Participants would have one month to study the literature assigned to each block and prepare a project for the seminar. The project will be integrated to the job experience. The seminar will be structured to assess the project, taking into account relevant theories and concepts, and setting new direction for further work.

As a mean of motivating the participants, it is necessary to provide some incentives. This could be done in the form of certificates at the end of each module, and a diploma in the case of Module 3. Participants' work in Module 3 will be graded and the diploma will be issued on the basis of merit.

The idea in Module 3 is to integrate theoretical academic work with the participant's daily job responsibilities. It hinges on the principle of self-development, requiring the participant to study and formulate strategies for tasks and responsibilities at senior management level. The seminar is arranged to help the participant evaluate the choice of strategies and the application of a particular set of concepts, theories and principles. The process will be aided by the other participants, and by the trainers acting as "facilitators".

(Suggested reading at this point is Charles E. Watson's Management Development Through Training. Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Reading, Mass. 1979).

III MODULE 1 SUPERVISORY MANAGEMENT COURSE FOR WOMEN IN INDUSTRIAL PUBLIC ENTERPRISES

Target Group:

Women who are employed in public enterprises and are currently occupying supervisory positions or have been identified for future promotion.

Objectives:

- To influence an awareness of managerial role and responsibilities and to point out the issues to which these are related.

- To impart knowledge and aid the development of skills in supervising the work force.

- To prepare participants for middle management responsibilities.

- To create opportunities for women to review their roles and develop self-awareness for effective performance in managerial jobs.

Duration:

60 hours (two weeks)

Conditions:

To be effective, this training activity must have the full support of the public enterprises from which the participants are selected. The support must be manifested in term of pre and post training support systems which:

a) Influence motivation of the participants and ensure their proper selection and preparation;

b) Provide opportunities for the transfer of new knowledge and skills to the work situation, i.e., ensure the re-entry of the trainees by preparing the social climate to support such re-entry;

c) Allowing for evaluation of the training's effectivenes.

Support systems should take the form of policies and practices with respect to:

a) Performance Appraisal Systems
b) Career Guidance and Planning Practices
c) Succession Planning
d) Wage and Salary Administration
e) Training Incentives Schemes

Research

Here we give an example of the role which research must play in the implementation of the modules. The following highlights some general issues which surfaced from a very limited survey undertaken in one developing country. Admittedly, the survey cannot lay claim to scientific rigor. It represents, however, the genuine feeling of over three hundred women interviewed between 1980-1983. Indications are that the views of these women were widespread and that they are, to a great extent, still relevant.

1. Women managers tend to escalate conflict by reacting "emotionally to opposing viewpoints, and by taking it personal".

2. Women tend to be more severe and unbending than men. They abide strictly by formal practices and are less open to innovation.

3. There is a tendency for women to "breakdown" under pressure when negotiating.

4. Women are good disciplinarians, but will sometimes allow people to get away with too much.

5. There is a tendency for women bosses to feel insecure and become suspicious of female subordinates. They harbour suspicion of being unfairly criticised and feeling that their subordinates are competing with them. They become upset if subordinates are consistently better dressed. In other words, women managers are seen as being prone to "fits of jealousy" which can distort their behaviour as managers and administrators.

6. Women generally are very concerned about the physical work environment, and will take steps to ensure that the surroundings are comfortable. They are, however, "impatient" and less "organized" in giving guidance on the job.

It should be noted that some positive views were expressed as well. However, these observations were selected since our main concern has to do with examples of deficiencies, or issues which indicate a need for specialized interventions.

Similarly, while these observations are themselves subjective and attitudinal, they nonetheless deserve attention in "training" curricula since managers must be able to remove perceptual barriers in order to guarentee organization effectiveness. It is, for instance, important that the curricula reflect an awareness of an overall preference on the part of women to be supervised by male supervisors. It is necessary to confront issues which lead interviewees to attest that situations supervised by men are:

a) more harmonious
b) less tension-ridden
c) more conducive to frank, open and objective communication
d) more conducive to objective treatment of grievances and appraisal of performance.

Hence, the point being made is that research is necessary as a means of completing and validating the modules in terms of:

a) uncovering or giving authenticity to such issues in a specific country;

b) creating an understanding of the causes behind these issues;

c) gathering information on behavioural occurrences in terms of each category of issues. These will then form the basis of practical examples and experiences - based exercises, allowing for the establishment of a relationship between theoretical concepts and role related behaviour.

Similar research should be undertaken for each module.
(See suggested list of questions.)

COURSE OUTLINE - MODULE 1

Session	Topic	Aim	Schedule	Coverage	Method	Materials
	1. INTRODUCTORY PHASE					
	- Objectives of public enterprises.	a) To acquaint participants with the importance of public enterprises promoting social and economic development.	1 hr.	-Development issues and the objectives of public enterprises as instruments of social and economic wellbeing.	Lecture - with slides/ transparencies.	Reference.
	- Productivity and standard of living.	b) To convey to participants that productivity is important to national living standards and that supervisors play an important role in productivity.	2 hrs.	-Productivity concepts, their relationships to national wellbeing; role of management (special reference to supervisors) in enhancing high productivity.	Panel discussion.	Handout 1.1
	- Change and its impact on behaviour of the workforce.	c) Illustrate behavioural issues with which surpervisors are likely to be confronted.	1.5 hr.	a) Cultural gender issues b) Social change and work behaviour - impact on managerial functions.	Lecture.	-Handout 1.2 -Transparency 1 (modify to suit specific situation/country experience; and discuss fully.)
	- Role and responsibilities of a supervisor.	d) Provide specific outline of the responsibities of first line supervisors in public enterprises.	2 hrs.	- Overview of the status, role and responsibilities of first line supervisors.	Plenary- participants examine their experience.	-Handouts 1.3, 1.4 1.5, 1.6

COURSE OUTLINE - MODULE 1

Session	Topic	Aim	Schedule	Coverage	Method	Materials
	2. ORGANIZATION concepts and principles	Present participants with a clear picture of their role and function with respect to concepts and principles of organization	3 hrs.	-Division of work -Responsibilities and authority -Chain of command -Span of control -Formal and informal behaviour organizations.The gender issue along with other informal patterns, impinging on organization behaviour and performance. Review strengths and weakness in the system, relating to women performing supervisory roles. Develop concepts of how to use strength for effectiveness. -Guidelines for organization effectiveness and the role which the supervisor must play.	Lecture - discusion: getting participants to use their experiences within the framework of discovery learning	

COURSE OUTLINE - MODULE 1

Session	Topic	Aim	Schedule	Coverage	Method	Materials
3.	SUPERVISION AND LEADERSHIP	To examine various concepts and issues relevant to work groups leadership and develop guidelines for effective leadership at first line supervisory levels within public enterprises. To relate the above to likely problems facing female supervisors in: a) male dominant groups b) mixed group of male and female c) female dominated groups	9 hrs.	-Definitions -Leadership styles - including -behavioural aspects of decision making; elements of participative management. -Effective communication - organizational and interpersonal -Controlling the workforce (rules and regulations; guiding work behaviour; handling grievances,disciplinary action) -Work attitudes and motivation -Group discussions and meetings .Participating in meetings .Leading group discussion	Lecture/case study	-References (Discuss) -Handouts 1.7, 1.8, 1.9, 1.10 -Handouts 1.11, 1.12, 1.13, 1.14 1.15, 1.16, 1.17.
4.	OPERATIONS MANAGEMENT	To provide first line supervisors with the basics of operations management so that they may give capable assistance to their departmental/divisional manager	12 hrs.	-Factors affecting operations .Work climate .Climate of supervision .Technology and methods -Production planning & control -Objectives & key result areas -Material handling -Work standards -Cost reductions - developing and implementing cost reduction programmes -role of supervisor.	Lecture and exercise, including in-factory experience	-Handout 1.18

COURSE OUTLINE - MODULE 1

Session	Topic	Aim	Schedule	Coverage	Method	Materials
	5. OPERATIONAL SYSTEMS	To emphasize the criti-	9 hrs.	-Setting objectives and	Case study	
			cal nature	of managerial	operational plans	and exercises
		control and how this function may be imple- mented for best results.		-Management control and oper- ational control -Relationship between organiz- ational design & control systems. -Characteristics of formal control systems -Properties of performance indicators -Setting performance indicators (standards) -Issues in performance measurement -The feedback process Include - informal dynamics circumscribing the applica- tion of managerial control. Focus on gender issues in- fluencing these situations.	(cases and exercises to be specially developed based on real life experien- ces of parti- cipants, i.e. to be research based).	

COURSE OUTLINE - MODULE 1

Session	Topic	Aim	Schedule	Coverage	Method	Materials
	6. HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT	To illustrate the critical importance of training and to outline first line responsibilities in these areas, as well as how to discharge such responsibility.	12 hrs.	-Supervisor's responsibilities for HRD/means of discharging responsibility -Strategies/approaches to HRD -Training Needs Assessment -Selection and preparation of personnel for training -On the job coaching (techniques) -Evaluation of training	Lecture - discussion and exercises and role play	-Guide to Training Need Assessment-ICPE -Handouts 1.19, 1.20, 1.21. -ILO; Training Methods and techniques. -Guide to Evaluation of Training - ICPE.
	7. PLANNING AND PROGRAMMING	To elaborate the operations and control element in terms of cost effectiveness and emphasize the first line supervisors involvement in the budget exercise	6 hrs.	-Purpose & functions of budgets -Budgeting process -Strategic planning and supervision: requirements for first line supervisor to share vision and be knowledgeable of enterprise's mission. To establish link between strategic and operational plans.	Lecture and exercises	-Handouts 1.22, 1.23
	8. GENDER ISSUES (Social, cultural variables & implications within organizations.)	To foster "coping behaviour" of each participant who inevitably will face problems that are grounded in these issues.		-Role play and group exercises based on gender issues manifested at the work place - designed to build self-awareness and highlight "coping behaviours" for successfully responding in the face of such issues.	Structured exercises	Structured exercises developed from knowledge of local situations - through research.

PRODUCTIVITY

Objectives of Management

A central and indispensable objective must be profitability in the manufacture and sale of goods. This highlights a concern for efficient day-to-day operations as a way of ensuring future survival of the enterprise.

The concerns of management are reflected in a determination to:

1. Produce goods that will sell
2. Produce goods and services economically
3. Produce on time

Productivity

The three-fold determination of management can be summed up in one word: PRODUCTIVITY. The term is used in assessing economic use of resources.

Productivity is the ratio of output of goods and services to the input of resources considered. In other words, it is a measure of how well resources are being used. It may be conveniently expressed as a fraction, e.g.:

- $$\text{Manpower Productivity} = \frac{\text{Output of goods or services per unit of time}}{\text{persons employed}}$$

  or $$\frac{\text{Output of goods or services}}{\text{man-hours used}}$$

- $$\text{Material productivity} = \frac{\text{Output of goods or services}}{\text{units (or cost) of material used}}$$

Manpower productivity is probably the most familiar factor that has the greatest bearing on living standards and national economies.

Productivity is a straightforward concept. Its quantification, however, presents some difficulty. Hence, comparative measurements may be made using the concept of production efficiency.

Efficiency, unlike productivity, is expressed in relative - not absolute - terms. It is the ratio of actual output, using given resources, to the standard output that should be obtained with the same resources in the same time period. Hence,

$$\text{Labour efficiency} = \frac{\text{actual output per man hour}}{\text{standard output per man hour}}$$

This concept allows productivity comparisons to be made on the same process at different times, or between different processes within the organization, provided standards are unchanged.

Several other problems emerge with such measures. However, the importance of manpower productivity to national prosperity and standard of living means that supervisors must share management's concern and learn how to monitor and influence productivity.

Handout 1.2

RESPONSIBILITIES OF A SUPERVISOR

A supervisor has many duties and responsibilities. He or she must answer to top management, to subordinates, to fellow supervisors and, in some cases, to customers. However, the bulk of the supervisor's responsibilities fall into two main areas:

A. Top Management (upward) - as regards the mission, goals and objectives of the enterprise.

B. Subordinates (downward) - which involves more than merely a commitment to get the work done.

Upward Responsibilities:

1. To meet required work schedules and supply requested reports promptly.

2. To maintain accurate and easily available records.

3. To maintain standards of quality and high levels of productivity.

4. To transmit and interpret company policies, rules and regulations with honesty and good faith, and see to it that the department operates in accordance to the dictates and strategies of the enterprise.

5. To strengthen the morale and loyalty of the work force, and to increase their confidence in the company as well as maintaining a focus on meeting objectives.

6. To develop and train competent understudies for supervisory positions as well as the other jobs in his/her department.

7. To recognise individual differences and abilities among the work force and blend these to provide synergy.

8. To maintain a flow of information about company matters and, within reason, to let each person know in advance about changes which concern him/her.

9. To provide leadership based on respect and co-operation and confidence.

RESPONSIBILITIES OF A SUPERVISOR

PEOPLE:

SELECTS
TRAINS & DEVELOPS
INFORMS (UP/DOWN/ACROSS)
ASSIGNS & SCHEDULES
GUIDES & ASSISTS
MOTIVATES
CONTROLS
APPRAISES
COUNSELS
MAINTAINS MORALE
PROMOTES

PRODUCTION:

PLANS
SCHEDULES
SEEKS MAXIMUM QUANTITY AND QUALITY.

EQUIPMENT:

ENSURES PROPER USE
ENSURES PROPER MAINTENANCE
RECOMMENDS ADDITIONS & IMPROVEMENTS

MATERIALS:

PLANS
SCHEDULES

SUPERVISOR:

PLANS
GATHERS INFORMATION
SOLVES PROBLEMS
MAKES DECISIONS
BRINGS ABOUT CHANGE
MAINTAINS RECORDS
SEEKS IMPROVEMENTS

SAFETY:

MAXIMIZES

WORK AREA:

FOLLOWS RULES OF GOOD HOUSEKEEPING

SYSTEMS & PROCEDURES:

IMPLEMENTS
SUGGESTS IMPROVEMENTS

COSTS:

CONTROLS
REDUCES

Handout 1.3

THE JOB OF BEING A SUPERVISOR

THE GENERAL RESPONSIBILITIES OF A SUPERVISOR

1. Directs and co-ordinates the work of employees in a manner that contributes to organizational effectiveness.

2. Directs the operation of equipment and controls the use of material, to ensure maximum utilization, and, at the same time, keep waste to a minimum.

3. Controls quality and quantity of work output.

4. Orders overtime assignments in accordance with established procedure.

5. Administers all company policies, working rules and procedures, and advises employees on company plans and strategies.

6. Acts for the company in the first step of handling a grievance.

7. Makes recommendations regarding the appointment of new employees after prior screening by staff departments. Also, carefully monitors the probationary period and submits appropriate reports when needed.

8. Recommends promotions, transfers and changes in job classification.

9. Disciplines employees, or effectively recommends such action.

10. Instructs and trains employees in the performance of work assigned to them.

11. Maintains satisfactory working conditions, including the adoption of necessary procedures to prevent accidents, and encourages employees to play their part in maintaining safe working conditions.

12. Reports to the next level of supervision and consults with higher departmental management; participates in departmental meetings as well as other conferences relating to organization and work.

(Responsibilities for other management positions of higher status are based on this same basic responsibility pattern, but differs primarily in degree and scope.)

Handout 1.4

SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES

The following points are intended primarily as groupings of activities for the purpose of a supervisor's time sheet. In other words, it will simplify the way in which a supervisor accords and spends his/her time.

A. Direction and Co-ordination

- Concerned primarily with department's operations
- Gives routine instructions to and communicates with employees
- Watches for potential bottlenecks
- Checks faulty equipment
- Modifies assignments within the overall work plan
- Provides leadership and inspires teamwork
- Meets with section leaders regarding work

B. Planning

- Specifies departmental and individual goals in harmony with company goals
- Specifies job assignments and descriptions
- Balances the workload
- Designs work method and plan
- Procures materials and tools
- Sets standards of performance

C. Control

- Keeps records and/or observes actual performance (time sheets, output count, productivity)
- Compares actual and projected budgets
- Inspects and checks quality control
- Redirects individual and/or departmental efforts toward planned goals

D. Management Communications

- Works with top management to specify departmental goals and responsibilities (as part of overall operations)
- Receives instructions from boss
- Receives training
- Interprets company policy and/or union contract to employees.
- Provides management with communication regarding departmental operations and conditions; reviews overall performance
- Attends meetings called and directed by boss

E. Training/Coaching

- New employees
- Old employees - new method
- Old employees - new product
- Old employees - follow-up
- Old and new employess - safety

F. Employee Relations

- Improves working conditions
- Assists individual employees to work more effectively
- Interviews new employees or applicants
- Hires and fires
- Counsels

G. Co-ordination with other Department Personnel

- Assures sources of supply, services or personnel
- Provides fulfilment of commitments to supply other departments with output of own department; initiative to communicate conditions in advance.
- Exchanges communications on general conditions of work.
- Meets with other department heads (special purpose or informal)

H. Sets up Machinery at Workplace

I. Establishes Breaks or Rest Periods

J. Directs Line Production

THE TOOLS OF MANAGEMENT

EXAMPLES

TOOL	CORRECT USAGE
Organization	All responsibilities clearly defined; every worker fully aware of whom he/she will report to; every supervisor familiar with channels of communication and lines of authority.
Planning	Work priorities established - first things first - standards established, time limits set, methods determined, responsibilities assigned. (At supervisory level, the main emphasis is on very short term plans.)
Staffing	Making full use of everyone's ability. Picking the right person to do the job. Assigning jobs to each worker, according to their ability.
Orders and Instructions	Order and instructions given clearly. Verbal or written orders used at the appropriate time, and in the correct way, to achieve the desired result.
Checking and Inspecting	The word 'check' should be an important one in every supervisor's vocabulary. Checking and inspecting work frequently for quality, progress, proper method and safety. Knowing what is going on in the unit or department at all times.
Co-ordination	Maintaining proper balance between activities and the tasks of individuals. Getting full co-operation from everyone concerned. Proper use of department meetings to integrate the views of all concerned.
Trade Knowledge	Keeping up with one's trade -new developments, new methods. Making correct decisions based on trade knowledge.

MAIN FEATURES OF THE TRAINED SUPERVISOR

1. The trained supervisor is aware of the responsibility of being part of management and of the human relations potential of the job.

2. The supervisor outgrows the concept of doing a day-to-day job, of concentrating on technical routine tasks, and begins to plan, organize and direct the work of others.

3. The supervisor avoids a self-centred attitude in dealing with other supervisors, thus eliminating a major cause of friction and thus helps build a strong, dynamic and cohesive organization.

4. The supervisor knows that all superiors are willing to give help and advice, and will not hesitate to ask when needed. On the other hand, the supervisor develops strategies for gaining and retaining the confidence of senior managers.

5. The supervisor thinks a problem through before attempting a solution.

6. The supervisor endeavours to make valid objective contributions at company meetings when discussion is invited. All contributions are marshalled into good order and the presentation must be clear.

7. The supervisor is confident of his/her ability to administer company policy. The person has resolved all doubts about it by asking questions to determine the reasons for its adoption. Hence, he/she is quite clear about this and knows when to be discrete.

8. The supervisor is always concerned about better and safer ways of doing things, demonstrating sensitivity to the needs of everyone under his/her supervision, while at the same time pursuing organizational objectives. In doing so, he/she keeps communication channels open.

9. The supervisor helps reduce costs. Better supervision leads to lower costs, in some form, at some time. The company with alert supervisors, consequently, should find itself in an excellent competitive position.

10. The supervisor recognises the need to contribute to the development of those he/she supervises in order that they may gain true job satisfaction and, prepare for higher responsibility.

RATIONALE FOR BETTER COMMUNICATION: BOTTLENECKS AND BREAKDOWNS

1. Careless transmission of instructions or explanations. The sender of such messages may take too much for granted, thereby creating confusion. The message will come across vague to the listener.

2. The supervisor refrains from giving full information (e.g. reasons for taking certain actions) because he/she believes the worker does not merit further information. This represents an autocratic from of behaviour which has very little regard for workers "Right to Know". In other words, there is the belief that workers must be concerned only with what they are told to do.

3. Instructions given in a manner that leads workers to think the supervisor is talking down to them.

4. Workers perceive the supervisor has become a "different person" on receiving promotion.

5. Supervisors treat workers' tendency to question instructions, and to "talk back", as insubordination.

6. Arguments and disagreements over "small matters", will prevent understanding of major issues. Also, there is a tendency to focus on personalities rather than issues.

7. Supervisor seems inconsistent, or becomes a mere "messenger" of senior management.

BASICS OF EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION

1. Seek to clarify your ideas before communicating, and be sure of your motives.

2. Consult with others in planning communications, especially if its is related to other aspects and may clash with other communication.

3. Consider the social climate, as well as the specific situation, when you communicate.

4. Examine your own true purpose in each communication, and anticipate possible resistance.

5. Be sure you respect those with whom you communicate.

6. Consider the tone, as well as the content of your communication. Body language is a powerful force in communication.

7. Be sure that each message merges with the interest of the receiver and its objectives do not clash with the receiver's perceptions. All potential conflict should be anticipated and dealt with.

8. Always seek to understand, as well as to be understood - be a good listener.

9. Follow up your communication to find out what it meant to the receiver. Be consistent.

10. Be a good listener.

11. Be aware of traits which the individual possesses and the extent to which they aid or impede communication.

PLANT LAYOUT

Two aspects are considered in plant layout:

1. The arrangement of the production and service departments in the plant.

2. The arrangement of the production facilities which the operator must operate at a particular work station.

In both cases the intention is to create smooth and efficient workflow from the standpoint of distance and cost, although layout by itself will not bring about a desired level of efficiency. Consideration must be given also to material handling.

In other words, when layout is being considered, the analyst must also consider the manner in which materials will be handled.

Every manufacturing concern is confronted with many problems such as plant layout, improvement methods, and the rearrangement of facilities with which the operator works as a means of improving productivity. In some instances, the rearrangement of facilities will become necessary when replacing old equipment or as a result of change in product design or in the production process which affects the sequence of operations.

The following are important issues concerning plant layout.

- Revised sequence of operations
- A need to improve work methods
- Create efficiency in new work stations
- Cope with situations in which new items are added to the company's product line, or where changes take place in the required levels of output
- The installation of new equipment
- Enhancement of the efficient utilization of handling equipment

All this suggests that the scope and magnitude of plant layout problems vary widely. At one extreme it is manifested in a need to make simple or minor adjustments in existing layout. At the other, it may become necessary to do a re-layout of the entire plant.

The details of the layout procedure vary with the nature of the problem. Hence, it is necessary to define the type of plant layout problem that may be encountered.

1. The determination of equipment requirement

2. The determination of place requirement for production department in regards to:
   - Intermittent vs. continuous manufacturing
   - Product layout
   - Process layout
   - Product and process layout
   - Balancing production lines

TEN PRINCIPLES FOR BETTER READING COMPREHENSION

1. KEEP SENTENCES SHORT - Reading becomes difficult when sentences average more than 20 words.

2. VARY SENTENCE LENGTH - In aiming for short sentences do not let your writing become choppy. Sentences of 30 words or more are all right provided they are balanced with enough short ones to keep the average low.

3. PREFER SIMPLE WORDS TO COMPLEX - e.g., write "try to find out" more often than "endeavour to ascertain";

4. PREFER THE FAMILIAR WORD TO THE FAR FETCHED - e.g., use "the next-to-last paragraph" rather than "penultimate paragraph".

5. USE WORDS YOUR READER CAN PICTURE - The concrete word serves better than the abstract in getting an idea across. Do not just say that a piece of material is "practical". Make it concrete; e.g. "the material will wash well and wear well".

6. AVOID UNNECESSARY WORDS - Nearly everyone who dictates puts in words that can be easily crossed without loss of meaning. Those unnecessary words tire a reader and "fog-up" writing. Go over drafts from time to time crossing out unneeded words. It will help guide you to brisker writing.

7. TIE IN WITH YOUR READER'S EXPERIENCE - Always write with a particular reader in mind. Relate your message to the person's individual problems. This is the way to have your reader understand and get your message across. No matter how well you have thought out what you wish to say, you still have to link your thought with the other person's experience before you will get a reaction.

8. KEEP VERBS ACTIVE - Action verbs put life in writing, e.g., do not say "when an application of wax is made to the surface, a brilliance is imparted to it"; say, instead, "waxing the surface brightens it".

9. WRITE AS YOU TALK - The written word is nothing more than a substitute for the spoken word. You will want to make your writing somewhat more precise than speech, but it is a good guide to consider as you write: "what would I say to this person if I were talking to him face to face?"

10. WRITE TO EXPRESS NOT TO IMPRESS - Do not confuse dignity or learning with pompous. The best way to impress the other person is to express what you have to say clearly and directly.

Handout 1.11

A WAY OF HANDLING JOB PROBLEMS

Job problems are manifested in various forms, and at various levels. Each manager has a responsibility to treat job problems when they arise. Some of these problems must be handled expeditiously by the manager, while others must be referred to other sources for a solution. In either case, the manager must adopt a certain pattern of thinking. For instance, the manager needs to establish such things as:

1. The problem:
   a. why something should be done
   b. obstacles to be anticipated

2. Possible solution:
   a. what can be proposed
   b. what is expected to follow

3. Reasons:
   a. why this is the best proposal or approach
   b. why other approaches will be less satisfactory

4. Results - advantages and benefits that are expected to follow:
   a. individually
   b. to others

5. The above is determined on the basis of facts:
   a. Get all the facts
   b. "weigh" and decide i.e., analyse, assess, review
   c. consider alternatives on the basis of the best solutions in terms of benefits, cost of implementation, impact on operations, impact on people

6. Develop strategies for transmitting decisions to others, taking into account:
   a. application of solutions
   b. soliciting assistance in finding solutions
      - be prepared
      - be persuasive
      - establish basis for follow-through
      - use proper "timing" for reopening recommendation or request

HOW TO HANDLE A GRIEVANCE

A grievance should be treated in a very systematic manner with the supervisor taking care to understand the situation as fully as possible.

- Hold interviews privately - as free from interruption as possible.
- Listen sympathetically - grievance sometimes disappear when aired.
- Listen with an open mind - do not jump to conclusions.
- Investigate fully - get the whole story.
- Keep the employee at ease.
- Listen calmly and with patience - do not get in an argument.
- Get suggestions as to how the grievance should be eliminated.
- Keep in mind that though the grievance might seem like a petty matter to you, it is important to the other person.
- Act on the basis of <u>what</u> is right, not <u>who</u> is right.
- Observe company rules and policies.

HOW TO HANDLE A JOB RELATIONS PROBLEM

1. DETERMINE OBJECTIVES

2. GET THE FACTS:

   - Review the record
   - Find out what rules and customs apply
   - Talk with the individuals concerned
   - Get opinions and feelings

   (Be sure you have the whole story.)

3. WEIGH AND DECIDE:

   - Fit the facts together
   - Consider their bearing on each other
   - List all possible actions
   - Check practices and policies
   - Consider effect on individual, group and production
   - Check possible actions with objectives

   (Have you found the real cause of the problem?)

4. TAKE ACTION:

   - Are you going to handle this yourself?
   - Will you need help in handling the situation?
   - Should you refer this to your supervisor?
   - When should you take this action?

   (Do not "pass the buck".)

5. CHECK RESULTS:

   - How soon will you follow up?
   - How often will you need to check?
   - Look for changes in output, attitudes and relationship

   (Did your action help production, as well as contribute to a positive environment?)

PRINCIPLES OF EFFECTIVE DISCIPLINE

Effective discipline depends upon remembering and applying the following principles:

1. Disciplinary action should not be taken unless there is an obvious need for it.

2. There should be no favoritism or discrimination in any disciplinary action.

3. Reproof or reprimand should be given as soon as possible after the occurrence. The right timing is important.

4. Never discipline anyone in the presence of others, especially if you have to use harsh words.

5. Have all the facts; know just what you want to do, and where necessary, make sure you have the authority to apply certain disciplinary measures.

6. The reasons for disciplinary action should be made clear. In the case of negative action, the statement of reasons should be accompanied by an explanation of the manner in which it may be avoided in the future.

7. Give the individual a chance to present his/her side of the story.

8. Consistency (not rigidity) in disciplinary action is extremely important. In general, it is more important than the degree of severity.

9. The discipline that is implemented must be just, but sufficiently severe to meet the requirements of the situation.

10. Disciplinary measures should be applied by the immediate superior of the worker affected, rather than by some higher executive - except in cases where the consequences extend beyond the immediate department.

11. Forgive and forget. When disciplinary action has been taken, the responsible supervisor should resume a normal attitude toward the offending worker.

12. In general, negative disciplinary action cannot be applied successfully to large groups of employees representing a substantial proportion of one's organization. If there is poor discipline among a large group, it is probable that there is something vitally wrong in the situation. The remedy is correction of the situation, not disciplinary action.

13. In determining the nature and degree of a necessary disciplinary action that is made neccessary by some improper act of a worker, the intent should be considered.

14. Discipline should be constructive - it should show the worker how to correct his errors and leave him willing and anxious to improve rather than bitter and resentful.

15. Except in cases of extremely serious offences, no disciplinary action should be permitted to take place until the supervisor has actually talked the situation over with the employee.

16. Discipline should not be administered on an entirely routine basis - each case should be treated individually. You should not discipline the group to reach a few offenders.

17. Know what is on the worker's mind; it helps in discovering the "why" of his/her actions.

18. Maintain a constant and sincere interest in each worker's welfare on and off the job - it reduces the need for disciplining to a minimum.

HOW TO INDUCT A NEW EMPLOYEE

1. PREPARE TO RECEIVE THE NEW EMPLOYEE

    a) Get background information on the new employee
    b) Prepare workplace
    c) Prepare workgroup to receive the new employee
    d) Plan your first meeting on the job with the new employee. Discuss points and issues and give all necessary information
    e) Schedule time for induction

2. PREPARE THE NEW EMPLOYEE

    a) Put the employee at ease
    b) Get him/her to talk about him or herself
    c) Talk about the company:
        - What it does
        - How his/her job fits into the organization
        - Rules and regulations
        - Practice and procedures
        - Any other matter that would be important to the employee

3. SHOW THE INDIVIDUAL AROUND

    a) Show her/him around the department
    b) Explain work of department
    c) Introduce employee to co-workers
    d) Take employee to the work station

4. ASSIGN A MENTOR TO HELP THE INDIVIDUAL ADJUST

    a) Select the right person to instruct the new employee in matters relating to work and organization

5. FOLLOW-UP

    a) Encourage the individual to discuss problems with you
    b) Keep a check on progress
    c) Give credit when due
    d) Assist the individual to improve
    e) Do not just place the individual and forget all about him/her

SAFETY PRECEPTS

As a supervisor, you have a very grave responsibility for safety. On-the-job accidents represent a serious threat to the physical well-being of others. Their prevention calls for constant vigilance. Therefore, since you guide others safely through their daily work, be yourself guided by these precepts:

1. You are a supervisor and thus, in a sense, have two families. Care for your people at work as you would care for your people at home. Be sure each worker understands and accepts his personal responsibility for safety.

2. Know the rules of safety that apply to the work you supervise. Never let it be said that a worker was injured because you were not aware of the precautions required on the job.

3. Anticipate the risks that may arise from changes in equipment or methods. Make use of the expert safety advice that is available to help you guard against accidents.

4. Encourage workers to discuss with you the hazards of their work. No job should proceed where a question of safety remains unanswered. When you are receptive to the ideas of your workers, you tap a source of first-hand knowledge that will help you prevent needless loss and suffering.

5. Instruct workers to work safely, as you would guide and counsel your family at home - with persistence and patience.

6. Follow up your instructions consistently. See to it that workers make use of the safeguards provided them. If necessary, enforce safety rules by disciplinary action. Do not fail the company, which has sanctioned these rules - or your workers, who need them.

7. Set a good example. Demonstrate safety in your own work habits and personal conduct. Do not appear as a hypocrite in the eyes of the workers.

8. Investigate and analyse every accident - however slight - that befalls any worker. Where minor injuries go unheeded, crippling accidents may later strike.

9. Co-operate fully with those in the organization who are actively concerned with employees safety. Their dedicated purpose is to keep each one fully able and on the job and to cut down the heavy personal toll of accidents.

10. Remember: not only does accident prevention reduce human suffering and loss, from the practical viewpoint, it is good business. Safety, therefore, is one of your prime obligations - to your company, your fellow managers, and your fellow human beings.

By leading those in charge into "thinking safety" as well as working safely day-by-day, you can win their loyal support and co-operation. More than that, you will enhance their personal stature.

SAFETY PROGRAMME

1. Take an inventory of your department on safety.
2. Investigate all production interruptions.
3. Plan your programme.
4. Delegate duties.
5. Sell the programme.
6. Follow through.

Problem solving patterns	How to do it
Get all the facts	Take an inventory on safety. Investigate all interruptions in the production process. Maintain a record of accidents and danger areas.
Weigh and decide or get decision	Get at the actual problem. Check the rules. Consider effects on group and production.
Take or get action	Assign responsability. Make consequences clear. Appeal to self-interest.
Check results	Every time.

PRODUCTION PLANNING

FACTOR OF PRODUCTION REQUIREMENTS

1. Decide on the product - specification and quality.

2. Determine what factors of production are needed to manufacture the item, and the quantities required to produce one unit of the item. Check the following:

   First. Consider the design. Consider shape, dimension, material, and what variations are permitted in the products dimensions.

   Second. Decide how the item will be manufactured. Take into account all the operations required, the amount of time required to perform each of these operations per unit of output; the sequence in which the operations will be performed; machines and accessories required; method of operation.

   Indirect labour, supplies and material handling are not directly considered at this point. With regard to indirect labour hours it is impossible to ascertain how much labour time per unit of a given product is required for such things as maintenance, material handling and machine repairs. Hence, the usual procedure is to apply some percentage, based on past experience, to the direct labour hours or machine hours in order to obtain the hours of indirect labour of different types that will be needed.

   A similar approach should be used in determining needed supplies, such as lubricants.

   Next, it is necessary to express the sales forecast in meaningful terms. In this way, the production department becomes aware of its commitment to translate labour and machine hours into unit quantities that must be available to costumers.

ON-THE-JOB WORKER INSTRUCTIONS

Preparation

1. Schedule a time for instructions.

2. Determine how much of a skill must be learned and in what time.

3. Breakdown the task by listing what should be done and how. Identify key-points i.e., safety features and other important elements.

4. Make sure that everything is ready, such as the equipment to be used and adequate materials. Also make sure that the work place where the instructions take place is arranged the way in which the worker is expected to keep it.

Instructing

1. Prepare the worker:

   . Put the worker at ease
   . State the task and find out what the person already knows about it.
   . Stimulate interest in learning the task and explain how it is connected to other tasks in order to make the job function complete.
   . Place the learner in a position that enables observation. The learner ought to be in a position where he/she can easily see what is happening.

2. Present the Operation:

   . Tell, show and illustrate one important step at a time.
   . Stress each key point.
   . Instruct clearly, completely and patiently in amounts that the learner can absorb.

3. Give opportunity to try-out the operation:

   . Allow the learner to do the task while you observe and correct errors.
   . Ask the learner to do the task a second time - explaining each key point as she/he does the job.
   . Make sure the learner understands. Continue until the learner demonstrates he/she knows how to perform the task.

4. Give opportunity to utilize the newly learned skill:

- Let the learner be on his/her own.
- Designate someone to give assistance in overcoming problems that may arise while performing on the job.
- Check frequently in the early 're-entry' stages and taper-off as the learner grows in confidence and expertise.

INSTRUCTION GUIDE SHEET
FOR TRAINING AN EMPLOYEE ON-THE-JOB

TASK

NECESSARY TOOLS & SUPPLIES

WHAT TO DO	HOW IT IS DONE	EMPHASIZE WHY
IMPORTANT STEPS	KEY POINTS	HAZARDS
Does it advance the operation?	Will it make or break the job? Will it make the job easier to do?	Work Area Material Machines Clothes Tools Equipment

BARRIERS TO LEARNING:
FACTORS THAT MAKE LEARNING DIFFICULT

FAULTS OF THE (INSTRUCTOR) TRAINER	SUGGESTED REMEDY
1. Teaching too much	- Analyse what you are going to teach. - Study how worker absorbs it.
2. Teaching too fast	- Analyse your teaching method. - See how easily the worker follows your instructions.
3. Complexity of job	- Break it down into several demonstrations. - Arrange steps to teach carefully.
4. Production terms	- Explain production terms.
5. Outside distraction	- Talk over and point out effects. - Be a good listener. - Be careful and tactful with advice.
6. Slow learner	- Make certain job is not beyond ability. - Train slowly. - Be patient.
FAULTS OF THE (LEARNER) TRAINEE	
1. Nervousness	- Put learner at ease. - Make him/her feel at home.
2. Sense of inferiority, lack of confidence, timidity	- Give friendly encouragement. - Show learner how much he/she improved.
3. Fear of job	- Explain how to avoid dangers. - Develop confidence. - Transfer to other work if fear cannot be overcome.

BARRIERS TO LEARNING:
FACTORS THAT MAKE LEARNING DIFFICULT

FAULTS OF THE (LEARNER) TRAINEE	SUGGESTED REMEDY
4. Stubbornness	- Win confidence and friendship.
5. Laziness	- Be firm - arouse interest and compare results in other fields where he/she does well.
6. Carelessness	- Let person repeat job. - Point out results. - Be firm.
7. Awkwardness	- Help develop accuracy and skill. - Give encouragement.
8. Physical handicap	- Give special training. - Find suitable job.

STEPS IN PLANNING WORK OPERATIONS

1. Analyse the job or operation - what is to be done, where, by whom, why, when. Study instructions carefully. Know what you want to accomplish.

2. Determine how the job can best be done - check on available equipment, materials, personnel to be use; break the job into simple steps or parts.

3. Outline a schedule of action - proper timing, starting time and date, estimated completion time and date; check policies and standard procedures.

4. Arrange for all necessary materials and equipment. Determine what material will be used and how much, for how long, when it will be used and who should get it.

5. Arrange for necessary co-ordination - co-ordinate with all line and staff departments involved in the job.

6. Fix responsibility - assign parts of the job to those best suited; who will be used on what? Are any special skills required? How many will do the job? When will they be needed?

7. Arrange for follow-up check on materials, equipment and personnel as often as necessary and make changes accordingly. Make sure that company policies have been complied with. Have established standards for this particular job been observed?

HOW TO HANDLE DETAILS EFFICIENTLY

Almost everyone who holds a job with supervisory responsibilities faces the problem of handling details. If we are to run our jobs, instead of having them run us, we must find ways of handling mass details efficiently. Try this four step method for eliminating hampering details.

PLAN YOUR WORK

- Put yourself on a time schedule
- Break down your duties
- Do not clutter up your memory
- Get the 'notebook habit'

DO AWAY WITH DETAILS THAT ARE UNIMPORTANT

- Study each job in detail
- Determine whether details can be eliminated
- See if it can be handled faster some other way

DELEGATE ROUTINE DETAILS

- Do not try to do everything yourself
- Develop understudies
- Do not be afraid to delegate responsibilities

LEARN HOW TO CONCENTRATE

- Force yourself to concentrate
- Handle little jobs fast
- Do the disagreeable ones first

REMEMBER:

- Too much time spent on routine means not enough time available to work out solutions for bigger problems

IV MODULE 2.A - OPERATIONS MANAGEMENT COURSE FOR FEMALE MANAGERS AT MIDDLE MANAGEMENT LEVEL

Target Group:

- Women who have completed Module 1 and who possess the aptitude/qualification to proceed with this Module.

- Women who fulfill entry requirements in terms of their job experience, and/or academic qualifications, who are involved in staff functions and are being groomed for line responsibilities at middle management level.

Objectives:

- To impart concepts, principles and techniques of operations management to women in middle management positions.

- To provide female middle managers with the knowledge and skills that will enable them to efficiently plan, execute, control and evaluate production functions of the enterprise.

- To lay the foundation for possible future elevation of these trainees to top management positions.

Duration:

90 hours (three weeks)

Conditions:

See Module 1.

OPERATIONS MANAGEMENT

Manufacturing management, production management and operations management have all been used to describe the same general field. Adam Smith's work was the starting point of what became known as "Manufacturing Management". Smith promoted the idea that subdivision and specialization of labour can result in economic benefits. This view prevailed until the 1930s, then gave way to "Production Management", which became the more accepted term during 1930-1950s.

The production management bias developed when Frederick Taylor's work became more widely known. Supporters of Taylor's "Scientific Management" theories adopted the scientific approach which applied techniques that focused on economic efficiency at the core of manufacturing organizations. The approach made use of such techniques as work study/work measurement incentives and other industrial engineering interventions.

The Hawthorne studies in the late 1930s encouraged psychologists and sociologists to become involved with studying people at work. This resulted in an expanded view of workers which was far removed from Taylor's "machine-man" concept. The new approach became known as the HUMAN RELATIONS approach to management and dominated the scene until the 1950s. It promoted the concept that supervisor-subordinate relations (among others) is as critical to efficiency as is the focus on production techniques.

Hence the production manager's role was seen as dual, characterized by a focus on people as well as methods and techniques.

System Concept

In more recent times, organizations are seen as systems - i.e., entities with interdependent, interacting parts. Each "interacting unit", which is vital to the overall performance of the system, becomes known as a sub-system. In other words, sub-systems must be "controlled"* both in terms of their independent operations and their interlinkages.

The real problem is to "control" (or operate) the system effectively in terms of dovetailing the various sub-systems. Someone must take responsibility for this. The one who does is known as the operations manager. "The operations managers job is to manage the process of converting inputs into desired outputs".

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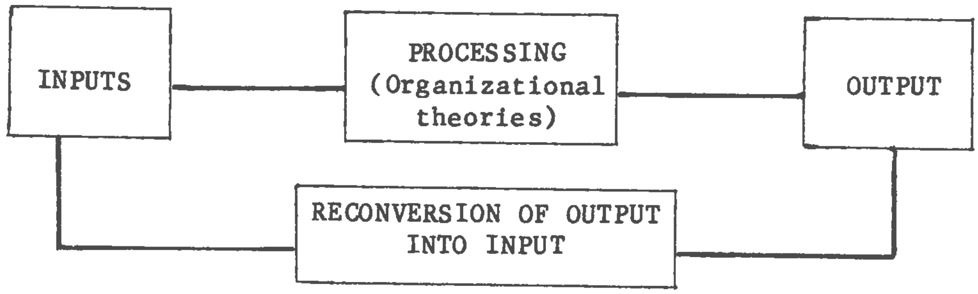
* Not restricted.



The operations management functions include PLANNING, ORGANIZING and CONTROLLING.

<u>Planning</u> - selecting objectives for the operation and its sub-systems, and developing policies, programmes and procedures for achieving them.

<u>Organizing</u> - developing an appropriate structure or framework where operations will take place.

<u>Controlling</u> - taking necessary steps to ensure that plan is executed to bring optimal results.

Operations management, within this general guide, is concerned with many different issues, e.g., effective production methods, cost control, quality control and production rates (productivity). Aspects such as these become critical as the organization pursues the very important goals which relate to market opportunities.

Operations management is a challenging occupation. In its entirety it involves:

1. Operations analysis
2. Planning the input conversion system
3. Organizing for conversion
4. Operations and control

COURSE OUTLINE - MODULE 2.A

Session	Topic	Aim	Schedule	Coverage	Method	Materials
	1. INTRODUCTORY PHASE					
	- Role of public enterprise	To provide middle managers with an understanding of the nature of public enterprises, their external linkages and the need for dynamic management at the operations level	2 hrs.	-Establishment, role and functions of public enterprises	Lecture/ discussion	References
	- Government-enterprise relationship		3 hrs.	-Interlinkages and their impact on public enterprise performance	Plenary/ discussion - participants exchange of experiences	References References
	- Public enterprises in relation to their environments			-Environmental forces and their influence on public enterprises objectives		
	- Public enterprises and the profit motive		3 hrs.	-Models of public enterprise behaviour - the public/ private mix		
	2. ORGANIZATION THEORY AND BEHAVIOUR	To present a clear picture of concepts and principles relevant to the appropriate structuring of work organizations, and how they function To bring into perspective the socio-cultural-organizational issues which affect women in managerial positions	15 hrs.	-The system concept of organization -Basic elements of organization -Sources and nature of managerial authority - status and role systems in relation to women -Organization structure - principles and practices (including communication networks) -Policy implementation and organizational control	Revision re. Module 1, Illustrations cases and group exercises with plenary	- Handout 2.1 Lectures,, - Handout 2.2 - References

COURSE OUTLINE - MODULE 2.A

Session	Topic	Aim	Schedule	Coverage	Method	Materials
		To provide a frame of reference on how to effectively deal with organizational issues		-Human factors in organization -Organization renewal - through organization analysis and measures to ensure organization effectiveness		
	3. POLICIES	To provide participants with an overview of policy framework and their involvement. To provide guidelines that will help them rationalise their inputs and structure their behaviour within such frameworks	6 hrs.	-Role of policies -Variety of policies -Responsibilities for policy at middle management level	Plenary - (session leader interacting with participants to draw from them their experience & clarify notions relating to interpretation & implementation of policies	
	4. OPERATIONS MANAGEMENT	To introduce participants to a broad range of concepts, methods and techniques that will help them streamline production systems for more efficient and effective performance	3 hrs.	-Principles of management (1) (Planning, organizing, controlling, evaluating) -Principles of management (2) . The management process and the building of organization culture . Organizational (network) relations . Organizational control - (Decision systems)	Lectures/ discussion (building on knowledge of previous Module)	- References

COURSE OUTLINE - MODULE 2.A

Session	Topic	Aim	Schedule	Coverage	Method	Materials
			3 hrs.	-Operational objectives . Criteria for objectives (suitability, feasibility, value, achievability, measureability, adaptability and flexibility commitment) . Profitability and key results areas	Exercise	
			12 hrs.	-Production management . Production planning and control (including control systems) . Material handling . Work study and work standards (including work simplification/methods) . Trouble shooting problem solving	Films, discussions and exercises	- Handout 2.3 (production planning) References
			6 hrs.	. Quality control (controlling in-process quality) . Maintenance and maintenance systems . Costing -Operations research (introduction)		
			3 hrs.	-Factors affecting operations . Technological factors . Socio/cultural factors	Panel (dealing with psycho-social forces in introducing new technology)	

COURSE OUTLINE - MODULE 2.A

Session	Topic	Aim	Schedule	Coverage	Method	Materials
	5. HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT	To give participants the various elements of human resource management, the issues and intervening forces, and the inter-personal and managerial skills which they need in order to be effective	12 hrs.	-Staffing (manpower planning, recruitment and selection, placement) -Motivation and incentive schemes (including job satisfaction and job enrichment concepts) -Performance appraisal -Managing conflict -Effective leadership -Human resource development (including team building, career cycles and counselling) -Effective communication	Lecture - discussions, panel role play	- Handouts 2.6, 2.7, 2.8 2.9, 2.10., 2.11 - References
	6. CONDUCTING MEETINGS	To impart techniques for successfully conducting meetings	9 hrs.	-Types of meetings and relevance to managers -Characteristics of a good meeting -Principles of conducting meetings -Techniques for controlling meetings	Lecture - discussion, role play	- Handouts 2.12, 2.13, 2.14, 2.15, 2.16, 2.17, 2.18, 2.19, 2.20, 2.21, 2.22, 2.23

ORGANIZATION THEORY

1. ORGANIZATION is a planning process. The process involves setting up, developing, and maintaining a grid of working relationships of all the people in the company.

   ORGANIZATION is dynamic because it changes, as do personalities and circumstances inside and outside the company.

   Thus, all organization charts or structures reflect only the organization as it exists at a given moment.

2. ORGANIZATION is defining and assigning duties, fixing responsibilities and dividing work.

3. ORGANIZATION is co-ordinating the activities of each company unit so that proper relationships are established and maintained among different work units. With effective organization, the total effort of all people in the company will help accomplish the company's objectives.

   This, after all, is the first principle of organization.

4. ORGANIZATION is adjusting to the unexpected actions of the market, of competitors, of employees and labour unions, of government and the community, of technological innovation and inventions.

   Only through careful organization planning can the company cope with all these external influences.

ERNEST DALE formulates seven major organizational problems:

1. Formulation of objectives.
2. Assigning of responsibilities.
3. Delegation of management functions (span of control).
4. Reduction of executive's burden (staff assistant).
5. Establishment of new functions.
6. Co-ordination of management functions.
7. Decentralization - determination of degree of delegation.

Decentralization

The fundamental purpose of formal organization is to fit needed work and work relationships into an organization structure so that patterns and trends will:

1. Encourage teamwork.
2. Avoid, or at least attempt to keep to a minimum, work problems and conflicts.
3. Provide an opportunity for individual career development.
4. Last long and change slowly.

Organization planning is the process of translating company philosophy into basic guidelines in order to motivate manpower to meet company objectives.

In practice, the essential elements of an organization plan are usually embodied in a manual* containing:

a) Policy definition

b) Organization description

c) Position description

The manual should spell out the company's purpose and how the organizational framework, its personnel and its departments relate to one another to form the total company picture.

* Reference: Joseph J. Famularo, "Organization Planning Manual". American Management Association, Inc.

CREATING AN ORGANIZATION STRUCTURE

The process of creating an organization chart involves the following four steps:

1. The establishment of business objectives. Usually an organization structure is changed because an improvement must be secured, or because some negative consequences must be avoided.

   Hence, objectives must be the first order of business when creating an organization chart. This enables one to be specific about the results to be attained. It also enables to identify "key results" areas.

2. The identification of major business obstacles. This helps in pointing out important problems that are unrelated to organization structure and objectives. Hence, it may spare the manager the task of devising new plans when none is needed. On the other hand, it may give a clear indication of where, how and what to chart.

3. The consideration of alternative structures helps to prevent jumping to the conclusion that there is one and only one solution to problems.

4. The selection of a structure that will do the best job.

ORGANIZATIONAL GROUPING

There are six organizational groupings that have become basic to organization theory.

1. Functional groups. e.g., production, sales, engineering, finance, and personnel. Control throughout departments and functions is maintained and exercised by the relevant managers.

Characteristics of functional organizations:

a) Each function is primarily concerned about its own immediate objectives.
b) Most of each group's action is concentrated on its own function.
c) Employees become specialised in specific functions.
d) Intergroup friction and conflict develop as each group strives to achieve its own. (e.g., sales vs. manufacturing; personnel vs. accounting.)

The main difficulty, therefore, seems to be that the various personnel clusters do not work toward the interest of the total enterprise.

PRODUCT GROUPING

Large companies with diversified products and many markets are usually organized by products. For instance, chemical companies might have organic, inorganic and plastic-product groups.

The greatest advantage of organizing by product is getting business results for a given product. However, the administrative cost of operating each unit as an independent company, coupled with the expense of overlapping functions, can erode overall company profits.

GEOGRAPHIC GROUP

This is a popular organization pattern in sales and service companies.

As with functional groups, personnel in geographic regions tend to identify with and become concerned about their specific location. Similarly, as with product groups, geographic groups often ignore or play down what is good for the total company.

The major benefit of geographic groups is their effectiveness in getting results because of their sensitivity to local conditions.

PROCESS GROUPING

Aluminum companies, for instance, may be orgnanized in terms of discovery, extraction, processing, fabrication and distribution groups.

Public utilities fall in this category too. The main advantage is that each unit has its team of specialists.

CUSTOMER GROUPING

The focus here is on the customer and the structures that satisfy the needs of several groups. Each customer grouping targets specific products produced by particular sections.

MATRIX ORGANIZATION

Matrix arrangements retain basic functional groups such as productions, sales and engineering and also create product groups that relate to the project management within the initial organization.

For instance, product groups often report to the Chief Executive and at the same time co-ordinate with the basic functional groups.

The matrix arrangement seeks to gain the advantages of both functional and product grouping without incurring into the costly features of actual product grouping.

Numerous products and markets often force companies into matrix arrangements. Such arrangements are not easily managed and often lead to "power-play".

Fundamentally, the executive must seek for a division of activities that provides the greatest advantages of specialization, facilitates control, aids in co-ordination, insures adequate attention to important activities, recognizes local conditions, develops human resources and keeps expenses low.

It is important for the executive to understand the influence of personality on organization structure. It differs from company to company. There needs to be a sensible balance between organization principles and personality needs.

One should remember that an organization chart is a graphic portrayal of certain aspects of organization. Usually, charts show only the principal divisions or positions and lines of formal authority emphasizing, above all, the desires of management.

The contents of any particular chart should be determined by the purpose for which the chart is designed.

PRODUCTION PLANNING

Factor of Production Requirements

1. Decide on the product - specification and quality.

2. Determine what factors of production are needed to manufacture and produce one unit of the item. The following guidelines may be used:

   First, consider the design. Consider shape, dimension, material and what variations are permitted in the product's dimensions.

   Second, decide how the item will be manufactured. For instance, the operations required, the amount of time required to perform each of these operations per unit of output; the sequence in which the operations will be performed; machines and accessories required; method of operation.

   Indirect labour, supplies and material handling are not directly considered at this point. With regard to indirect labour hours it is impossible to ascertain how much labour time per unit of a given product is required for such things as maintenance, material handling and machine repairs. Hence, the usual procedure is to apply some percentage, based on past experience, to the direct labour hours or machine hours in order to obtain the hours of indirect labour of different types that will be needed.

   A similar approach in determining needed supplies such as lubricants.

   Next, it is necessary to express the sales forecast in meaningful terms. In this way, the production department becomes aware of its commitment to translate labour and machine hours into unit quantities that must be available to costumers.

HUMAN RESOURCE PLANNING

The human resource planning process at the national or factory level is a system used for planning, identifying and selecting the right personnel with the right aptitude, qualification and experience so that they may successfully complete the right training at the right time and under the proper circumstances and conditions for the right job.

The process matches business objectives with the labour force for fulfilling those objectives. It involves a comparison between the current workforce and a future workforce. It assesses whether there will be a shortage or a surplus in supply against demand. It helps determine whether action must be taken to harmonise future supply with demand.

FUTURE WORKFORCE PROFILE

There are several influences that shape future workforce profile, e.g.:

1. Strategic planning and definition of mission.
2. Intermediate and long range plans for accomplishment of mission.
3. Organizational considerations - regarding factors that will require different kinds and quantities of workers.
4. Environmental - supply - considerations.

CORPORATE RESPONSIBILITY

Obviously, this type of responsibility is strictly corporate and organizational. It requires the support of all levels within the organization, since it links mission and objectives to the deliberate actions necessary for accomplishing such objectives.

THE PLANNING PROCESS

The process itself involves three structural elements:

1. Forecast - which requires the following types of information:

   a) Manpower projections based on historical labour force census.
   b) Acquisitions, growth and divestitures.
   c) Organizational change.
   d) New products and services.
   e) Technological developments.
   f) Capital investment plans.
   g) Analysis of current organizational effectiveness and proposals for increasing effectiveness.

2. Inventory - or the determination of how many and what kinds of skills are available in the current labour force - itemising:

   a) Assessed performace
   b) Skills
   c) Experience
   d) Education
   e) Aptitudes

3. Plans - dealing with gaps between the forecast and the inventory. It involves:

   a) Analysis of current organizational effectiveness and proposals for improving effectiveness.
   b) Proposals for coping with defects in labour force distribution (availability).
   c) Proposals for coping with changes in respect of job content and reallocation of responsibility to better meet output requirements.
   d) Proposals for reinforcing organizationally productive behaviours.
   e) Establishing training and development systems to better ensure availability of required skills.

HUMAN RESOURCE PLANNING OBJECTIVES

Select the right person	. Available . Qualified . With aptitude . Attitude
At the right time	. Fits training schedule . Manpower available on time
For right training course	. Job related . Fits aptitude . Encourages/reinforces interest . State of the ART
For right job	. Essential to accomplishment of organizational objectives . Fulfills output requirements of production plan
For placement at right time	. Staffing schedule . Start-up schedule . Production schedule

HUMAN RESOURCE PLANNING AND DEVELOPMENT

Human resource planning is a corporate function that requires much data and takes time to show results. It is not merely the forecasting of numbers. It includes the development of human resources.

Similarly, it means more than just filling positions from outside sources. It also responds in terms of identifying suitable, inhouse resources and the timely preparation of those involved to fill future positions. To successfully apply this, the organization needs to be subjected to a personnel inventory or a logical, systematic, step-by-step approach for identifying, defining, planning and revising all tasks, and for accomplishing a manpower planning and development programme.

The major elements of the system include:

- Job performance standards.
- Qualification profiles.
- Identification of qualified staff and personnel to be recruited.
- Training - facility requirements.
- Training need assessment system to identify training-related deficiencies and indicate who needs development in what and by what time.
- An internal development system for training, coaching and career development.

Prior to the start of the actual manpower planning function, certain base data should be available, including functional organization charts along with accurate job titles and descriptions for all current and future positions. However, this data is not always available. Hence, it must be produced, and this is a task which the system must undertake or allow. The full implementation of this task involves:

- Programme set-up - specifying objectives to be served by human resource planning and development programme and set-up of machinery for implementing the programme.
- Orientation -secure the commitment of managers. Brief them thoroughly.
- Collect available data - Survey corporate plans; review all important information sources.
- Procure collection of missing data - where data are not available, develop a system for the collection of it.
- Personnel inventory - Compile list of existing workers by job category, describing education, training and experience. Also review dismissals, resignations, retirements, transfers and promotions.

- Turnover - reduction programmes -determine causes for turnover, analyse them and make proposals.
- Task-and-skill analysis - in all job titles. Establish job performance standards and qualification profiles.
- Review data: all information at hand is to be reviewed and validated.
- Incentive review - analyse recruitment, selection, placement, control techniques and terms of employment with a view to providing incentives to make employment with the enterprise more attractive.
- Training and development facilities - develop plans and specifications for training facilities.
- Course/activity outlines - developed on the base of a task/skills analysis which provide valid training and development objectives and other aspects of activities designed to aid overall performance of the human resource
- Internal development programme prepared and validated.
- Recruitment development programme prepared and validated.
- Training material developed based on on-the-job, work related issues.
- Implementation of human resource programme.

Handout 2.6

NOTES: PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL - TOOL FOR EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT

Every commercial or industrial organization needs to make decisions, co-ordinate activities, know how to handle people and evaluate performance directed towards group objectives.

The difficulty and complexity of these managerial functions have increased dramatically over the years. This is due, in part, to labour becoming more specialized and the increase in the scale of operations. Similarly, the complexities of human realtionships constantly challenge those who perform managerial functions.

Against this background, the individual in management must make his own choice as to whether he will succeed by meeting and mastering these functions or difficulties.

Joseph Massie, in his book **Essentials for Management**, states that:

"The chief characteristic of management is the integration and application of the knowledge and analytical approaches developed by numerous disciplines.

The manager's problem is to seek a balance among these special approaches and to apply the pertinent concepts in specific situations which require action. The manager must orient himself developing a unified framework of thought that encompasses the total and integrated aspects of the entire organization."

Top Management Task

Peter Drucker has stated that every managerial unit other than top management is designed for a specific major task.

Drucker outlines "top management tasks" in the following terms:

"1. There is the task of thinking through the mission of the business; i.e., determining 'what is our business and what shall it be'. Involved in this is (a) the setting of objectives; (b) the development of strategies and plans; (c) the making of today's decisions for tomorrow's results.

2. There is a need for standard, and example setting. For instance, there should be a mechanism established in the enterprise which concerns itself with the gap between what the organization stands for and what it actually does.

3. There is the responsibility to build and maintain the human organization. In other words, the human resource element must be developed for present and future undertakings.

4. Certain types of relations - external to the enterprise, but crucially affecting its capacity to perform - must be maintained and interpreted for the benefit of others within the organization."

FUNCTIONS OF MANAGEMENT

The key functions of management are often classified as:

1. <u>Decision making</u>
   Initiating a process by which a course of action is consciously chosen from available alternatives for the purpose of achieving a desired result.

2. <u>Organizing</u>
   The process by which the structure and allocation of jobs is determined.

3. <u>Staffing</u>
   To select, train, promote, retire subordinates.

4. <u>Planning</u>

5. <u>Controlling</u>
   Measuring current performance and guiding it toward some predetermined goal.

6. <u>Communicating</u>
   Transmitting ideas to others for the purpose of effecting a desired result.

7. <u>Directing</u>
   The process by which actual performance of subordinates is guided towards common goals.

OVERVIEW OF MANAGEMENT

An overview of the management factor therefore is that managers are the basic resource of the business enterprise.

In Peter Drucker's estimation, managers are the most expensive resource in most businesses, and the one that depreciates the fastest. Drucker postulates that "it takes years to build a management team, which can be depleted in a short period of misuse, and misrule"

These are valuable observations, especially when one considers the overall influence of managers on the organization's goals. The extent to which managers manage, and are managed, will determine the extent to which organizational goals are attained.

This plays a great part, as well, in fashioning the attitude of workers and their performance levels.

In other words, the worker's attitude directly mirrors the competence of management, or the ability of the managers to cope with difficulties and complexities of business operations.

RESPONSIBILITY TO MAKE THINGS HAPPEN

In order to emphasize the merits of introducing a "performance appraisal" programme, a few things must be highlighted.

Firstly, there is growing evidence that a great many enterprises are plagued with:

- Poor attitudes
- Lack of the will to produce
- Conflict and aggressive behaviour
- Carelessness
- Lack of spirit of innovation
- Inflexibility with respect to the use of power

Many organizations which experience these problems turn enthusiastically to "training" as the ultimate solution. It should be understood however that "training" can only aid the managerial process; it cannot substitute it. In other words, managers must be properly motivated and genuinely interested in the development of human resources within the organization. They should take charge of their organizations by formulating and implementing strategies conducive to the achievement of goals and objectives.

The essence of this is that managers have the responsibility "to make things happen". The economic viability of an enterprise is entirely in their hands. They must decide if they can achieve this on their own, or to what extent they must be assisted.

If managers recognize they must be assisted in securing the economic viability of their organization, they should be prepared to take the necessary action that will ensure appropriate assistance.

As far back as 1927, Elton Mayo proposed that managers succeed best where they "cultivate improved communications so that management and workers at all times have a sympathetic insight into the minds of one another".

To assimilate Mayo's prescription, the following must be accepted:

1. The most vital area in management is the point of contact between supervisor and supervised.
2. There should be constant focus on this area, to accurately determine the conditions that exist and the results attained.
3. Constructive conditions exist in this area only when there is mutual confidence and respect between supervisor and supervised.
4. Results are noticeable when the worker is experiencing real personal growth and is increasing his productivity.

PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL: An aid to employee productivity.

Of all the tools available to the manager, the one that would seem to be of greatest aid to employee productivity is performance appraisal. This practice is designed to induce behavioural change in order to influence productivity improvements. It allows for the possibility of dealing honestly with the employees so as to help them discover the discrepancies between their performance and the expectations of the supervisor.

In other words, a helping relationship is established between the supervisor and the supervised thus enhancing mutual understanding of their roles and expectations. Success in this requires that both the supervisor and the supervised demonstrate willingness to examine problems, attitudes and feelings.

THE INEVITABILITY OF APPRAISAL

All managers make appraisal of other people, and they make them frequently. We cannot avoid making subjective evaluation of people and their behaviour. Hence, there is nothing wrong with subjective evaluations. In fact, they form the basis for "objective evaluations".

An evaluation, assessment or appraisal becomes objective when the subjective elements are reliably tested and validated. The method of testing plays an important part in determining validity.

ALL APPRAISALS ARE COMMUNICATED

The fact that all appraisals are communicated gives a clue to the method of validating the subjective components of an appraisal.

A manager, for instance, is convinced that a subordinate lacks initiative. He or she will therefore insist on taking all relevant decisions. The manager will say things and behave in a way which is sure to betray his/her lack of confidence in the worker.

Secondly, the manager who thinks his/her subordinate is untrustworthy will avoid giving certain types of assignments to that worker. The worker will understand this and may even react to it.

Since appraisals are communicated - sometimes involuntarily - the wise manager will try to understand all these implications and take the necessary action so that the right impressions will be conveyed. His/her actions should influence a positive attitude among the work force.

DANGERS WITH PRESENT APPRAISAL SYSTEMS

Some organizations have formal appraisal systems that have failed. The reasons for this can be summed up as follows:

Managers feel threatened.

Workers feel alienated.

In other words, managers are asked to make judgement and to communicate them to those who have been judged. In making and communicating this judgement, managers are making decisions which can affect the future, and certainly influence an individual's attitude. It is not unusal for subordinates to see such decisions as threatening, negative, ego-deflating and totally unjust.

This does not only affect the emotional balance of the subordinate but also impairs his/her capacity to perform. It affects the manager as well, whose frustration can be very severe as the worker's response grows more negative.

TO APPRAISE IS TO EVALUATE

To appraise anything is to set a value to it. Like in the evaluation of a house, one does not examine external conditions and facilities only. One enters and makes a detailed assessment. In the evaluation of the individuals, it is imperative to recognise that appraisal based on overt behaviour is subjective or made on the basis of information that is incomplete.

Subjectivity, therefore, limits the validity of the appraisal. Validity in this sense relates to the degree of positive responses that are influenced.

QUESTIONS

Each manager should, at some point, ask the following questions:

1. When I act on the basis of my appraisal, are my actions effective or not?

2. Do they accomplish what I am trying to do? (i.e., ensure positive overall results.)

WHO DOES APPRAISAL HELP?

Every employee in an organization has certain skills, knowledge, habits and attitudes. The function of his supervisor (manager) is to assist in the increase of knowledge, sharpen and add to skills, change attitudes if necessary, and improve habits.

The manager who does this fits into the category of those who are "CLEAR IN PURPOSE - SOUND OF ACTION". This person completely understands his/her responsibility and recognises that "PEOPLE" are the enterprise's most important resource. As a result, the manager will consciously select and develop members of the management team. He/she will guide individual actions to ensure that genuine products or services reach the clients. In all this, the manager will influence his employee's development and job satisfaction.

In this sense, Performance Appraisal benefits everyone.

Secondly, a manager can, through the Performance Appraisal system, demonstrate a sincere interest in combining the interests of management, employees and society into a common goal. In this instance, the manager is showing greater social awareness and understanding of his overall responsibilities.

Some managers become frightened of these responsibilities and display attitudes that are "unaware and unfortunate". They become primarily concerned with the distribution of goods and services at a profit.

On the other hand, such managers can become "antisocial and outmoded". They become motivated only by the chance of making money. They become shrewd manipulators of funds and individuals.

At this point, it seems necessary to emphasize that managers have a responsibility in protecting the resources of the company they work for. These include the responsibility for and to the people who report to them.

Performance appraisal is one way of fulfilling those responsibilities. Managers should, therefore, approach appraisals as a "thoughtful, serious matter of which they are accountable".

They need to apply a few simple rules which will contribute to an ethical handling of the appraisal situation. They should also be alert to the facts which make it easy to be unethical. The following guidelines should be applied:

1. Know the reason for the appraisal.
2. Appraise on the basis of representative information.
3. Appraise on the basis of sufficient information.
4. Appraise on the basis of relevant information.
5. Make an honest appraisal.
6. Keep written and oral appraisal.

7. Give appraisal information only to those who have good reasons to know it.
8. Do not accept another's appraisal without knowing the basis for it.

TWO WAY COMMUNICATION

In our present context the Performance Appraisal is expected to operate as a mechanism to open opportunities for two way communication.

For this organization to improve the climate of operation and raise levels of productivity, the management group must operate as a team. There must be cohesiveness and a genuine display of mutual respect. Barriers of suspicion must be removed. The attitude of resistance, and divisiveness must be eradicated. And only the higher levels of management can influence this. They set the example and help others to follow.

MANAGEMENT IS ACTION; A POSITIVE ACTION

The introduction of the Performance Appraisal system in an organization has the following purpose:

1. To influence the evaluation of all human resources in terms of job performances, long range potential, and promotability.

2. To establish a mechanism which will open up opportunities for two way communication and for greater understanding of what is expected and how performance measures up to this.

3. To stimulate and encourage self-evaluation in individuals.

4. To make managers aware of their responsibility to seek and accept feedback and to give recognition for good work while trying to instill a desire to improve.

It is hoped that it will also provide data needed for long-range planning in the organization.

STAGES IN APPRAISAL

Appraisal of performance involves the following stages:

1. <u>Preparation</u>

   Both the appraiser and appraisee must be prepared and ready for the appraisal interview. It is the manager's responsibility to set the stage.

2. Appraisal Interview

The appraiser meets the situation and initiates dialogue for clarifying expectations; identifies problem areas in terms of skills, knowledge, attitudes; sets and agrees on methods of improvement.

3. Follow-up Activities

(See Performance Appraisal Task Model.)

Handout 2.7

PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL TASK MODEL

SUPERVISOR ROLE		EMPLOYEE ROLE
Clarification of performance standards, job duties and expectations.	TASK 1 INTERPERSONAL CONTRACT	Clarification of expectations with respect to job and supervisor.
Provide coaching and feedback.	TASK 2 HELPING RELATIONSHIP	Perform job and develop personal strengths.
Plan and conduct performance review.	TASK 3 APPRAISAL INTERVIEW	Self-appraisal of job performance.
Assist in development and approval of subordinates' plans for self-development.	TASK 4 GOAL SETTING	Establish goals and plans for self development. Propose job objectives, timetables and measuring.

Adopted from Personnel Administration - October 1975
John D. Colby and Ronald L. Wallace.

APPRAISAL INTERVIEW AND PROBLEM-SOLVING

Problem solving involves the following sequence:

1. Awareness that a problem exists.
2. A definition of the problem.
3. Delineation of alternative courses of action.
4. Selection and implementation of most suitable and practical solution.

The performance appraisal interview:

Can be used to facilitate this. The interview is an opportunity to:

1. Exchange information.
2. Mutually define and delineate a problem.
3. Focus on production of ideas.
4. Evaluate ideas to determine a specific course of action.

Essentially, therefore, the two participants will try to answer three questions:

1. What is the present situation?
2. What can management do to improve it?
3. What can the employee do to improve it?

The main thrust is self-analysis and the immediate outcome must be a practical plan of action aimed at efficiency.

THE INTERVIEW

To begin with, the INTERVIEW presupposes the completion of some type of appraisal form in which present performance of the appraisee has been systematically evaluated.

It must be remembered that appraisal interview is centred on current job performance in a specific position. The manager, as coach, has four objectives:

1. To help subordinate do a better job, by pointing out even higher standards of performance to which he/she can aspire (i.e., help employee to excel).

2. To give a clear picture of how well he/she is doing at present by showing sincere appreciation.

3. To build stronger, closer relationship with subordinates by eliminating misunderstandings, sources of anxiety, by listening to, and accepting feedback on how well he/she is supervising, and by discussing personal problems which the employee may wish to bring up.

4. To develop practical plans for joint improvement and to launch projects designed to utilize the employees abilities more completely.

These objectives can be achieved, and lasting changes in job behaviour enhanced through the appraisal interview.

Beginning the interview

"Beginning the interview and getting it off the ground is half the battle. If it is done properly, the interest of the employee is aroused, his/her apprehensions allayed, and he/she behaves in his/her most natural mental and emotional state". The supervisor begins the interview promptly by letting the employee know that he/she is to receive his/her undivided attention, and that there is no hurry.

This forms the introductory stage of the interview.

The main sequence

This stage is initiated by the supervisor explaining the **objectives of the interview** and emphasizing the confidentiality of the information.

The supervisor continues by using the appropriate questions and techniques to stimulate and encourage free discussion. For instance, the supervisor should get the employee to talk about his/her job.

Because of the possibly highly emotional nature of the interview, the supervisor must, at this stage, give support and demonstrate sincere interest in the subordinate's ability to perform.

Concluding the interview

a) When the interviewer feels that he/she has covered all the points in the interview plan;

b) when the interviewer senses that the interviewee has had ample time to air his/her views;

c) when a plan for future action has been drawn up;

d) when each has a feeling of satisfaction with the interview accomplishments;

the interview is then concluded as swiftly and smoothly as courtesy permits.

All that is left to be done is to develop and implement the appropriate follow-up mechanism.

Handout 2.8

PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL PROCEDURE

A properly implemented Performance Appraisal plan is a tremendous tool for improving morale and productivity. It induces the right type of behaviour based on clearly defined goals and expectations. In other words, it helps to remove discrepancies between manager's (supervisor's) expectations and employee's self-appraisal.

This four-step approach is designed to make Performance Appraisal a meaningful practice within the enterprise.

STEP 1

It is necessary to establish an interpersonal contract between supervisor and supervised. This contract, though not in writing, should enhance mutual understanding of the roles and expectations on both sides. The supervisor or manager must define what performance standards are expected of the employees. They, in turn, will clarify their expectations as they relate to the actions of the supervisor.

STEP 2

The supervisor or manager, sets the stage for the "Appraisal Interview" by preparing himself/herself thoroughly. A major part of this depends on discrete observation of the individual's performance during the period under review.

The supervisor must remember that personal observations are subjective and must be tested for validity. In other words, objectivity (which is of paramount importance) is gained only when hypothetical view-points are tested in co-operation with the person doing the job.

STEP 3

The third step is the Appraisal Interview. The objective of this is to give the employee an opportunity for guided thinking on job related matters. It should be remembered that the individual has formed very personal impressions relating to the job. For instance:

a) She/he may be satisfied or dissatisfied with her/his performance.

b) The individual may be associating their problems to fall-backs in training, working conditions, inadequacy of tools or materials, poor supervision, or a number of other conditions.

The interview provides an opportunity for many of the above to be expressed, examined and for establishing the right approach to solving them. It provides, too, an opportunity for the supervisor to authenticate a helping relationship with the supervised.

STEP 4

Step four may be included in or as a compliment to step three. It involves the setting of goals, or the individual's personal plan for performance improvement.

Factors included in this are:

a) Specific objectives
b) Definite action plans
c) Time frame for implementation
d) Criteria for evaluation
e) Individual role clarification

EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL

WHY AN APPRAISAL PROGRAMME?

1. Most companies are forced to appraise some of their employees at one time or another - even if informally.

2. It provides a basis for decisions on salary increase, promotions, transfers, layoffs, etc.

3. Affords an excellent opportunity for both management and employee to determine how the employee is performing.

4. Affords a good opportunity for two-way communication between employee and supervisor.

5. Is an aid to motivation and morale building.

6. Invaluable in determining whether an employee on probation should be confirmed, terminated or have probation extended.

7. May reveal areas where supervision may be improved, such as supervisor(manager)/employee relationship.

WHO SHOULD CARRY OUT THE APPRAISAL

In general, the answer to this question will depend on the purpose for which the appraisal is being done. A historical performance appraisal should definitely be done by the employee's immediate supervisor as that is the person most acquainted with the day-to-day performance of the employee. If the employee works for one or more supervisors, then they should each do an independent appraisal which should be co-ordinated by their supervisor so as to arrive at a single appraisal result.

The same would be true for appraisals which are to form the basis of merit increases or determine training needs.

However, when such an appraisal is to form the basis of a decision regarding a transfer or promotion, the appraisal exercise should involve the Personnel Department, the supervisor of the department in which the new job exists and preferably some top management personnel.

This must necessarily be so since the supervisor of the "candidate" does not necessarily know about the requirements of the new job. In the case of managerial positions the person may not be qualified to assess one's potential to fit managerial or other supervisory positions. Thus, while the supervisor's appraisal of the employee's past and present performance would be invaluable, this would form only a part of the total characteristics to be considered.

SHOULD EMPLOYEES BE ADVISED OF THEIR PERFORMANCE?

Again, where we are talking about a historical performance appraisal, failure to advise employees of their performance would greatly detract from the value of the exercise. Let us face it, a supervisor should not wait for a formal appraisal session to correct poor work or commend good effort. However, the formal post appraisal interview has a number of advantages. It also has the added advantage of letting the worker know that his performance, whether good or bad, is of interest not only to his immediate supervisor, but to top management as well and forms a permanent part of his record.

You should not, for example, assume that a good worker knows his work is being recognized and appreciated. In other words, the worker should assume that if the job performance was poor he/she would be dragged over the coals, and if it is not, he or she must assume that everything is in order. Employees need to be told how they are performing and this is a very good occasion to do so.

Let me hasten to say however, that there is no need to discuss an appraisal to determine salary increase or suitability for promotion with an employee. Similarly, there is no necessity to tell an employee that he/she ranks first, second or last in his department. It should be enough to say - "you have maintained a consistently high (low) standard of work during period A to B", or "the level of your performance put you among our best producers (or leaves much to be desired)". But be sure to bring out the person's strong points as well as the weak ones and try to get him/her to suggest possible ways of improving his/her position and performance while you commit yourself to providing more room for growth.

CAN A PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL BE COMPLETELY OBJECTIVE?

Human nature being what it is, how can anyone be sure that an appraisal is being objectively done? If it is not, how much value does it really have? We have to admit that all of us have certain prejudices and biases. There are managers who allow their prejudice regarding things like physical appearance to sway their judgement, and would never, under normal circumstances, give the employee the rating which is deserved.

Then rare is the supervisor who always gives a good rating. There are several reasons for this. Unfortunately, such an approach serves little purpose on behalf of the organization.

We can find a host of reasons which can make appraisals so subjective as to negate their value. However, while it will not be possible to make it a completely objective exercise, we can do much to cut out enough of the subjective material to make the exercise valuable. Some of these we already noted.

1. Training supervisors in the purpose and techniques of the programme.

2. Each appraisal is done without reference to any previous appraisal.

3. Base judgement on facts rather than on what others think about the employee.

4. Set definite guidelines, procedures and standards by which the employee is to be appraised, e.g., set goals and measure achievements against these goals.

5. Guard against the "halo", "opportunity", "leniency" and "average point" biases.

6. Be sure each appraisal is reviewed by the supervisor's supervisor. By doing so, the supervisor will attempt to be more objective as he/she may have to justify his/her rating.

7. Encourage supervisors to keep a record of "critical incidents" which can serve as a "back up" for ratings.

You can think of other factors which together with these should provide you with a sufficiently objective programme to make the exercise both valuable and desirable.

> Note: Concentrate on the more objective factors when appraising performance for salary treatment, job performance improvement, etc. Example, actual performance - quantity and quality of work, attendance record, attitude, response to supervision. Is the person co-operative, does he/she get along well with others?

Appraisal for promotion and transfer should take account of all of the above as well as the more subjective factors such as the potential to perform a new job. Here you are really passing judgement in advance but in the instance, your appraisal will be based on past performance as well as your impression gained over a period of time, weighed against what you decide are the requirements for successfully performing the new job.

THE POST APPRAISAL INTERVIEW - A SUGGESTED APPROACH

Appraisal for personnel decisions need not to be discussed with employees. However, those concerning their performance should be. Again, the person need not be told how he or she rates vis-a-vis his co-workers. Example, they need not be told they rank 7th out of 20 in their department.

Before the interview

1. Supervisor should summarize the main points to be discussed - first strong or complimentary points, then weaknesses or unsatisfactory points.

2. Consider suggestions which might help to improve the latter.

3. Review these with the supervisor.

4. Plan to use the interview for an exchange of ideas rather than a formal "supervisor tells employee" session.

The Interview

1. Start by stating the purpose of the interview - to look at your performance and see if we can help you to improve certain areas.

2. Praise strong points - e.g., you are doing very well, or you have achieved a (very) high standard in these areas.

3. Point out weaknesses - e.g., we are concerned about these or we feel there is need for improvement.

4. Illustrate with actual examples some good, some weak points.

5. Ask for his/her opinion about these - e.g., do you think this is a reasonable assessment?

6. Take views into consideration - they may throw some light on the way person is approaching job.

7. Consider action for improvement - what do you think should be done to improve your performance; where practical, discuss these and make suggestions you consider appropriate. Accept suggestions where practical; explain why suggestion are not feasible or deserve further study or consideration.

8. Have employee sign rating sheet as evidence that it was discussed on a given date.

9. End interview on a friendly note - this interview has helped to bring out some useful points which should prove beneficial to us and to you. I appreciate your co-operation.

10. Summarize the employee's reaction and suggestions and prepare for file.

Summary Guidelines

1. Be sure about the reason for the appraisal.

2. Make sure you understand the system you are using.

3. Make sure you have a clear understanding of what the worker's job is (job description).

4. Establish reasonable standards or goals by which to judge his/her performance.

5. When comparing the performance of two or more workers, be sure you are comparing jobs that are reasonably similar.

6. As far as possible, base your appraisal on facts rather than opinion.

7. Use of "critical incidents" makes an appraisal more "acceptable" to the worker.

8. Avoid favoritism as well as the "Opportunity", "Halo" "Leniency" and "Average Point" biases.

9. Have the appraisal reviewed by your supervisor.

10. Plan your post-appraisal interview carefully.

11. Make your appraisals meaningful and do them at regular intervals - be conscientious about it.

12. Be positive - in our own mind the appraisal must be seen not as an opportunity to criticize or "knock" the worker, but rather as a tool to assess performance and help the person grow and develop to his/her advantage, the company's and not least of all - the manager's.

INTERVIEWING TECHNIQUES

Assuming your preparation is complete, and the employee has arrived, you are now ready to make the most of your opportunity. There are several techniques to apply to every performance evaluation interview. They should help the employee accept what takes place in your discussion.

1. Put the employee at ease. Do the natural thing. If shaking hands would appear awkward because you have seen the person on the job only a short time before, do not do it. If it appears in order, go ahead, but make it genuine. See that the employee is seated comfortably. Chat for a few moments about his/her home, family and hobbies. (Make no mistake on this. If you are not sure of your facts - do not use them.) Use whatever "ice-breaker" technique you are comfortable with or, which makes sense under the circumstances.

   After these preliminary amenities, which are intended to ease tension, the programme should be explained. It is extremely important that he/she be told early in the explanation that every one, including yourself, is being evaluated. If this precaution is not taken, the worker may subconsciously build-up resentment on the basis that he/she is being discriminatorily handled.

2. Talk generally about the employee's status at the outset.

3. Review the good things and show appreciation of past success.

4. Place primary interest upon development and growth of the individual.

5. When criticising, make sure the employee will be able to save face. If part of the blame should be shared by you, tell him/her so.

6. Review failures and shortcomings adequately, but do not labour the point. Move from it as quickly as you can and build upon the persons strength. Accentuate the positive in the prevention of future failures.

7. Get the individual to begin talking by asking a few simple questions that do not end in "yes" and "no" answers.

8. Be open-minded to the opinions and facts that are given by the individual. This will assure the worker that you are willing and eager to learn more about him/her.

9. Try not to dominate. Listen politely and avoid argument. If the person's opinion differs from yours, consider the differences slowly with respect to his point of view.

10. Do not become a judge of right and wrong. Recognise that you could be wrong, and that the conference will be much more beneficial if the person being counselled reaches some personal decisions.

11. Create the impression that your evaluation is not permanent and that it can be changed.

12. By your attitude, you can, and should, create the impression that you have plenty of time for the interview and that you consider it highly important.

We should also remember that no performance discussion can terminate with this one interview. The suggestions for improvement and changes that are agreed upon require a follow-up. It is the responsibility of a supervisor to make certain that the interview is more than just a talking period. If it is necessary, there should be additional employee discussions and, in day-to-day contacts, the supervisor should apply the information gained from the interview.

SEVENTEEN PRINCIPLES OF PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL

1. Before you discuss the person - discuss the job:

   - Responsibilities
   - Most important
   - Which takes more time
   - Ways in which talents and time could be used more profitably
   - Do we agree on standards by which your performance should be based

2. Ask the following:

   - What do you feel are your greatest strengths?
   - Where do you feel less competent?
   - Do you feel you are growing more competent as time goes by?
   - Is there any way in which you think that I or someone else could help you to become more competent?
   - Do I do anything that makes your job harder?

3. Listen.

4. If subordinate appraises him/her self more favourably than you do, ask why.

   - In case of persistent disagreement: restate appraisal, examine relevant information, make sure your judgement is unbiased.

5. In appraising mistakes - consider:

   - Number in relation to the amount of decisions
   - Amount of freedom given to act on own judgement
   - Relative difficulty of tasks assigned

6. Try not to be unduly influenced by your own strong points; e.g., are there some mannerisms that annoy you?

   - You are a tidy person, he/she tends to be sloppy
   - You are aggressive - he/she is submissive

7. When you must criticize, criticize performance - not the person.

8. If you are partly at fault, admit it.

9. Never discuss other employees.

10. If you want co-operation, never undertake a performance interview too soon after a disciplinary interview.

11. Do not discuss salary or promotion during performance appraisal.

12. It is not necessary that you agree on everything.

13. Be yourself.

14. Do not try to do too much:

    - You cannot make an unfavorable appraisal a happy experience
    - You cannot make a defensive man or woman self-critical

15. If subordinate is really deficient and must be corrected:

    - Let him/her know exactly where he/she stands
    - Point out that if you did not think there was room for improvement you would take alternate action
    - Explain what you think can be done to improve
    - Offer help if there is desire to improve

16. For your good employees:

    - Offer support
    - Examine interests and ambitions
    - Help to the extent of your ability

17. It is more important to develop strengths than to criticise weaknesses.

PERFORMANCE STANDARD

TITLE GRADE

TO BE COMPLETED BY SUPERVISOR AND AGREED BY INDIVIDUAL DOING THE JOB

ELEMENTS/TASKS	MINIMALLY SATISFACTORY	SATISFACTORY	EXCELLENT

MEETING/CONFERENCE IN INDUSTRY

An effective conference follows a pattern of logical development. Group thinking is similar to systematic, individual thinking, but joint thinking usually leads to sounder conclusions and decisions than those of an individual.

A conference in industry can be used:

a) As a vehicle for communication
b) As a means of exchanging ideas
    To get acceptance
    To get ideas across
c) As a tool of instruction

TYPES OF CONFERENCES

Informational

These meetings are called primarily for the purpose of sharing or exchanging information or experience.

Each person submits whatever helpful information or experience should be shared with the group. A typical weekend or Monday morning meeting is an information conference, in which each individual will talk about a regular work week or what the current problems are in the department. It is a meeting rather than a conference if no attempt is made to come to a group understanding or a group decision. If there is discussion and some problem arises that needs the opinion and judgement of the group as a whole, the meeting moves into a conference procedure.

Instructional

This is a type of conference called primarily to provide instruction and develop understanding through discussion. The leader is usually well informed on the topic or subject to be discussed. The person knows the right answers and wants the group to think through and understand what is being asked of them.

Instead of simply telling the group what he or she knows, or having them recite back all the answers, the leader will introduce factors new to them and leaves the group members so they individually think through the topic and come to an informed understanding. The goal is to get the group to think through their own understandings and conclusions, by participating in an exchange of ideas.

As a result, members have thought through to the right conclusions and will therefore accept and use them. Group members may not agree totally with the instructions, but the opportunity to discuss and think them through is likely to make members more agreeable to follow through on the instructions.

This type of conference is a tool of instruction.

Problem solving

This type of conference is called primarily to think through a specific problem, in order to arrive at a definite decision or to indicate the judgement of a group in regard to appropriate action. In a problem solving conference, the leader may not know the problem or the solution, but gets the group members to create solutions which they define and accept.

This type of conference is a tool of management.

Overlapping

Very often, the above types overlap and all three may be evident in one conference.

Handout 2.13

VALUE OF CONFERENCES/MEETINGS

Conferences and meetings are valuable because:

1. Several minds at work on a problem are usually better than one mind working alone.

2. Most problems need to be seen from the points of view of all concerned, not simply from the point of view of one person.

3. Effective conferences are those that have been carefully thought-out and not carried out by "hunches" or guesses. Planners use the scientific method of problem solving.

4. Thinking together helps a group develop the ability to work together. Co-operation in action results from co-operation in planning and deciding.

5. Persons who think together in a conference have a sense of participation in planning and solving problems. They accept the solutions more readily. They enthusiastically support the proposals. Conferences build within each individual a sense of responsibility for the whole programme.

6. Conferences build morale because each person feels that she/he is recognised and that she/he counts for something when important matters are under consideration.

7. Properly-led conferences build and maintain high levels of morale and contribute to labour productivity.

Handout 2.14

THE LEADER'S JOB

1. Preparation for conference:

   a) Guide the selection of topics so as to establish a step by step agenda for the conference;
   b) Determine the objectives or range of decisions to be reached by the conference;
   c) Prepare necessary outlines and other materials and check on physical conditions of where conference is to be held.

2. Presentation of topic or problem:

   a) In opening the conference state the objectives clearly and give a brief description of each topic to be discussed and its importance;
   b) Define and clarify the terms and phrases relating to each topic.

3. Start the discussion by (1) asking general questions first to get basic information; (2) illustrating the general point of the discussion by citing typical cases or situations; (3) raising debatable questions and cases.

4. Develop chart on blackboard for visual guidance and reference.

   a) Enter general heading of topic or problem;
   b) Add sub-headings and columns as discussion develops;
   c) Relate the chart to conference objective by entering the essential facts, points, or ideas that may lead to solution of the problem. If necessary, get group agreement on restatement of item; when several points are offered simultaneously, ask members to hold contributions for further consideration.

5. Guide the discussion toward the conference objectives by:

   a) Questioning those points which do not seem pertinent;
   b) Helping members to express or clarify their thoughts;
   c) Calling for illustrations, diagrams, specific cases to clarify points;
   d) Establishing new objectives which come from the group.

6. Influence the discussion by:

   a) "Speed-ups" - discuss a specific case which will provoke interest; make entries on chart promptly; raise suggestive questions.

   b) "Slow-ups" - clarify a point through injection of illustrative cases; question whether all sides of the problem have been considered; summarize the opinion expressed on the point at issue.

   c) Discourage faulty thinking, biased judgement, or narrow viewpoints expressed by conferees; use "pro and con" analysis; list advantages and disadvantages of a course of action; analyse causes and remedies of a difficulty.

d) Keep the discussion on focus through restatement of the original problem; postpone side issues until the main point has been settled; question why a seemingly irrelevant remark is being made since it has nothing to do with the problem under discussion.

7. Deal with the "problem" members of the group. The leader must consider peculiar characteristics of group members and deal with them as individuals.

   a) The talkative person must be restrained:

      1. Disregard person occasionally and recognize another person instead.
      2. Ask for exact point or meaning of remark.
      3. Let person talk him/herself into a trap and let the group "spring" it on. (Be careful in using this.)

   b) The silent member needs to be encouraged:

      1. Discover personal interests.
      2. Direct a few easy questions his/her way.
      3. Directly ask for personal opinion.
      4. Mention some point he/she may relate to.
      5. Gain his/her confidence outside the conference room

   c) The "know it all" member also requires special handling.

      1. Give person a chance to show personal knowledge by answering the puzzling questions.
      2. Assign him/her some extra duties such as secretary, to record cases presented or questions asked or to make chart entries.
      3. Tactfully correct him/her after the meeting.
      4. If necessary, trap him/her by asking some technical questions.

   d) The touchy person has to be mollified. Show a helpful attitude and come to his/her rescue in critical situations until he/she gets accustomed to the "give and take" in a discussion. Have a private talk and caution against being too sensitive.

8. Summarize the discussion by reviewing the high spots. State the conclusions reached from the point of view of their utility and desirability in actual practice; relate the facts, opinions, ideas and conclusions to the major objective.

9. Keep a record of work done in each session. The resume of each meeting should include: entries on blackboard or chart, auxiliary materials used, direct information given to group and conclusions or recommendations of the group.

Handout 2.15

STEPS IN LEADING A GROUP DISCUSSION

1. Introduction

This is the way the conference is opened. In many ways it is the most important step because it sets the attitude of the group. The introduction determines how well the group will be willing and able to participate later. The things to consider at this stage are:

1. Introducing the topic
2. Defining the purpose of the meeting
3. Limiting the scope of the meeting
4. Indicating the procedure to be followed
5. Developing the proper attitude and arousing the interest of the conferees.

2. Drawing out

It is at this point that the meeting really starts. The entire meeting can be made or broken here. The leader must introduce material which the group can understand and discuss without fear of embarrassment or ignorance. Well-planned questions will be of considerable help. The following points should be considered:

1. Gathering facts
2. Getting opinions
3. Obtaining reactions to points made by leader
4. Asking pertinent questions
5. Recording views and ideas of group

3. Acceptance

This is the most distinctive characteristic of a conference. Many different and conflicting opinions may have been expressed up to this point. Now the conference leader must organize and compromise. He/she may have to reason and hold discussion with individual members. This is a true test of conference leadership, for he/she must get members of the conference to reconcile their views and accept a basic set of ideas. The points to be considered are:

1. Stimulating cross discussion
2. Challenging and accepting points made by the leader
3. Evaluating ideas
4. Organizing, screening and combining ideas
5. Drawing conclusions

4. Summation

Having obtained acceptance, the conference leader now summarizes the highlights of the discussion and emphasizes the major conclusions that have been agreed upon. She/he may also review the actions or steps that will be taken as a result of the conference either for implementing or for follow-up.

HOW TO GET THE MOST OUT OF A CONFERENCE

1. The conference method of teaching is a give-and-take situation between leader and group. Ideally, the leader should present ideas half the time and the group should question, challenge or support these ideas from their own experience during the remaining time. A large part of what is to be taught is determined by the leader in advance; the conferees should not, however, accept it without discussing it, understanding it or illustrating it.

2. Come to the discussion with questions in mind, bring notes on points you do not understand, questions you want to ask, or disagreements you want cleared up.

3. <u>Listen</u> thoughtfully while others speak. Try to understand the other person's point of view. Be tolerant of opinion with which you disagree. <u>Listen</u> before you question.

4. Speak your mind freely. Do not hold back. Your ideas will add to the value of the meeting. What is said in conference is not revealed.

5. Do not let the discussion get away from you. If you do not understand points that are being made, speak up. Make the speaker or the chairperson give examples or explanations until the point is clear.

6. Do not be afraid of friendly disagreement. If you disagree, do not hesitate to say so and state your reasons. Keep the argument friendly, but insist that the other person prove his/her points. Remember that we are all seeking just one thing - the right answer.

7. Avoid monopolizing the discussion. Express yourself and then give the next person a chance.

Handout 2.17

TYPES OF CONTROL

Consider each type of control and assess the possible impact on the group.

1. Completely controlled

   a) Leader completely dominates the meeting - lectures a good deal
   b) Group participation is small
   c) Group has no part in arriving at decision

2. Leader control, plus group participation

   a) Informational type

      1. Leader largely in control - guides and stimulates discussion
      2. Group discusses material presented - adds to it or criticizes
      3. Leader seeks acceptance of material presented

   b) Opinion seeking

      1. Leader sets topic
      2. Leader clearly defines limits of discussion
      3. Group offers suggestions and criticism
      4. There is a great deal of cross discussion

   c) Problem solving

      - Leader has least control - serves as chairperson and guide
      - Problem is solved by the group
      - Offers greatest amount of group participation
      - Leader should have background or factual information
      - No rigid outline or agenda is prepared
      - Leader has greatest problem in controlling and guiding discussion
      - Expectancy of group acceptance is greatest

3. Completely uncontrolled:

   a) Conferees have no specific objective or topic
   b) Leader has little or no control
   c) No decision is expected
   d) Discussion rambles
   e) Meeting is primarily social in nature

Handout 2.18

SUMMARY OF CONFERENCE LEADERSHIP TECHNIQUE

1. Questions

   a) Direct
   b) Overhead
   c) Reverse
   d) Relay

2. Comments

   a) Encourage comments from members of the group.
   b) Referral comments. Encourage cross discussion among members of the group.

3. Postural action

   a) Eye control
   b) Walking in front of the group
   c) Standing up and sitting down
   d) Pause
   e) Gestures
   f) Facial expressions
   g) Nodding head

4. Teaching aids

   a) Charts
   b) Filmstrips
   c) Slides
   d) Blackboard
   e) Moving pictures
   f) Discussion sheets
   g) Summary sheets
   h) Minutes of meeting

Handout 2.19

MAKING GROUP MEETINGS "CLICK"

1. Have everything ready before the meeting. Do not wait until the meeting begins before you discover that you need a blackboard, chalk, note pads, etc. - Use a checklist.

2. State the problem for discussion clearly at the outset of the meeting.

3. Get the members to talk. Shoot questions beginning with <u>why, when, where, what and who</u>.

4. Do not let timid members be crowded out by the more aggressive ones.

5. Do not try to give all the answers yourself. Act as a "switchboard" by keeping questions and answers circulating among the group.

6. Do not criticize anyone for speaking freely.

7. Insist that the group shows good "sportsmanship" toward all the speakers.

8. As the discussion goes on, make brief summaries of points that have been discussed. This is a sort of "progress report".

9. Keep control of the discussion. If speakers get off the subject, tactfully but firmly steer them back to the subject at hand.

10. Do not drag the meeting out too long. Summarize the conclusions reached, and give the group something to think about. It is better to send them away still wanting more discussion than to prolong the meeting until they are tired and bored.

SIXTEEN POINTS BY WHICH TO CHECK YOUR "CONFERENCE TECHNIQUE"

These staff meetings, conferences and informal get-togethers between yourself and one or more of your executives - are they effective? Do they "click"? Are they constructive? Check your own conference tactics by the following questions:

1. BEFORE you call the meeting, do you set a definite objective or goal toward which to steer the discussion?

2. BEFORE conducting the meeting, do you spend some time going over the subject to be discussed? Do you anticipate the turns the discussion may be expected to take, gather such data and information which may be useful to introduce and make a brief plan or written outline of the conference? Do you, at the same time, stand ready to alter your procedure in the event that more timely and vital matters arise spontaneously in the course of the meeting?

3. ONCE the meeting is under way, do you hold the discussion to the subject, or do you allow it to meander aimlessly?

4. WHENEVER practicable, do you set a definite starting time and closing time for a conference, and then close the meeting on the dot? Or do you allow the meeting to die a death of slow and painful exhaustion?

5. DO you take pains to hold group meetings in a comfortable, light, well-ventilated, properly heated room where a minimum of noise and distraction exists?

6. DO you arrange the meeting place so that participants do not have to face a glaring light?

7. WHEN submitting questions for the members of the group to discuss, do you make it a studied practice always to start a question with "How", "where", or "who", realizing that such questions provoke discussion, whereas a question so worded that it can be answered by "Yes" or "No" does not stimulate ideas - exchanging discussions?

8. IF you hold certain meetings at regular intervals, do you make an effort to introduce a bit of variety in the way the meetings are conducted, even to the point of changing the arrangements of the meeting place from time to time?

9. DO you introduce a touch of humor into group meetings to relieve moments of tension, antagonism or embarrassment?

10. DO you have a tendency to monopolize the meeting yourself (thereby shutting off the expression of others, and causing the meeting to degenerate into a one-person affair) or do you tactfully guide the discussion, interjecting your own ideas, only as one of the group?

11. BY realizing the possibilities of executive group meetings as a source of ideas, experience and suggestions, do you make it a point to encourage every member to contribute ideas? Do you tactfully shut-off the overly-talkative members and draw out the more backward members by asking carefully framed questions?

12. ARE you successful in handling the stubborn, radical, or "hard-boiled" member? Do you let him/her get grievances "off his/her chest" so that they will not be suppressed and, as a consequence, grow in the person's imagination? At the same time, do you allow grievances to "wet-blanket" the group? When it becomes necessary to squelch an aggrieved individual, do you do so by the weight of your authority (which may increase antagonism) or by bringing the disputed question to a point where members of the group help to expunge the sense of grievance?

13. DO you endeavour to reach a definite conclusion on every matter brought up in a meeting - a conclusion that will have the backing of the group as a whole - thus making the members feel that they are actually accomplishing something by the discussion?

14. WHEN the group arrives at a conclusion, do you see to it that prompt action is taken following the meeting to put group decisions into force?

15. DO you use group meetings constructively to "sell" ideas to your organization, to secure concerted action on company problems and to keep you goals and objectives before your key workers.

16. ARE meetings and conferences overdue in your organization? Or do you so plan and conduct them that they serve as an effective means of pooling ideas and experiences and of giving your entire executive organization that sense of participation in the formulation of methods, practices, plans and policies, which will best secure their active co-operation in carrying them out?

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR CONFERENCE LEADERS

1. Was the approach clear, concise and interest catching, or was it wordy, confused and informal?

2. Did the leader define unusual concepts and terms or was time wasted because of failure to do so?

3. Did the leader guide the discussion by the intelligent use of questions or did she/he talk too much and dominate the meeting?

4. Did the leader keep control of the group or was the meeting characterized by frequent side discussions and irrelevant comments?

5. Did the leader express himself/herself clearly and without hesitation or was there any difficulty in getting the message across?

6. Was there a spirited participation on the part of the group or was it necessary to prod or urge them to take part in the discussion?

7. Did most of the conferees participate or was the meeting monopolized by a few members?

8. Was the meeting characterized by an attitude of goodwill and co-operation or were the members indifferent or antagonistic?

9. Was the leader friendly and helpful, or sarcastic and patronizing?

10. Did the leader refer questions from the floor to the conferees or attempted to answer them all?

11. Did the leader make use of charts, diagrams and blackboards to illustrate and enable understanding?

12. Did the leader give credit to the participants and make them feel that it was their meeting or did she/he appear to "strut his stuff" like a prima donna?

13. Was time for the meeting budgeted wisely or was it necessary to skip over essential points on the agenda?

14. Was summary clear, complete and forcefully presented or was it disorganized, incomplete and ineffectual? Was there a summary at all?

15. Was summary presented as the findings of the group or as a reflection of the leader's preferences?

Handout 2.22

EXERCISE FOR DISCUSSION

HOW WOULD YOU HANDLE THE FOLLOWING SITUATIONS?

1. Conference getting out of control
2. Conferees lose sight of the subject
3. Group does not talk.
4. Group refuses to accept leader's conclusions.
5. One member of the group is opposed to the leader.
6. Group members argue heatedly with each other.
7. One or more members of the group are timid.
8. One member habitually objects to the views of leader and other conferees.
9. Subject matter discussed is beyond jurisdiction of the conferees.
10. Group is upset or discouraged about outside events.
11. Superiors sit in on conference.

V MODULE 2.B TRAINING OF PERSONNEL AND INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS MANAGERS

OVERVIEW

Many women in developing countries are employed in the field of personnel management and management training. In some enterprises the functions are combined. In others, they are separated , with both enjoying a certain independence. Still, in others, the training function is placed within the personnel responsibility and the "training officer", therefore, reports to the personnel manager or personnel director.

These are not the only combinations that exist in respect to personnel and industrial relations-cum-training functions. Some enterprises, depending on size, entrust such functions - in whole or part, to either the general manager, the production manager, the administrative manager, or the accountant. The important consideration is that personnel and industrial relations management (PIRM) is tremendously important and inevitable within industrial enterprises.

This course cannot cater to all groups involved. Some fundamental aspects are covered in other modules for managerial cadres. Hence, this course will focus on specialists in the field of PIRM.

Target Group

Women who are employed as personnel directors/managers; or suitably qualified individuals that are identified by their enterprise as having responsibilities in the field.

Also included are women who, based on career development and succession policies, are chosen by their enterprises to undertake training.

Objective

To provide participants with knowledge for, and to enhance their capabilities in performing the PIRM functions, taking into account:

a) Environmental factors which impinge on the performance of individuals and groups within public enterprises.

b) The need to ensure adequate supplies of skilled personnel within the enterprise.

c) The advisory responsibilities of the PIRM manager.

Duration

Four weeks.

Course Outline

The course outline as developed is subjected to four elements or considerations, namely:

- The organizational framework in which PIRM is practised (general).
- The core set of activities/functions that comprise the job of PIRM managers;
- The strategic forces which interplay and demand the attention of PIRM managers (reference to public enterprises).
- The techniques for developing and implementing PIRM programmes.

COURSE OUTLINE - MODULE 2.B

Session	Topic	Aim	Schedule	Coverage	Method	Materials
	1. INTRODUCTORY PHASE					
	-Role of PIRM in industrial public enterprises -Legal aspects of PIRM -Changing social structures and the impact on organizations.	To introduce issues, setting the stage for an understanding of the role of Personnel and Industrial Relations managers and to prepare participants for what follows		-Nature and role of industrial public enterprises -Role, objectives of PIRM in developing countries -Social, legal and other factors with important connotations for PIRM in public enterprises (including the growing impact of women in the field).	Lecture Plenary session providing participants with opportunity to air their experiences & concerns. Panel discussion on problems and issues regarding women in PIRM.	-Reference: MULLINS, Laurie J.; Management and Organizational Behaviour (Pitman Publishing, Inc.; London, 1985).
	2. ORGANIZATION THEORY	To provide participants with an understanding of the framework within which PIRM is practised and to establish the role and application of PIRM practices in such framework.		a)Concepts and principles -Formal and Informal organizations -Role prescriptions and role behaviour -Line/Staff organizations -Policy framework (design, formulation, implementation) -Diagnosing organizational health - regarding integration of the workforce.	Lecture Case study Group experience	

COURSE OUTLINE - MODULE 2.B

Session	Topic	Aim	Schedule	Coverage	Method	Materials
				b)Maintaining effective organization (management)	Lecture, Film	
				-Tasks of management (planning, staffing, organizing, co-ordinating, directing) -Controlling the workforce -Handling grievances -Motivation and leadership -Performance appraisals -Participation and management -Job enrichment, job satisfaction concepts.		
				-Effective principles, techniques of interviewing, e.g. selection, disciplinary, performance appraisal, counselling, exit.	Role Play	
	3. PUBLIC ENTERPRISE ORGANIZATION AND HUMAN RESOURCE PLANNING (HRP)	To acquaint participants with concepts, strategies and techniques with respect to building and maintaining an effective organization.		-Job analysis and job design -Manpower planning -Recruitment, selection and placement -Human Resource Development - at different stages and levels to suit different needs; career cycles and career development -Legal influences in the field of personnel management -Wage & salary administration -Image, credibility and women	Lectures, Cases and group exercises	

Session	Topic	Aim	Schedule	Coverage	Method	Materials
4.	HUMAN RESOURCES AND PUBLIC ENTERPRISE ORGANIZATIONAL GOALS	To convey to participants a knowledge of the organizational and human issues with which they have to cope, and of the mechanisms which they might use.		-Organizational power and influence -Intra-organizational conflicts -Building organization culture concepts; e.g.,lifelong/ long-term employment -Labour productivity - issues and strategies.	Lectures Group exercises	
5.	PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT AS A COMPONENT OF ALL MANAGEMENT	To emphasize the role of PIRM, and to study some critical management issues with which the PIRM manager is deeply involved.		-Social integration, personnel management and social change (organization renewal/ reorganization) -Technology and work behaviour . impact on HRD practices -Decision-making - cost reduction (redundancies, early retirements, etc.) -Employee safety and safety programmes -Succession planning, promotions,transfers, etc.	Lectures Panel discussion Group and individual exercises	

COURSE OUTLINE - MODULE 2.B

Session	Topic	Aim	Schedule	Coverage	Method	Materials
	6. INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS (IR)	To examine the concepts and principles relating to IR, as well as the intimidating forces that are likely to affect women in the field. To provide some guide-lines for action		-Approaches to labour relations (labour, the problem of control) -Employee benefits and services -Collective bargaining - labour contracts -Grievance procedures and industrial disputes -Negotiations - strategies and techniques	Panel discussion Lecture and case studies Role play	
	7. SOME APPROACHES REGARDING ORGANIZATION EFFECTIVENESS	To bring participants up-to-date with concepts and practices in the field of evaluating and enhancing organization effectiveness.		-MBO -OD -Worker participation/Self management -Quality circles -Committees	Lectures	
	8. SPECIAL FUNCTIONS	To demonstrate principles and methods that can be applied in performing these functions.		-Staffing the Personnel Dpt. -Preparing departmental budgets -Organizing the training functions -Conducting meetings -Information systems -Record and record keeping -Report writing	Lectures individual assignments	

VI MODULE 3 GENERAL MANAGEMENT COURSE FOR FEMALE EXECUTIVES

Target Group

Women executives in senior or top management positions in public enterprises.

Women who have completed Module 2 (A) and (B), or who possess appropriate qualifications and are aspiring to or are selected for top management positions.

Objectives

To impart concepts, principles and techniques of management that will help women in top management positions to develop an understanding of the functional side of business, and thereby to provide the female manager with tools for effectively executing the task of top management of industrial public enterprises.

Strategy and Duration

The overriding principle of all the modules is to enhance the application of knowledge and skills to job situations. In this particular module it is especially vital to concentrate on assisting participants in finding and developing the means for outstanding, effective performance as senior executives in their respective enterprises.

This means that the programme should encourage analysis and synthesis in work-related issues and circumstances.

In this regard, it is necessary and important to break with traditional practices in deciding a suitable strategy for this module. These (traditional) practices are linked to "vertical thinking" and vertical teaching. They reflect a lack of respect for the academic status, background (experience), intuitiveness and initiative of the adult learner. Therefore, a break with traditional practices will mean, a "shift", regarding how learners are perceived and the role of the trainer. This shift allows the trainer to become a facilitator assisting and encouraging learners to generate, from their experiences, concepts, rules and principles, which then become guides for their future behaviour.

To enhance this, the module will be job-oriented and will utilize individual study and assignments which will form the basis of workshop material for six workshops over a period of six months. In actuality, there will be seven workshops. The first will be **Introductory** in characteristic whereby the participants will (a) receive information about the programme; (b) be involved in a set of lectures and discussions focussing on critical issues and concepts pertaining to the existence and performance of public enterprises; and (c) finalize their assignments for Block 1 of the programme.

The assignments will require the participant to engage in the study of prepared literature and undertake analytical studies of their respective enterprise with a view to preparing papers for the workshop.

This approach fits the Kolby four stage model of moving from concrete experience through reflective observation, followed by abstract formulation and implementation. The approach will engender opportunities for "positive" and "negative" reinforcement as a means of crystallizing learning.

This pattern will be followed for the six month period, culminating with a final evaluation and the awarding of certificates of merit.

STRUCTURE OF PROGRAMME

Introductory phase

Outline the programme.

Lectures and discussions to introduce concepts pertaining to the existence and performance of public enterprises.

Specify course work regarding Block 1, and finalize assignments.

Suggested coverage of assignment

On the basis of the literature provided, review and assess policies as they relate to the strategic plans of your enterprise. Identify those areas of policy which support or constrain the efforts to fulfill the terms and commitments laid out in the plan. What are the critical steps necessary in organizational terms to optimize the dovetailing of policies and strategic plans?

Each block should have a set of literature, carefully prepared, or references carefully selected which the participants will study and use as basis for doing their assignments. Each block should have separate assignments. However, care should be taken to establish links that uphold the system view of organization.

(For a sample of literature see appendix containing a set of materials reproduced from ICPE publications.)

COURSE OUTLINE - MODULE 3

Session	Topic	AIM	Schedule	Coverage	Method	Materials
	1. INTRODUCTORY PHASE					(Distribute reading material) See reading materials.
	-The nature and role of public enterprises -Government enterprise relationship -Public enterprises in relation to their environments -Public enterprises versus private investment -The fate of public enterprises -Entrepreneurship	To present a global economic picture and emphasize the role of public enterprises - concentrating on: a) Trends affecting the status of public enterprises b) Problems of interlinkages, and c) The role of management in developing countries		-The fate of public enterprises issues related to privatization -Entrepreneurship - the managing of interlinkages -External Governance	Week-end Seminar to introduce programme Lectures, panel - discussion Discuss assignment and ensure that participants understand what is expected of them.	

Session	Topic	Aim	Schedule	Coverage	Method	Materials
	2. ORGANIZATION AND MANAGEMENT	To focus participants' attention on the dynamic nature of public enterprises as open systems and to sensitize them to the role, responsibilities and functions of chief executives in creating and maintaining viable organizational structures.		-Organization concepts .Decentralized authority and centralized control .Organization structure -Principles of organization .Responsibilities and authority, co-ordination, specialization, line/staff .Structural design - span of control, delegation, departmentalization, decentralization, use of staff personnel	BLOCK 1 Home study of material/literature and preparation of project based on prepared case	- Handout 3.1
				-Human factors in organizations. .Societal considerations, attitudes and behaviour informal relationships .Individual behaviour and motivation .Status and role system .Influence system and leadership	Week-end Seminar for project presentation/ analysis and evaluation	Stephen P. Feldman,"Mgt. in context: Essay on Relevance of Culture to the Understanding of Organizational Change", Journal of Management Studies, Vol. 23, 6; November 1986. Also Mullins - ibid.
	3. POLICIES	To establish the importance of policies in regulating behaviour within the organization and to present guidelines for the formulation of policies.		-Role of policies -Types of policies -Formulating policies -Guidelines for effective policies		

Session	Topic	Aim	Schedule	Coverage	Method	Materials
	4. PLANNING	To provide top management personnel with tools of strategic and corporate planning.		-Investment planning -Multi-objective and organizational goals programming -Long-term planning .Definition .Corporate objectives .Inputs for planning - external factors, internal factors, resource analysis historical operating trends .Formulating plan - top management involvement, participative approach, corporate strategies, model building, appraisal of alternatives, form of plan .Implementation of plan - board of directors, organizational acceptance, review and recycling of plan -Short-term planning .The annual profit plan - basic assumptions and ground rules .Budgeting - comprehensive budget programme (operating budget, financial budget)	BLOCK 2 Home study followed by week-end seminar	

Session	Topic	Aim	Schedule	Coverage	Method	Materials
	5. STRATEGIC AND MANAGERIAL CONTROL	To promote skill in designing, implementing and monitoring control mechanisms		-Definition -Purpose of controls -Kinds of control -Designing control systems -Records and reports management -Relationship, similarities and differences between strategic and managerial control -Integrated information network .Developing and installing budgets .Budget revision, re-viewing and analysis, corrective action -Planning, budgeting and forecasting .Purpose and functions of budgets, economics of budgeting, the product curve, cost volume behaviour pattern, marginal analysis and flexible budgeting, the budget process, financial model - defensive versus offensive approach		Handout 3.2

Session	Topic	Aim	Schedule	Coverage	Method	Materials
	6. FINANCIAL MANAGEMENT	To provide participants with the means to interpret financial statements and to use them as basis for decision-making.		-Starting an enterprise .Expenditure on fixed assets .Current expenditure -Enterprise operating steadily .Expenditure and revenue .Provisions for future outgoings -Depreciation -Taxation -Long-term liabilities -Reserves -Accounting systems -the enterprise in equilibrium .Financial evaluation *Earnings on sales *Earnings per share *Return and equity *Return on invested capital *Return on investment .Non-financial evaluation *Sales growth *Share of market *Customer relations *New product development *Capital investment *Employee relations -Capital expenditure programme and return on investment	BLOCK 3 Home study Project work and week-end seminar	

Session	Topic	Aim	Schedule	Coverage	Method	Materials
				-Financing short-term corporate requirements .Short-term financing .Intermediate-term financing .Long-term financing -Cash management and bank relations .Analysis of sources and use of funds .Organizing for cash management .Companv/bank relationship -Inventory valuation and control (appreciation) .Inventory valuation .Inventory control .Evaluation process .Credit decisions .Making managerial accounts more profitable .Collections procedures .Cash flow of method forecasting .Borrowing against, or selling accounts receivables -Internal audit techniques and applications		

Session	Topic	Aim	Schedule	Coverage	Method	Materials
	7. OPERATIONS MANAGEMENT	To acquaint participants with the top management responsibility for monitoring and co-ordinating the flow of activities influencing productivity and profitability		-Materials Management .Production planning .Materials planning procurement and control *Materials order system *Safety stock *Lead time *Physical inventories -Introducing new techniques .Line balancing .Critical ratio scheduling .Simulations theory -Technology -Handling of materials -Work measurement & standards -Quality control .Role and organization of quality control .Control of vendor(suppliers) quality .Control of in-process quality .New design with quality assurance .Analysing quality assurance cost .Appraising quality control performance -Operations research .Techniques of OR *Linear programming *Queuing theory *Experimental methods .Limitations and evaluation	BLOCK 4	

Session	Topic	Aim	Schedule	Coverage	Method	Materials
	8. MARKETING	To provide participants with knowledge that will enhance their ability to organize and monitor the marketing function within their enterprise		-Essentials of marketing -Marketing concept and market mix -Market research -Competitive forces -The annual marketing plan - the planning process -Marketing strategy and channels of distribution -Marketing communication -Measuring the performance of marketing operations		
	9. HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT	To emphasize the importance of human resource planning and development as an integral part of the enterprise - as well as demonstrate its potential impact on continuity, productivity and profitability.		-Manpower planning -Personnel policies -Wage and salary administration -Incentives: individual behaviour and motivation -Influence systems and organizational leadership -Industrial relations -Collective bargaining and principles of negotiation	BLOCK 5	
	10. PERFORMANCE IMPROVEMENT AND EVALUATION			-An exercise based on the study of different methods of performance; evaluation of public enterprises	BLOCK 6	

ORGANIZATION

1. DEFINITION

All activities in an enterprise of more than elemental size require organization. Organization is a problem of management that is exceedingly vital, and often complex, in industrial operations. Individuals and groups are members of a team that, to be effective, requires co-ordinated planning, assignment of responsibilities, direction and control. It is important for us to develop an understanding of the principles that apply to organization in general and to the interrelationships designed to co-ordinate and control the various activities.

An organization is a systematically grouped body of individuals assembled for the accomplishment of some objective. In industry, this entails the appropriate grouping of individuals into operating units, the assignment of authority and responsibility to each, and the definition of the interrelationships that exist between these units in order to obtain co-ordination and control of action - steps known as "the process of organization". An efficient organization performs as a co-ordinated whole and moves undeviatingly toward the objective for which it was designed.

Organizations of some sort have always existed among groups of people engaged in achieving a common objective. In the simplest form, there is no more "structure" than that of boss or leader with one level of subordinates. As needs arise, the boss assigns tasks to subordinates and directs their efforts. The small, modern business often begins in this fashion. It is when demand for stability and specialization develops and when personnel relationships become more complex that a systematised organization structure necessarily follows. The principles of such a structure will be considered first. These principles will then be illustrated in the evolution of an enterprise from a one-person organization to a firm of considerable size.

There are several interrelated aspects to the organization structure such as:

Division of responsibility

The type of responsibility assigned to each unit

The relationship between organization units

The size of organization units and span of supervision.

1.2 Division of responsibility

In the process of organization, Division of Responsibility is the assignment of a separate area of responsibility to each individual or group. Each consequent subdivision of the organization is termed an organization unit. Organization units may be entitled division, department or section. If the unit is a single individual, he may be named according to his job - e.g., the operator or legal adviser.

Dividing the organization into distinct work units has two primary objectives. It aims to effectively co-ordinate, supervise, and control groups of different size and character. And it is a means for specialization of effort which is essential for efficient operation. The basis for division of labour is an important element of the organization problem. In a complete organization, one or more of three types of such divisions may be classified as "functional", "product" or "regional".

1.2.1. The functional unit is one in which the members are engaged in the same class of activity or in which a single individual may be assigned to one particular type of work. This classification may be a broad one, as in a major division with subordinate departments or sections. Or it may apply to a small unit in which all individuals, except the supervisor, do exactly the same thing. Typical examples are: a treasury department for handling fiscal matters, an accounting division, an engineering department, a maintenance department, a foundry, a machine shop, and a sales department. This type of division has the advantage of functional specialisation. It facilitates the economic use of space and equipment peculiar to that particular type of job. Functional division is employed in all industrial organizations.

1.2.2. Product division applies to organizations which handle several products or lines of products. By its use, the activities of an organization unit are confined to a single product or group of products. This can apply to a single individual or to a major division in a large industry.

The product division has the advantage of specialisation depending on the product. In manufacturing operations, this division may be required because the methods of production may be peculiar to the particular product manufactured.

Use of the product division also facilitates the control and appraisal of that part of the business. Product and regional divisions are common in large, diversified or widespread organizations.

1.2.3. Regional division applies to the segregation of an organization unit due to the different location of plants and sales territories. A regional division can be restricted to essential local activities with many important functions centralized at a main office. Or it can be quite autonomous and include within a region all the important functions except a means of control by the superior management.

The size of the operation, its distance from the home organization, local conditions, and capacity of personnel will dictate the extent to which a regional division should be self-sufficient. The purpose of regional division is to facilitate local control, enhance efficiency, and make the most of the commercial and economic advantages of a particular location.

A special type of "regional" division is used in some sales organizations to provide work units which give exclusive attention to a particular class of customer. We may say that the "region" is a customer class rather than a geographic area. For example, one department within the organization may be devoted to government or business while another may concentrate on retail sales, and yet a third may handle the wholesale trade. Except for possible physical proximity of personnel and their activities, such divisions may have the same degree of autonomy as sales-type regional divisions which are defined by geographic limits.

1.3 Basic Types of Responsibility

We have described in a general way the functional concept in division of labour. Systematic grouping involves characteristics of function, responsibility and related authority.

All modern enterprises, except the most elementary, make use of three broad functional categories known as line, staff and committee. Although these types of responsibilities are frequently mentioned, the terms, unfortunately, do not have exactly the same significance to all executives and students of management. Committees have been spoken of as a type of staff. Line is sometimes regarded as a chain of command without respect to other functional responsibilities. Some authorities mention a service unit, which is treated here as a staff. And Frederick W. Taylor introduced a functional organization in which the individual units possessed a unique combination of line and staff types of authority and responsibility. The organizations to be discussed here will be based on the line, staff and committee concepts.

Job titles will also be mentioned. There is no commonly accepted standard for many of these titles - foreman, superintendent and manager, for example. Various usages also apply to the names of organization units - e.g., department, division and section.

1.3.1. Line Organization

The line comprises those individuals, groups, and supervising executives concerned directly with the primary objectives of the enterprise. In order to distinguish the line, it is necessary to know what those primary objects are. In most manufacturing industries, the basic objectives are to manufacture and sell their products. Considering such an organization as a whole, the line embraces two main branches. One includes the workers who actually operate the production equipment or perform other work on the product (direct labour). The other includes the sales force which contacts the customers. Both of these branches include the various levels of directing executives up to the top authority. Line organization constitutes the structure of the simplest industry. It is the backbone of larger organizations at any stage of development in size and complexity. Staffs and committees usually come into existence only to assist in promoting the line activities.

Figure 1.1 is a chart of the simplest line organization. A study of the chart will immediately suggest a lack of assisting elements such as clerical and accounting personnel, which would be required even in small organizations. A pure line organization cannot exist except in the most elemental enterprise. Usually, when a company organization is spoken of as line types it is to be expected that the line characteristics will predominate. In that case, the staffs are confined to service and advisory functions, to be described below.

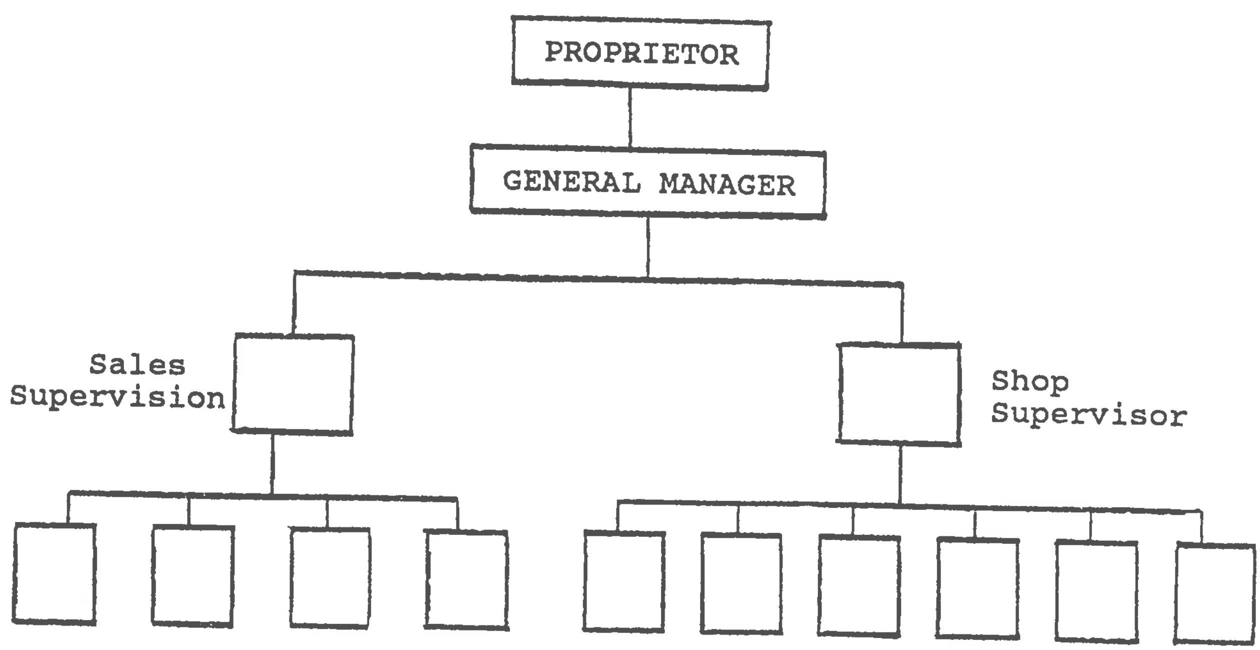


Figure 1.1 LINE ORGANIZATION

1.3.2 Staff Organization

The staff unit of an organization is established to assist the line or any other part of the organization by performing advisory, service, co-ordination and control functions which are necessary to the primary responsibility of the assisted unit. The staff unit does not participate in that primary responsibility.

A staff job is a full-time operation. Unlike an occasional assignment or participation in a discussion group (as in a committee), staff work is essentially that of specialists in their particular functional responsibility.

Typical staff functions are performed by the company's legal department, clerical staff, financial controller and production support staff. A legal department is chiefly advisory. When it defends a case in a courtroom it is performing a service. A stenographic or clerical staff also performs service functions. The comptroller (the chief executive for accounting and budgetary control) has a control function with service and advisory functions as well. The production analyst staff has co-ordination and control responsibilities. In none of these examples does the staff perform direct selling or manufacturing operations for which the line organization is responsible. But staff activities may be no less essential to the operation of the enterprise.

As has been stated, a staff may assist any organization unit in addition to the line. Thus, a medical staff may advise the personnel division (a staff) . The latter, in turn, may serve any part of the organization. A staff may also constitute an advisory or service group for a standing committee - a device employed in several large organizations. Such a staff may accumulate data and maintain records on which the committee bases its deliberations.

The internal organization of a staff is often set up on a "line" basis, this "line" being identified by the primary function of the staff. In a product engineering department, the designers, draftsmen, development engineers and engineering executives would constitute the line of that department. The clerks, stenographers and librarians would be subordinate staff. The line of an internal staff organization must not be confused with the previously defined basic line of the company organization, identified by its manufacturing and selling activities.

During the expansion of an organization, the development of staff units comes about when the accessory responsibilities of executives or workers become so burdensome as to impair the performance of their primary jobs. The staff idea simply extends the principles of specialization and division of labour. Although the concept of "staff" has been apparent in industrial enterprises of many past generations, the extensive use of staff is a modern development.

1.3.3 Taylor's Functional Organization

The line and staff organization is the type common to modern industry. And the functional basis for division of labour is the one most frequently employed at all levels of modern organization structures. But the importance of functional division was not always recognised. Frederick W. Taylor was the leading proponent of this principle in scientific management. Taylor developed a functional type of organization which is largely outmoded today, but it does have some rare applications in modern practice. Taylor's organization is described here because of its historical significance.

Taylor studied the prevalent accumulation of varied responsibilities which burdened the shop foremen of his time. The shop foreman's primary job has always been to turn out production. Even in the industries of Taylor's day, foremen were responsible for hiring and firing workmen, for planning production control and maintenance and often for work inspection and selection of equipment. Taylor pointed out that no single individual could be qualified for handling all these functions, unless he had a capacity far above the foreman's level; nor could one man give all these activities the attention they deserved. Taylor, accordingly, proposed to divide these varied responsibilities among several functional foremen (as indicated in figure 1.2).

A study of the accompanying chart will reveal that the organization is quite different from line and staff, our most common type of organizational structure. Each functional foreman or "boss" has direct authority over the same group of workers - authority confined to his area of functional responsibility.

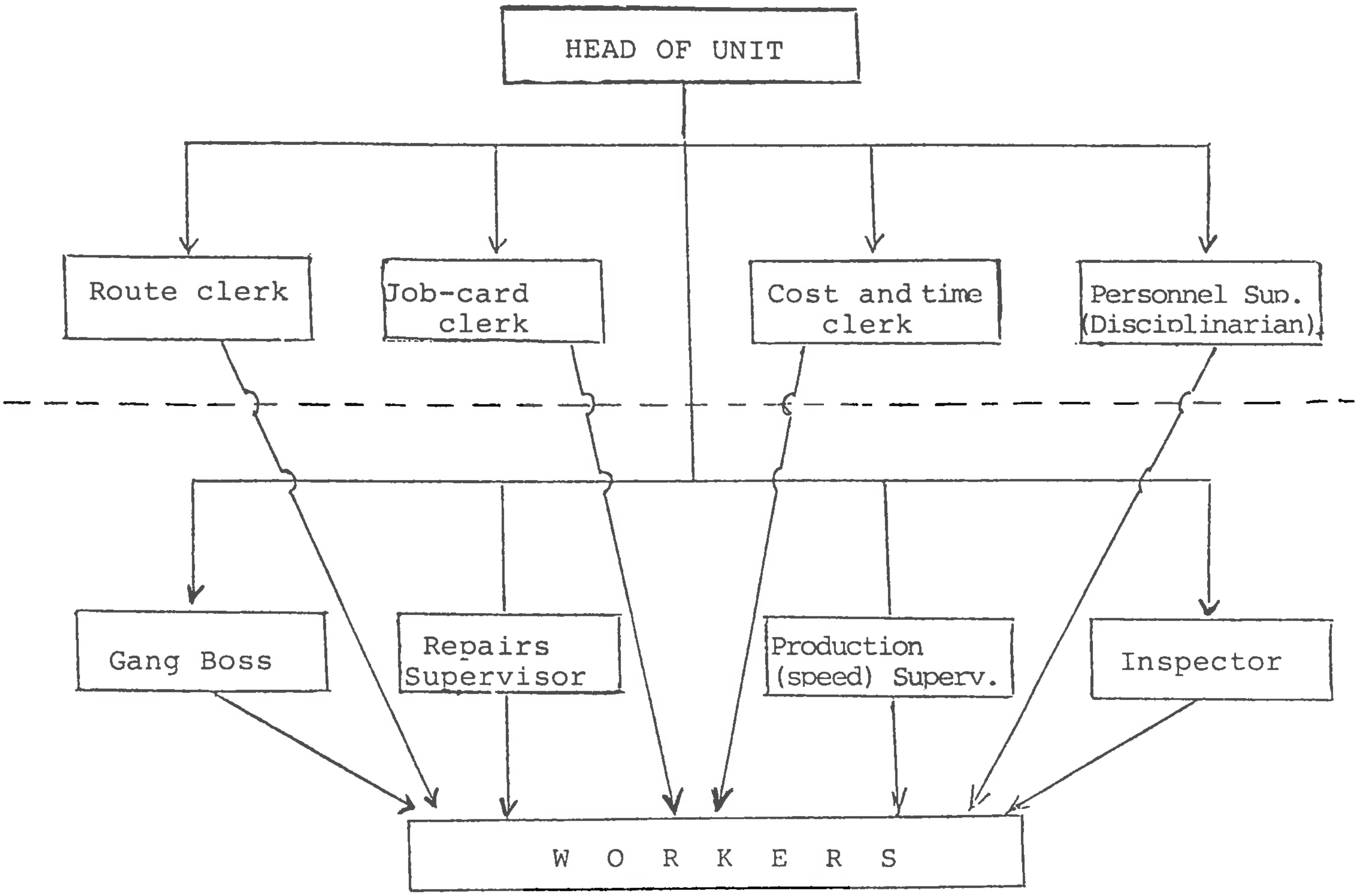


Figure 1.2 TAYLOR'S FUNCTIONAL ORGANIZATION

Each worker has several bosses. While this principle is occasionally practiced at higher levels in modern organizations, it has not survived at the factory level, for two important reasons. It is difficult for a worker to be responsible to more than one boss. It is also difficult for the functional foremen to co-ordinate their activities and to avoid conflicts at a common level of authority.

In modern practice, several of the functional supervisors/foremen have been replaced by staff/personnel, which may possess that modified type of authority termed "staff" authority. Such staff authority is seldom directed to the worker in the ranks. Rather, it is directed to the foreman. To the worker, the foreman should be management's sole representative. The production foreman, similar to Taylor's "speed" or gang boss, is the lowest-ranking line executive.

A modern staff, which is approximately parallel to functional foremanship, includes: production control (order of work or routing and job cards); time clerk and cost accounting (time and cost); inspection or quality control; maintenance (repair); and personnel (disciplinarian).

Taylor's lasting contribution was not the peculiar structure of his organization, but his emphasis on functional division of labour and on a high degree of specialization - two principles now widely employed. The modern practice of staff authority, in co-ordinating and controlling staffs, may approximate the direct authority of Taylor's functional foreman, but at higher levels of command.

1.3.4 Committees

In industry, a committee is a group of individuals which meets on certain occasions to discuss problems or projects within its area of assigned responsibility in order to arrive at recommendations or decisions. The committee may have a temporary or permanent assignment. If permanent, the group is known as a standing committee. The committee may meet at regular or irregular intervals. Its members may have other full-time responsibilities and different degrees of rank outside the committee. Within the committee, each member should act as a leader and organizer rather than as a supervisor of the group.

The most common type of committee in industry has advisory functions. It reviews the situation or facts under consideration and makes recommendations based on its combined opinion. The use of such committees can apply to practically any phase of company interest at any level of the organization, from top management to a worker's group.

Policy formulation, evaluation of employee suggestions, production programmes, approval of product lines, quality standards, working hours, wage and salary standards and social events are examples of committee responsibilities.

In the functional sense, such committees are considered part-time staff. But their composition and operating methods are different from most staffs. Committees may have staff assistance in performing their proper functions. Also, important standing committees often have full-time staff personnel which report directly to them. It is also possible that a committee may become so continuously active that a staff department may be set up after certain period of time to replace the committee.

There are three chief advantages to be gained by employment of committees.

1. The combined experience and judgement of several persons replace or supplement that of a single individual.

2. Opportunity is presented for representation of divergent interests in reaching a decision.

3. A co-operative spirit on the part of committee members is developed by opportunity in exchange of viewpoints and participation in decisions. This does much to facilitate the execution of such decisions.

The use of committees has limitations and some disadvantages. These may be summed-up as follows:

a) Committee meetings are time consuming. Members may be drawn away from more urgent responsibilities.

b) Committees may delay actions which could be more promptly dictated by a single responsible executive.

c) Decisions may be inferior due to the division of responsibility among several persons.

Deficiencies in committee practice can be reduced by restricting committee activities to issues or problems of definite import. Clear definition of committee responsibility and the careful selection of members (limiting the number for efficiency), will improve committee practice. An able chairman and fixed responsibility to take final decisions for the executive to whom the committee reports its recommendations, will enhance a committee's work.

There are committees which do more than advise. They direct action. The board of directors of a corporation is such an example. Its decisions are mandatory to company officials and management. In some large and complex enterprises, an executive board (a committee) may take the place of a single chief executive in directing the organization. The nominal chief executive is the chairman of the board.

Some high-ranking committees, such as the finance committee, may theoretically have advisory functions, but their recommendations are mandatory in effect because of the high standing and authority of the membership. In general, a committee with such authority is rather exceptional. Most committees are advisory only, and responsibility for action is vested in the executive or group to whom the committee reports.

1.4 Relationships Between Organization Units

Let us at this point determine and define the principles of relationship between units of an organization. The relationship between important individual units cannot be clearly understood until their activities have been described. First, there is the problem of co-ordination, which means the planning of work and assignment of responsibilities in such a way that the component parts can function in harmony. There is also the problem of control - seeing to it that the mechanism actually operates according to plan. This co-ordination and control is effected through the lines of authority and responsibility which weave the various elements of the organization into a unified network. These same "lines" are the formal paths of two-way communications between superior and subordinate units, or those otherwise associated.

Authority, in this discussion, means the right to direct or command. Responsibility means assumption (or acceptance) of the obligation for performance. Authority is directed to subordinates responsible for work. The subordinate is responsible to the superior who directs his action. Thus, the lines of authority and responsibility are coincidental but opposite in direction.

In an organization, the lines of authority and responsibility may be likened to a stream and its tributaries. Authority reaches to each elementary branch, and there must be an unbroken series of connections between the supreme commander and each worker in the lowest ranks of the factory, office or sales force. In the line and staff organization, such connecting links may be termed direct authority and, through this linkage, each superior has control over his subordinates. Each subordinate is responsible to an immediate superior who in turn must respond to a higher executive and so on. No executive should be responsible for the performance of subordinates without having authority over them.

There may also be connecting links between our figurative tributaries - channels which effect short cuts in communications. By means of these short cuts, a staff may have some degree of authority over other units of the organization. This staff authority, often a difficult problem in management, has some limiting characteristics which merit explanation.

1.4.1 Staff Authority

No advisory or service staff has any degree of authority over any unit of the organization which it assists. On the other hand, the assisted unit or the executive to whom the staff is responsible may make demands upon the staff.

In the case of the co-ordinating staff, however, authority may be delegated to the staff to direct the actions of other units or individuals in the organization. The situation is essentially as follows: A superior executive has authority over staff and other units in his/her command. That executive may desire that a particular staff act on his/her behalf with regard to certain elements of co-ordination or planning, and control. The executive will, therefore, delegate authority to the staff to issue appropriate directions to the other subordinate units.

This form of delegated authority may be termed staff authority. It is also known as functional authority because its scope is defined by the functional specialty of the staff. In addition to the functional restriction, staff authority is customarily limited or lacking in power of enforcement. Enforcement should be the prerogative of the executive to whom the subordinate is directly responsible. Let us consider an example: Typical staff authority may be exercised by the production control staff of many manufacturing organizations. The production control staff issues manufacturing orders, procedure instructions, and schedules to production departments with the reasonable expectation that these directions will be carried out. The enforcement limitation appears when the production foreman takes exception to the directions. If the difference cannot be adjusted by negotiation between the foreman and the staff, the foreman may make a decision using his/her judgement (at his own risk), or may appeal to his/her direct superior for revised instructions. Staff authority usually carries considerable weight, but it is inferior to the direct authority from an executive to his subordinates. This relationship must not be confused with the functional organization proposed by Taylor.

1.4.2 Decentralization

Decentralization is a condition in which elements of an enterprise are independently conducted. Product and regional divisions, previously described, represent decentralization to the extent of their independence in management and of internal functions. The ultimate in decentralization is the division that is entirely responsible for its own line of products, maintains its own plant or plants, and has complete autonomy (except for profit-making) and is reponsible only to the top command.

Centralized control is largely financial, and a considerable degree of decentralization as to plant and product is practiced by many organizations of substantial size and diversity.

Let us consider the effects of decentralization on organization structure. Line and staff principles still apply. Decentralized divisions incorporate main branches of the line, and within these subsidiary lines, staffs and various committees may be employed. One organizational feature that serves in maintaining the tie with the higher command and also aids the divisions in matters of common interest is the general staff and committees with high rank of authority.

General staffs are centralized with company-wide, but functionally specialised, responsibilities. They report to a top executive, the president perhaps. Functions are varied. They may develop plans, methods and other changes for the divisions. They may purchase material used by several divisions for quantity price advantage. Financing and allocation of resources would be a central staff function. Basic research, which would not be practical for a single division, is a typical general staff activity.

The enterprise's general staff can possess the staff authority previously described, thereby limiting the independence of the decentralized division. The authority of the company treasurer and comptroller is an example. More often, their functions are limited to advice and service. With or without authority, they maintain close communication with the divisional staffs concerned with the common areas of interest.

Committees of the directing and policy-making types serve as means for co-ordination and control of decentralized enterprises. Advisory committees at the top level can also be of service to the divisions. The central committees can be manned by general executives and divisional representatives. These bodies and their sub-committees may have members from the remotest parts of the enterprise.

The advantages of product and regional divisions were previously mentioned. Let us summarize these considerations as applied to decentralization in general:

> Diverse areas of company interest can be more readily appraised. Sources of profit and loss and needs for improvement can be more accurately located.
>
> There can be strategic advantages in location (nearness to markets, materials and labour supply), plants of more manageable size, and reduction of risk otherwise occasioned by dependence on one organization or plant.
>
> Delegation of authority to local managers takes advantage of their superior knowledge of local conditions and promotes prompt action on local problems.
>
> The greater delegation of authority to division heads enables the general executives to devote more time and talent to company-wide interests.
>
> A pool of talent for higher command is developed by the type of responsibility required in directing a decentralized division.

The trend toward decentralized management of regional operations has been modified recently by availability of electronic computer systems that make centralized controls more immediate and practical. With the aid of coded communications by wire or cable, operating routines can be handled promptly by central offices or divisions.

1.5 Size of Organization Units and Span of Supervision

Two important factors which characterize an organizational structure are: (1) the number of persons which comprise each basic organizational unit and (2) the number of individuals or groups under the direct supervision of each superior executive. Obviously, these two factors are related. Each group has its supervisor and each of these supervisors is directed by a superior. The number of persons under the direct command of a supervisor or executive is said to represent the span of supervision or span of control.

When groups are large in size and when each higher executive is called upon to direct a large number of subordinates, the number of supervising personnel is correspondingly few. Also, the number of executive levels or ranks is reduced. And individuals of lowest rank are in relatively close contact with the top command.

When groups are small and the span of supervision is limited to relatively few subordinates, it is apparent that executive personnel and levels of rank are correspondingly increased. The rank-and-file employees are then far removed from the chief executive. It is also possible that interrelationships within the organization may become more complex as the number of groups or departments are increased.

Size of units and span of supervision are basic organization problems. The principal considerations are economy in the use of personnel, equipment and space; efficiency in operations and effective control. These considerations are interrelated. The demands of specialisation or control may, for example, offset impairment of economy in use of machine time or floor space. Decreasing the span of supervision to improve control may increase the aggregate cost of executive salaries. Therefore, these factors must be considered together to appraise the overall result.

Economy of manpower is one of the first considerations of management. Each person, at any level of rank, must be fully occupied during the time for which he/she is paid. In small organizations one person often assumes responsibilities which would be divided among several individuals in larger concerns. If the work-load and personal qualifications permit, one executive in a small company may handle several dissimilar functions such as financing, purchasing and personnel relations. It is common practice for the foremen in many smaller shops to assume miscellaneous responsibilities which include what would constitute staff assignments in concerns large enough to warrant additional workers. Here we have simple economic considerations opposed to the well-recognised advantages of specialization. We cannot create separate small-size organization units - perhaps run by only one person - unless the duties of its members are great enough to keep them busy. Committee work, being a part-time responsibility, can often substitute for advisory staff work when the problem is not large or continuous enough to keep a staff occupied.

Because the multiplication of organization units may mean duplication of equipment (which in turn means increase of idle machine time and increase in floor space per unit of output), economy with respect to equipment and space demand the limitation of such units. However, such economy may be more than offset by gains in overall efficiency and control resulting from smaller and more specialized groups.

Full use of staff and facilities are not the only factors which affect the overall efficiency of an operating unit. The proximate location of related operations may be necessary to reduce transportation time and space, as in an assembly line. And this often involves duplication of equipment used somewhere else in the plant. Specialization, which may justify a separate organization unit of diminutive size (perhaps run by one person), is also important. Common examples of these one-person units are: a legal adviser, a public relations person, a researcher engineer and an export manager. Note that a true specialist, such as a single welder in an assembly line, may be inseparable from some larger group which must operate as a unit. But in general, specialization may require the establishment of an organization unit, large or small - a fact indicated in our discussion of functional and product divisions.

1.5.1 Control

Control - seeing to it that plans and policies are carried out - is a basic function of management. Its application to the problem of unit size and span of supervision involves the answer to this important question: How many subordinates can the supervisor direct efficiently while maintaining control over their operations? Some key factors are the capacity of the subordinates for unsupervised effort, the type of work undertaken, and the physical area to be covered. Also to be taken into consideration are any additional duties, such as policy making and planning, which the executive may be required to perform.

Too many workers under one supervisor means loss of adequate control. On the other hand, too many supervisors are a costly extravagance. Moreover, they create too many levels of authority between the lower and upper ranks, thereby complicating the organization and increasing the difficulty of communication and understanding between management and workers.

An example of management's concern with the problem of unit size is an organization study directed by a new chief executive of a large oil-producing firm a few years ago. The study revealed that field executives supervised as many as thirty sales representatives. Convinced that lack of control was responsible for inadequate sales, company heads reorganized the field force so that the maximum number of salespersons under one field executive was thirteen. Sales markedly improved because of this and other changes.

In some production and clerical operations, organization units may contain as many as thirty or more members. But in working groups of that size, adequate supervision and control usually require breakdown into subgroups which are led by group supervisors ("straw bosses") who work along with employees. At an organization's upper levels, the burden of policy making, planning, committee work, contacts with associates and outsiders and similar responsibilities preclude the direction of many subordinates by one person. A general manager (at the top of the operating organization) may have as few as three or four division heads reporting to him. On the other hand, several executive assistants may be designated to assume part of the supervisory responsibility.

The optimum span of control - the number of subordinates which can be successfully directed by a supervisor - has been investigated by many students of management. One researcher pointed out that relationships between supervisor and subordinates became burdensome as the number of subordinates increased. The results of these increases are as follows: The manager who has two subordinates will supervise them separately and will be concerned about the relationship between the two. Hence, three supervising responsibilities automatically developed. Similar calculations show six relationships for three subordinates, fifteen for five subordinates, twenty-eight for seven, and so on.

Actually, the burden of supervision is not so easily calculated. The importance of, and time requirement for each directing relationship varies with conditions - the type of work, the capacity of subordinates for unsupervised effort, and the extent of their responsibilities for communication and co-ordination with each other. And the responsibilities of the executive in addition to that of supervision obviously affect the portion of time and effort which can be devoted to direction of subordinates. In theory, it could be assumed that five subordinates (fifteen supervisory relationships) would represent the optimum span of supervision for higher executives. In practice, there are often more than five subordinates and, in some organizations, less than five because of situations that vary as described above. Excluding staff assistants and committees, the span of supervision in top management can be between three and eight, even though in some cases, eight would be definitely too great. A gang boss may, on the other hand, be able to supervise up to twenty persons effectively, because the tasks may be routine and repetitive.

1.6 The Organizational Chart

An organizational chart is a diagram which shows the structure of an organization. If the concern is a large one, it is usually impractical to show all the organizational units in one diagram. A skeleton chart can be drawn to include the major divisions and departments, and the structure of these major units can be described by subordinate charts.

Before we examine a number of typical charts, let us consider the devices which make the charts easier to understand.

Lines of direct authority from supervisor to subordinate must be clearlv indicated. In common practice, these extend from the top down in a vertical chart, or from left to right in a horizontal chart. In all cases, it is important to trace the line of reponsibility from unit of lowest rank to the top through the various executive levels.

Staff authority can be indicated by a dotted line, which will distinguish it from "direct authority". The same device can be used to indicate other relationships between organization units (such as advisory or physical services). In either case, the convention should be defined in the chart by the chart designer.

Departments or job should be clearly labelled. The titles can be framed by rectangles so that connecting lines will be clearly defined. Names of individuals are often included with job titles, but their omission obviates the necessity for continuous chart revision in the event of frequent personnel changes.

The interpretation of organization charts is usually a fairly simple matter, but it does not really define the responsibilities of the individuals and groups. Many well-managed concerns supplement their charts with carefully prepared job descriptions, which may cover all positions within the company. Job descriptions are written definitions of the job that is to be performed. The job descriptions included in an organization manual are useful to key personnel in defining their activities. They are also used for job evaluation and the rating of individuals.

Organization structure as described by the charts and job specifications should be flexible in use and subject to revision. The chart is the means to an end, not the end in itself. It should be adapted to the changing functional and economic needs of the enterprise and to the qualifications of available personnel. With these limitations, organization charts and job descriptions are very useful tools of management. They clarify relationships, help to co-ordinate operations, and serve as guides for future development.

2.1 Overlays

The formal structure of an organization represents as closely as possible the deliberate intention of its framers for the processes of interaction that will take place among its members. In the typical work organization this takes the form of a definition of task specialities, and their arrangement in levels of authority with clearly defined lines of communication running from one level to the next. (See figure 2.1)

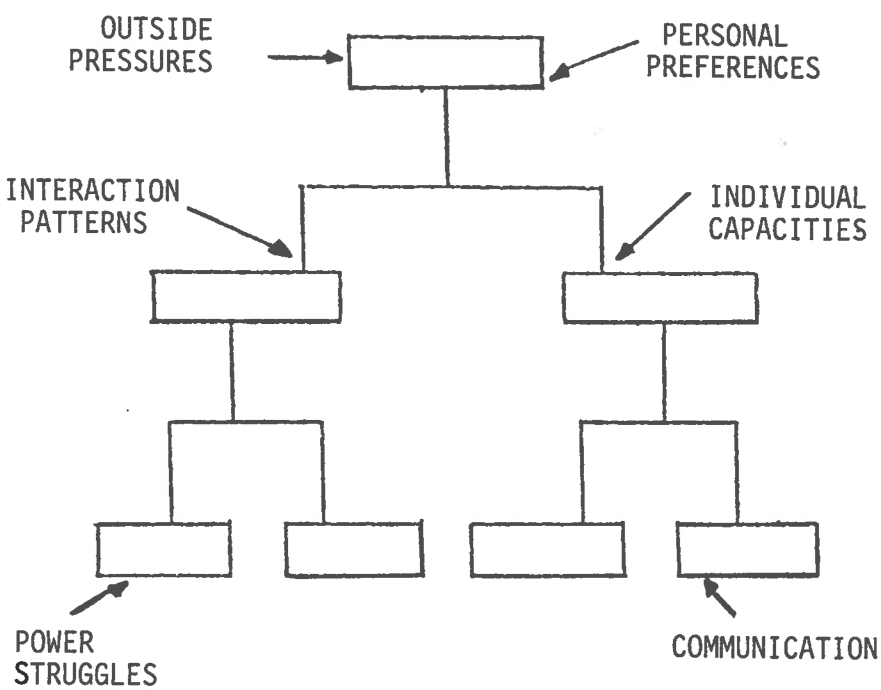


FIG. 2.1 The typical job pyramid of authority and some of its informal interacting processes.

It must be recognised, however, that the actual processes of interaction among the individuals represented in the formal plan cannot adequately be described solely in terms of the planned lines of interaction. Coexisting with the formal structure are a myriad of interacting lines for persons within the organization; these can be analysed according to various theories of group behaviour, but it must not be forgotten that in reality they never function so distinctively, and all are intermixed together in an organization which also follows, to a large extent, its formal structure.

These modifying processes must be studied one at a time. A good way to do so without forgetting their "togetherness" is to consider each as a transparent "overlay" pattern superimposed on the basic formal organizational pattern.

The totality of these overlays might be so complex as to be nearly opaque, but it will still be a closer approach to reality than the bare organization chart so typically used to illustrate group structure.

Five such overlay patterns will be considered here; many more might be chosen from the kind of studies that have been made, but these will be considered basic:

- The sociometric network - social milieu
- The system of functional contacts
- The grid of decision-making centres
- The pattern of power
- Channels of communication

These processes or overlays upon the conventional job-task pyramid does not require that the latter take a subordinate position, although much of the research in organization might give this impression. The overlay approach aims to be realistic in recognising that organization also consists of a wide variety of contacts that involve communication, sociometry, goal-centered functionalism, decision-making and personal power. Let us consider this complex of processes one at a time.

2.2 The Job-Task Pyramid

The job-task pyramid constitutes the basis from which all departures are measured. It is the official version of the organization as the people inside see it. It would be correct to say that in most production organizations today, whether private or public, this official version of the organization-as-it-should-be reflects the view of those in the top echelons of the job-task pyramid. The actual operating organization may differ in some respects from the formal organization; this difference can be expressed by showing the manner in which the other networks vary from the job-task hierarchy.

2.2.1 Job-task hierarchy as foundation

Variations of the other networks from the job-task hierarchy should not be taken as an indication that the latter is being undermined or has no acceptance in the organization. It is well recognised in practice that there is an operating organization that varies from the chart with the full knowledge of those in authority.

Day-to-day and hour-to-hour adjustments must be made, and there is no need to revise the chart for each of these. Nevertheless, the job-task hierarchy, as depicted by the organization manual, does set forth the grid of official authority as viewed by those in the organization. Without it the other networks would simply not exist.

2.3 The Sociometric Overlay (See figure 2.2)

In any organization there is a set of relationships among people which is purely social in nature; it exists because of a net feeling of attraction or rejection. This pattern of person-to-person contacts is called sociometric pattern.

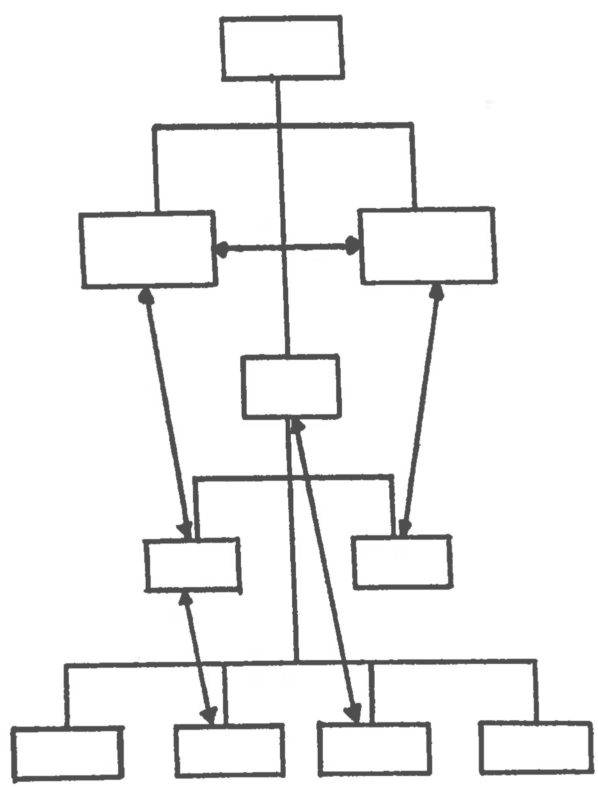


FIG. 2.2 Social overlay - the special friendships or preferences for association and personal contracts in the organisation.

Some investigators feel that individual attitudes lend themselves to sociometric measurement and include many of the following:

- The prescribed relations, which are identical with the official or formal organization.

- The perceived relations, which consist of people's interpretation of the meaning of the official network.

- Actual relationships are those interactions which in fact take place among persons.

- The desired relations, or people's preferences regarding interactions they want with other persons.

- The rejected, or unwanted relationships will other people.

However, the last two categories are the relations that are primarily sociological in nature, and are those that will be considered in the sociometric sphere. Desired and rejected relationships are fairly easy to ascertain with statistical reliability, and are found to be significantly related to other issues in the organization.

2.4 <u>The Functional Overlay</u> (See figure 2.3)

Within the organization there is a network of functional contacts that is important and yet different from the formal authority structure. Functional contacts occur most typically where specialized information is needed. Through them, the staff or other specialists, such as intellectual "leaders", exert their influence upon operations without directing responsibility for the work itself. Very often, for instance, the individual is advised that the personnel manager's approval is necessary before a certain action is taken; or that personal representation to financial controls is necessary before certain projects can be approved.

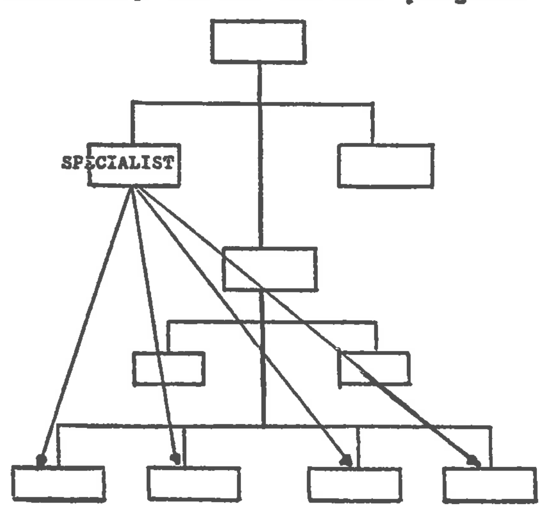


FIG. 2.3 Functional overlay - the direct relationships between the specialist assistant and the operating department.

It is true that most organizations exhibit a system of functional supervision. Many charts of formal authority structures also show functional contacts through such devices as broken connecting lines.

2.5 The Decision Overlay (See figure 2.4)

Some organizations maintain that the best way to analyse an organization is to find out where the decisions are made and by whom.

It can perhaps be assumed that normally in an organization the decision pattern follows the structure of the formal hierarchy - that is, the job-task pyramid. However, the power and authority network, together with the functional network, may cut across hierarchical channels. It is in this sense that they take on the configuration of a grid or network. Thus the network pattern of approach is helpful, not in undermining the concept of hierarchy but in conveying the picture of actual practice. It modifies the harsh overtones of hierarchy by pointing out that in actuality, organizations do permit a great many cross-contacts.

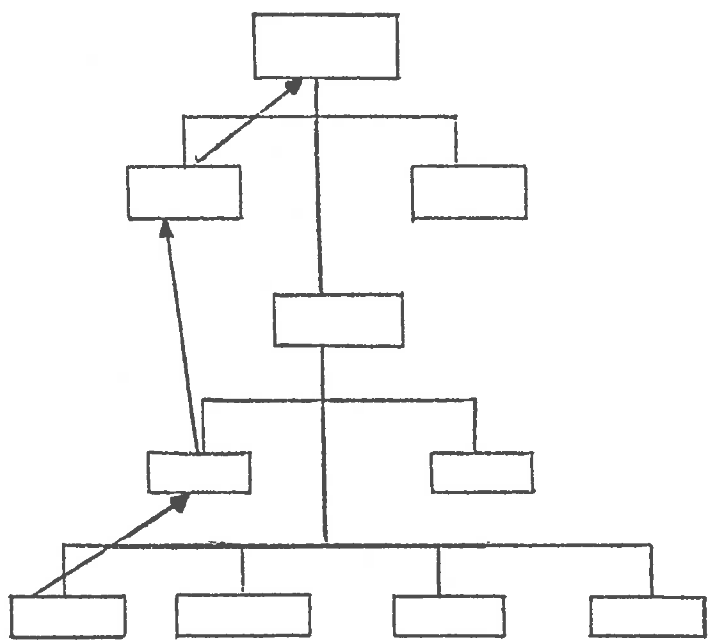


FIG. 2.4. Decision overlay - flow of significant decisions in the organisations.

2.5.1 Network of Influence

It might be more correct to say that there is a network of influence, not a network of decision. This, of course, depends upon one's definition of decision-making and if one insists upon there being a clear cut choice between alternatives by a person in authority. If that is the case, then decision-making usually follows clear hierarchical paths and channels.

However, if we think in terms of a decision-making process rather than a decision statement, a "network" of influence is a more appropriate description of what actually occurs. In other words, the source issuing the "decision - statement" may have been subjected to various influences which in fact form the real source of the decision.

2.6 The power overlay (See figure 2.5)

Any discussion of power as a factor in organizational dynamics will quickly encounter difficulties of definition and terminology. Many problems arise from a confusion of the terms power and authority. They are not necessarily synonymous; yet there has been a tendency to look at the organizational chart, note the various status levels, and to assume that power increases as one rises in the pyramid. Much of this attitude is based on old concepts of authority as they are found in jurisprudence. Within this framework there is an assumption that a rule laid down by a political superior who is ultimately sovereign can be enforced by the imposition of sanctions. Translated into the terminology of management institutions, this means that authority, and hence power, rests with those at the top echelons of the job-task pyramid.

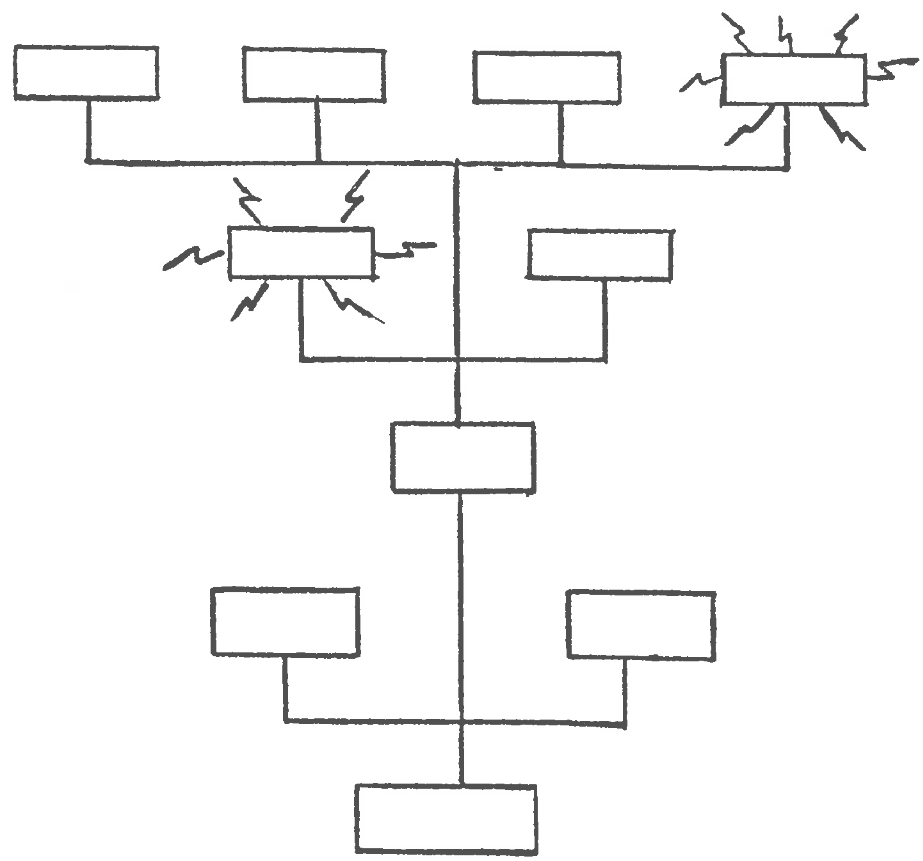


FIG. 2.5. Power overlay - centers of power in the organisation.

2.6.1 However, power is no longer viewed as synonymous with authority. There has been a considerable rebellion against this narrow view of the power factor in organizational environment. Almost everyone who has had any experience in a management institution has encountered a situation where the boss' secretary, or his assistant, or the executive officer, is the "person to see".

For a great variety of reasons, these people may be effective decision-makers in a specific situation. Thus, power is really personal and political and it may or may not be legitimate in that it has been authorized by formal law or has achieved hierarchical legitimization. In a person-to-person relationship, power exists when one has the ability to influence another to behave in a particular way or to make decisions. As a result, the mapping of power centers would seldom follow the pattern of a typical hierarchy.

2.7 <u>The communication overlay</u> (See figure 2.6)

Perhaps nowhere is the inter-relationship of the various overlays more clearly to be seen than in communication. As will be observed at countless points in literature on organization, the information process is central to organizational system. It affects control and decision-making, influence and power, interpersonal relationships and leadership, to name only a few. This consists not only of the technical information apparatus, but also of the human nervous system of the people who make up the organization.

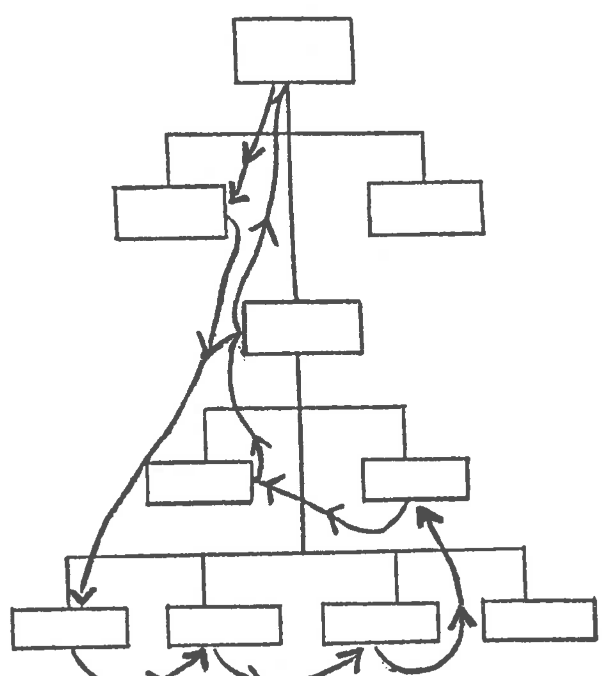


FIG. 2.6. Communications overlay - the route of telephone calls on a particular matter. ("If we had to go through channels, we never would get anything done around here!")

It is important to recognize that communication is itself a clearly identifiable facet of behaviour. A consultant who begins all initial studies on the shop floor, plotting the lines of actual communication, can sometimes build a more accurate organization chart than the one that hangs on the wall in the president's office.

Such a chart is, of course, one of communication. And it may tell a great deal more about how life is really lived in an organization than the formal picture sometimes painted by the authorities. Thus, an important and useful means of taking a look at an organization is to ask the question, "who talks to whom about what?"

Answers to the question will often reveal that patterns of communication are at variance with official prescriptions. Furthermore, there have been enough experiments with small groups to give great strength to the proposition that "the mere existence of a hierarchy sets up restraints against communication between levels". It has been pointed out that factory production reports on productivity are sometimes rigged in order to give higher echelons the type of information which will make them happy. Such blockages and distortions are certainly frequent enough to force us to recognise that the communications overlay represents an important dimension of organization analysis.

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