**Candidate Support Pack**

# Managing People

**F5GF 35**

## Publishing information

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# Contents

# Introduction

## About this pack

Welcome to this candidate support pack. It has been designed to enable you to meet the requirements of the Managing People Unit (F5GF 35).

By undertaking this Unit, you will become familiar with the relevant concepts of managing people. The emphasis will be on applying these ideas to your own work as a manager. You will be encouraged to relate theories, techniques and approaches to your own experience, to consider how they can be used to improve the quality of managerial interventions and to reflect on incidents and actions which have been undertaken. You will be encouraged to take a flexible, non-dogmatic approach to managing people, recognising that in any situation a number of courses of action might be available, with no one best option. You will be encouraged to compare various options and relate them to theoretical approaches and to their relevance to particular situations and the role and responsibilities of managers.

By undertaking this Unit and completing it successfully you should be able to:

- analyse the role and responsibilities of managers
- propose action to maintain and improve the performance of people at work
- advise on the management of teams
- evaluate processes for the recruitment and selection of people.

## How this pack is organised

This is an open learning pack — one that you can study on your own or with tutorial support. In this introduction there is an explanation of how this pack is organised and a description of the Unit.

The main part of the pack contains study notes covering all of the topics in the Unit. At intervals in the text there are various kinds of activities, which have the following purposes:

- to enable you to review your learning
- to prepare you for assessment
- to help you apply your learning in your organisation.

## Symbols used in the pack

As you work through the pack you will encounter symbols which indicate that something follows which you are expected to do. You will be asked to undertake Self Assessed Questions (SAQs) and Activities.

### Self Assessed Questions

? SAQ

This symbol is used to indicate a question that is being asked to check your understanding of the material that you have already covered in the pack. It is a self-contained assessment — that is, everything is provided within the pack to enable you to check your understanding of the materials.

This is the process:

When you come across an SAQ you respond either by writing in the space provided or in your personal notes. You should always attempt SAQs before reading the suggested answer, even if you are having difficulty in formulating a response. You will learn more from doing this than you will from merely skipping the SAQ and reading the suggested answers.

After completing your response, check against the suggested answers at the back of the pack.

### Activities

These symbols indicate a task that you will be asked to undertake to improve or consolidate your understanding of the subject in general, or a particular feature of it.

indicates that you should undertake an Activity

Remember that the SAQs and Activities contained within this publication are intended to allow you to check your understanding and monitor your own progress throughout the Unit. You will understand that to obtain maximum benefit, the answers to SAQs and Activities should only be checked out after the SAQ or Activity has been completed. The answers are at the back of this pack.

## Open learning and using this pack

If you are studying this Unit on an open learning basis you might want to take advantage of opportunities for:

- getting together with other people who are studying the same Unit
- finding a mentor with whom you can talk through your work
- obtaining tutorial support.

This Unit is designed to help you to be an effective manager. Literally all recent research into management and organisations has shown that organisations are in a period of constant change, with a growing need for greater organisational flexibility. Globalisation has also created a much wider environmental setting and it is within that context that managers must now demonstrate effective management of people and other resources.

### Outcomes

There are four outcomes in this Unit:

1. Analyse the role and responsibilities of managers.
2. Propose action to maintain and improve the performance of people at work.
3. Advise on the management of teams.
4. Evaluate processes for the recruitment and selection of people.

## Recommended prior knowledge and skills

You should have a good working knowledge of general procedures gained through experience of working as a manager.

You should have good communication, analytical and diagnostic skills which could be demonstrated by successful completion of management Units at SCQF Level 7 such as Manage Operational Resources or Management: Self Management Skills.

### Core Skills

There are opportunities to develop the Core Skills of Problem Solving, Communication and Working with Others at SCQF Level 6 in this Unit, although there is no automatic certification of Core Skills or Core Skills components.

### Resources

*Required resources*

You will certainly require access to human resource management and management textbooks for this Unit. There are many suitable textbooks available and some of them are listed in the Bibliography at the end of this pack. It might be possible to find these texts in the reference section of your local library or college library. Access to the internet will also provide a very large resource for articles on the subject matter of the Unit and again, several useful websites are included in the Bibliography at the end of this pack.

## How Units are assessed

The Unit will be assessed holistically by means of a report on aspects of managing people in an organisational environment. You will be expected to demonstrate that you can apply relevant concepts to situations which you could face as a manager. You are also expected to suggest, justify and evaluate possible courses of action which managers could take to deal with challenges that they face. A report could be supplemented by oral questions to ensure that all aspects of the evidence requirements are fully met.

# Introduction to the study sessions

For many years the 'role' of the manager was seen as embodied in the 'Classical School' of management theory. This is a particular approach which will be a starting point for the Study notes for Outcome 1. For many reasons it became apparent that the role of a manager is much wider and more diverse than was perhaps first apparent. It also became clear that 'people' who had been regarded simply as a resource of organisation could not in fact be treated in a 'mechanistic' way. Many writers on management topics and organisations argued that the latter were 'social devices' and attained their objectives through 'group' means. Equally it became clear that the 'external environment' plays a very large part in influencing organisations. It therefore became obvious that managers needed to have the skills necessary to enable them to get the best out of the people they were responsible for. Sometimes referred to as the 'soft skills' these include factors such as motivating staff, developing staff, encouraging them and understanding how for example, personal attributes such as attitudes can be changed. Managers today are not judged just on their own performance but on the results attained by those people for whom they are responsible.

In summary therefore, after setting the scene in Outcome 1 you will study the mainly softer skills of improving the performance of people at work, giving advice on how to manage teams and evaluating the processes for recruiting and selecting staff.

# Study notes for Outcome 1

### Outcome 1: Analyse the role and responsibilities of managers

**Knowledge and/or Skills**

- Nature of managerial work
- Responsibilities of managers
- Managerial attitudes
- Legislative responsibilities

## Setting the scene

The first real research into the role of management took place in the last quarter of the nineteenth century. The main proponents of this approach, 'The Scientific Management Approach' were F.W. Taylor (1911) and his disciples. It was an engineering approach and viewed workers as adjuncts to machines. This has become known as the 'mechanistic' approach. Taylor set forth the new duties of management as:

- develop a science for each person's work that replaces the old rule-of-thumb method
- scientifically select and then train, teach and develop the workers
- co-operate with the workers to ensure that all the work will be done in accordance with scientific principles
- divide responsibility between management and workers. Management takes over all functions for which they are better fitted than the workers.

This approach demanded a much more systematic format for management in which managers planned, organised and controlled task performance. Workers lost all discretion in these processes and were rewarded for performance in the pay packet only. Motivation was purely economic or financial.

The scientific management approach fell into disrepute with the advent of World War 1. The use of women in factories saw the first welfare associations set up to consider the roles people played in the mass production methods being established. These welfare associations provided the basis from which personnel management and human resource derived.

Although it was harshly criticised, there is no doubt that scientific management was hugely influential in the history of management development and thought. Although later research has modified and added to the principles proposed by Taylor and his associates, we can still see them working today in the way in which managers operate and behave. For example, there are the techniques of work study, critical path or network analysis, time and motion study and organisation and methods. We can still see the influences too in human resource management, in the need to recruit and select staff effectively as well as train and develop them.

The next phase of research into management has become known as the Traditional or Classical Theory of Management. The main exponent of this theory was a French mining engineer, Henry Fayol, whose major work was published in 1916, then later translated into English in 1949.

Two American theorists on management, March and Simon (1958) refer to the classical management approach as being better defined as Administrative Management Theory. Many of the concepts of Scientific Management theory were also thought to be similar to Max Weber's Bureaucratic Model of management, formulated in the early twentieth century (Weber 1964).

The Classical Theory and Fayol will be dealt with later and in greater depth.

The next stage of research has become known as the Human Relations Approach or School and is derived from the work of Elton Mayo and his associates at the Western Electric Company in the USA in the 1920s and 1930s. The major results of this work were to force management to understand how work groups could establish social norms in addition to output standards, which meant that production could be more determined by those norms than by the factors set by management.

Equally important was the understanding of the part played by unofficial work groups and leaders and the need to pay attention to the informal organisation.

The Contingency Approach is derived from the Systems Approach which probably began with the military in World War 1. Today the Contingency Approach is sometimes termed the Situational Approach to help managers understand that each situation they find themselves in could require different strategies and that there is no one best way to manage.

## Nature of managerial work

As indicated earlier one of the earliest analyses of management was that of Henri Fayol (1949), a French mining engineer who, after many years as a manager at a senior level wrote an article that is still widely regarded as defining the views of the Classical Management School.

Fayol suggested that there were five elements of management. They were:

- planning — examining the future, deciding what needs to be achieved and then developing action plans
- organising — providing the material and human resources and building the structure to carry out the activities of the organisation
- command — maintaining activity among personnel, getting the best return from every employee in the interests of the whole organisation
- co-ordination — unifying and harmonising all activities and efforts of the organisation to facilitate work and therefore success
- control — verifying that everything occurs in accordance with plans, instruction-established principles and expressed command.

Fayol then produced what he termed his fourteen principles of management. Urwick (1952) — one of the leading authorities in the UK who was writing a little later than Fayol, but was still regarded as a major member of the Classical school — suggested that there were ten major principles of management. These were:

1 Objectives
2 Specialisation
3 Co-ordination
4 Authority
5 Responsibility
6 Definition
7 Correspondence
8 Span of control
9 Balance
10 Continuity.

Definition and correspondence are the only two of these that might need to be explained further.

Definition means that duties, responsibilities, authority and relationships require to be clearly defined in writing. Correspondence means that in every position responsibility for that post should correspond with the authority attached to it.

Brech, yet another UK authority, revisiting Fayol's work in (1975) suggested that there were actually four main elements of management. These are:

- planning — determining the broad lines for carrying out operations, preparing methods by which they are carried out and setting standards of performance
- control — checking actual performance against standards. Checking progress and recording results to guide future operations
- co-ordination — balancing and maintaining the team by ensuring a suitable division of work. Ensuring that tasks are performed in harmony
- motivation — inspiring morale. Get employees and teams to work effectively. Giving loyalty to groups and the task. Supervision and leadership to ensure teams and individuals are carrying out tasks properly.

Later, human relation school writers added the elements of leadership, communicating, motivation and problem solving. Additionally they felt that Fayol's 'command' element was too strong and they believed that decision making was a more appropriate term.

## Activity 1

Which elements of management mentioned so far will, in your view, apply to managers in the organisation that you work in? If you are not currently working in an organisation, choose one that you are familiar with.

## SAQ 1

?

Which do you think are the most important elements of management?

Essentially, then, the purpose of the first part of Outcome 1 is to suggest that the major differences between managerial work and other forms of work is that managers spend most of their time deciding the nature of work to be undertaken by others, planning and organising their work, issuing instructions, giving advice and checking on their performances.

## Managerial roles

Many of the most influential writers on management suggest that what managers do can best be described in terms of various roles or organised sets of behaviour associated with a particular position. Prominent among these writers is Mintzberg (1973), who, after studying a group of managers suggested that management activities are encapsulated in ten managerial roles, divided into three groups. These groups are given below:

**Formal authority and status**

**Interpersonal roles**
Figurehead
Leader
Liaison

**Informational roles**
Monitor
Disseminator
Spokesperson

**Decisional roles**
Entrepreneur
Disturbance handler
Resource allocator
Negotiator

Adapted from Mintzberg (1973)

## Interpersonal roles

These are based on relations with other people, arising from the manager's position and authority.

### *1 Figurehead role*

The manager is a symbol of formal behaviour in an organisation and is involved in ceremonial matters, for example signing of documents or representing organisation. The manager participates in social events and provides access to those who wish to talk to top management.

### *2 Leader role*

This is the most significant and pervasive role and permeates all the manager's activities. Because of authority the manager has responsibility for staffing, and for motivating and guiding subordinates.

### *3 Liaison role*

The manager has horizontal relationships with individuals and groups outside their own unit or even external to the organisation. It is very important that the manager provides links between an organisation and its environment.

## Informational roles

### *4 Monitor role*

The manager both seeks and receives information. This enables the manager to develop an understanding of how the organisation works within its environment. This information can be received from internal or external sources and can be formal or informal.

### *5 Disseminator role*

The manager transmits:

- external information through the liaison role into the organisation
- internal information through the leader role into the organisation
- internal information through the leader role between subordinates.

This information might be factual or contain value judgements. The manager is the nerve centre for this information and if the manager feels unable to pass it on or chooses not to, it can make delegation very difficult or non effective.

### *6 Spokesperson role*

The manager has a formal authority to transmit information to people outside the unit, such as board of directors or other superiors and externally outside the organisation to for example, suppliers, customers, government departments and the press.

## Decisional roles

### *7 Entrepreneurial role*

It is the manager's function to initiate and plan controlled change by exploiting opportunities, (remember SWOT) or solving problems and acting to improve the existing situation. The manager can play a major part in seeking improvement or may delegate responsibility to subordinates.

**Note**: the words acting and play are in bold because they clearly suggest the concept of role for a manager.

### *8 Disturbance handler role*

This involves managers reacting to involuntary situations and unpredictable events. When disturbances occur it will be up to managers to take corrective action.

### *9 Resource allocator role*

Managers will be involved in using their authority to decide where effort will be expended and making choices on the allocation of money, time, staff and materials. They will also decide the work programmes and will maintain control by authorising decisions before they are implemented.

### *10 Negotiator role*

Managers take part in negotiation activities with other individuals or organisations, for example agreeing with a trade union or other employee organisation. Because of the authority credibility, access to information and responsibility for allocating resources, negotiation is a hugely important part of the job.

You really also need to be aware that Mintzberg understands that these roles represent a somewhat arbitrary division of a manager's activities. He 'teased' out these roles, based on his studies of real managers and accepts that they are not easily isolated in practice but form an integrated whole. If you look at them in terms of what you do, you will recognise that you perform many of these roles at the same time. Managers never wear just one hat! You would no doubt also find that other writers use different names for the same roles the Mintzberg has identified.

Other writers who have researched the work of managers in terms of Mintzberg's role include Wolf (1981) and Shortt (1989). Both found supportive evidence for Mintzberg's work.

However McCall and Segrist (1980) suggested that a number of Mintzberg's roles were not separate but overlapped greatly with the other roles.

Nevertheless, Mintzberg's work is seminal to understanding what managers really do, rather than making unreal judgments on what they do.

This leads us to our next activity.

## Activity 2

The following is a list of Mintzberg's ten roles. Place an activity against each role you think you, as a manager, carry out. Do not be surprised or alarmed if you find that the same activity can fit into a number of roles. If you are not currently working as a manager use an example of a manager you know of.

| | |
|---|---|
| Figurehead | |
| Leader | |
| Liaison | |
| Monitor | |
| Disseminator | |
| Spokesperson | |
| Entrepreneur | |
| Disturbance handler | |
| Resource allocator | |
| Negotiator | |

Other writers building on the work of Mintzberg, such as Luthans (1988) and his associates, carried out research by observing managers at work. These were long-term studies of over forty managers. They reduced their collected data into 12 behavioural categories under four managerial activities of real managers.

These were:

- Communication — exchanging information, paperwork
- Traditional management — planning, decision making, controlling
- Networking — interacting with outsiders, socialising/politicising
- Human resource management — motivating/reinforcing, disciplining/punishing, managing conflict, staffing, training/developing.

Rosemary Stewart is one of the foremost UK writers on management. Looking at many studies on management, she built a model to understand management work and behaviour. This model looks at generalisations about managerial work, the differences found to exist among different managers in similar jobs, and how they viewed their jobs and the work they do.

Stewart (1982) described three factors which identified the flexibility in any managerial job.

### *Demands*

These are what any manager must do. This could mean meeting performance criteria, work that demands their personal involvement, carrying out procedures that cannot be avoided and meetings which must be attended.

### *Constraints*

These are internal or external factors that limit what a manager can do, for example resource limitations, legal constraints, technology, physical location, attitudes or organisational constraints.

### *Choices*

These are activities which a manager is free to do or not. A manager could perform an activity differently from another, or a manager can change the area of work, how it is shared, or how participation in organisational or public activities occurs.

Stewart sees her model as bringing much-needed flexibility to the role of managers.

She contends that the traditional (classical) view of a manager as one who plans, organises, coordinates, motivates and controls in a logical ordered process is completely wrong.

It is Stewart's view that management is a human activity, indeed a whirl of activity, in which a manager's attention must be switched every few minutes from one subject, problem and person to another.

Stewart also suggests that managers work in a very uncertain world, with gossip and speculation distorting relevant information. It is vitally important for managers to network. She does not see a picture where a manager sits quietly controlling, but instead sees one where managers need to establish reciprocal relationships, to be able to trade, bargain and compromise. They also need to live in a political world, learn how to influence people (including subordinates), how to measure and how to enlist support for what they want to do.

## Responsibilities of managers

Traditionally the view of managers has been that ‘They are responsible for getting work done through the efforts of others.’ This is the view of the man who is still considered by many to be the most influential figure in management — Peter Drucker. He is recently quoted as saying that ‘Management’s concern and management’s responsibility are everything that affects the performance of the institution and its results inside and outside, under the institution’s control or totally beyond it!’ (Drucker 1999).

There is a current argument being conducted between those who believe that while management is changing the same responsibilities still have to be met somehow.

Drucker (1999) belongs in this category as do Misselhorn (2003) and Billsberry (1996). Belbin (1997) however argues that responsibility for many things that managers did now lies with specialists, for example technical experts, human resource experts and employment experts. He also points to the growing use of consultants. Heller too says that ‘Managers whose minds and deeds are stuck in the status quo are obsolescent, weak and failing!’ (Heller 1997).

He argues that renewal and nimbleness are the new requirements.

Cloke and Goldsmith are even more scathing. They state boldly ‘Managers are the dinosaurs of our modern organisational ecology. The Age of Management is coming to a close!’ (Cloke and Goldsmith 2002).

They are predicting the end of hierarchical, bureaucratic, autocratic management and the introduction of self-management and organisational democracy.

However, while writers argue, managers must carry on with those responsibilities that still fall upon them whatever the latest views on management are. These responsibilities are:

- to their organisation
- to colleagues or peers
- to subordinates
- to higher level managers
- to customers
- to themselves — that is self-management
- for managing time
- for managing stress
- for role ambiguity
- for role incompatibility
- for role overload/role underload.

### Responsibility to organisations

If most managers were asked 'How do you know what your responsibilities to your organisation are?' they would probably answer, 'They are in my job description'. Job analysis of any job, whether managerial or not, will have two final products — a job description and a job specification.

These products will be examined in Outcome 4, but briefly, a job description specifies the main duties and responsibilities attached to a specific job. The job specification, now very often entitled a person specification, indicates the skills and attributes the holder of a job should possess to be able to carry it out effectively.

In looking at the work of, for example, Fayol, Mintzberg and Stewart, Mullins (2004) suggests that managerial work can be summarised as:

- clarifying organisational objectives
- planning of work
- organisation of activities
- directing and guiding
- controlling performance.

## Activity 3

Do job descriptions for managers in your organisation (and/or other organisations that you may know of) match up with Mullins' suggestions for managerial work?
**Note**: The language might be different but can you tease out the five areas identified by Mullins?

In essence then, a manager will be expected to:

- explain to staff for whom they are responsible what it is they have to do to meet the objectives determined by higher authority
- plan work schedules to make effective use of resources to meet established objectives
- organise and manage all the activities necessary to meet commitments
- lead and guide staff to ensure that objectives are met effectively, ie with efficiency and economy
- measure performance by obtaining feedback and then carrying out corrective action to eliminate variances from expected performance.

One area which causes concern is the different expectations that an organisation will have of its managers' behaviour and activities. The managers in turn will have their expectations regarding how they expect to be treated by the organisation.

This is termed by writers such as Armstrong (2003) as the psychological contract. It exists because no job description can fully explain what a job really entails. There will be gaps between what the job description asks for and what managers know they have to do to get effective performance. Guest (1996) suggests a psychological contract is based upon assumptions, expectations, promises and mutual obligations! He says it is implicit and dynamic and is continually changing.

From a manager's point of view Watson and Gallagher (2005) suggest that a psychological contract will have the following aspects:

- treatment in terms of fairness, equity and consistency
- security of employment
- ability to demonstrate competence
- career expectations and the opportunity to develop skills
- involvement and influence
- trust in the management of the organisation to keep their promises
- a safe working environment.

From an employer's point of view the following aspects would be part of the psychological contract.

- competence
- effort
- compliance
- commitment
- willingness
- loyalty.

Guest (1996) suggested that employers no longer felt able or even obliged to provide many of those aspects which meet the employee's expectations. He argued that employers now feel that in time of uncertainty and change it is no longer possible to provide security of employment or major career expectations. Nevertheless they seem to expect greater input from employees. Guest and Conway later provided a definition of the psychological contract: '…the perceptions of both parties to the employment relationship — organisational and individual — of the reciprocal promises and obligations implied in that relationship.' (Guest and Conway 2001).

## SAQ 2

?

On the basis of your own experience of management and managers, do you agree or disagree with Guest's suggestions regarding the psychological contract? Give reasons to support your answer.

To finish this section we can look at the combined views of Mullins and Stewart (1982). Jointly they seem to suggest that what real managers do is four things. They:

1 communicate — exchanging information
2 carry out traditional management functions — planning, decision making, controlling
3 network — interact with others, socialising and politicking
4 manage the Human Resource — motivating, reinforcing, disciplining, managing conflict, managing staff, train and developing staff.

Both Mullins and Stewart are adamant that the traditional management role is decreasing quickly and that the other three areas are where managers are now having to devote most of their time and effort. They both agree that the soft skills are growing in importance and that management is now very much a human activity.

### Responsibilities to colleagues

If you were asked as a manager 'Who are your work colleagues?', it would probably be true to say that you would give a fairly restricted answer, particularly if, in this instance, we mean those who are not at the same level and this applies to most organisations. Yet an understanding of Mintzberg's or Rosemary Stewart's work would surely persuade managers that in fulfilling the managerial role, the range of colleagues they are in contact with is almost certain to be very much larger than managers initially believe. Working through Mintzberg's roles, for example, would surely convince managers that carrying out the activities suggested for the differing roles would provide proof of the range of colleagues they work with and relate to.

Two other activities that all managers carry out would include agenda-setting and network-building. Interestingly the latter activity involves the manager in establishing relationships within an organisation and outwith an organisation. This, of course, brings in the Systems view of organisations and the question of establishing boundaries within an organisation, that is between sub-systems or outwith the organisation — that is, other organisations. You will no doubt remember that in the systems approach we established that a system inputs from its environment, uses processes to convert those inputs into outputs, and that these are then returned to the environment. (This was introduced in Outcome 1 of Organisational Management.)

We also noted that to analyse any part of an organisation, we can place an artificial boundary around it, then apply the systems approach to the part we wish to analyse.

For example, an organisation may be made up of a number of separate parts. A retail organisation, for example, may have a number of retail stores, distribution facilities and so on as well as a central headquarters. Some aspects of the organisation such as customer service may be centralised — perhaps at headquarters but possibly in a different location.

The manager of any one retail store could think about his or her colleagues within the store. By doing this, managerial responsibilities are limited. However, by looking outward further to other stores and to headquarters, the range might be extended considerably. It might also be that the range could be extended by thinking about specialist sections such as customer service. It is possible also that the manager could work with people outside the organisation such as representatives of the local authority who may have responsibilities for food hygiene for example.

Agreeing with Mullins (2005) and other writers such as Luthans (1988), it is strongly suggested that whether managers work with colleagues internal or external to their organisation, three particular skills are paramount. These are:

- communication — exchanging information, reports etc
- managing — planning, controlling, making decisions
- networking — interacting with colleagues.

## SAQ 3

Why could it be important for managers in an organisation to look outwards for potential colleagues?

## Activity 4

Make a list of those colleagues with whom you will establish formal contact on a reasonably regular basis.

### Responsibility to subordinates

Potential managers are actually in a very good position to suggest what subordinates look for from their immediate managers. The vast majority of us, when we are subordinates, recognise clearly that a manager has formal responsibility and authority because of the position held within the organisation. Within that formal role they will expect their manager to communicate effectively so that they know what to do and when it must be done by. They will also expect that their manager will plan to achieve goals effectively and will provide them with the resources needed to ensure that targets are met. They will expect leadership particularly in times of crisis and they will also expect that their manager will help them to develop their skills so that they can become more proficient and perhaps also be seen as capable of being promoted.

There have been many studies into the relationships between subordinates and managers, for example Mary Parker Follett (1941), Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973), Mouton and Blake (1985), and Fiedler (1967), which tend to show that subordinates respond to managers who use consultative or participative methods to involve staff in meeting their organisational responsibilities.

More recently studies by Mullins (2004) and others suggest that employees respond favourably to managers whom they believe to be:

- fair
- competent
- good communicators
- experienced
- good in a crisis
- able to relax socially outside of work.

**Note**: There is no suggestion of needing to like a manager or conversely being liked by a manager.

## SAQ 4

?

What qualities would you expect your immediate manager to have?

### Responsibility to higher level manager

Because a higher level manager is likely to be a manager's appraiser in the formal appraisal system, it is almost certain that the first responsibility of managers to their own manager is to achieve the agreed formal organisational goals and targets.

Managers will be expected to have achieved these aims by effective use of resources, ie they have been efficient and economical. They will also have been expected to follow organisational policies and procedures, ensuring that the health and safety of staff is a major priority, and to meet other legislative requirements which apply to all organisations. Not to do so could result in claims against organisations. The latter part of this Outcome deals more specifically with this area.

Equally it is likely that a manager's immediate superior will want to see that staff are managed in a way that suggests consistency, reliability and an understanding of the need to enhance the skills of staff. Perhaps linking requirements outlined in this area with the concepts outlined in self-management would be useful.

### Responsibility to customers

Depending on the organisation you work for, it may sound a little strange to use the word customers in relation to activities of your organisation. Earlier, we pointed out that an organisation has to communicate internally and externally. Another way of describing this, and one which is becoming increasingly common is to say that an organisation has internal and external customers. A customer, therefore, is anyone to whom an organisation, or a member of an organisation such as a manger, provides goods or services. This is straightforward for many organisations with respect to external customers — they are the people for whom goods and services are provided. Frequently, these external customers make a direct payment for the good or service provided. This is not always the case, however. Publicly financed organisations such as local authorities, for example, often provide services like refuse collection and roads maintenance for which no direct payment is made. Nevertheless, the general public for whom the services are provided can be referred to as customers.

It is important also to remember that the performance of publicly funded organisations is measured in terms of the quality of the services they provide to those who use them — in other words to their customers. Schools, for example are regularly inspected.

The concept of internal customers arises from the systems approach, where it is recognised that one department in an organisation will normally input from another department and then output to the same, or a differing, department. An example would be an IT department providing technical support to all IT users in an organisation.

It may be useful at this point to reflect on the services which you provide to others. As a manager, for example, you may give support to your immediate line manager while you may also provide guidance and advice to members of your team. You are likely also to liaise with other teams and their managers. The idea of having internal customers can be especially clear if you provide a service on which another part of the organisation depends.

### Responsibility for self-management

This is an area which has come under increasing scrutiny recently. It is suggested that managers who cannot manage themselves simply cannot manage other people. One of the newer concepts that deals with human beings learning to cope with their feelings and emotions and those of others is Emotional Intelligence. First suggested by Goleman (1995) it is attracting more and more support although it would be fair to say it has its detractors.

One area where it is suggested it has relevance is that of self-management, the first of the four components of emotional intelligence. The other three are self-awareness, social awareness and relationship management abilities (see Study notes for Outcome 2 for further information).

Goleman defines self-management as 'the ability to control or redirect disruptive impulses and moods and regulate one's behaviour while pursuing goals with energy and purpose'.

We could probably translate that into the simpler statement 'When it gets tough, we don't lose the head, shout or scream, but keep focused on what has to be done'.

Goleman (1995) suggests there are six competencies associated with self-management. These are:

- self control
- trustworthiness and integrity
- initiative
- adaptability — can cope with ambiguity
- openness to change
- strong desire to change.

It is important to grasp that these are competencies — this means they can be learned!

According to Miller, Rankin and Neathley (2001) many employers have funded training based on emotional intelligence, mainly in leadership skills, people management skills and teamwork.

## SAQ 5

?

Which of Goleman's six competencies do you think is most important? What are your reasons?

## Responsibility for managing time

Most writers on management suggest that managing time effectively is a form of self-management. Stephen Covey (1989) is generally regarded as the writer who has studied the subject most and produced the most effective systems for managing time. He suggests the following categorisation for all the approaches suggested. These are:

*Reminders*

Those who use this system keep lists and notes. Anything not done by the end of the day is transferred to the next day's list.

*Planning and preparation*

Use of calendars and appointment books. Notes on where meetings are held, identify deadlines. Schedule future appointments, set goals.

*Plan, prioritise, control*

Activities are planned on a daily basis. Very detailed planning, usually computer-based. Values and priorities dictate scheduling.

*Being efficient and proactive*

Is based on the concept of importance and urgency.

Covey also points out the two major flaws in most time management approaches.

Firstly, of itself it takes up time.

Secondly, if everything is done on the basis of urgency, what happens to non-urgent activities? They will never get done!

Therefore he suggests that two techniques may help to prioritise activities properly.

*ABC analysis*

Large amounts of data are categorised in groups. Activities are categorised into A, B, C, with the highest priority being 'A' and the lowest 'C'.

*Pareto analysis*

This is the well known 80:20 approach. The basis is that 80% of tasks can be competed in 20% of the disposable time. Obviously the remaining 20% of tasks take up 80% of the disposable time.

It is recommended that higher priority tasks are assigned to the first category, that is completed in 20% of the disposable time.

Note: Covey suggests that these two techniques can be combined.

## SAQ 6

?

Most of us use some system for prioritising our work activities. Which system do you use? How does it fit into Covey's four categories?

### Managing stress

It is increasingly important that organisations find ways to reduce stress for all who work in those organisations. All the evidence points to increasing numbers of staff being absent from work for growing periods of time, because of stress-related problems.

Research conducted for the Health and Safety Executive in 2000 indicated that:

- stress is likely to become the most dangerous risk to business in the early part of the twenty-first century
- one in five workers report feeling extremely stressed at work
- this equates to five million workers in the United Kingdom.

(Smith et al, 2000)

Initially, ability to cope with stress was regarded as simply being a personal characteristic, in that some people seem to enjoy being under stress while others collapse under the strain.

However the person who is generally regarded as the foremost authority on work-related stress in the UK, Professor Cooper of the University of Manchester Institute of Science and Technology, has pointed out the high incidence of stress in organisations. He suggests there are six major reasons for this.

- job conditions — for example shift work, intensity
- role in the organisation — overload, underload
- relationships at work — particularly with the boss
- career development — has promotion passed you by?
- organisational structure and climate — rules and regulations
- home–work interface — particularly if both parents are working.

Cooper also suggests that role conflict and harassment can cause stress for staff in the work situation.

Clearly, therefore, being able to reduce stress in the workplace should be beneficial to organisations in that staff absence will be reduced and employees will be more effective in carrying out the necessary activities.

Some of the techniques currently used to reduce stress include:

- self-understanding
- self-management
- resolving conflict
- establishing positive attitudes
- breathing exercises
- relaxation exercises
- fitness regimes
- counselling.

## SAQ 7

?

Which of the above techniques might be used in the organisation you work for (or one that you are familiar with) to reduce stress for those who work in it. Are there others which are not on this list?

(Before tackling SAQ 7, you might want to research stress a little further. A helpful factsheet is available at http://www.cipd.co.uk/subjects/health/stress/stress.htm. It is updated regularly and is accessible to all.)

### Role conflict

You will no doubt be aware that as a manager you perform a number of roles. Role conflict occurs when these roles are inadequately defined or separated and individuals find difficulty in determining what is expected of them. These problems usually manifest themselves in one of four ways, as outlined below.

*Role ambiguity*

Occurs when there is uncertainty on the part of a manager as to what they are expected to do when roles appear to be contradictory. For example, in this Outcome we have mentioned responsibilities to superiors and to subordinates. What will occur if a situation arises when a manager finds that senior management expects the manager to follow one course of action but members of the manager's team clearly expect a different course of action? An example could be where management wish to introduce new systems which would help the organisation as a whole but are not suitable for the work undertaken by the manager's team.

*Role incompatibility*

This occurs in singular roles when they are not well enough defined or if a manager's own expectations of their role differ from others. This particular problem tends to arise in times of constant change or in large, diverse groups. It usually relates to tasks or authority or standards of work or evaluating and appraising performance. For example, in times of change, a manager may prioritise the role of caring for team members' welfare. Senior management may, however, expect managers to focus on meeting change deadlines and pay less attention to the impact on team members.

### *Role overload*

This is the situation when a manager has too many roles — all with expectations from different people. It might not be possible to meet all these expectations and a manager might have to neglect some expectations in order to satisfy others. This can lead to a conflict of priority.

**Note**: this is not the same as work overload, which occurs when the quantity of work in one role is too much. In smaller organisations, for example, a manager may have responsibility for his or her team but, in addition, have responsibility for something which goes across all aspects of the organisation such as health and safety or training.

### *Role underload*

This can arise when a manager feels that a role is perhaps not demanding or stretching enough. This can happen when a manager accepts a new role which suggests perhaps greater authority or responsibility. In practice, however, this doesn't happen and the new role turns out to be well below their capacity. Managers sometimes have to deal with this among team members where a team member is required to perform tasks which they can do easily.

Remember that all of us bring our own perceptions to any work role we are expected to carry out.

## Activity 5

Think about the likely roles a manager within an organisation you know well could find themselves fulfilling. Where do you see possibilities for role conflict, ambiguity, incompatibility overload and underload to occur?

## Managerial attitudes

Douglas McGregor (1960) put forward two opposing suppositions regarding human behaviour in organisations. The first he called Theory X and the other Theory Y.

Theory X is sometimes termed the carrot and the stick approach, the underlying assumption being:

- the average person is lazy and has an inherent dislike of work
- people need to be coerced, directed, controlled and threatened with punishment if objectives are to be achieved
- the average person avoids responsibility, prefers to be directed, lacks ambition and values security most of all
- people are only motivated by security and physical needs.

Clearly the central theme is direction, control and authority.

Theory Y, his second supposition, is at the opposite end of the spectrum. It assumes:

- for most people work is as natural as play or rest
- people exercise self-direction and self-control to achieve objectives they are committed to
- the average worker can learn to accept and seek responsibility
- people are creative in solving organisational problems. This ability is widely distributed
- most people's intellectual ability is only partially utilised by organisations
- motivation will occur at all levels of a person's needs.

McGregor clearly believed that Theory Y was the best way to get staff to be effective and suggested management could achieve this through areas such as performance appraisal, salaries, promotions, participation, staff-line relationships, leadership and management development.

You will no doubt see the McGregor influence on the development of human resource management in his Theory Y.

One of Japan's greatest management theorists, Ouchi (1981) modified McGregor's Theory Y and named his version Theory Z. He felt that the American system was still too bureaucratic.

Ouchi suggested:

- long term employment — a lifetime even
- slow evaluation and promotion
- company specific skills and some specialisation
- implicit informal control mechanism with some formal explicit measures
- participative decision making by consensus
- collective decision making but with individual responsibility

- broad concern for welfare of staff as natural part of organisational formal and informal relationships.

One UK company which is understood to use many of these techniques is Marks and Spencer.

Despite the initial move of many organisations towards the Theory Y and Z approaches, in practice most organisations today recognise the need for a ‘Contingency’ or ‘Situational’ approach. The contingency approach argues that effective leadership depends on the situation. In other words, it is contingent on the circumstances involved. Leaders diagnose the situation in which they find themselves and adapt a style which is appropriate to that particular set of circumstances. This requires the leader to adjust his or her style in the situation that he or she faces. For example, when faced with an emergency such as a fire alert then a manager may decide that the best approach is linked to Theory X. The best approach will be to be directive and tell people what to do. There may not be time to discuss and consult. However, in planning a change, a manager may adopt a more consultative approach linked to Theory Y because it is important to hear what team members have to say. Otherwise they may feel they are being ignored and resent the change. It may, as a result, not proceed smoothly.

The contingency approach does demand training, practice as well as flexibility but it can lead to more effective management.

## The legislative responsibilities of managers

Managers in all find themselves subject to laws regarding employment data protection, discrimination, health and safety, etc. Depending on the organisation you work for, managers may also be bound by additional legislative responsibilities such as licensing requirements.

Most organisations have a separate Human Resource Department which establishes the systems to ensure that UK and European legislative requirements are met. However, all these Acts place responsibility on individuals and managers to behave in a reasonable manner. Not to do so may place an organisation in a very vulnerable position and could result in organisations being taken to employment tribunals and being heavily fined for breaching regulations. In 2007, Shell was fined millions of pounds because it failed to meet its obligations with regard to the Health and Safety Act. Two employees died. You will also no doubt be aware that the Metropolitan Police Force was also charged under the Health and Safety Act following the death of a Brazilian man whom the Police suspected of being involved in terrorist activities.

Two major pieces of legislation on employment are:

- The Employment Rights Act 1996
- The Employment Relations Act 1996

These two Acts establish the rights of employees to be given, for example the main details of their contracts of employment and the rights which they have to fair treatment.

The Industrial Tribunals Act of 1996 established Employment Tribunals. Should the employee be successful, substantial sums of money can be awarded against the employer.

Since 2004, the number of Employment Tribunals has dropped significantly, due largely to Dispute Resolution procedures. Unfair dismissal remains the largest claim category (35,416 cases disposed in 2005–06). However, the combined number of discrimination claims (on grounds of sex, race, disability, religious belief and sexual orientation) is almost as many (32,380 cases disposed in 2005–06). Claims for discrimination are rising rapidly year-on-year, perhaps fuelled by new legislation, but also because there is a financial cap on unfair dismissal claims, but not on those for discrimination (Tribunals Service, 2006).

Other significant legislation includes:

*Data Protection Act 1998*
Sets out the rights of individuals to know what information can be held regarding them and also the format in which it can be held.

*Public Disclosure Act 1998*
Requires those who are working with vulnerable young people and adults to be screened, to offer some form of protection to these members of society.

*The Human Rights Act 1998*
Extends the principles of the European Convention on Human Rights, 1950, to interpretations of UK civil and criminal law.

*The Freedom of Information Act 2000*
Again this Act sets out the rights regarding whether or not information can be retained to protect security or whether or not it can be released. It also advises individuals with regard to the kinds of information which they can ask to see.

*Equal Pay Act 1970 (as amended)*
Establishes the right to equal pay for equal work. Many pressure groups insist that this Act has still not fully addressed the issue of gender discrimination in pay. It is worthy of note that the Police Service was one of the first organisations to harmonise pay for both genders, as early as 1972.

*Sex Discrimination Act 1975 (as amended)*
This Act establishes an employee's right to expect no discrimination in employment on the basis of gender.

### *Race Relations Acts 1976 and Race Relations (Amendment) Act 2000*

The first Act makes it unlawful to discriminate against a person because of their race, while the Amendment Act requires organisations to be proactive in removing practices which indirectly disadvantage ethnic groups.

### *Disability Discrimination Act 1995*

Makes discrimination towards the disabled in terms of employment unlawful. The principal effect is to require employers to make all 'reasonable adjustments' necessary to accommodate disability in the workplace.

### *Age Discrimination Act 2006*

This Act makes it unlawful to discriminate against a person on the grounds of their age.

Two other recent sets of Regulations have also had a marked effect on employment legislation and treatment of employees. These are:

### *National Minimum Wage Act 1998*

Sets two main rates of pay for those aged between 18–21 years and those aged 22 and over.

Note: There are now rates also for those aged 16 and 17.

### *Working Time Regulations 1998 (and subsequent amendments)*

Introduced to meet the European Working Time Directive 1993. This legislation aims to ensure that all employees get adequate rest time while at work and imposes regulation on maximum working hours. This is a difficult area as the UK currently has an 'opt out' from parts of the Directive.

### *The Health and Safety at Work etc Act 1974 (as amended)*

This Act is what is known as an Umbrella Act in that it brought together in one Act all the previous Acts and Regulations regarding Health and Safety. It places responsibility on organisations and individuals with regard to the systems established to ensure Health and Safety and the behaviour of all those involved in organisations

## SAQ 8

?

As a manager how will you know what your responsibilities are with regard to Employment Legislation and Health and Safety?

# Study notes for Outcome 2

### Outcome 2: Propose actions to maintain and improve the performance of people at work

**Knowledge and/or Skills**

- Individual differences
- Theories of motivation
- Performance review
- Training and development
- Strategies to improve job performance
- Grievance and disciplinary procedures

## Individual differences

It is perfectly clear that human beings are by definition different from one another. Even looking at identical twins we can normally see differences which would allow us to distinguish between them. However, for organisations it is clear that as Armstrong (2003) points out, 'When designing jobs, preparing training programmes, assessing and counselling staff, developing reward systems and dealing with grievances and disciplining problems it is necessary to remember that all people are different. What fulfils one person may not fulfil another'.

You should also remember that the last part of Outcome 1 explains why it became necessary to prevent discrimination on the basis of differences. One clear major area of difference is ability and we will look in greater detail at that factor now.

You and I clearly understand that different occupations require different skills, competencies and abilities.

Armstrong (2003) says that 'Ability is the quality that makes an action possible'.

Two writers who have analysed abilities and classified them into two major groups are Burt (1949) and Vernon (1973). They suggested the following:

1. V:ED — Verbal, numeric, memory and reasoning abilities
2. K:M — Spatial and mechanical abilities, perceptual (memory), and motor skills, for example eye/hand coordination and mental dexterity.

These two writers also agreed that overriding these abilities there is a 'g' or general intelligence factor, which explains most variations in performance. The 'g' factor was actually first proposed by Spearman (1927) who also suggested that there was an 's' factor, that is, specific abilities.

Many occupations use tests to check for both general and specific abilities when recruiting new staff. The Armed Forces and the Police Service for example require an initial high standard of physical fitness. Other organisations might rely more on purely cognitive tests such as problem solving or reasoning tests.

In a practical sense managers will be looking at staff as having the necessary abilities to be able to carry out the tasks associated with their job.

We will return to this area in greater detail when we look at recruitment and selection. However we can broadly say that most managers will wish to have staff who can demonstrate competence, the correct attitudes, be able to communicate and, if working in a team, have a personality that other team members appreciate.

In your studies for Outcome 1, you considered Goleman's Emotional Intelligence Concept. This approach is gaining credence in management thinking and Goleman (1995) identifies the key characteristics as, 'Abilities such as being able to motivate oneself and persist in the face of frustrations, to control impulse and delay gratification, to regulate one's moods and keep distress from swamping the ability to think, to emphasise and to hope'.

Goleman suggests individuals at all levels in an organisation must have:

- self-awareness
- social awareness
- relationship management abilities
- self-management abilities.

## Activity 6

Suggest how emotional intelligence might tie up with Theory X, Theory Y, and Theory Z. How well developed is an individual's emotional intelligence likely to be if they are:

a Theory X employee

a Theory Y employee

a Theory Z employee?

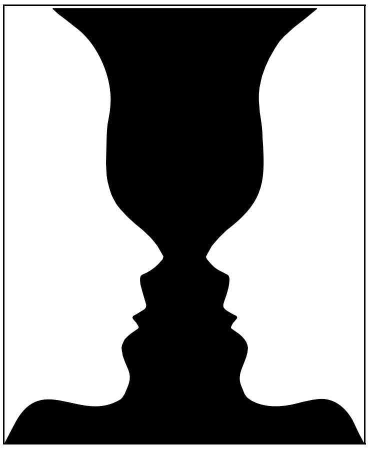
## Perception

It is here that the significance of individual differences is particularly apparent. We all, as human beings, perceive the world in different ways. Most of those who define perception note that it is not actual reality but perceived reality that influences behaviour.

Gross (1990) says that we do not perceive objective reality but rather our own unique construction of reality. This occurs because our sense organs gather information, which the brain modifies and sorts. This heavily filtered input is compared against memories, expectations and so on, until finally our consciousness is constructed as a best guess about reality.

Note: It is this process which creates the phenomenon known as 'optical illusions'! They occur because the brain cannot find the appropriate image to match the sensory inputs and therefore makes the next best guess.

You could very well undertake perceptual tests in your career or in a learning situation. Two particularly well-known examples involve faces (see the following examples). One involves participants seeing either an old lady or a young girl. The second suggests either a vase or two faces.



Once learned, there are not normally any further difficulties with these particular tests.

What are the difficulties caused by perception problems in the workplace?

The major problem is that individuals can look at precisely the same piece of factual information and make entirely different judgments, decisions or interpretations of what the information actually means.

Imagine, for example, that you are a manager of a branch you ask your three team leaders (that is the number you have in this branch) to provide you with the overtime statistics for the last six months and their projections for the next six months. You give what you see as a reasonable timescale for this to be done. How will your team leaders see this?

Clearly, this will depend upon the situation to some extent. If they have all been very efficient and anticipated you, they will be able to meet your request and will perceive that you will be impressed by their competence. On the other hand they could see this as an entirely unacceptable intrusion on an already overburdened schedule and be extremely unhappy about your request.

There could also be a situation where one or more is able to cope with your request, but the others cannot. Equally if this information is already collected by another department from, say, monthly returns, they might perceive that you are asking for work to be repeated unnecessarily — which they will not be happy about!

The problems of perception occur because what one person pays attention to is selective. It is not possible for us to take in everything in our immediate environment. Therefore, each individual pays attention to differing stimuli. You and I can stand and look at a famous picture for a few minutes, then in discussing it, find we have noted different factors. But the picture itself has not changed!

For managers, however, the major issue with perception is the way in which it influences behaviour in a work situation. They will have a perceptual-set in exactly the same way that individuals have a role-set in the workforce. The major features of this from a work point of view are:

- learning
- intelligence
- ability
- training
- interests
- expectations
- goals
- past experiences
- motivation
- personality.

For managers, perceiving other people and in return being perceived by them is crucial. Such perceptions influence both behaviour and attitudes. Revisit Theory X, Theory Y and Theory Z again to think about how you approach the individuals, groups and teams you have responsibility for and see if the theories can help you to understand their underlying intent or motivation.

The four major areas of perceptual problems in dealing with other people are generally regarded as:

*Stereotyping*
This is attributing perceived characteristics on the basis of a general characterisation. For example, German people have no sense of humour but are very industrious, or, all unemployed people are lazy.

*The 'halo'effect*
The perception of a person is formed on the basis of a single trait. This could be favourable or unfavourable.

For example, a person who has good attendance and time-keeping might also be judged to be competent when evidence relating to competence suggests otherwise.

*Perceptual defence*
This occurs when we select information that strengthens our point of view but ignore that which is contrary to our point of view.

*Projection*
We attribute our own feelings, motives or characteristics to other people when they might not necessarily share them. This is a particular danger in the recruitment and selection process in that we tend to select those whom we imagine to be like us. The same is true of the halo effect. It is a particular danger in selection.

## SAQ 9

?

Why is it important for a manager to study the problems associated with perception in management and organisational behaviour?

## Attitudes

Attitudes are defined by many writers such Gross (1990) as 'An individual's characteristic way of responding to an object or situation and is based on experience'.

This also suggests that an attitude is long lasting and not easy to change.

Most writers, for example Secord and Backman (1964), suggest there are three components in any attitude. They are:

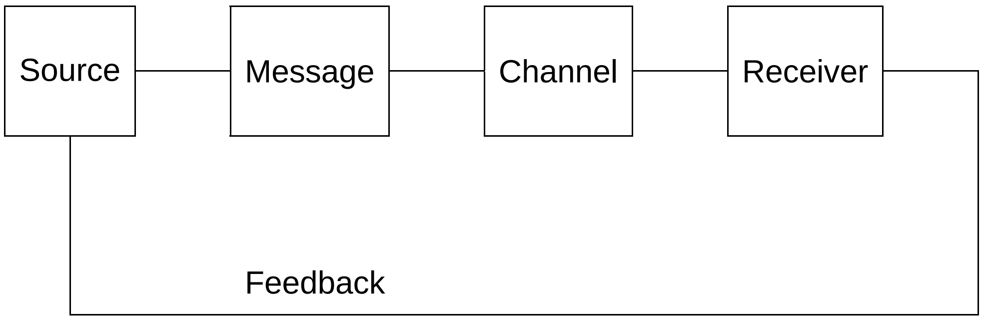
- the cognitive or thinking component
- the affective or feeling component
- the behavioural or action component.

Measuring strength of attitudes is usually carried out by:

- an interview with a specialist
- an exit interview when an employee is leaving
- more commonly by attitude surveys in which individuals can be asked to rate how much they agree or disagree with a series of statements.

Changing attitudes is regarded as a very challenging task. It is vital that the person attempting to change attitudes is very skilled at communicating.

The following diagram illustrates this:




The source, ie the person, tasked with changing of attitudes needs to be:

- respected in terms of expertise
- reasonably popular (unpopular sources rarely succeed)
- reasonably distant from the problem that needs to be addressed (a source with close personal interest will have a problem of trust)
- able to convince the receiver (the individual whose attitude, it is hoped will be changed) of genuineness of intentions.

The receiver should be:

- intelligent enough to understand the message
- have reasonable self-esteem (evidence shows, that those with very high self-esteem are not easily persuaded).

The message:

- needs to be clear and committed and not arouse fear.

Mullins (2004), in a slightly different manner, supports the above by suggesting that the following variables are important to change attitudes:

- the persuader's characteristics
- presentation of issues
- audience characteristics
- group influence
- outcome of attitude change (reward or punishment).

## SAQ 10

?

| |
|---|
| Why are attitudes difficult to measure and change? |

## Learning

You will be aware that there is currently a great deal of effort and money being expended on this topic. Most of us will have received mail-shots inviting us to consider taking up some form of learning. There is a Learndirect organisation that exists to encourage and support forms of learning and we are constantly being reminded that learning is for life. For the purpose of this Unit we will look at organisational learning. Clearly this means the learning that **should** take place within organisations. The word 'should' is in bold because, in fact, in many organisations learning is left to chance as Mullins (2004) points out. Employees are often expected to pick up behaviour, attitude and skills.

One of the facts which never seems to be properly addressed by some organisations is the evidence that organisations that fully support learning find it much easier to introduce and manage change.

This is borne out by Burgoyne's (1999) definition of a learning organisation: 'An organisation which facilitates the learning of all its members and continuously transforms itself'.

There are a number of theories which attempt to describe how people learn. Probably the most influential is Kolb's Learning Cycle. This consists of four linked stages.

**Concrete experience stage**

(Perception of the objective world)

**Observational and reflective stage**

(Internalisation)

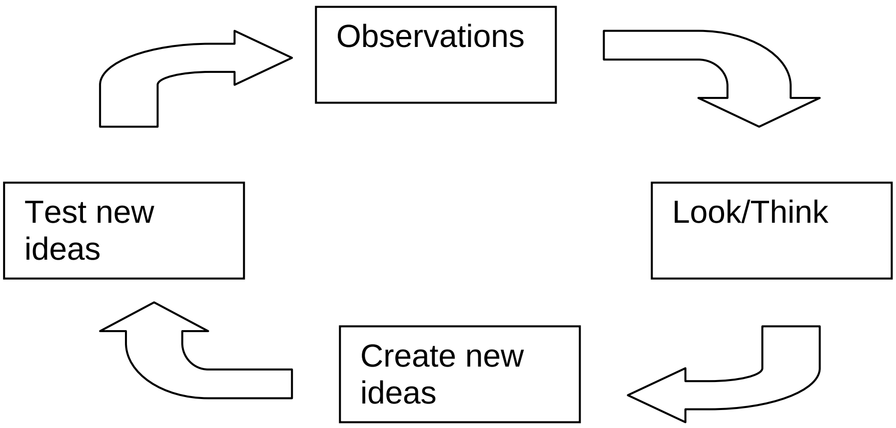
**Abstract conceptualisation stage**

(Step back from reality and draw conclusions and generalisations)

**Active experimentation stage**

(Check our theories and hunches by testing in new situations)

If you find the language a little heavy you can simplify this to:




(Adapted from Kolb, 1984)

Many people have difficulty in defining the difference between learning and training. Learning is a continuous process of acquiring new skills while training is the specific process of acquiring each new skill. For example, members of a manager's team may require training in the use of a new software package. This specific training can be seen as part of a continuous process of learning about information communication and technology.

From Kolb's learning style, Honey and Mumford (1992) identified four styles of learning, which those who are managers or wish to become managers could reflect upon to determine their predominant style.

- Activist — What's new? I'm game for anything.
- Reflector — I'd like time to think about this.
- Theorist — How does this relate to that?
- Pragmatist — How can I apply this in practice?

## Encouraging learning in organisations

Within organisations, managers have the responsibility to develop their subordinates. However, many have failed to do so, usually because these managers felt they didn't have the skills. However, as management development has grown, managers have found themselves being trained to become formal coaches and mentors.

What is the difference? A coach uses techniques to try and draw out an individual's ability or skills in a specific area, including problem areas. Coaches do not have to be subject experts.

Mentors use telling techniques or drawing out techniques to increase an individual's skills and abilities in a specific subject. There is usually a structured programme and mentors must be subject experts.

In summarising the role of learning theory in organisations, Linda Hicks (1991) suggests the following are major areas where learning can be applied.

*Self-development*

- Learning what to do
- Learning behaviour (how to)
- Learning the ropes

*Development of others*

- Personal development — training others and growing their potential through mentoring, coaching, assessing advising
- Developing planned learning events

*Development of learning culture*

- Policy development — for learning organisations, coping with change, encouraging creative and lateral thinking

### Knowledge management

Knowledge has always been valued but, in organisations, there is sometimes a gap between having knowledge and actually being able to use that knowledge in practical ways to benefit the organisation. This particular technique is now used to improve the learning of everyone in the organisation by learning from experience and finding ways to share knowledge.

Warwick University Business Process Centre (2001, see websites) has distinguished four types of Knowledge Management Practice.

1 Valuing knowledge — it is intellectual capital.
2 Explaining intellectual property — this is particularly the case in Research and Development.
3 Ensuring that knowledge gained from any one project is passed on.
4 Managing knowledge workers to release creativity for positive outcomes.

### SAQ 11

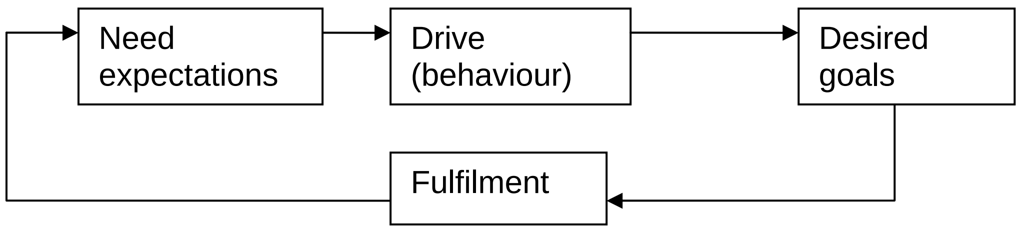
| |
|---|
| Why is it important for a mentor to be a subject expert? |

## Theories of motivation

Most writers, whatever the context they are writing in, suggest that motivation is the driving force within individuals by which they attempt to achieve some goal to fulfill some need or expectation.

Mullins (2004) suggests that people's behaviour is determined by what motivates them and that performance is a product of ability level and motivation.

The following diagram encapsulates this:




Feedback

In this Unit, we will look at both content and process theories of motivation.

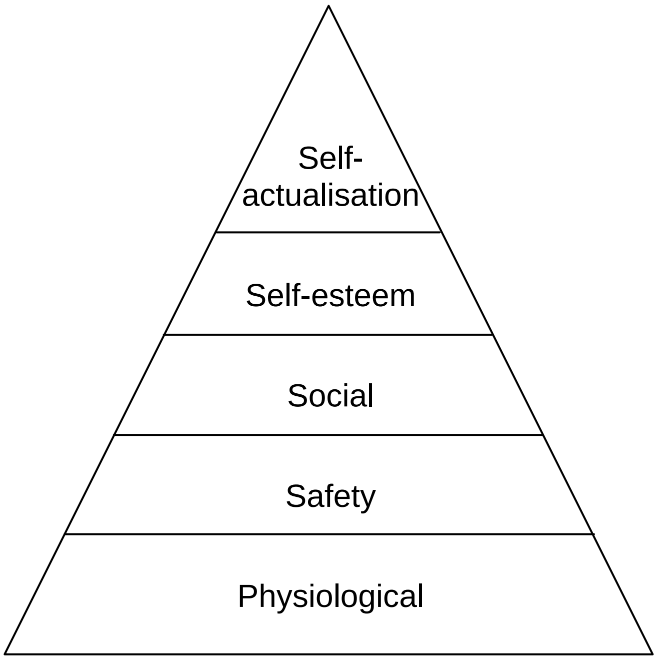
## Content theories

These theories emphasise what motivates individuals and the major theorists are Maslow, Herzberg and Alderfer.

### *Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs*

Maslow (1943) believed that human beings constantly want more than they have. What they want therefore depends on what they have. He suggested that people's needs are based on a hierarchy, a series of levels.

Maslow postulated there are five main levels of needs which are shown below with physiological needs being the bottom or starting level.




- Physiological needs include satisfying hunger, thirst, sleep etc.
- Safety needs include security, protection from threat and a desire for orderliness.
- Social needs include love, affection, friendship and belonging.
- Self-esteem needs include self-respect and the respect of others. It also includes prestige, reputation etc.
- Self-actualisation includes development and realisation of an individual's full potential.

It was Maslow's contention that although he arranged the needs in a hierarchy to suggest that when one need was satisfied individuals moved on to the next higher need, the hierarchy was not necessarily a fixed order.

Maslow's theory is seen as intuitively reasonable and still remains a popular theory of motivation at work, despite the fact it was constructed as a general theory, not specifically related to work.

There is also little empiric evidence to support it, although some writers such as Steers and Porter (1991) suggest that organisational factors can be fitted into all five levels.

### *Alderfer's ERG theory*

Alderfer (1972) agreed with Maslow's Needs theory but believed there were only three needs: Existence, Relatedness and Growth Needs. He also arranged them in a continuum and not a hierarchy.

Alderfer fitted his needs into the Greek word for energy or labour ie ERG. Essentially, he says that if any of the needs is satisfied then to be motivated, an individual will require to move to another need on the continuum.

Existence ◄——— Relatedness ———► Growth

(Alderfer's ERG theory)

Again there is little empiric evidence to suggest that this theory will pertain in the organisational environment but for many it is a simpler concept to grasp.

The third and last content theory is that of Frederick Herzberg (1959).

### *Hertzberg's two factor theory*

Although subjected to many criticisms, this particular theory has been hugely important in trying to understand what motivates individuals in a work setting.

The original research was carried out by asking accountants and engineers what made them feel exceptionally good or exceptionally bad when at work. We could ask 'How relevant is it for blue-collar workers to try and understand what motivates professional people at work?' The answer is, perhaps surprisingly, the same kinds of things that all workers complain about or like about working.

The theory is called the two factor theory because initially it was entitled the Hygiene/Motivation Theory. Hygiene was chosen to suggest that the factors included under this heading were preventive or environmental. If they were not dealt with then dissatisfaction arose. However, if they were dealt with, that did not result in satisfaction but merely removed the causes of dissatisfaction. Those factors which resulted in motivation or satisfaction related to the content of the job.

There have been a number of ‘tags’ applied to Herzberg’s theory, all related to separating the factors into two distinct and separate areas. You might find it entitled the Satisfier/Dissatisfier theory; or the Hygiene/Motivation theory; or the Maintenance/Growth theory; or the Extrinsic/Intrinsic theory. The latter theory actually points towards the development of Process theories in that it suggests that those factors that are sources of dissatisfaction are external to the individual, while the intrinsic factors are those internal to the individual in the sense that these factors depend upon the individual’s perception or thoughts on how valuable they are. The following are the major aspects in each factor.

| **Dissatisfiers** | **Satisfiers** |
|---|---|
| Salary | Recognition |
| Job security | Sense of achievement |
| Working conditions | Responsibility |
| Level, quality of supervision | Nature of the work |
| Policy and administration | Growth and promotion |
| Interpersonal relations | |

Considerable empirical research has been carried out into Herzberg’s work. The results are mixed. However there is no doubt that it has been very influential in the area of job design, particularly job enlargement and job enrichment, which will be looked at in greater depth later. It would also be true to say that it sparked further research and studies into what really motivates people at work.

You should also be able to see that those areas which are in Herzberg’s dissatisfiers fit into Marlow’s physiological, safety and social needs and Alderfer’s existence and relatedness needs. Conversely, the satisfiers fit into Maslow’s self-esteem and self-actualisation needs and Alderfer’s growth needs. There is also the suggestion that in today’s work environment, with an increasing emphasis on different methods of working, for example working at home or self-managing, greater attention needs to be given to those areas which fit into the satisfier factor!

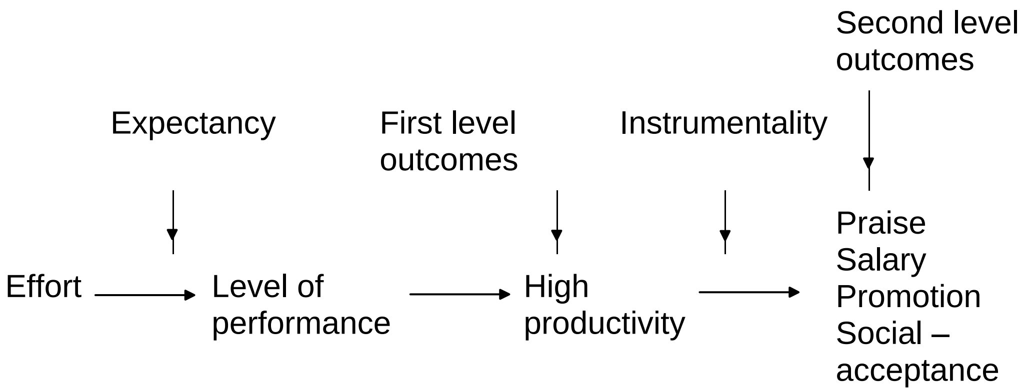
## Process theories of motivation

These are so called because they are based on the decision making process individuals bring to the organisational environments to influence their ability to achieve their needs. The first of these is the Expectancy Theory of Vroom (1964). In essence an individual's motivation will depend upon the relationships between:

- effort expended and perceived level of performance
- the expectation that desired outcomes will be related to performance
- the expectation that the desired outcomes are available.

An individual's behaviour in work, therefore, will be based on expecting to achieve that individual's most favoured consequences.

The following model shows broadly the original expectancy framework derived by Vroom from studying individuals in some of the USA's largest companies.

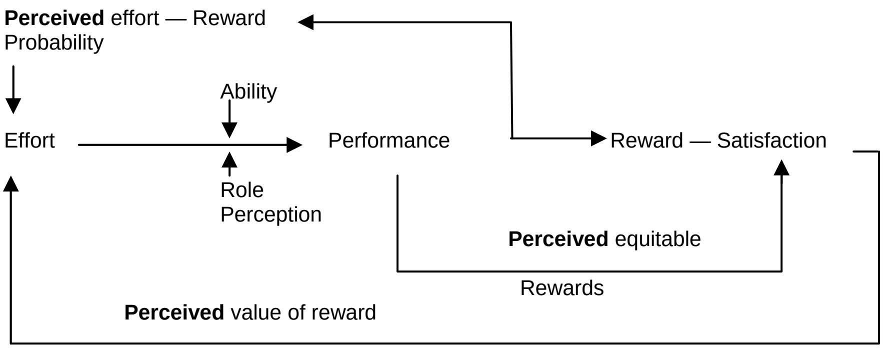



Adapted from Vroom's expectancy framework

Effectively, therefore, workers expend effort to achieve first level outcomes which they expect will lead to achieving second level outcomes. It is the second level outcomes that provide the real motivation for the effort and lead to satisfaction.

There are two words used in this theory which can be difficult to grasp. They are typical of the jargon used but have relatively simple meanings. They are valency and instrumentality. Valency is the attractiveness of specific outcomes for individuals and instrumentality explains that first level outcomes need to be achieved in order to achieve second level aims, ie they are instrumental in leading to second level needs.

### *Porter and Lawler's Model of Expectancy Theory (1968)*
They drew on Vroom's basic model but felt it needed further explanation.




Adapted from Porter and Lawler's model of expectancy theory

This might look a little complicated but it is still really Vroom's model. Porter and Lawler have added role perception and ability because factors such as intelligence, skills, knowledge, and personality affect ability to carry out activities.

They also believe that role perception is important in that how individuals view their work and the role they should adopt influences the effort they will make.

You will also see that after performance the perceived effort — reward probability is the expectation that rewards depend upon a given effort.

Perceived equitable rewards are what people feel they should fairly receive for reaching the required level of performance.

The perceived value of rewards is the value placed by individuals on the desirability of the various outcomes for them.

Satisfaction refers to an individual's perception as to whether or not the reward received matches the effort and performance put in.

This leads us to the last process theory.

### *J Stacy Adams — Equity Theory (1965)*
This theory focuses on the ratio of a person's input to achieve specific outcomes in a work situation. The basis of Adam's theory is that if individuals compare the inputs they make to achieve these outcomes with other people and find that others are achieving the same outcomes but are making smaller inputs, they will perceive this to be out of balance, ie inequity exists. Individuals will then act to restore balance. They could, for example, reduce their input or change the outcome. They could also try to find a more favourable situation. Or they could try and persuade others

to change the ratio of inputs to outcomes. They might also try to change who they compare themselves with.

The following is a simple model:

Person's inputs to outcomes

Compare → Perceived inequality → Act to reduce inequality → Changes

Other person's inputs to outcomes

### What are the lessons of process theories for organisations?

- They provide organisations with an explanation of how beliefs and attitudes affect job performance.
- Organisations need to pay attention to employee perception of what is fair.
- It helps empowerment and participation.
- Organisations should allow opportunities to appeal against decisions which affect employee welfare.
- Organisational requirements are more likely to be accepted and supported if staff perceive they are being fairly implemented.
- They assist group work and teamwork.
- They could very well assist in reducing cases referred to arbitration or tribunals.

## Activity 7

You have now briefly studied the major Content and Process theories of Motivation. Why would you think that Herzberg's two factor theory is often considered to be the link between Content and Process theories of Motivation?

**Note:** Consider the position of the manager of a retail outlet which has achieved excellent sales figures for a new line of merchandise. In terms of Expectancy Theory, the members of the team who had achieved better than the expected level of performance would expect some form of formal recognition. This could mean praise or acknowledgement from higher authority or more formal recognition — for example, at performance development reviews.

You should also note that what may be termed 'first level outcomes' are actually organisational goals, targets or objectives and you need to think of motivation theories as assisting organisations to achieve these goals.

## Performance review

Organisational objectives can sometimes be loose and difficult to understand. Nowadays most organisations use the idea of SMART objectives:

| | |
|---|---|
| S — | Specific: clear unambiguous, straightforward, understandable and challenging. |
| M — | Measurable: quantity, quality, time, money. |
| A — | Achievable: challenging but within reach of competent and committed individuals. |
| R — | Relevant: relevant to organisational objectives aligning individual and corporate goals. |
| T — | Time framed: to be completed within an agreed timescale. |

The organisational objectives are then translated into divisional, departmental, managerial and individual objectives or goals. However, they need to be broken down into targets and standards for individuals, which need to be (again in SMART terms) achievable and understandable.

### What is the difference between a target and a standard?

A target is usually specified in a numerate or quantitative manner while a standard is usually specified in a qualitative fashion. For example, suppose you, as a manager in a call centre were tasked with achieving an increase in 10% of sales calls for a particular client from your team. This would be a target. However, team members have to work to standards of behaviour required by the organisation. They may for example have to greet callers in a particular fashion. You cannot, therefore, in any way depart from those standards of behaviour to achieve your target. You can only achieve the increase by using your human resource more effectively. You could of course reduce your commitment to other types of calls but that might of itself generate other problems.

Here is an example of how setting targets without also setting standards can cause problems. A public sector organisation was tasked with sending individuals to a private Management Assessment Centre. The Management Assessment Centre was to assess these individuals to undertake appropriate management qualifications. This Centre expected to receive individuals who had been managers previously. The individual concerned at the public sector organisation however had only been tasked with achieving targets. Her job depended upon achieving a numeric target. The Assessment Centre complained that a large number of the referrals were not of the right kind. This was a waste of their time and effort. The person in the public sector organisation pointed out that this was not part of the remit she had been given. Her task was to meet her target. Not to meet that could result in the loss of her job. The Assessment Centre gave up that contract!

### Appraisal

Now more often entitled performance review, this is the system by which an employee's current performance and future potential may be reviewed.

Organisations often use the review system to assist with:

- human resource planning
- promotion
- succession planning
- training
- career development
- bonus payments.

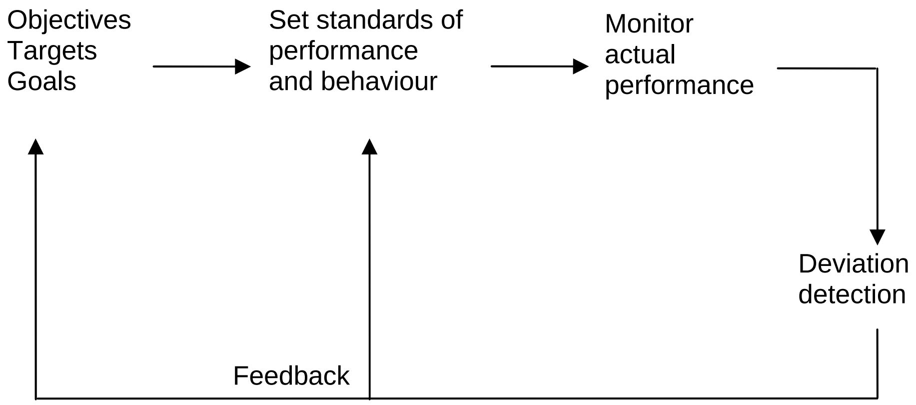
These reviews will also include discussions on competence, targets and standards. They can also provide benefits to the organisation in that they may:

- reveal adequacy, or otherwise, in personnel procedures such as recruitment and selection
- indicate if training is achieving improvements in performance
- help to identify potential for other jobs and management
- provide information as to whether objectives, targets, goals, standards are being met and if not, why not
- aid mutual understanding between managers and staff (improve communications).

Appraisal, of course, can have a number of formats but it is usually a matter of a subordinate being appraised by a superior, in which the performance of the subordinate is monitored over a specific timescale. The usual timescale is once a year but there could be mini-reviews in shorter timescales. Although this suggests over control, in fact it allows the appraiser and the appraisee to discuss legitimate reasons why performance can't happen — perhaps because of reasons completely outside the appraisee's control.

## Monitoring performance

As in all cases of monitoring, what is happening is an ongoing process. A standard feedback loop is normally followed.




Behaviour is likely to be appraised on direct observations by the supervisor, while checking results will be based on measuring outputs**.**

## Attendance management

This is based on examining any reasons for absenteeism during the period of appraisal. This could be seen as authority bearing down upon individuals. It is the right of organisations to look at reasons for absence. Unexplained absence actually suggests a failure of management in that it has not established a system to control these problems before they become serious. Equally, it is clear from all evidence that stress is manifesting itself to a much greater extent than before (CIPD: 2006). If organisations can get to this problem early then it could be easier to solve. At the moment some evidence seems to suggest that individual stress in organisations can be related to role conflict or ambiguity. This could suggest that the tasks and responsibilities assigned to a particular role are wrong, or the person filling the role is not the right person. Either way the appraisal or review should both bring the problem to light and provide agreed solutions. If the problem lies outside the organisation, as Mullins and Argyle (2003) point out, the appraisal can still provide solutions.

## Feedback

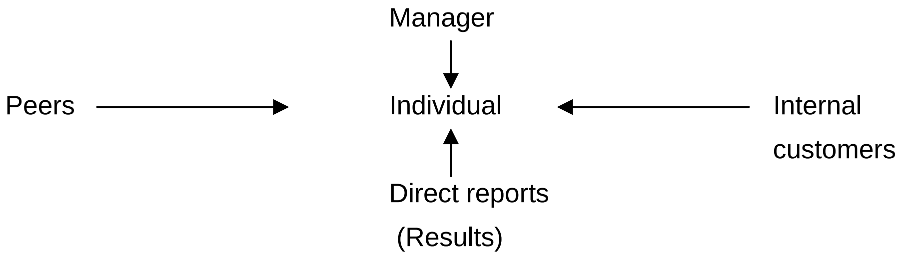
Clearly, in any appraisal or performance review both parties give and receive feedback. For example, an appraisee might be given information that he or she has met the agreed goals and targets and also met the behavioural standards required. The appraisee would also be invited to say how they understood things had gone over the review period and express any reservations they had or difficulties they have encountered. Unsatisfactory performance or behaviour would of course be raised but unless this involved proposed disciplinary action then it should be dealt with in the sense of trying to assist improvement to meet goals and objectives.

### 360 degree feedback

This is a relatively new feature of performance management according to Argyle (2003). It has been defined by Ward (1995) as 'The systematic collection and feedback of performance data on an individual or group, derived from a number of the stakeholders on their performance.'

Data is usually feedback in the form of rating against performance measures and it is sometimes referred to as multi-source assessment or multi-rater feedback.

A typical model of 360 degree feedback could be:




Evidence from research suggests that this form of feedback is increasingly being used in self-development or management development.

Turnow (1993) suggests that 360 degree feedback allows us to:

- check whether or not our perception of ourselves is matched by others — thus improving self awareness
- improve performance because of this enhanced self-awareness.

360 degree feedback methodologies include:

- questionnaires
- ratings, which use scales to measure both importance of specific items of behaviour and performance. Each area could be measured on a scale of 1–6
- data processing information which has been gathered then presented graphically.

The major advantages are:

- openness
- individuals have a broader perspective of themselves
- greater competency
- more reliable feedback
- better understanding of stakeholders
- key developments are identified for individuals, teams, units, departments etc.

The major disadvantages are:

- dishonest feedback
- stress in giving or receiving feedback
- lack of action following feedback
- over-reliance on technology
- too much bureaucracy.

While there are serious problems, there is little doubt that 360 degree feedback use will continue to grow. The disadvantages can be minimised by careful design, good communication, training and follow up.

## Activity 8

Explain how an organisation can improve performance by use of SMART objectives, managing performance and in particular by appraisal and feedback.

## Strategies to improve job performance

Earlier, in looking at motivation theories, it was suggested that Herzberg's theory had provided a basis for thinking about re-designing jobs. In particular, it was those factors leading to job satisfaction that provided this basis. Both the Scientific Management and Classical Management schools established the principle that people were fitted to rigidly defined and controlled jobs. Job design argues that jobs should be fitted to human needs.

Mullins (2004) defines job design as, 'concerned with the relationship between workers and the nature and content of jobs, and their task functions.'

He also suggests that two major reasons for job design are:

- to enhance the personal satisfaction people get from work
- to make best use of people as a valuable resource of the organisation.

The three approaches which derive from redesigning individual jobs are:

### *Job rotation*

This involves moving a person from one job to another. It obviously assists organisations in that it means that one person can be moved to other jobs as the need arises but it does not develop the level of skills of the person.

### *Job enlargement*

This involves increasing the size or scope of the job. It is horizontal job design and makes a job structurally bigger. It usually adds variety. Because it does not increase the level of skills, it is not normally valued highly by workers.

### *Job enrichment*

This approach derives from Herzberg's two factor theory and attempts to increase responsibility, involvement and sense of achievement. It attempts to achieve vertical job enlargement by:

- allowing greater freedom over scheduling and pacing of work
- allowing workers to make full product or deliver complete service
- providing jobs which make better use of skills and training
- the possibility of working in self-management teams
- greater direct contact with clients, customers or users.

Hackman and Oldhams's (1980) model of job enrichment suggests the approach creates core job characteristics which are:

- workers experience greater meaningfulness of work
- greater responsibility for work outcomes
- knowledge of actual results of work activities.

There is a broad mix of responses to the surveys into job enrichment. Some factors certainly improve worker perception of their jobs and tasks, whilst others seem to be more influenced by the situation, which could of course tie in with the contingency and situational approaches to management.

## The Quality of Working Life (QWL)

A government-sponsored approach, this tried to marry efficiency at work with genuine social responsibility. Mullins (2004) suggests that while it has not been well received and has been largely overtaken by the Total Quality Management approach it could be improved by being seen as a:

- goal — improve effectiveness, through more challenging, satisfying and creative jobs
- process — changing from a 'control' to 'involvement' organisation

- philosophy — view people as assets with skills to contribute and not just as costs.

### Empowerment

This approach stems from the increasing understanding that in today's business environment managers will need to relinquish close control in favour of allowing employees to make decisions and accept much greater responsibility for what they do.

Pickard (1993) suggests that there does seem to be empiric evidence that empowerment leads to better motivated staff, improved customer service and profits.

Wilkinson (1999) suggests that participative decision making is likely to lead to greater job satisfaction, better quality of decisions and increased efficiency.

### Self-managed work groups

This mainly stems from the work of Trist and Bamforth (1963), which became known as the socio-technical approach. To solve the very serious problems occurring at a coalfield when new technology was introduced, they set up work systems that married the existing social systems of employees with the new technical demands created by the technology brought in.

Each work group was fully autonomous in that each worker was trained to do any job, the group took responsibility for quantity and quality of output, job rotation took place as group members decided and communication channels to management were open and based on trust.

Originally, such groups were known as Autonomous Work Groups. Now entitled Self Management Teams or Groups, they are widespread and increasing in popularity in the USA and Japan.

The Advisory Conciliation and Arbitration Service (ACAS) strongly supports autonomous work groups to increase competitiveness and the quality of work life.

So too does Waterman (1982), an influential American who worked with Tom Peters to produce the *In Search of Excellence* series.

### Flexible working arrangements

As Mullins (2004) points out there has been an increase in flexibility in patterns of work organisation. Some of this stems from what was known as 'The Flexible Firm', and the distinguishing of core and peripheral workers. Other drivers have been the work-from-home syndrome and the new legal rights for parents, involving maternal and parental rights.

From initially being somewhat sceptical, many employers now find that flexible working can bring competitive benefits using alternative ways of working. Some of these ways could include staggering hours, allowing staff to choose (within limits) their working hours, job-sharing, and part-time work. Working from home generally means that staff can carry out the work when and how they like, provided they meet quality and time requirements.

Radcliffe suggests that flexible working might allow smaller businesses to compete more effectively with larger organisations.

The Department of Trade and Industry has suggested the following as flexible working arrangements that organisations can use to help improve the balance between work and home life for employees. These could also be of considerable benefit to the organisation:

- flexi-time
- staggering hours
- time off in lieu
- compressed working hours
- shift swapping
- self-rostering
- annual hours
- job sharing
- work at or from home
- tele-working
- breaks from work.

A final version of flex-working and a growing one is that of the portfolio worker. This individual works part-time for a number of different organisations on a contractual basis, which could vary from very short to fairly long periods of time.

### Quality circles

Although these groups first appeared in the United States, probably in the 1950s, they are most closely associated with Japan. This was because of the work of individuals who transformed Japanese industry. It became a byword for the high quality of its products because of the work of Americans such as W E Deming (1986) and Joseph Juran (1979). Among Japanese proponents of the quality revolution was Ouchi (1980).

Essentially quality circles are groups of workers within an organisation who meet together to identify, analyse and solve problems relating to quality or other aspects of day-to-day working arrangements.

They have a number of features:

- membership is usually voluntary
- they are usually small in number but in exceptional cases can number nearly forty
- they usually work at the same station
- the group selects the problems to be tackled and the methods
- a leader can be chosen — usually the supervisor
- they are trained in communication, problem solving, quality assurance techniques and group process
- they can recommend solutions and may be able to implement them.

Western organisations have modified the Japanese format a little. This is because employees here were less willing to see only the organisation benefit from the improvements. In Japan however it needs to be understood that employees saw work for an organisation as being a career for life and Japanese companies offered many benefits such as nursery schools and shops where employees could purchase all kinds of goods at greatly reduced prices.

Quality circles have their limitations. Solutions implemented might have a company wide repercussion, which a quality circle might not have grasped. There can also be resentment by individuals and by groups who may see their authority as being challenged. The question of rewards (outlined above) needs to be addressed.

**Note:** The original Japanese concept originally meant that literally all workers went into a quality huddle for the first 15 minutes or so of each working day to discuss problems and how to surmount them. They would then spend a short period of time 'psyching themselves up' to start work positively and effectively.

All evidence in the 1970s and 1980s shattered the belief that Japanese workers worked physically harder and longer than their European counterparts. The evidence suggested Japanese workers worked smarter.

## Training and development

This area is as Mullins (2004) (and many others) point out of particular relevance to the effective management and use of people. Armstrong (2003) writes that, 'The objective of learning and training for an organisation is to achieve its human resource strategy by ensuring that it has the skilled, knowledgeable and competent people required to meet its present and future needs'.

The benefits of training for organisations and individuals are that it can:

- increase the confidence, motivation and commitment of staff
- provide recognition, enhanced responsibility and the possibility of increased pay and promotion
- boost personal satisfaction, sense of achievement and broaden opportunities for career progression
- help to improve the availability, quality and skills of staff
- assist the HRM department with manpower planning in terms of numbers of people who will possess the skills and competencies needed for the future.

Armstrong suggests that learning, training and development needs must be analysed first for organisations (corporate needs), secondly for departments, teams or functions (group needs) and thirdly for individual employees (individual needs). He suggests that each of the above areas need to be analysed by the following methods.

*Corporate*

- Analyse business plans
- Analyse human resource plans
- Surveys (internal and external reviews)

*Group*

- Surveys (by departments, teams, functions)
- Performance and development reviews

*Individuals*

- Learning specifications
- Person specifications
- Job, role, competency analysis
- Performance and development reviews

## Training needs analysis

This can be carried out in a variety of ways. For example an HRM department could look at a work team and see if each member meets the full person specification for their specific job. If they do not, there is a gap. The next question is 'Does this gap have to be filled?' If it does, 'How will we fill this gap? Will it be filled by training or could some developmental process such as coaching or mentoring fill the gap?'

A second method might be that future changes in work processes, methods or job responsibilities are planned and a programme of action needs to be created to ensure that staff are trained or developed to meet the new requirements.

Thirdly it could be that the job, role and competency analysis suggests that there are common gaps in skills and knowledge possessed by employees. For the benefit of the organisation these gaps need to be closed, usually by training. Clearly, employees will benefit in that they will possess greater skills and knowledge.

## Personal development planning

This is a process that initially feels as if it should be simple and straightforward. Essentially, it is carried out by individual employees with guidance, encouragement and help from their managers as required. The problem is that in some organisations it is formal and in others informal. The purpose of PDP is to provide what Tamkin, Barber and Hirsch (1995) call ‘a self-organised learning framework’.

When this is done formally it is part of the Performance Review and Performance Management Process. In this situation there are usually three stages which come together at the appraisal interview with an employee’s immediate manager.

### *Stage 1*

Analyse the current situation and development needs.

### *Stage 2*

Set goals.

Could include improving performance, acquiring new skills, extending knowledge, developing specified competences, moving across or upwards in organisation, preparing for changes.

### *Stage 3*

Prepare action plan. Should include:

- outcomes expected
- responsibilities
- support to be given
- timing
- methods, for example observation, project work, e-learning resource centres, coaching, mentoring, assignments and action learning.

**Note:** Many such plans are now expressed as ‘Learning Contracts’.

## Delegation

This is one of the most powerful tools to develop subordinates in a manager's armoury. At its best, as both Handy (1985) and Mullins (2004) point out, properly delegated authority and responsibility leads to:

- best use of time by both manager and subordinate
- a very good aid to training and development
- encouraging the use of specialist expertise, therefore better decision making
- greater operational efficiency where there is geographic separation
- better use of resources bringing economic benefits
- a workforce which is more committed and better trained.

Two major reasons why many managers fail to delegate are:

- fear that subordinate is not competent and manager will be blamed for that incompetency
- greater fear that the subordinate will do a very good job which the manager might find threatening.

Handy (1985) sums up the problems of delegation neatly. He argues that it is a matter of trust plus control. He also points out that delegation is always a risk.

The trust is the trust the subordinate feels the manager has in them. The control is the control that the manager has over the subordinate. To relinquish some of that control by the manager, ie to delegate is to demonstrate trust.

As both Handy and Mullins agree 'You cannot just delegate responsibility. You must also delegate authority.'

Both authors also agree that if delegation is to be made truly effective then the following will help.

- The manager should have had some say in selecting subordinates.
- The territory of trust for both the manager and the subordinate is clearly defined.
- There is control of ends, not means. Control of ends or results does not break the trust principle but control of the means, that is ways to achieve those results, usually does break the trust, because it takes away subordinate choice and thus authority.

In setting objectives via delegation, Handy suggests that a number of factors will influence whether or not delegation is effective. These are:

- the higher level the objectives, the greater the attraction for the subordinate
- the more the subordinate is involved with setting the objectives the greater will be the commitment
- rewards against performance need to be carefully handled. If the subordinate feels they are too demanding, trust may vanish or the subordinate may try to lower the demands to ensure being able to meet them
- subordinate must get knowledge of results, ie feedback.

Interestingly, too, Handy suggests that autonomous work groups and self-managed work groups are excellent examples of participation and delegation. He also suggests they are good examples of empowerment.

## Coaching and mentoring

Earlier we mentioned these techniques, drawing on the work of Mullins and others. This time we will use a slightly different approach outlined by Armstrong (2003). The major differences, of course, remain. A coach does not have to be an expert in a subject**.** A mentor must be.

### *Coaching*

Armstrong suggests that coaching is a person-to-person technique to develop individual skills, knowledge and attitudes. He also states that it is most effective if carried out informally as part of the normal process of management or team leadership.

It is his expressed view that coaching consists of:

- helping people to become aware of how well they are doing and what they need to learn
- controlled delegation
- using whatever situations arise as learning opportunities
- providing guidance on how to carry out specific tasks, but always on the basis of helping individuals to learn rather than the authoritarian aspect of what to do and how to do it.

### *Mentoring*

Armstrong's expressed view of mentoring is that it is the process of using specifically selected and trained individuals to provide guidance and advice which will help to develop the careers of the mentees allocated to them.

He argues that mentoring complements both learning on the job and formal training by providing those who are to benefit from it with individual guidance from experienced competent managers.

You should note that mentoring is very often a feature of vocational training, in that organisations that offer such training very often include mentor training as part of the process.

While there is no generally agreed list on precisely what every mentor should do, Armstrong (2003) suggests that, broadly, every mentoring programme should include:

- advice on drawing up self-development programmes or learning contracts
- general help with learning programmes
- help to acquire skills and knowledge to do a new job
- advice on how to deal with administrative, technical and people issues which crop up
- information on corporate culture, care values and specific management styles
- coaching in specific skills
- assistance in tackling projects
- thoughtful guidance and 'a sympathetic ear'.

## Management development

In the previous section we have looked at coaching and mentoring and suggested that these activities should be a formal part of the manager's tasks.

Obviously being trained in these two techniques adds to the manager's range of skills but as is suggested it also brings benefits to the organisation.

Lilley (2002) suggests that there are a number of competing models to develop effective managers but believes that not one of the models is of itself sufficient.

Heller, formerly the editor of *Management Today* suggests that 'Management Development must be an integral part of organisational development' (Heller 1997).

Heller also stresses that 'Today organisations face a dramatically changed environment' (Heller 1997)**.** Managers must keep up-to-date with new techniques and methods.

In relation to these new needs Heller also comments, somewhat controversially it could be said, that 'Today managements whose minds and deeds are stuck in the status quo are obsolescent, weak and failing. Renewal and nimbleness have become paramount necessities for the large and established' (Heller 1997).

Clarke (1993) agrees to some extent with Heller, suggesting that the manager of the future must be developed to master three specific roles.

- Leader — think of Mintzberg's roles.
- Coach and mentor.
- Facilitator — moving the organisation onwards with continuous improvement, encouraging new ideas and getting the best out of employees.

As with all other aspects of organisational development, management development must be seen to meet the requirement of the organisation. This means that organisations must have effective human resource planning, coupled with procedures for recruitment and selection which are robust and successful.

Mullins (2004) points out that performance review and management is essential to the process of management development and also points to the absolute need for feedback.

Finally, the techniques that could be used for management development could include:

- on the job training
- off the job training, such as MBAs or Diplomas
- other techniques such as 'away days' or 'outbound courses' where candidates tackle group or individual exercises.

A new and growing requirement for many employees is to be able to demonstrate continuing professional development. This can be carried out both personally or through the organisation.

## Activity 9

Think about an organisation you are familiar with. It could be the one you work for at the moment. What do you think will be the importance of Training and Development for the organisation in the near future? What are the things that drive you towards the views you hold?

## Grievance and disciplinary procedures

All organisations are required to have HRM procedures in place as part of the policy framework which will have been established. Both are extremely important in the sense that, if not handled properly, they can cause considerable damage to an organisation. They also say a great deal as Mullins (2004) and particularly

Armstrong (2003) point out, about the ethics that underline organisational behaviour.

Because they are procedures, they will state what must be done as well as how to do it. For instance, if in a grievance procedure it suggests that after a stage within the procedure**,** ‘the employee will be advised of the result within three working days’ and the employee is not, this fact would count heavily against the organisation at any future employment tribunal.

There is always the possibility of assistance for organisations from a body established by the government but which functions independently. The Advisory Conciliation and Arbitration Service (ACAS) has three main duties:

- to resolve disputes
- to provide conciliatory services for individuals and organisations in, for example, unfair dismissal cases
- to give advice, help and information on industrial relation and employment issues.

However as Armstrong (2003) points out, the actual work undertaken by ACAS has changed greatly over its lifetime. Initially it was heavily involved in collective conciliation and arbitration. Very often on television it would be possible to see groups of employers and trade unionists arriving at the front door of ACAS in bids to solve disputes between the employers and trade unions. This aspect has declined mainly for two reasons. Firstly, work patterns have altered dramatically and are continuing to do so. Secondly, and probably more importantly, ACAS has drawn up many practical models of policies and procedures which ensure that organisations are acting in accordance with employment and other relevant legislation. You covered most of this legislation and the requirements demanded earlier in this module but we will outline some of the areas that are relevant to this Unit.

ACAS will provide policies and/or procedures in the following areas:

- policies and procedures for Human Resource Management
- policies and procedures for Health and Safety
- procedures for Disciplinary Issues
- procedures for Grievance Issues
- procedures for Efficiency/Capability Issues
- procedures for Redundancy Issues.

**Note:** These ACAS models are set out in what are known as Codes of Practice. Disciplinary and Grievance issues are statutorily required, under the Employment Act 2002 (Dispute Resolution) Regulations 2004.

A grievance occurs when an individual wishes to raise with management an issue over which the individual feels unfairly treated. It is important to note that the grievance could be against a fellow employee for allegedly unacceptable behaviour. However, the grievant has the right to request the employer to deal with the issue on her or his behalf. The usual basis is a staged process with specific time periods between each stage.

### Important

The codes of practice tend to insist that an employee should be accompanied by a representative of their choosing.

### Grievance procedure

This procedure is normally initiated by the aggrieved employee.

*Stage 1*

The grievance should be raised initially with the immediate manager. If there is no satisfaction then within five days the matter will be referred to Stage 2.

*Stage 2*

The issue will be referred to the next higher level of management. At this stage it may be, depending upon the situation, advisable to have formal representation available for both sides, for example Unions and Human Resource staff. Failing satisfaction at this stage, within ten working days the matter will be referred to Stage 3.

*Stage 3*

This usually involves senior management and will almost certainly involve the employee’s representative and the appropriate senior member from the Human Resource Department. Whatever the decision made here, all aspects will be formally recorded. If there is no satisfaction then Stage 4 could include a number of options.

*Stage 4*

The organisation may have a Mediation Council or a Joint Consultative Body.

Or

The services of ACAS may be sought.

If even after this there is no satisfaction, the employee might decide to proceed to an Employment Appeals Tribunal.

**Note:** Most organisational procedures provide a different route for Stage 1 (usually to HR) where the grievance materially involves the immediate line manager (for example bullying, harassment etc). It is also important to note that some organisations set tighter timescales (for example 48 hours to complete Stage 1 or move to Stage 2).

## Disciplinary procedures

Unlike grievance, disciplinary procedures are initiated by management, on behalf of the organisation.

These procedures are designed for when an employee's behaviour is alleged to have fallen below the expected standard. The purpose is to try and guide the individual back to the required behaviour.

The Code of Practice suggests guidelines for disciplinary behaviour;

- the procedure must be in writing
- it must specify to whom it applies
- it must provide for speedy action
- it must allow an employee the right to be represented
- no action can be taken until the matter is investigated and the staged process gone through
- no employee should be dismissed for first breach of discipline except for gross misconduct
- employees must be given an explanation of the penalty imposed and a right of appeal.

At present, the Employment Act 2002 allows dismissal in the following circumstances, provided the employer has acted reasonably in the circumstances:

- Misconduct
- Redundancy
- Contravention of duties or restrictions imposed by legislation
- Other substantial reasons to justify dismissal
- Not capable of performing the job or insufficiently qualified.

Disciplinary action should only be taken after a thorough investigation (or further investigation if offences are repeated).

The following is one suggested process.

### *Stage 1*

A verbal informal warning is given to the employee in the first instance or where the offence is minor. It should normally be given by the immediate manager.

### *Stage 2*

A formal warning is issued by a senior manager.

### *Stage 3*

A written formal warning is issued by a senior manager to an employee if a series of minor offences is committed, or when an employee commits a serious offence. A copy of the written warning is placed in the employee's personnel records and will be retained for a specific time, for example twelve months. The employee has a right to appeal.

*Stage 4*

A final written warning can be issued by a senior manager, supported by the HRM department.

### Summary dismissal

All employees should be fully aware of the conduct that may lead to immediate dismissal. This will be spelt out in the Procedure and should be in any employee handbook. Even in this scenario however, an investigation must be carried out and the Appeals Procedure must be gone through.

### Efficiency or capability procedure

Earlier in this Unit we looked at reviewing performance of staff. We identified how important it is to monitor performance and give feedback to staff. This procedure is designed to deal with the situation where an employee might not be meeting the agreed standards of performance.

*Stage 1*

An initial informal meeting will be held with the employee to establish the reasons for not meeting the standards and how to improve the situation. However:

- if it is discovered the standards are set too high they will be reviewed
- if the problems are personal, counselling/support should be offered
- if it is felt that the organisation's standards have changed, assistance will be offered to help the employee to conform to the standards
- if the poor performance is due to misconduct the disciplinary procedure is likely to be involved
- a time will be stipulated when any agreed improvement should be evident by.

*Stage 2*

Should the hoped-for improvement not take place by the agreed date, then a formal interview should be arranged between an appropriate manager and the employee plus the employee's representative. This will be designed to:

- clearly explain the shortfall
- identify the cause and how it can be rectified, for example by training, retraining, support etc
- obtain employee's commitment to reach standard
- set a period to reach standard with ongoing monitoring
- advise employee what will happen if standard is not met.

The outcome of this interview must be recorded and a copy given to the employee.

It should have become apparent to you that these procedures place quite a heavy burden on managers at all levels to have the specific skills to make an effective contribution to the procedures and processes. Two particular skills which will be needed are investigative and interview skills.

In the investigative phase a manager must keep an open mind asking open and probing questions. Areas to be dealt with could include:

- the background to the problem
- the circumstances in which the problem occurred
- latent or manifest causes.

The same is true for the interviews, which need to be conducted during the procedures. The basis for these interviews should be:

- introduction
- investigation
- listening
- closing.

Each one of these requires necessary skills. It is the responsibility of the organisation to see that managers have these skills and if they do not, train them to develop skills.

Managers who do not conduct these procedures properly could make some very expensive mistakes, to be paid for by their organisations. A recent example is that of Ian Wilmut, Director of the Roslin Institute (which cloned Dolly the sheep). An employee alleged that he had been discriminated against by Professor Wilmut and the Institute. The Employment Tribunal found that Professor Wilmut had not discriminated against the employee but the Roslin Institute had unfairly dismissed the employee because it had not acted reasonably during the disciplinary procedure. The Tribunal awarded up to £60,000 in compensation. The matter was referred to an Employment Appeals Tribunal (The Scotsman, 24/8/06). The case is particularly interesting as the employee initially sought £1,000,000 compensation for racial discrimination, however the Tribunal rejected that allegation. (In discrimination cases, there is no financial cap on awards.)

### A general note regarding these procedures

It is difficult to provide specific examples because many of them are much more lengthy than the outlines provided in this outcome. Many for example, are more than thirty pages long. Publicly funded organisations (as well as some other organisations) often publish their procedures on their websites. You may like to look up some of them to see how long they are. You may be familiar with the procedures of your local Council but, if you are not, then its website may be a good place to start. Government department websites may be another useful source.

## Activity 10

Compare the disciplinary, grievance and other procedures and policies linked to performance in an organisation you know with the general outlines in this support pack. You may well discover that they are even more robust than the recommended procedures.

## SAQ 12

What, in your view, are the most important things you as a manager can do to get effective performance from the people you are responsible for?

# Study notes for Outcome 3

### Outcome 3: Advise on the management of teams

**Knowledge and/or Skills**

- Differences between groups and teams
- Characteristics of effective teams
- Stages of group development

## What is a group?

In studying this particular topic we might ask ‘Why?’ A number of studies have suggested that not only employees but managers spent a great deal of their time working in groups.

Handy (1985) suggests that managers spent up to 50% of their working day in one group or another. He also says that for senior managers as much as 80% of their time can be spent in groups. They are an essential part or working life because we generally break up the structure of an organisation into working groups.

### Definition of groups

1 Mullins (2004) suggests one essential feature is that members see themselves as belonging to a group.
2 Schein (1988) suggested that a group ‘Consists of a number of people who have a common objective or task, an awareness of group identity or boundary, a minimum set of agreed values and norms which regulates their actions.’
3 Probably the most widely accepted definition is that of Schein (1988) who says that:

A psychological group is any number of people who:

- interact with one another
- are psychologically aware of one another
- perceive themselves to be a group.

Argyle (2003) argues that organisations consist of groups of people working together. Therefore he says that for managers to understand and influence organisational behaviour it is necessary for them to understand the nature of the following:

- formal groups
- informal groups
- the processes that take place within groups
- group ideology
- group cohesion
- the factors that make for group effectiveness.

Before looking at some of these areas we might want to try and clarify the difference between groups and teams in an organisational setting.

Teams tend to be brought together for specific tasks within organisations. Obeng (1994) believes that teams occur, 'When a number of people have a common goal and their personal success is dependent on the success of others'.

However, Hall (2001) suggests that if we ask the question 'What is a team?' there is never really a definitive answer.

Cane (1996) suggests that most organisations are usually very unsure whether they have teams or groups of people working together.

Mullins (2004) suggests that all teams by definition are groups but it certainly does not follow that all groups are teams. He also argues that the terms groups and teams are now commonly used interchangeably. Crainer (1998), for example, refers to team-working becoming very fashionable in recent years to describe the work of small and large groups. Often, too, when a group is highly praised for very effective behaviour, both members of the group and others will refer to the excellent teamwork.

We should therefore move on to the differing types of groups earlier identified by Argyle.

### Formal groups

Formal groups are those which are brought together to achieve a defined purpose within an organisation.

Argyle (2003) says that they consist of people who are brought together with the necessary skills to carry out the tasks. A system exists for directing, controlling and co-ordinating the group's activities. He also points out that the structure and size of the group will depend upon the nature of the task, although culture and management style will play a part.

In common with other writers, he asserts that the more routine and detailed the task the more structured the group will be and the more likely it is that the leader's role will be authoritarian. The more diffused the task, the less structured the group and the more likely it will be that the leader's role will move more towards encouraging, co-ordinating and supporting. Therefore, even for formal groups, we are likely to see differing types, structures and work methods depending upon the nature of the tasks to be undertaken.

## Informal groups

Schein (1988) maintains that 'Informal groups always arise where opportunities exist in organisation'.

Mullins (2004) suggests that informal groups are based more on personal relationships and agreement of group social needs. In other words, they form from relationships and needs which are unnecessary for the organisation. There is also some research that they can develop from activities or interests outside of work, for example sports or other kinds of clubs.

The same research tends to show that they can be horizontal cliques but vertical or mixed groups can also be formed.

The most famous study into informal groups in work organisations was that of Elton Mayo (1939) and his associates (see Dickson 1939) in the Hawthorne Studies in the late 1920s and early 1930s. Their two most important findings were establishing that the unofficial or informal groups did form and that they often appointed an unofficial or informal leader who could carry more authority than the appointed leader. It became clear from these studies that management needed to become aware that these groups formed, and needed to develop the skills to ensure that they were not a negative force within the organisation. Further studies indicated that for an organisation these groups could have advantages and disadvantages.

### *Advantages*

- They have a common value system and shared norms.
- They provide social satisfaction for members.
- If management learns to use the grapevine**,** the informal method of communication, this can help flows of organisational information.
- They provide pressure groups getting action or change.
- They provide standards or norms of behaviour.

### *Disadvantages*

- They can provide a counter-organisational function to frustrate management requirements.
- They can become a disruptive force.
- They can provide resistance to change.
- The norms and standards can work against management. For example in the Hawthorne Studies the unofficial groups kept output just below the target set by the management.
- The grapevine can be a powerful rumour source.
- They can be responsible for differing forms of conflict.

You will no doubt see that for managers, learning to find ways to move informal working groups towards the positive aspect of group behaviour is, to say the least, challenging**.** However it is very much worth doing because of the benefits which accrue to the organisation. There is little doubt that group dynamics, as Mullins (2004) points out, ensure whether a group is formal or informal, members will receive support and co-operation from one another. Therefore he suggests, as do others such as Belbin (2000) and Tuckman (1965), that an autocratic or authoritarian approach is unlikely to be successful with informal groups. Most writers, including the above, suggest that managers need to look at the nature of the tasks which might have caused the groups to form and the values and norms that bind the members into a cohesive group.

### Characteristics of effective teams

Mullins (2004) asserts that team factors which can play a vital role in their effectiveness are:

- cohesiveness
- size
- supportiveness
- group roles.

He also suggests that effectiveness is enhanced when group members exhibit:

- a belief in shared aims and objectives
- a sense of commitment to the group
- an acceptance of group norms and values
- a feeling of mutual trust and dependency
- a full participation by members and decision-making by consensus
- a free flow of information and communication
- an open expression of feelings and disagreements
- the resolution of conflict by the members themselves
- a lower level of staff turnover, absenteeism, accidents, errors and complaints.

The last point demonstrates the value of effective teams to organisations, since it clearly follows that results will be improved by the decrease in negative factors. You should also be able to see how Mullins' points fit into the four factors given earlier. The last of these is Group Role and the most influential figure in this area is Belbin (1993). The differing types of roles, played by team members were described by Belbin as being:

- co-ordinators — who control the way the team operates
- shapers — who specify the ways the team should work
- implementers — who turn proposals into practical work procedures
- plants — who produce ideas and strategies
- resource investigators — who explore the adaptability of resources, ideas and developments outside the team
- monitor evaluators — who analyse problems and evaluate ideas.
- team workers — who provide support to members, improve communication and foster team spirit.
- completer-finishers — who maintain a sense of urgency in the team.
- specialists — who provide knowledge in rare supply.

Belbin insisted that the most effective teams were mixed, with a balance of team-roles. He also noted that the role an individual takes is not fixed and may change according to the situation. Individuals in small teams usually perform several roles.

Studies by the following researchers have tended to be supportive of Belbin's Team-Role theory and his Self-Perception Inventory, which is designed to provide group members with a simple means of assessing their best team-roles:

- Arroba and Wedgwood — Oppenheim (1994)
- White (1999)
- Fisher et al (2000).

## Interaction analysis

This broadly is based on the work Bales (1950) did on small work-groups. He studied small groups to find out how they interacted and what procedures they used for that interaction. He identified two factors for what he termed Task Function and a further two which he labelled as Socio-Emotional Functions.

*Task 1 Questions*

- Ask for orientations
- Ask for opinions
- Ask for suggestions

*Task 2 Attempted answers*

- Give suggestions
- Give opinions
- Give orientations

*Socio-emotional — Positive reactions*

- Solidarity
- Tension release
- Agreeing

*Socio-emotional — Negative reactions*

- Show antagonism
- Show tension
- Disagreeing

If a team is to be effective as Argyle (among many others) indicates, then two main sets of processes must be undertaken. These are:

*Task functions*

Initiating, information-seeking, diagnosing, opinion-seeking, evaluating, decision-managing.

*Maintenance functions*

Encouraging, compromising, peacekeeping, clarifying, standard-setting.

Think, too, about Adair's Leadership Theory (2003) in which he suggests that in fulfilling their roles leaders have to satisfy the following needs:

- task needs
- group maintenance needs
- individual needs.

### Size

In general group theory two kinds of groups are identified. These are Primary Groups, which fit the definitions of psychological groups we have used and are said to be normally not more than 12–14 members with face-to-face interaction. The second kind are Secondary Groups, which can be up to 50 strong in membership and, it is suggested, cannot meet Schein's definition of a group.

Some of the evidence tends to suggest that effective groups/teams can only be about 5–7 strong, although Belbin seems to agree with the primary group size suggested. That is, effective groups can be up to 12–14 strong. Beyond that it is suggested that it is difficult to achieve cohesiveness and the face-to-face interactions which, according to the evidence so far is an absolute imperative.

### Nature of the task

We have already indicated that if workers are involved in similar work, share a common task or face the same problems, this can assist cohesiveness. Work can also bring staff together to communicate and interact on a regular basis, even though they do not work together for large parts of their time at work. Remember Belbin's mixed team-roles. Equally, if work is routine or monotonous it can be difficult for teams to form, as it can be where people work in a noisy environment and are probably forced to use ear defenders. Also if work demands the formation of large or secondary groups, it is highly unlikely that effective work groups or teams can form.

## Stages of group development

The most popular model of how groups form and develop is that of Tuckman (1965), who identified four stages.

### *1 Forming*

The bringing together of a number of individuals who formulate the initial objectives. At this stage, leaders, patterns of behaviour and roles begin to emerge. There is likely to be anxiety and high dependence on leaders.

### *2 Storming*

As people begin to know one another they start to present their views and disagreements and arguments begin to occur. It could mean conflict and the eventual collapse of the group but, if this stage is successfully passed, then new objectives and operating procedures can be established.

### *3 Norming*

This is when group cohesion is developed, norms and values are established for those who are to be members, views are exchanged openly, mutual support and co-operation developed and increased and the group acquires a sense of its identity. This is also the stage at which members agree to conform to the standards of behaviour which have been established. You might have studied the experiments on group conformity carried out by Asch, Milgram and Sheriff, which would give you further insight into this process.

### *4 Performing*

This is when interpersonal problems are resolved, roles are flexible and functional, there are constructive attempts to complete tasks and energy is available for effective work.

This model was later updated by Tuckman and Jenson (1977) to include Adjourning, a fifth stage. This involves the dissolution of the group, the termination of roles, the completion of tasks and reduction of dependency. The adjourning process can be stressful for those involved, especially when the dissolution is unplanned.

## The practical results of effective work groups

- Low labour turnover
- Low absenteeism
- Low accident rates
- Higher productivity
- Targets are met or surpassed
- Time is not wasted
- Interest is shown by staff
- Commitment

- Participation
- New ideas
- Staff want to be developed.

## Activity 11

| |
|---|
| Why is it crucially important for managers to increase their understanding of group and team theory so that they can advise on the management of teams? |

# Study notes for Outcome 4

### Outcome 4: Evaluate processes for the recruitment and selection of people

**Knowledge and/or Skills**

- Human Resource planning
- Specifying job requirements
- Selecting people for jobs
- Induction

## Human resource planning

Argyle (2003) suggests that traditionally Human Resource Planning (HRP) has been seen as a strategy for the acquisition, utilisation, improvement and retention of an enterprising human resource. Liff (2003), however, suggests that this approach derives from a top-down approach in which quantitative techniques are applied to long term assessments of supply and demand. She points out that 'There has been a shift from reconciling numbers of employees with predictable stable jobs, towards a greater concern with their skills, their development and deployment' (Liff 2003).

The Chartered Institute of Bankers in Scotland (2003) also argues in its study lessons to potential managers that the definition given above by Argyle is too broad and effectively covers the whole of the Human Resource Management Field. They suggest there are two major activities in HRP. These are:

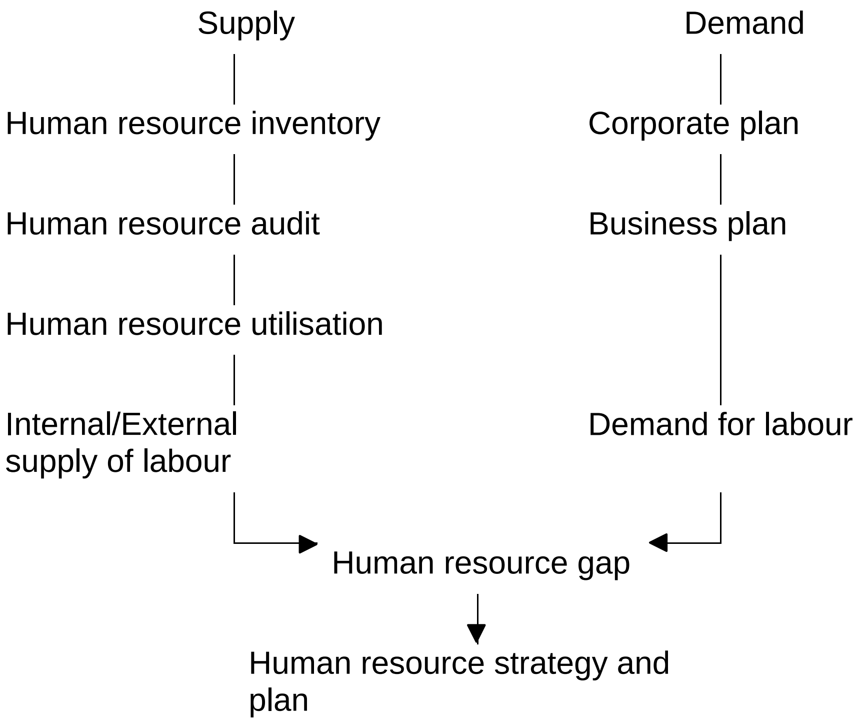
- analysing current manpower resources
- assessing future demand and predicting those changes which will affect supply.

Mullins (2004) believes there are four main stages in the process which are:

- analysis of existing staffing resources
- an estimation of likely changes by the target date
- a forecast of staffing requirements necessary to achieve corporate objectives by the target date
- measures to ensure that required staffing resources are available as and when required.

Holloway (2002) suggests that companies however, often fall into the trap of failing to check on their own staff. In other words they look externally before fully analysing what they already have.

Perhaps we can see what Holloway is driving at by producing a simple flow chart of the HRP process.




Holloway's point is that if we have accurately identified the need (the demand), then on the supply side if we have carried out the Inventory, Audit and Utilisation effectively this should allow us to make better informed judgements about whether it is possible to train and retrain existing staff (whom we know) to meet the need, or whether we should venture into the market (which may be expensive and to a large extent unknown).

The main way in which organisations set out to discover what each job comprises is known as job analysis. This technique is the process of collecting, analysing and setting out information about the content of jobs in order to provide the data for job descriptions and person specifications. But, before moving on to look at job analysis, we need to look at two other areas briefly. These are Role Analysis and Skill and Competency Analysis.

### Role analysis

Argyle (2003) suggests that again the purpose is to collect information relating to the work people do but to look at the part that people play in carrying out their jobs rather than the tasks they perform. It is therefore concerned with the broader aspects of the behaviour expected of role holders as well as work content.

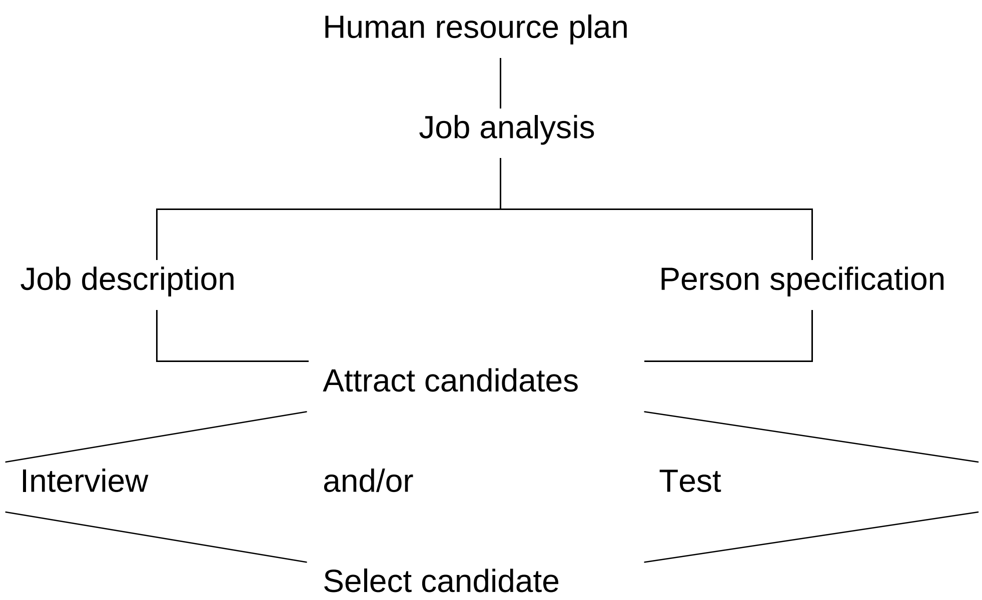
Role analysis according to Mullins (2004) and Torrington, Hall and Taylor (2002) distinguishes between what people have to do, the part they play in doing it (behaviour) and the knowledge, skills and experience needed to perform the role competently. It is concerned with generic (the same role carried out by a number of people) as well as individual roles.

### Competency analysis

This is concerned with establishing what someone requires to enable them to carry out their role in terms of, first, behavioural competences (that is, what behaviours are expected of staff to do their work well) and secondly technical or functional competences (what they are expected to know and to be able to do to perform their job well). Analysis requires to be carried out on both these areas to ensure that job performance requirements are met.

You should be aware that Vocational Qualifications are said to be competency-based, ie standards are determined which those undertaking the qualifications must meet. There are also requirements to demonstrate both generic and specific knowledge, which are necessary to perform effectively in the area covered by the qualification.

We can see the part played by job analysis if we look at a simple flow chart of the recruitment and selection process.



### Analysing existing human resources

This has already been identified in the Human Resource Plan flow chart as the Human Resource Inventory. In effect this is a stock-take of the current labour resources within an organisation. Record systems are usually computerised. Casson (1978) suggests that very few organisations actually use this system to carry out regular monitoring activities through which human resource stocks and flows and their relationship to business needs can be better understood, assessed and controlled. He also argues that such monitoring will highlight problem areas and establish bases to respond better to unforeseen events. It is also an activity, he suggests, by which change management can proceed more effectively and the effects of alternative policies and actions can be investigated.

The Human Resource Audit is a factual base to provide organisations with a detailed picture of what is occurring within a workforce on areas such as labour turnover, absence, sickness and lateness figures.

There will clearly be losses for natural reasons, too, for example resignations, retirements, promotions etc. These are normally dealt with but they can also provide clues as to the overall staffing position.

### Employee turnover

There are a number of techniques to measure this, as the use of only one measure can be very misleading.

Labour/Turnover wastage index

$$\frac{\text{Numbers leaving in one year}}{\text{Numbers employed at start of year}} \times 100$$

Research tends to show that wastage is linked to length of service. Short service or younger employees tend to be more likely to leave.

Labour stability index

$$\frac{\text{Number of people with more than one year's service}}{\text{Numbers employed one year ago}} \times 100$$

Indicates the proportion of the workforce with longer service, which as pointed out earlier, is less likely to leave.

### Half-line index

This is a measurement of the time it takes for a group to run down to half its size through natural wastage. To run down staffing is generally seen as not effective.

### Exit interviews

These are used to establish why people are leaving. If they are to be believed, more people tend to leave for positive reasons than negative reasons. Positive reasons could include:

- more pay
- better prospects
- more security
- opportunity to develop new skills.

Negative reasons could include:

- problems with bosses
- problems with colleagues
- bullying or harassment
- other forms of stress.

According to the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (2006) the costs of turnover, however it occurs, can be very substantial. They suggest the average cost per leaver is £8,200 (£12,000 for senior managers). Clearly if labour turnover is high then this can produce alarming sums of wasted money for organisations.

### Forecasting future human resource requirements

Argyle (2003) indicates that there are a number of techniques to assist in forecasting future human resource requirement. These are:

*Scenario analysis*

Reilly suggests that, 'It is intended to open minds to a range of possibilities, that, organisations may have to confront in what is a rapidly changing environment. These possibilities are then ordered to produce a series of internally consistent futures. It not only looks at possible future planning but seeks to identify and examine the possible consequences of events' (Reilly 1999).

In management we might describe this as contingency thinking.

### *Demand forecasting*

This is the process of estimating the future numbers of people required and the likely skills and competences they will need. Factors that will need to be taken into account include:

- business plans
- budgets
- labour markets
- intended plans or projects
- succession planning
- turnover rates.

### *Managerial or expert judgement*

This is the most frequently used method. It requires managers and specialists to assess future workloads and decide how many people are needed. Argyle suggests that although it is the most commonly used method it is not very accurate.

### *Ratio trend analysis*

This method involves studying the past ratios between differing types of workers and noting the changes occurring between them, for example full-time and part-time. Future activity levels are then assessed and the results are used to determine the new numbers of differing types required.

### *Forecasting skill and competence requirements*

To a large extent, this method will depend on judgement of how new technology will create demand for new skills.

In the end the forecast of the likely supply of labour needed in the future will be an amalgam of all these techniques. It will still be a matter of the judgement of managers and the analysis they make of the information available to them as to how the human resource plan will take shape.

## Specifying job requirements

In the flow chart provided it is indicated that the two documents created as a result of job analysis are entitled ‘Job Description’ and ‘Person Specification’.

A job description is created to describe the main duties and responsibilities attached to the job.

A person specification outlines the skills, knowledge and attributes needed by any person to do that job effectively. It can also suggest which are essential and which are desirable.

The following possible list of contents for a job description is derived from Argyle (2003).

**Job Description**

| | |
|---|---|
| Job title | |
| Department — Section location | |
| Wage/Salary range | |
| Function of department | |
| Main purpose of job | |
| Duties and responsibilities | |
| Limits on authority | |
| Responsible to: | |
| Responsible for: | |
| Specific functional contacts | |
| Signature of Head of Department | |
| | |
| Date Prepared | Author |

Your organisation may have a different approach particularly if it has work roles which may vary considerably from day to day depending on what is taking place at the time. One solution to this is to create generic job descriptions for broad roles in the organisation rather than specific descriptions for a particularly well-defined role. Job descriptions in cases like this tend to list the responsibilities, and not list particular activities or tasks.

There are considerable criticisms of job descriptions, for example Townsend (1985) refers to them as straightjackets, only working for repetitive jobs and high turnover situations. Two other common complaints he itemises are that they freeze a job in time and can allow staff to hide behind them when they do not want to change. Belbin (1997) also suggests that they lead to arguments over the boundaries between jobs and cannot serve the function of dealing with the duties and activities of a dynamic group.

## Person Specification

The following is a simple framework for this document, which is based on Alec Rodger's Seven Point Plan (1952).

| Job Title | | |
|---|---|---|
| Company/Department | | |
| Criteria | Essential | Desirable |
| Qualifications | | |
| Attainment/ Competencies | | |
| Special aptitudes | | |
| Physical makeup | | |
| Circumstances | | |
| Interests | | |
| Disposition | | |

John Munro Fraser's (1954) five fold grading system covers:

- impact on others
- aquired qualifications
- innate abilities
- motivation
- adjustment.

A later development is the competencies approach, which Argyle (2003) and Mullins (2004) suggested is better when used for Recruitment and Selection purposes. Argyle suggests the competencies used should meet the following criteria:

- Focus on competencies demonstrated in working life, for example leadership, teamwork, initiative.
- Predict successful job performance, for example achievement, motivation.
- Can be assessed in a targeted behavioural area, for example successful team building.
- Can be used in criteria in an assessment centre.

### Selecting people for jobs

There is a general view that interviewing candidates for jobs is a one-way process, ie the organisation assesses the candidate then chooses the one it decides is the most appropriate. But as Mullins and Argyle point out it is a two-way process in that candidates will also be assessing the organisation and whether or not they wish to work for it. The result of looking at the process from this point of view is that organisations need to present themselves as attractively as possible to candidates.

The most common methods of selection are: interviewing individually, interviewing by panel or by selection boards. Other methods include in-basket testing (measuring a candidate's competencies against the skills required to do the job), assessment centres and graphology (analysing hand writing).

Despite the range of methods available and the problems associated with interviews Argyle (2003) notes that the classic trio is application forms, interviews and references.

### What are the problems with interviews?

The major ones are:

- interviewer bias — interviewer(s) bring their own stereotypes to the interview
- halo effect — the interviewer or panel allow one positive characteristic of the interviewee to override all other characteristics
- horns effect — this is the opposite of the halo effect in that a negative characteristic is allowed to override all other characteristics.

## How are these problems to be avoided?

The answer is by good planning and structuring of the interview and this is necessary for all types of interview.

The following is a list of actions that can be taken prior to the interview.

1 Look for the job description and person specification.

  (Are they up-to-date? Has the job changed? Are the requirements for duties/responsibilities, skills and knowledge still the same?)

2 Ensure that only applicants who meet these requirements are invited to interview.

3 Look at those selected.

  (Are any especially interesting? If so, why? Will these areas be explored further at interview?)

4 What will the structure of the interview be?

  (For example how long? Will interviewees be given any information prior to interview which they will be questioned upon during interview?)

5 Prepare questions for interview.

  (These should be both general and specific.)

6 Ensure that there is sufficient time.

7 Ensure that the environment for interview allows a relaxed, but businesslike, atmosphere.

8 Look very carefully at references.

  (Do they provide clues regarding the interviewee's network of contacts?)

9 Review your interview techniques.

## Interview techniques

Many human resource writers such as Argyle (2003) or Torrington (2002) suggest that a good selection interview should allow the candidate to talk around 75% of the time and it is a particular skill that interviewers need to learn.

They also suggest a basic format for all selection interviews, which is:

### *Introduction*

This is the opening device when rapport should be established. It summarises the purpose of the interview and explains who is present and what the roles are. It provides a bridge to lead on to the next stage and tries to ensure that the interviewee is comfortable.

### *Investigation*

All interviews are two-way investigations. Clearly this involves asking questions to allow candidates to frame suitable responses. You might have a checklist of questions which you create in your plan. There are types of questions which are effective — and those which are not! Open-ended questions — the use of *what*, *who*, *why*, *when*, *to what extent*, for example, invite the candidate to enlarge upon their answer; Closed questions — for example those which invite a yes/no response, do not.

Other questioning skills needed would include:

- not asking multiple or leading questions
- pacing the questions — one at a time
- tone — keep it positive — even if it is going badly
- tag why — to elicit more information
- knowledge — show you have done your homework on candidates application form.

### *Listen*

Listen actively by:

- focusing on what the candidate is saying
- observing the candidate's body language. Make your own body language encouraging
- taking notes
- not interrupting
- checking the candidate's understanding of the job and selection process.

### *Close*

The difficult part! The interviewer needs to check for agreement and understanding, summarise the process and establish the follow-up procedure. The candidate must leave feeling that the process has been fair and reasonable.

Throughout the interview, the interviewer should be aware of three areas in particular:

- body language
- environmental setting — did the arrangement put candidates at ease?
- interpersonal factors — was rapport established and any form of bias avoided?

## Assessment centres

These are specialist centres which, as both Argyle (2003) and Mullins (2004) point out, are usually used to provide an in-depth assessment of a group of broadly similar candidates. They have been used more often at more senior management levels because, as Mullins notes, they have been seen to be costly and time-consuming. Some large organisations establish their own and set their own competencies but other assessment centres could effectively be seen as consultancies. The main methods of selection offered by these centres are:

- group exercises
- business games
- simulation
- role-playing
- in-tray tests
- questionnaires
- intelligence tests
- personality tests
- aptitude tests
- emotional intelligence.

## Tests

These have been mentioned above and a brief description will be given of those probably least well-known.

### *Aptitude tests*

These test a particular candidate's suitability for posts by assessing their aptitude in areas such as verbal reasoning, numerical reasoning or spatial awareness. A commonly used test is the General Ability Test 2 (GAT 2) marketed by ASE. They simply assess skills, not personality.

### *Personality tests*

For example Cattells 16PF Test or Eysenck's Personality Inventory asks candidates to answer questions and the scores are judged against personality dimensions. For example Eysenck uses introvert, extrovert, stable and unstable as his dimensions.

### *Emotional intelligence*

Goleman's (1995) theory of how awareness of one's own emotion and those of others can improve performance in the workplace. He has now produced a test which allows individuals to measure their emotional intelligence quotient.

### *In-tray tests*

These are actually situational tests, which can be given to individuals or groups. They usually involve a problem scenario which candidates have to solve with limited resources.

## Induction

This is the process of introducing a new member of staff to the culture and environment of the organisation, to its policies and practices and to other members of staff. Argyle (2003), quoting Fowler (1996), points out that poor induction of employees can lead to considerable costs if disenchanted new employees leave. Among the costs quoted are:

- recruitment costs, for example, of replacement
- induction costs of, for example, training
- cost of temporary replacement (agency staff?)
- cost of extra supervision and any error correction
- gap between an employee's value and the cost of pay and benefits.

### *Induction programmes*

Argyle suggests they need to include the following:

- reception
- documentation
- initial briefing
- introduction to the workplace and staff
- formal induction courses
- informal training activities
- formal training activities.

Argyle also points to the importance of the employee handbook and the information it contains. Particularly vital are those areas relating to policy and procedures on matters such as:

- health and safety
- sickness policy
- disciplinary, grievance, capability and promotion procedures.

### *Socialisation*

In one sense this is not induction but is part of it. If an employee is not made to feel at home with new colleagues, then this can lead to stressed relationships, which do not bode well. If the situation worsens to a form of conflict, then this could obviously have unfortunate consequences. It is for these reasons that Argyle (2003) suggests that the socialisation process needs to be taken very seriously so that new employees can settle in quickly and start to enjoy their work and social relationships.

## Exit interviews

These have already been mentioned as a way of trying to cut down labour turnover by finding out why people are leaving. If those leaving are able to offer constructive criticism, this could help, but Mullins (2004) suggests there is sometimes scepticism about the value of the interviews.

Some employees could be leaving for positive factors but an organisation will want to concentrate on what they think are negative factors, for example:

- poor industrial relations
- bullying, harassment
- poor supervision or leadership
- dissatisfaction with work
- lack of opportunity.

## SAQ 13

Why is it necessary for organisations to continually seek to improve the methods by which they recruit, select, and attempt to retain people?

## Activity 12

Managers need to possess a large range of knowledge and skills to manage people effectively.

Construct a list of the knowledge and skills you think you will need to be an effective manager. You may already have experience as a manager on which you can draw.

You have now completed the support pack for Managing People. We hope you have found it enjoyable and informative.

# Suggested answers to Self Assessed Questions

## SAQ 1

Really all of them are important, but modern writers — like Handy — suggest that motivation, leadership and communication are vital and that without these three areas you cannot effectively carry out the other functions or roles.

## SAQ 2

Again you can adopt either point of view. There are still organisations which find that the traditional methods of managing work well for them. But others believe that uncertain times or rapid change situations mean that they cannot continue with conditions which only work in a stable environment. You could use Burns and Stalker's Organic and Mechanistic factors here and point out these could even occur in the same organisation.

## SAQ 3

To obtain differing points of view from those who work in different styles of organisation. Might help to get advice on more effective methods or new technologies. Might help socially or even get assistance in understanding better practice.

## SAQ 4

The normal list when managers are asked this question are:

- fair
- straightforward
- competent
- able to give good advice
- good oral communication.

You could have others!

## SAQ 5

Most writers suggest the following — but you might find others.

- self-control
- trustworthiness
- adaptability.

These were the ones suggested by subordinates who enjoyed working under their immediate managers.

## SAQ 6

Most of us claim that we use 2 and 3 of Covey's categories. Perhaps unfortunately there is evidence that managers in general start off with the best of intentions but inconsistency creeps in!

## SAQ 7

Your answer will depend on the organisation you choose. Increasingly, however, organisations are required to pay attention to the problems that stress might cause and to ways by which it can be reduced. Much of this involves trying to understand the particular factors in the organisation which are stressful to people. Organisations also offer services such as counselling to help people cope with stress and programmes to assist people to manage themselves as effectively as possible. Your organisation may also encourage activities which help to reduce stress such as providing advice on diet and health and promoting fitness, for example, by negotiating concessionary rates at local fitness centres.

## SAQ 8

Firstly, wherever you work, there will be reminders in the form of notice boards, leaflets, charts etc. Your organisation will also have policies on matters such as health and safety and disability — indeed it may be part of your responsibilities as a manager to ensure that people are aware of policies like this, which may be published on the organisation's intranet if it has one.

## SAQ 9

Because human beings make very different judgements when looking at the same piece of information. This can lead to severe conflict. It is necessary, therefore, for managers to clarify what is in any particular work situation before taking action. It is important for managers to look objectively at the situation and this can test practice and understanding.

## SAQ 10

Because they may vary in strength. This makes it difficult to assess how strongly they are held. They are difficult to change because they could have been held for a long time and been reinforced by experiences over that time.

## SAQ 11

Because they are trying to improve on individuals' skills and abilities in a specific subject. If you are not a real expert in this area, then the person whose skills and abilities you are trying to improve is unlikely to regard you with respect and therefore will probably be unwilling to work with you.

## SAQ 12

You can, of course, add to anything here and that would be considered very encouraging. Broadly it is suggested you would need to be able to:

- understand what makes individual members of staff tick
- motivate them
- set realistic objectives and standards and give and get feedback
- explain and implement techniques and approaches to get better performance
- assist in getting effective training and development
- understand procedures so that you can prevent members of your group or team from falling foul of them.

## SAQ 13

Clearly, in the first place, to see that they get the right kind of people applying to give them a better choice. Secondly, to ensure that they select individuals who will prove to be effective in the workplace and are capable of being developed. Thirdly, of course, to retain them to ensure that performance exceeds standards and that negative features in terms of turnover, absenteeism, conflict, sickness etc are kept to an absolute minimum.

# Suggested solutions to Activities

## Activity 1

Clearly the answer is all of them. If you cannot carry out all of these functions you won't be playing your role or your future one fully! But you will also need to know that further research has added additional functions.

## Activity 2

| | |
|---|---|
| Figurehead | Attend a meeting, make a presentation. |
| Leader | Establish relations with other managers. |
| Liaison | Establish links between your organisation and its environment. |
| Monitor | Check up on performance of your team. |
| Disseminator | Pass on information about what your team has done to other managers. |
| Spokesperson | Pass information to suppliers or the media. |
| Entrepreneur | Try to instil changes. |
| Disturbance handler | Resolve work conflicts. |
| Resource allocator | Decide on how material and equipment are to be allocated. |
| Negotiator | Agree activities with immediate manager, peers and subordinates. |

## Activity 3

It is certainly suggested that you should be able to match up job descriptions to Mullins' five areas. Should you have any difficulty, you could perhaps discuss this with your tutor.

## Activity 4

You should be able to give a reasonable list, for example:

- peer colleagues
- colleagues at headquarters
- colleagues in other parts of your organisation e.g. other branches
- managers of other teams
- suppliers
- customers
- contacts with organisations involved in inspecting your organisation e.g. for health and safety, accreditation of quality, licensing

## Activity 5

Role conflict might occur where boundaries between jobs are inadequately defined. This could also cause role ambiguity — Am I responsible? Or is someone else?

Role incompatibility might occur if a manager feels that he or she does not have the necessary authority. Role overload occurs when a manager struggles to fulfil all the roles that are supposed to be part of any one job. Role underload usually occurs when a job is assessed as not demanding enough.

If all of these are occurring they would suggest that the job description or person specifications are inaccurate or out-of-date.

## Activity 6

Effectively, emotional intelligence disagrees entirely with Theory X, which relies upon coercion and punishment. It fits in particularly well with Theory Y, which suggests that people exercise self-direction, self-control, seek responsibility and are creative.

There is a limited tie-up with Theory Z, with those parts regarding participative decision making perhaps, and individual responsibility.

## Activity 7

It is generally considered to be the link between differing aspects of Maslow and Alderfer's needs theories. The Hygiene factors it is suggested, do not motivate, they merely remove sources of dissatisfaction. This fits in with the first three of Maslow's needs theory and Alderfer's existence and relatedness needs. The

Satisfiers of Herzberg's theory identify closely with the top two needs of Maslow and Alderfer's Growth Needs.

## Activity 8

SMART objectives are suggested to be achievable and realistic, managing performance means constantly monitoring what is actually happening and appraisal gives the opportunity to review performance, get agreement to change what is needed, set new (SMART) objectives and give and get feedback.

## Activity 9

It will be vital. It is likely that organisations you are connected to, in common with many other organisations, face a future of rapid change. Legislation, too, is changing at an ever increasing rate and this too will have a significant impact on the Training and Development. The constant improvement in new technology will also bring a whole series of new problems.

## Activity 10

This is one for you to tackle on your own or to discuss with your tutor.

## Activity 11

Because they are often responsible for directly managing groups and teams, or have been promoted to a level where they are advising those who manage groups and teams. Clearly they must possess the skills and knowledge to be able to give the advice that will get an effective performance from these groups and teams.

## Activity 12

- Understand what the real work of a manager is.
- Know what my responsibilities are.
- Understand Attitude Theory.
- Understand individual differences.
- Know my legislative responsibilities.
- Be able to motivate my staff.
- Use training to develop staff.
- Know how to get the best out of everyone.
- Fully grasp disciplinary and grievance procedures and any procedures related to performance that my organisation has.

- Understand how groups form and how to get the best out of teams.
- Understand what human resource management is trying to do.
- Know my part in helping to retain the staff I have assisted to become effective in fulfilling their work roles.

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## Useful references

There are many texts which are appropriate to this Unit. There are also a number of websites which it will be helpful for you to visit. You may also find that simply asking your search engine for a particular topic elicits the information you require.

In particular you might find the following textbooks useful:


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