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RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

SELECTED READINGS IN MANAGEMENT

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SELECTED READINGS IN MANAGEMENT

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RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

Chapter 1

FUNCTIONS OF MANAGEMENT
"Management"

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1. GENERAL

To gain a working knowledge of this subject, it is emphasized that management is only part of our overall concept of command. Command is the authority an individual in the Military Service lawfully exercises over subordinates by virtue of his rank and assignment. It carries with it responsibility for *planning, organizing, directing, coordinating, and controlling* military forces to accomplish assigned, implied, or inherent missions together with administrative responsibility for supply, for the health, welfare, morale, discipline, assignment, and relief of personnel. Management is inherent in command. Civilian management usually includes much less authority and responsibility than that vested in the military commander. Command is, therefore, a broader functional area and encompasses the processes of management.

Leadership also comes under the purview of command. In practice, management and leadership are extensively interconnected. At the U.S. Army Command and General Staff College, leadership is taught as a separate subject. The broader topic of motivation runs through all the instruction on command and management.

2. THE SCOPE OF MANAGEMENT

a. *General.* No task can be efficiently accomplished unless it is wisely planned, properly organized, effectively coordinated, understandably ordered to be executed, and effectively controlled. The five broad functions of management are not separate and distinct, to be accomplished in a prescribed order. Instead, they are very much interrelated. At any one instant, perhaps all five are being applied in conjunction with one another. Through experience with many types of tasks to be performed, it will be learned that all the principles and functions are utilized and that they are interwoven to provide a satisfactorily completed mission.

In the military, man is the most important and difficult factor to control. The commander is responsible for his men every hour of every day and if he does not utilize them properly, he will not be able to complete his assigned missions. Through his consideration of the functions of planning, organizing, coordinating, directing, and controlling, the commander must realize that leadership and morale are basic to good military management. If men become discontented, they cannot quit, nor can the commander fire them as readily as in civilian situations. If a commander has clearly and efficiently made his plans, organized his unit, given orders, and provided for control and coordination, but has neglected motivation, his unit may fail to accomplish its mission.

b. *Definition of Management.* Management has been defined as the process of employing men and material in the economical and effective accomplishment of a mission. Simply stated, it is the mechanics of getting the job done. It is emphasized that every man in the military is a manager; for our purposes, we are concerned primarily with the commander and his management functions. A commander is completely responsible for his unit and accountable for his actions regardless of their outcome. Military interest today is directed toward all endeavors that add to national defense potential. Economic, political, and social forces all have their impact on the military, and it is an ill-informed commander who is not aware of their presence, influences, and effects.

c. *Need for Military Management Today.*

(1) The United States, in this last half of the 20th century, is the most powerful proponent of the philosophy of the freedom and worth of the individual. The billions of dollars, the stream of equipment, and the dispatch of trained soldiers to foreign lands convince most objective observers that Americans are dedicated to this philosophy.

(2) Such dedication alone will not guarantee that this philosophy survives. History shows that even a large aggregation of men, equipment, and national wealth will prove ineffective if the management of that force proves inept. The responsibility for the most efficient use of American resources is one of the most sobering factors in military life today. Each new scientific development and each new weapon system emphasizes the need for skill, intelligence, and ingenuity in those who decide how to employ our forces.

(3) During the past two decades technological innovations have been occurring with startling rapidity. Guided missiles, fire control instruments, air and land vehicles, communications, and armaments with all their complexities have highlighted the need for more effective military management. Likewise in industry, management methods have frequently become a competitive factor probably as important as production techniques. Resources are critical, particularly during periods of national emergency. In warfare, the effectiveness of all available men and equipment must be maximized. Hence management must be an orderly process. Without systematic means of managing men and resources under complex and diverse conditions, a commander has little chance of success.

d. *Management Functions.*

(1) What does a manager do? Basically, he employs his resources in accordance with their capabilities to accomplish some purpose. Management texts differ as to the number of specific management functions involved in this process and indeed even as to what they should be called. It is not critical if one author calls the issuing of orders the function of directing, commanding, or activating. However, it is important that an officer understand what is involved in the management of an organization. For our purposes, we use the functions listed in AR 1-24. These five functions of management are planning, organizing, coordinating, directing, and controlling. What do they mean?

(a) *Planning* is determining *what* is to be done, *where* it is to be done, *who* is responsible for doing it or seeing that it is done, *when* it is to be done, and sometimes *how* it is to be done.

(b) *Organizing* is providing a structure that establishes relationships between men and materiel grouped together for a common purpose.

(c) *Coordinating* is integrating all details necessary for the accomplishment of the mission.

(d) *Directing* is issuing the necessary orders and instructions to subordinates and others to indicate what is to be done - the vital step between preparation and the actual operation.

(e) *Controlling* is establishing and applying fully the necessary means to insure that plans, orders, and policies are complied with in such a manner that the objective will be attained.

(2) *The above management functions are applied continuously by a commander to accomplish his mission.* For example, assume a situation in which a division has been assigned the mission of seizing a ridge. The receipt of this mission initiates the use of the management functions by the division commander. Based on his estimate of the situation he reaches a decision as to how the division will accomplish this mission and directs preparation of a workable plan to carry out his decision. He decides how he will *organize* the division - which weapons must be used to provide the desired firepower, which forces he will keep under his control, and what transportation and special equipment he will allocate to his various units. He *coordinates* with adjacent division commanders to insure that his own actions are integrated with theirs and he works out various coordination measures to insure that his own unit functions as an integrated team. His plan provides coordination instructions within the division and between the division and higher headquarters. On completion of planning, organizing, and coordinating, orders are prepared and issued that *direct* subordinates to carry out the mission in accordance with the commander's plan. But the work does not end here. Throughout the action the commander is constantly checking on the execution of his plan so that he may either redirect any unit that deviates from the plan or else change the plan to meet changes in the situation. In other words, he *controls* the execution of the plan.

(3) It can be seen from the above example that all functions of management are involved in the execution of a tactical mission. However, it should not be construed that these functions are limited to tactical situations. They are equally applicable to tasks as diverse as policing a barracks, manufacturing automobiles, or sending a man to the moon. All these tasks involve the use or expenditure of resources - men, material, money, and time - even though their ultimate objectives are vastly different. The functions of management are the tools that the commander applies to these resources to accomplish the mission effectively.

e. *Management Functions Related to Each Other.* The functions of management - planning,

organizing, coordinating, directing, and controlling - occur at all levels in all types of group effort. It should be realized that different functions can and often do take place simultaneously at different levels of command. For purposes of analysis we attempt to isolate the functions. By doing this we can discover how, in a particular situation, performance in one functional area affects managerial efforts in the other areas. In actual operations, all functions must be integrated to provide effective command and staff action.

3. PLANNING

a. *General.* Planning is a creative process. It is the means which will guide the organization from the present into the future in order to accomplish some objective in the process. The final result of planning seeks to state *what* is to be done, *why* it is to be done, *where* it is to be done, *who* is responsible for doing it (or seeing that it is done), and *when* it is to be done. In some cases it also explains *how* something is to be done.

To a great extent, planning sets the stage for the other functions of management. The organization to be used to accomplish the mission is determined during the planning stage. Coordination is effected with many agencies in order to complete the plan, in turn, coordinates the actions of all elements of the organization in the accomplishment of the mission. The plan forms the basis for the directive issued to subordinate units, and this directive, in turn, sets the standards for the control process. Thus planning is the key initiating function of management.

A plan is in many ways similar to a sketch map in that it states the present location and indicates the destination or objective. Differences exist in the kinds of objectives pursued. Objectives lend direction and purpose to the planning activity. If these objectives are clear, realistic, and readily understood by all, planning can proceed on a realistic basis to seek the best means for their accomplishment. However, if the objectives are vague or unrealistic, planning is exceedingly difficult and often futile. The plan can be no better than the objectives it seeks to achieve.

b. *Characteristics of Plans.* The prime characteristic of a plan is that it be *capable of accomplishing the planning objective*. All too frequently planning is accomplished without the planner fully understanding what is required. Objectivity should be the rule so that the completed plan will be logical, factual, and realistic with respect to both the capabilities of the organization and the situation.

The plan must be *simple yet comprehensive*. On one hand, the plan must provide a concept that subordinates can easily grasp and place in the context of the overall scheme of things, with all elements reduced to their simplest form. But additionally it must be specific in pointing out the extent and direction of the role to be played by subordinate organizations. Lacking either of these qualities, the plan will lose its effectiveness, and the other functions of management will be very difficult to implement. Too detailed a plan will lessen the initiative of subordinates and reduce flexibility, while too vague a plan will lead to confusion.

Continuity is essential. In a plan covering long periods, the sequence of objectives is clearly identified and the desired manner of transition from objective to objective is indicated so that the entire plan becomes a meaningful whole.

A final characteristic of a plan is that it be *economical* - economical with respect to personnel, time, space, and material. Will the plan yield, within an acceptable degree of risk, a maximum effective return for the effort expended? The degree to which the plan facilitates the other functions of management is a good test of economy.

There are many other characteristics that are desirable in good plans. However, the paramount characteristics include mission accomplishment, simplicity, comprehensiveness, continuity, and economy.

4. ORGANIZING

a. *General.* Organizing may be defined as the process of establishing relationships between functions, materiel, and men grouped together for a common purpose. It is a basic management function essential to the effective and efficient performance of a mission. It is also an extremely popular subject for management theorists, and probably more has been written on this subject than on any of the other functions of management.

Organizations are established to accomplish purposes. Organizations are also composed of people. As simple and obvious as these facts may appear, they pose somewhat of a dilemma for the military organizer. Because the nature of the mission dictates the work to be done, it is easier to organize

for a single mission than to create an organizational structure that is capable of accomplishing a number of missions under varying conditions. However, once a unit is manned, an informal organization is created; and the group bonds that thus develop between members of the organization are extremely important to the teamwork of the unit as a whole. As a result, the organization that is most desirable for task performance may prove unsatisfactory because it may involve the breakup of a previously established network of formal and informal relationships.

The first part of the job - that of developing a permanent organization - is the more difficult task. It involves foreseeing the many varied situations in which the organization may be called on to perform and providing the necessary means within the organization to accomplish these tasks. For the TOE unit these determinations are molded at Department of the Army by experienced senior officers who have an appreciation of the tasks inherent in a myriad of missions; of the weapons, tactics, and logistics involved; and of the individual human capabilities and limitations involved in discharging the positions that are established. The final result is the TOE. TOE specify the mission, organization, equipment, and manning of standard military units. On the other hand, organizations that perform unique functions or that are subject to frequent change are prescribed by a TDA which is prepared by the commander. Fort Leavenworth, for example, is organized on the basis of a table of distribution and allowances.

For the accomplishment of a particular mission, the TOE is frequently inadequate, and some changes of organization must be made. To facilitate the establishment of such temporary organizations, the military uses a building block technique that permits the structuring of an organization for combat with minimum disturbance to the relationships within the blocks. An example of this can be seen in the flexible assignment of battalions in the ROAD division. Under this arrangement the commander of a particular battalion may find that he is operating under a brigade commander and staff and adjacent to other battalions with which he has not previously worked, but that within his own battalion the normal working relationships have not been disturbed.

With continuing changes in missions, material, tactics, and techniques evolving from changes in the world situation and advances in technology, the advantages of reorganizing the structure of military units at some point outweigh the disadvantages which accrue through the loss of established relationships. Consequently, reorganization of military units is a continuing requirement.

b. *The Process of Organizing to Establish an Organization.*

(1) Organizing involves three principal steps: determining the tasks, establishing the structure, and allocating the resources.

(a) *Determining the tasks.* By determining the tasks is meant the dividing of the overall mission into specific tasks that are capable of being accomplished. This process was discussed under planning. The amount of detail required in this subdivision will depend on the working level; that is, the closer to the operating level, the more detailed will be the breakdown. To prevent overlaps or gaps from occurring between specific tasks, clear-cut delineation is made when subdividing the mission.

(b) *Establishing the Structure.* In the second step the structure is established, the list of tasks is analyzed, and the specific duties and responsibilities of the individuals who will have these tasks are determined. At the same time these individuals are grouped into units and subunits according to the type of duties they will perform. While doing this, working relationships are established between each individual and each unit in the organization. This is done so that each person will know how to perform his own task within the assigned task of his particular unit, and so that all units will, in turn, be working toward a common goal. The end result of this step will be a pattern of relationships based on specific tasks to be performed by individuals, with the continuing purpose of integrating their efforts for the accomplishment of the overall mission. As the final step in establishing the organization structure, the results are charted. This chart is known as an organization chart and may include a written description of the duties and responsibilities of each member of the organization.

(c) *Allocating the resources.* After the framework for the organization has been worked out, personnel are then assigned to the tasks, provided with the necessary equipment and supplies, the space in which to work, and the time in which to carry out their duties. This is known as allocating resources.

(2) In addition to the process of organizing, it is necessary to consider some basic principles and characteristics that will influence this process when establishing an organization.

c. *Principles of Organization.*

(1) There are differences of opinion concerning principles of organization. Some experts say there are none, while others list as many as 96. This is merely a matter of how detailed one categorizes. Five important principles are *unity of command*, *span of control*, *homogeneous assignment*, *delegation of authority*, and *flexibility*.

(a) *Unity of command*. Unity of command means that there is only one man responsible for each part of the organization. When this principle is applied, each man in the organization is responsible to only one superior. The net effect is that every person knows to whom he reports and whom he directs.

1. An undesirable situation in which an individual is responsible to more than one man is known as multiple command. Multiple command can creep into formal organizations that are designed to adhere closely to the principle of unity of command. A common example of this occurs through the practice of "bypassing." Bypassing, or skipping an individual in the chain of command, is poor practice. In the first place, this practice confuses the man who is bypassed. He no longer knows whom he directs, because his subordinates are receiving orders from someone higher up the chain of command. He cannot reasonably be held responsible for the actions of his subordinates when he does not know what orders they receive. Bypassing has an equally bad effect on the subordinate. When there are conflicting orders from two superiors, which superior does he obey? However, we cannot always afford the luxury of absolute unity of command in our military organizations.

2. Dual subordination is often used to attain flexibility of units and personnel and is illustrated by several types of command relationships between organizations. Every unit is assigned to a parent organization that has complete command authority over the assigned unit. However, any unit may be "loaned" to another organization by a higher commander who has authority over all concerned. When this happens, the organization to which the unit is loaned gains certain authority over the borrowed unit, but the parent organization still retains certain authority over the same unit. The degree of authority that both the "borrowing" organization and the parent organization have is specified by the particular command arrangement. An example of such a command arrangement is operational control. The person exercising operational control over a unit can indicate the composition of subordinate forces, assign tasks, designate objectives, and provide directions for accomplishing the mission. On the other hand, such matters as administration, discipline, internal organization, and unit training are matters reserved for the parent organization unless the "loaned" unit commander specifically requests assistance of the commander exercising operational control in these matters.

3. Attachment is another common form of dual subordination. In this case, it is necessary to specify the degree of authority which each organization (parent and borrowing) may exercise over the attached unit.

(b) *Span of control*. Span of control is based on the recognition that there is a limit to the number of individuals that one supervisor can manage effectively. It has been claimed by many authorities that no man can control more than seven subordinates and that he needs at least three to keep him busy. To state positively that three to seven subordinates are the limits of man's span of control is not accurate. There are many variables that influence span of control. The basic problem is the number of relationships with which a commander is involved. Three major factors influencing the span of control of an organization are the nature of the tasks, distance and time.

1. *Nature of tasks*. In applying the span of control principle to an actual situation, it is necessary to analyze the kind of work done by the subordinates. In cases where their work is identical and simple, it may be desirable to exceed seven. One man can control from 10 to 30 men in a task that is highly repetitive. A sergeant with a detail of 20 trained men could be assigned the task of setting up tents for a battalion, and the span of control would not be too great. On the other hand, a division commander would probably find it impossible to effectively control 20 people who reported to him directly. Therefore, the diversity and complexity of tasks being performed greatly influence the span of control.

Tasks involving a high degree of interaction between members of the group and between the leader and subordinates require narrower span of control. Indicative of such tasks are planning tasks and those dealing with changing conditions and methods. In such cases, it is necessary that all members of the group be kept constantly abreast of the situation and that the leader be readily available to resolve differences of opinion and make decisions. The high volume of intragroup communication would result in a complete breakdown of group functioning and increase reaction time if the span of control were very broad.

Tasks that involve people with limited backgrounds, training, and experience also tend to make

narrower spans of control desirable because understanding must be checked more closely and frequently followed with more detailed guidance by the commander.

2. *Distance.* A commander can supervise more activities if they are located in a centralized, concentrated area. The advent of nuclear weapons had dictated a requirement for greater distances between units as well as increased dispersion within units. Both distance and dispersion tend to restrict the commander's ability to supervise activities of his subordinates. Modern means of transportation and communication may reduce the limitations imposed by distance and dispersion. Despite these advantages, however, certain elements of the operational environment may negate the beneficial effects of modern transportation and communication. Operation in the jungle is one example; destruction of facilities and equipment is another.

3. *Time.* Time, a third factor affecting span of control, refers to the time it takes to transmit orders through the chain of command, the time it takes to receive approval or decisions from higher headquarters, and the time required to react in emergency situations. It may seem desirable to reduce the span of control; however, before such reduction is made, the organizer must consider whether his reduction of span of control increases the number of supervisory levels and, therefore, actually increases the amount of time for instructions to be transmitted to the doers.

As can readily be seen, these three aspects of the span of control principle - nature of tasks, distance, and time - are interdependent. In tasks containing no requirement for emergency operations, distance and time are less critical aspects. In tasks fraught with emergency, distance and time factors align with the task and militate against broad spans of control.

(c) *Homogeneous assignment.* Another principle of organization is balance or homogeneous assignment. This applies to the grouping of functions within the organization. Similar or related jobs give rise to similar problems and require incumbents with levels of intelligence, experience, and training that are often quite similar. Homogeneous assignment is the predominating principle by which jobs are grouped. Occasionally, however, rather than grouping similar functions, complementary functions are grouped to facilitate economy and effectiveness. Complementary functions are functions that, though dissimilar, are either related sequentially or are integral parts of some complex task.

(d) *Delegation of authority.* Delegation of authority means that individuals are given authority in keeping with their responsibilities. When a man is made responsible for a job, he is given the "power" he needs to do it and sufficient freedom to use his own initiative in its execution. This principle can be violated in two directions - by underdelegating and overdelegating.

If a commander underdelegates, the subordinate is not given enough freedom to act. For each decision, he must get the commander's approval. This, of course, ties the commander to a mass of detail and keeps him from his more important work. From the point of view of the subordinate, he may feel that the commander does not trust his judgment. It will be impossible for the subordinate to do a good job, for he cannot act without first getting approval. If he should, the commander may not approve, and the subordinate will have to do the job over again. Another disadvantage of underdelegation occurs when an organization functions poorly when the commander is away, because there is no one present to make decisions.

Equally as bad as underdelegation is overdelegation. A commander who lacks self-confidence may overdelegate authority in an attempt to avoid making decisions himself. In so doing, he is delegating responsibilities that he must assume himself. Even though he makes subordinates responsible to him, the commander is still charged with 100 percent accomplishment of the original task. His job is to get unity of effort. To do this, he must personally exercise overall control.

The amount of delegation depends to a great extent on the individual situation. A brigade commander sent off on an independent mission to a remote area may be given more freedom and authority than the commander of a brigade close to division headquarters. Delegation of authority also depends on the confidence that the commander has in his subordinates. It may likewise be affected by the complexity of technical details, the number of subordinates, and the time available to accomplish a certain job. The overall principle, however, is that subordinates should be given authority commensurate with their responsibilities.

(e) *Flexibility.* Organizations must be flexible. They must facilitate the completion of the tasks, even though the situations and conditions are constantly changing.

d. *Types of Organization.* All organizations are patterned after one or more of three general structures. Each type structure has certain strengths and limitations in terms of the principles discussed above.

(1) *Line organization.* The term "line" is synonymous with the chain of command. In any line organization there must be a series of superior-subordinate relationships from the top to the bottom. This concept in the line organization is often referred to as the *scalar chain* because each link of the scale represents a direct superior-subordinate relationship (fig 1). A simple line organization is characteristic of small military units and business organizations. It is easy to understand; it can be directed by one man; and it is usually more economical. Disadvantages are its lack of specialization and its limited capacity to expand. As the load on the simple line organization increases and the chain of command lengthens, the organization tends to break down.

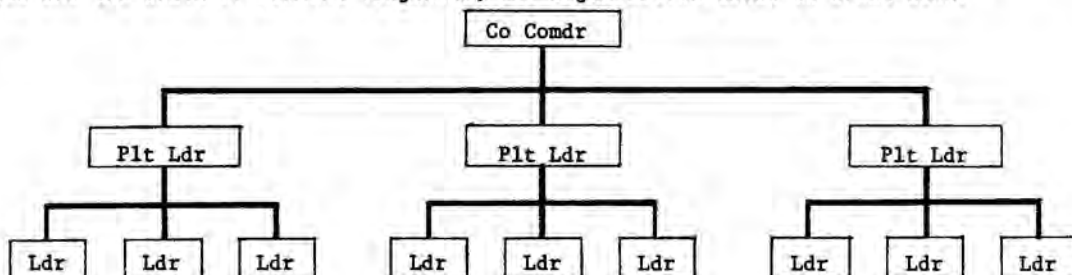


Figure 1. Line Organization

(2) *Line and staff organization.* The terms "line" and "staff" are believed to have originated in military organization. The concept can be traced to the 17th century, when Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden first formalized the use of staff experts. We view the military staff as an extension of the commander, since no one man has the physical or mental capacity to personally supervise the development of all of the information required for sound decisions. You should be familiar with the line and staff type of structure because most of our units are organized in this manner (fig 2).

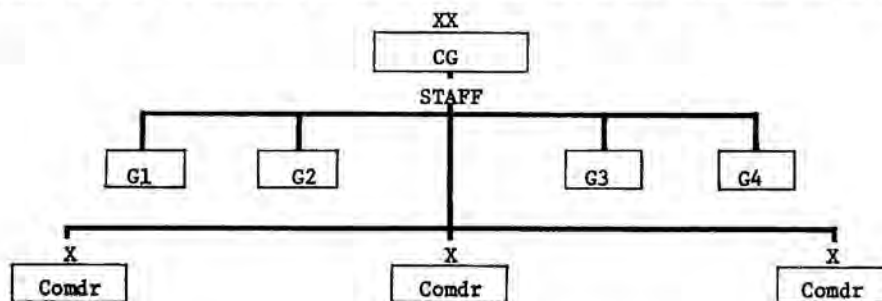


Figure 2. Line and staff organization

(3) *Functional organization.*

(a) Functional organizations are used extensively in industry. In figure 3, the functional authority vested in each vice-president is actually a small slice of the president's authority. For example, within the broad functional area of marketing, the vice-president for sales has some directive authority over all three division managers. Similarly, the other three vice-presidents exercise authority within their respective areas of interest. In this manner there are as many bosses as there are specialists in the top group. Functional organization theoretically reflects the ultimate use of staff specialization. Every executive is a specialist with primary line authority in his particular area of interest.

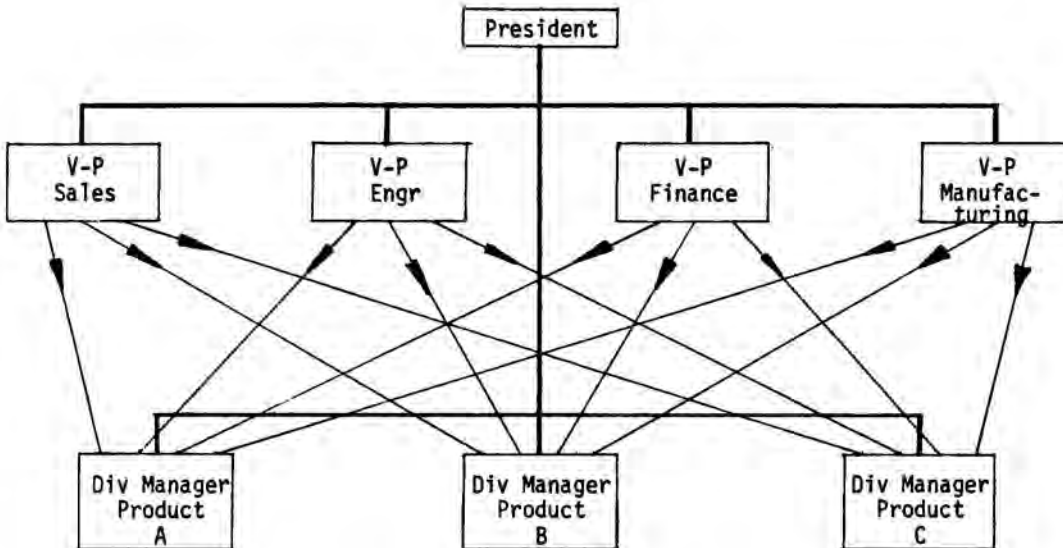


Figure 3. Functional organization

(b) Some principal advantages of this organization are that it lightens the burden on the top man; it maximizes use of the expertise and specialization of the staff; and it facilitates management by exception. It also has several disadvantages. It dilutes unity of command, thereby increasing the likelihood of conflicting guidance and direction. More staff coordination is required. Often specialists direct line officials - a situation contrary to military tradition.

5. COORDINATING

a. *General.* Military operations, from the simplest fire and movement problem to the most complex air, sea, and ground attack of a heavily defended shore, are impossible without coordination. The direct result of a lack of coordination is chaos. Through coordination an orderly unification of group effort is achieved that provides concentration of action in the pursuit of a common purpose. Thus, the presence of smooth teamwork in a military unit usually results from effective coordination.

According to Webster's Dictionary, coordinating means bringing into proper order or relation. As a function of management, coordination seeks an integration of all details necessary for the accomplishment of a mission. It achieves effectiveness by bringing all agencies concerned with an undertaking into one blended action with a minimum of effort and friction.

There are basically two types of coordination: the coordination of thought and the coordination of action. Coordination of thought requires a previous development of concepts, to include objectives, that are commonly understood by two or more parties. Thus, coordination of thought is accomplished between people. Such coordination precedes coordination of action, which involves the relation of physical activities, either with respect to time or with respect to each other. The main contributors of coordination of action are timing and the correct order of performance of the phases of a project. These phases tend to become the specific steps in any task. Thus, to facilitate coordinated action the plan states the steps to be taken in the execution of the project, their order, and usually the place of performance.

Coordination provides an excellent example of the lack of a clear distinction between the various functions of management. It is not possible to separate coordinating from planning. Coordination of thought takes place during the planning process in all three steps - forecasting, estimating, and preparing. The final plan is designed to produce coordination of action on the part of the organization as a whole. Thus, coordinating may be looked on as both a technique for the accomplishment of planning and an objective to be achieved by planning. Organizing is undertaken to provide an optimum of coordinated action, and the control process frequently involves the coordination of thought so as to improve the coordination of action during the execution of the mission.

b. *Staff Coordination.* As previously indicated, the staff often effects horizontal liaison with units at its own level and vertical coordination with units of higher or lower levels. Both horizontal and vertical coordination are facilitated by staff parallelism. Policy will, to a large degree, dictate whether internal coordination within a particular headquarters as well as the coordination of subordinate units will be conducted by heads of staff sections exclusively or also by their subordinates. Such policy is not an either-or proposition. Certain areas of coordination are normally reserved for the attention of the chief of section while more routine coordination falls to his subordinates. Routine coordination is conducted by staff subordinates, and exceptions as well as matters requiring interpretation are usually reserved for the principal executive or the commander. Under the "exception principle," recurring matters are considered routine and can be handled expeditiously. The executive or the commander is, therefore, able to devote the bulk of his time to the more important matters.

c. *Methods of Coordination.*

(1) *Individual contact.* By far the most common method of coordination is through individual contact. The average staff officer is involved in a great deal of face-to-face, individual coordination that can become extremely time-consuming, especially if it is necessary to travel any distance. If the coordination is extensive or complex, there may be no choice but to travel to all the various agencies with which coordination must be effected.

(2) *Conference.* The face-to-face meeting, or conference, is also frequently used. It is a method, however, that can be somewhat expensive in terms of time, particularly when the participants must travel any distance to join the conference. In recent years this limitation has been minimized by communicating devices such as the telephone, radio, teletype, and television, but the problems of security and electronic countermeasures pose a hazard to electronic methods. The conference remains one of the best methods of coordination.

Conferences and committees are not limited to coordination. They are also used for creative thinking. Regardless of their specific purpose, their value is the subject of much controversy, both in the military and out. Why are committees so popular in the practice of management? First, expert knowledge and a wide range of experience and opinion can be obtained that may result in a better course of action than those proposed by individual members. Second, bias and oversight of individuals can be negated. Third, lines of communication are shortened in large organizations. Fourth, from an educational viewpoint, each member's viewpoint is broadened, and he may gain an appreciation for the other members' problems as well as those of the entire organization. Finally, and certainly not least in importance, cooperation may be secured. Recent studies indicate that this feature may prove to be at least as important an advantage as the "combined judgment" feature of committees.

(3) *Correspondence.* When conferences or personal contact are not possible or are not needed, coordination may be accomplished by written correspondence. This technique is generally quite slow and is not used for urgent matters, but it has the advantage of being convenient for all parties concerned because each can read and take action on the coordinating correspondence at a time that is most convenient for him. It is not necessary to call all members from their jobs or for one man to go see all the others with whom coordination is necessary. Also, of course, a written document provides a permanent record and can be studied in depth. In larger headquarters, matters of a routine nature are coordinated in this manner. Correspondence is often used in conjunction with the other techniques. For example, a written document should be circulated to all conference participants to read ahead of time, so they may come better prepared to understand the problem. After the conference, a written summary may be circulated among the participants for their concurrence, just to insure that when agreement was reached during the conference, all parties were on the same "frequency."

(4) *Fixed responsibilities.* All methods that fix responsibility and delegate authority prior to execution reduce the amount of coordination required in the execution of a particular mission. Exemplifying such methods are the use of policy and standing operating procedure (SOP) as well as the organizational structure itself.

d. *Overcoordination.* In coordinating the efforts of an organization, overcoordination is equally as undesirable as undercoordination. A point of diminishing returns has been reached when the use of the precious time of others in effecting coordination of thought results in no real assistance to the commander in accomplishing a mission. Ideally, in an experienced unit, a great deal of the necessary coordination is accomplished by the staff and subordinate commanders as a matter of SOP, without anyone having to specifically direct its accomplishment for the particular task at hand.

6. DIRECTING

Once plans have been drawn up, the organization designed, personnel assigned, equipment procured, and coordination considered, directives are issued in order to implement plans and activate the organization. The course of action to be followed in attaining the objective and the procedures involved in pursuit of that course of action must be made known to every subordinate commander and frequently to every member of the command. The process by which a commander converts his plans into action is called directing. It is concerned with the way in which a commander issues orders and instructions to his subordinates or otherwise indicates what must be done.

There are two important issues in the function of directing. The first concerns mechanical procedures; the other, dynamic social processes. In addition to the requirement that a directive be technically correct, it is of great concern to the leader that the directive be delivered to subordinates in the proper tone of voice or choice of words, by the right individual, and with the proper timing.

The term "directive" is defined as an oral or written communication in which a policy is established or a specific action is ordered. It is thus a general term and includes all forms of orders and instructions. Directives may apply to the day-to-day functioning of the organization, as in the case of regulations, or they may be specifically applicable to the situation at hand, as in the case of orders. SOP carry the same weight as orders and instructions and are included in the term "directive."

Directives may be issued either orally or in writing. Written directives usually are more accurate and more precise and are a lasting communication to the person receiving the order. However, written directives require time and effort to prepare and if written in too great detail, result in inflexibility. The quantity of written material a person actually will read is limited. However, some people prefer written orders to oral orders. Perhaps they have unpleasant memories of a superior who did not remember issuing an oral order. There are a great number of individuals who prefer to receive oral orders, perceiving this method of instruction as a sign of trust and confidence.

People are different! This maxim of psychology should not be ignored by the commander when issuing orders. If direction is to be effective, it must generate followership - a desire to obey. Far more success can be achieved if the follower intrinsically desires to accomplish a task because the job is pleasing in itself or if he gains self-satisfaction from its accomplishment. The American does not enjoy being "bossed around" without exercising some thinking or participation on his part.

7. CONTROLLING

a. *General.* Controlling is the action taken by a commander to insure that plans, orders, directives, and policies are being complied with in such a manner that the objective will be attained. Through controlling, the commander seeks to constrain, regulate, and adjust the organization's activities to coincide with the requirements of the plan in order to achieve the objective.

The line between controlling and the other management functions is not sharp. For example, objectives are developed for subordinate units during planning, and these same objectives are used as standards in the process of controlling. On the other hand, corrective action due to controlling often results in a change in plans. Like all functions of managing, controlling is highly dependent on the other functions. A good plan, sound organization, adequate coordination, and clear directives all help in achieving the results desired. The better the quality of the other functions, the easier will be control.

Controlling is necessary to the extent that the forecast, estimates, decision, or plans are inaccurate. Control is also required to insure that the order is not misunderstood or poorly executed. It becomes apparent that the function of control seeks to put out fires before much damage has occurred. However, a fire department is most effective when it is successful in the prevention of fires. The other functions of management aim at preventing organizational "fires" by providing a plan that is clear, is workable, and can accomplish the mission. The control function informs the commander whether the performance is coinciding with the dictates of the plan. To be effective, control must be capable of discovering deviations from the plan and of instigating timely corrective actions. Thus, effective control involves the detection of deviations from the plan as well as the employment of effective means to remedy such activity.

b. *Basic Steps in Controlling.* Control of an organization is accomplished in three basic steps: establish the standards, compare actual results with established standards, and take

investigative or corrective action.

These steps may be likened to the actions of a thermostat. The thermostat of a heating unit is set at 70°. This setting is what is expected - the standard desired. The thermostat constantly monitors the temperature in the room to determine whether this standard is being met. If the temperature is greater or less than 70°, the thermostat generates a signal that directs the heating unit to take action to change the temperature in the opposite direction. If the temperature is too low, the signal will turn on the heating unit to increase the temperature; while, if the temperature is too high, the signal will turn off the heating unit to decrease the temperature.

c. *Performance Indicators.*

(1) One of the means by which the commander can accomplish effective control is through the use of performance indicators. Performance indicators are selected indicators used by a commander to evaluate the relationship of future missions, present missions, and past missions in relation to resources, requirements, and utilization. These indicators are extremely useful in the practice of management by exception. They can be oral or written or merely the results of certain observations.

(2) Performance indicators provide the commander with one means for examining progress being made toward the attainment of objectives. They can be applied in most functional areas - personnel, logistics, intelligence, operations, training, and financial management. By announcement of policies pertaining to the use of performance indicators, the commander informs his subordinates of those items or areas in which he is primarily interested.

(3) Performance indicators alone can never give the complete picture or all the facts relating to a particular situation or activity. Not all functions or activities are measurable or adaptable to performance indicators. Overreliance on their use tends to obscure important irregularities that were overlooked in the design of the control system. Subordinates develop the attitude that the commander is interested only in certain listed activities requiring performance reports, and they may neglect other equally important activities.

d. *Delegation and Control.* At what level should control be exercised? The general rule is that the person who issues an order (establishes a standard) is the one who exercises control over its execution. Each person, consciously or unconsciously, may try to escape from his responsibilities by "passing the buck" or by delegation. Delegation can be effectively used to train subordinates, develop attitudes, gain greater efficiency, or permit the commander more time to concentrate on his more important problems. Every leader has the job of developing good subordinates. This cannot be done if the leader is unwilling to assign some responsibility to them. At all levels, ultimate responsibility is still the commander's. A subordinate at a lower level has a responsibility to his commander for only that portion of the commander's responsibility which has been delegated to him. Thus, the commander is fully responsible for all that his unit does or fails to do regardless of whether he delegates or not.

It may be relatively simple for a commander to sit back in his command post and, on the basis of the information he receives through his communication channels, prepare plans and issue orders. However, when he issues the orders, he cannot delegate authority to his subordinates to control execution of them. He must get out of his command post to see what is happening. If he should insist on issuing all the orders, it is obvious that it would be physically impossible for him and his staff to do all the necessary controlling. There is only one way out of this dilemma. He must delegate to his subordinate commanders the authority to issue orders in their own right. Thereby, the subordinate becomes responsible for controlling the execution of his own orders.

e. *Centralized and Decentralized Control.* To the degree that authority and responsibility are retained at the higher echelon, an organization is said to be centralized. When authority and responsibility are delegated to lower echelons, the organization is decentralized. An organization may centralize certain authority, such as the authority to convene a general court-martial, and decentralize certain authority, such as the authority to administer punishment under Article 15 of the Uniform Code of Military Justice. Various indexes have been used to portray the degree of centralization or decentralization of an organization. A common index in commercial organizations is the level at which authority has been delegated to expend a given sum of money. In the normal day-to-day operations of a military organization, the degree of centralization or decentralization is not so much a matter of the specific manner in which the commander has organized his subordinate units as it is a matter of the policies that he has established to guide the daily operation of the unit as a whole. Thus, there may exist two identically organized units, one highly centralized, the other highly decentralized

in its operations. The degree of centralization is due solely to the different policies issued by the two commanders.

Structurally, decentralization is the downward transfer of decision points in an organization. In one sense it can be thought of as a systematic, relatively permanent delegation of authority. In this sense it refers to the assignment of responsibilities in such a way that substantial areas of discretion are entrusted to subordinates. It is characterized by broad grants of power to individual component parts of the organization, with retention of only essential controls in the superior headquarters. In another sense, decentralization has a geographic aspect, involving the type of field structure and the authority as applied in an organization-wide context. In the final analysis, centralization and decentralization are extensions of delegation.

Delegation of authority means the subdivision and allocation of the leader's overall authority to subordinates. It does not imply a severance of the leader from any part of his responsibility. It means that he is simply appointing a subordinate as an assistant to help him carry out a part of his overall responsibility. By so doing, the leader places himself in a position to hold his subordinates responsible for results.

The delegation of authority reduces the load on the leader so that he may more effectively manage the organization as a whole. It is a highly effective means for developing the leadership of subordinates because it requires them to face problems squarely at an early stage of their careers, provides them freedom to reach and carry out decisions, and permits them to learn from their own mistakes. In short, it prepares the subordinate to face the problems of higher level command by giving him experience in dealing with them at a lower level as well as confidence that he can solve them. Finally, but not least important, delegation may result in increased initiative, enthusiasm, and wholehearted cooperation on the part of subordinates.

It is well to speak of delegation on a purely intellectual level and to point out the inherent advantages occurring from it; however, it must be remembered that delegation is accomplished by men, and success or failure in its use depends to a large degree on the understanding of the people involved - the subordinate leader and the commander.

The delegation of authority and acceptance of responsibility require secure relationships with subordinates and seniors. In particular, the development of responsibility among subordinates requires a volition on the part of subordinates to accept responsibility. Therefore, on the leader falls the task of developing and maintaining a feeling of security among his subordinates and of stimulating an increasing desire on their part for greater opportunity to contribute to and to help run the organization. In this connection it should be remembered that no one can feel secure in a new responsibility unless he realizes that he is competent to discharge such authority. The skillful leader, therefore, wisely provides sufficient training for his key personnel to make them feel confident. He then delegates greater authority to them as they gain confidence. The human need for dignity, success, stature, and pride of accomplishment greatly facilitates the leader's task in developing this desire for increased responsibilities.

Delegation to subordinates requires a great deal of patience and self-control on the part of the leader himself. It is easier to give someone the answer than to take the time to assist him in arriving at a sound solution of his own. To stand aside while observing mistakes is a frustrating experience. Yet a person learns from his mistakes. Control that is too tight inhibits the development of subordinates. If a person is denied his method of finishing a task, he most probably will go to his grave thinking that his method was right and would have worked better had he been allowed to use it. Most people will discover their own mistakes before severe damage has occurred. In this case, a real lesson is learned.

There are psychological barriers to delegation, many of which reside in the personality of the leader. First, a lack of faith in subordinates - the feeling that no one can do the job as well as he - can be a real stumbling block. Second, there may be a feeling of insecurity on the part of the leader. He may be haunted by a fear that if he delegates too much authority, the subordinates may outshine him. The fear of lowering the importance of one's position is also a strong motivating force. The leader may reason that if he delegates too much authority, his superiors may conclude that his position is not vital and may, therefore, eliminate it. Therefore, the environment that a commander creates will influence the activities of his subordinates, and a strong commander is required to provide the situational environment that will be most conducive to effecting the orderly development of his subordinates.

There are risks involved in delegation. The subordinate who has been delegated authority may fail, and his failure will reflect on the leader. However, these risks can be easily exaggerated. The subordinate unit pride and spirit of competition that develop as a consequence of delegation not

only lessen the risks but also contribute to the effectiveness of the larger unit to a degree not possible under centralization. Thus, in an effective organization, the whole is greater than the sum of its parts.

US ARMY SERGEANTS MAJOR ACADEMY

RB 25-150

RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

CHAPTER 2

THE WORKING ROLES OF THE MANAGER

A Day in the Life of Del Goetz

What Managers Do--Common Functions

The Working Roles of the Manager

The Interpersonal Roles of the Manager

The Manager as Figurehead

The Manager as Leader

The Manager as Liaison

The Informational Roles of the Manager

The Manager as Monitor

The Manager as Disseminator

The Manager as Spokesperson

The Decisional Roles of the Manager

The Manager as Entrepreneur

The Manager as Disturbance Handler

The Manager as Resource Allocator

The Manager as Negotiator

The Manager's Roles--A Contingency Approach

Levels in the Organization

Types of Jobs

Types of Organizations

Implications for the Manager

Review

The Director of Social Work

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LEARNING OBJECTIVES. When you have finished reading and studying this chapter, you should be able to:

1. Identify the common functions of a manager.
2. Identify and give examples of how a manager serves as a nerve center for both the organizational unit and the environment.
3. Identify and give examples of the interpersonal roles of the manager.
4. Identify and give examples of the informational roles of the manager.
5. Identify and give examples of the decisional roles of the manager.
6. Specify how the managerial roles form an interrelated and interdependent system.
7. Specify how different types of managers emphasize different roles.
8. Define and be able to use the following concepts:

interpersonal roles
figurehead
leadership
liaison
informational roles
monitor
disseminator

spokesperson
decisional roles
entrepreneur
disturbance handler
resource allocator
negotiator

THOUGHT STARTERS.

1. In what ways do managers get work done?
2. How different are manager's jobs? How similar are they?
3. List what you think are the most important tasks of a managerial job.

A DAY IN THE LIFE OF DEL GOETZ

Located in Denver is a large warehouse cluttered with used tables, chairs, and couches. After filling a trash barrel, a woman in blue jeans dodges through the clutter to drag the barrel outside for later pickup. "Trash collection," she pants, "is one of the many 'joys' of owning a corporation."

As president of David's Moving & Storage, Del Goetz has many similar "joys." These include dealing with unhappy customers, unloading trucks, and even using a plunger on a stopped up toilet.

Goetz and her woman partner took over a failing moving and used furniture company in 1974. Within a year, sales were doubled and costs were cut considerably. During the first year, Goetz and her partner each put in approximately sixty hours per week, and the pace continues.

The business is now profitable. For it to reach that point, a number of changes were made. Goetz established good relationships with local real estate firms to get referrals. She contacted larger trucking firms in order to pick up their overflow business or business that did not interest them. She has become expert at negotiating prices for packing furniture prior to moving. She closely checks used furniture prices at other stores to make certain hers are competitive and has developed good sources for the furniture. She has centralized the used furniture business at the front of the warehouse, where there is a twelve-by-twelve foot door opening onto the sidewalk. This allows shoppers to come in and browse.

Goetz and her partner employ four men to move furniture and a woman to work part-time in the furniture store. In the peak season, the payroll may swell to thirteen movers--college students and others willing to work part-time.

During the day in question. Goetz arrived at the warehouse about 8 a.m. Technically, she is in charge of the moving operation, and her partner is in charge of the furniture store. But her partner frequently has to leave the warehouse and go to another building to inventory and price furniture. As a result, Goetz often takes over both jobs and answers the telephone. She also spends a lot of time with actual or potential customers, since they are the lifeblood of the business.

In the course of an hour, Goetz gave specific instructions to a moving crew about a special customer and informed them of the moving schedules for the next two days. She also called a florist to order flowers for the birthday of a local real estate agent, supervised the loading of two used chairs for delivery to a customer, helped one of the men move a dresser to make room for a couch, and answered questions from two customers.

Later in the afternoon, she began making out the payroll. This work was interrupted by customers and phone calls. Goetz is pleased with the volume of the moving business and the profitability of furniture sales. Still, she knows that the hectic pace is not likely to let up. She left the warehouse about 6:30 p.m.

Besides her business, Goetz is active in a number of different organizations, including an association that helps women get jobs and loans for starting businesses.

This case shows the varied activities of a manager of a small business. Using it as a base, the chapter will examine some of the common functions performed by managers as they accomplish the goals and objectives of the organization. For example, managers must plan how the objectives will be accomplished or changed if necessary and must coordinate the different parts of the work to make it flow smoothly. The chapter will also examine managers' actual behavior in performing these functions.

WHAT MANAGERS DO--COMMON FUNCTIONS

The manager's basic purpose is to supervise individuals or groups in order to accomplish the goals of the organization. In 1916, Henri Fayol, a French businessman, suggested that the manager's job had five basic functions; planning, organizing, coordinating, commanding, and controlling. Later, management author Luther Gulick expanded these major functions to seven, as described below.

Planning: Developing a broad outline of the things that need to be done and ways of doing them that will accomplish the objectives of the organization.

Organizing: The activities necessary to develop the formal structure of authority through which work is subdivided, defined, and coordinated to accomplish the organization's objectives.

Staffing: The personnel function of employing and training people and maintaining favorable work conditions.

Directing: The continuous process of making decisions and conveying them to subordinates in general and/or specific instructions and orders so they will know what to do.

Coordinating: The functional activity of interrelating the various parts of the work to be done so it will flow smoothly.

Reporting: Keeping supervisors, managers, and subordinates informed as to what is going on within the manager's area of responsibility through records, research, inspection, or other methods.

Budgeting: Handling budgets, fiscal planning, accounting, and control.

Although POSDCORB--the acronym created from the names of these functions--was originally used to describe the work of a chief executive, most writers use it to describe the job of manager at all levels. Almost all modern texts on management also include additional functions, such as communicating and motivating, but these are generally fitted into the basic framework described above.

POSDCORB, then, is widely accepted as describing the basic framework of the manager's job. Nevertheless, managerial activities cannot always be neatly fitted into these overall basic dimensions. For example, consider a manager who attends the funeral of subordinate's mother; or an executive who must visit a customer because, as executive, he has more status than the salesman (who may actually know more about the product and the customer); or a manager who gives a subordinate some useful information gathered while attending a dinner sponsored by the local chamber of commerce.

Clearly, these activities cannot be neatly classified as planning, organizing, directing, coordinating, and so on. They all go on continuously and are highly interrelated in the whole job. However, the general concepts can still be used to describe the overall objective of managerial work: "They are just ways of indicating what we need to explain."

In other words, concepts such as planning and organizing are helpful in understanding the interdependence of and interrelationships among these essential functions. For example, coordination is dependent on proper organizing. Organizing is dependent on planning, which determines the broad direction of the organization. Planning in turn is dependent on some prior organizing, although the way the organizing function is carried on is affected by the need for coordination.

Thus the managerial subsystem is concerned with controlling, coordinating, and directing the other subsystems of the organization. In the next section, we will examine the roles that help managers successfully accomplish the basic functions of their job.

THE WORKING ROLES OF THE MANAGER.

A number of studies have examined what managers actually do and how they spend their time. Many of the studies, briefly referred to in the previous chapter, were concerned with positions such as foreman, hospital administrator, company president, supervisor, and field sales manager. The studies included managers in the United States, Canada, Great Britain, and Sweden. In some instances, questionnaires were used to ask managers what they do. More productive information has been obtained by actually observing managers at work.

Henry Mintzberg has not only studied a variety of managerial jobs but has also comprehensively synthesized the empirical studies of managerial roles. He suggests that ten clusters, or roles, can be used to describe the basic ways managers go about accomplishing the job. Much of the following discussion of managerial roles is based on his synthesis of the literature.

A role is a set of systematically interrelated and observable behaviors that belong to an identifiable job or position. Each role, then, is a subsystem. The level of the job affects the emphasis placed on different roles; and the manager's style affects how a role is performed (but not whether it needs to be performed).

From a systems point of view, there are ten different but highly interrelated roles. They can be separated into three different groupings: (1) those primarily concerned with interpersonal relationships (the interpersonal roles), (2) those primarily concerned with the transfer of information (the informational roles), and (3) those essentially involving decision making (the decisional roles). Figure 2.1 shows all ten roles.

Before the ten roles are discussed in more detail, several points should be understood. First, every manager's job consists of some combination of roles. Second, each role can be observed; a person can actually watch the manager perform it. Third, the roles account for the variety of activities engaged in by different managers. Fourth, the roles can be described individually but cannot be isolated; they form an integrated system. Finally, the stress and emphasis vary with the job and the managerial level--technical, administrative, or strategic.

Authority and status allow the manager to act in the interpersonal roles of figurehead, leader, and liaison. By assuming these roles, the manager is able to move into the informational roles. These in turn lead directly to the decisional roles. The results of decisions provide feedback to the manager about adjusting activities to changing conditions or to the results of the decision-making activities.

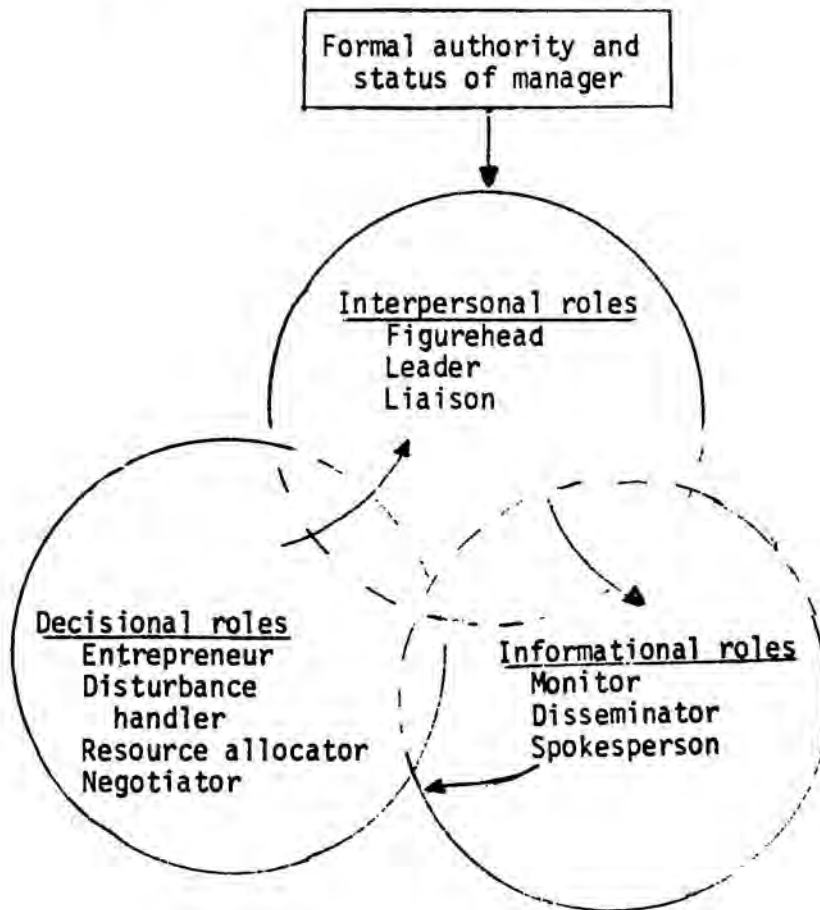


Figure 2.1 The interlocking and interrelated roles of the manager.

THE INTERPERSONAL ROLES OF THE MANAGER

As already mentioned, the three interpersonal roles of figurehead, leader, and liaison develop from the manager's formal authority and status.

THE MANAGER AS FIGUREHEAD.

As head of the organization or one of its units, the manager represents it in formal matters, including ceremonial and symbolic activities; this is the figurehead role.

All managerial jobs require some duties that are symbolic in nature--involving interpersonal activity but not significant information processing or decision making. The president of a university gives out the diplomas at commencement. The factory supervisor attends the wedding of one of the workers. The mayor of the town gives the keys of the city to a returning hero.

At first glance, these duties do not appear to be central to the job of manager. Yet, they are expected, and effective managers are involved in them. (In some cases the task is made necessary by internal or external rules, as when the university president or chairperson of the board signs the diplomas.) While little attention has been paid to the figurehead roles, it is an important one.

In January 1977 the federal government approved financing for the "Westway," a new road intended to replace New York City's collapsing West Side Highway. The project was expected to cost at least \$1.6 billion. Because of the importance of the decision, the federal Secretary of Transportation, William T. Coleman, delivered the message personally. Present at the press conference were, among others, Governor Hugh Carey and Mayor Abraham Beame. Coleman, Beame, and Carey were all there in the figurehead role.

THE MANAGER AS LEADER.

The leadership role involves responsibility for directing and coordinating the activities of subordinates to accomplish organizational goals. A highly important role, it is dealt with in depth in Chapter 11.

Some aspects of the leadership role have to do with staffing--making certain that hiring, training, promotion, dismissal, and related activities are performed properly. Other aspects have to do with motivating subordinates--especially trying to ensure that the needs of the organization and the needs of subordinates are integrated. For example, the manager may give special praise to a subordinate for a task done well, may reassure other subordinates who are unsure of their work, or may fight subordinates' battles with higher-ups. Sometimes, the leadership role may be unpleasant, involving firing or other disciplinary actions.

Still other aspects of the leadership role have to do with controlling--inquiring into the activities of subordinates to make certain things are going

well, probing for problems that need attention. Is the part being made properly? Is the unit performing within the budget? Is the social worker helping the clients? Is the new college instructor getting the material across to students?

THE MANAGER AS LIAISON.

The liaison role involves the manager in contacts outside the vertical chain of command in an effort to bring information into the unit and gain favors from others. It includes interacting in a network of contacts with peers and others in order to get that information. An effective manager spends an appropriate amount of time in this role.

The liaison role deals with the tremendous number of relationships the manager must maintain with individuals and groups outside the organization or unit (subsystem). It often consumes about half the manager's time. For example, the assembly line supervisor may have contact with twenty-five or more individuals from outside the unit during the work day. The same has been found true for middle- and upper-level managers.

The further up in the organization the manager is, the more likely it is that the liaison contacts are outside the organization itself. At the strategic level, for example, a member of the board of directors, the president, or the top administrator is much more likely to be a member of trade associations, the chamber of commerce, and other such groups than is the supervisor of the keypunch operation or the assembly line. At the lower, technical levels of the organization, the liaison tends to be outside the specific unit but inside the organization. The emphasis tends to be focused more directly on maintaining the work flow.

The purpose of the liaison role is to establish better contacts with those who send work into the subsystem and with those to whom the subsystem sends its goods and services. The role may involve selling, purchasing, innovation, lobbying, and advisory activities. Getting to know the proper person to contact is an essential part of the manager's job.

The interpersonal roles of figurehead, leader, and liaison are frequently combined in actual life. For example, a manager may attend a ceremonial dinner in the figurehead role but may meet someone who is important as a future contact. Del Goetz, for example, belonged to a number of outside organizations. She also sent flowers for the birthday of a local real estate agent and established good relationships with real estate and trucking firms.

THE INFORMATIONAL ROLES OF THE MANAGER.

In the interpersonal roles, the competent manager builds a network of interpersonal contacts. By the nature of these contacts, the manager becomes the nerve center of the unit--the central focus for the receiving and sending of nonroutine information. Three roles characterize the manager as a nerve center: monitor, disseminator, and spokesperson. In this set of roles, information is received, transmitted, or recombined.

President Franklin D. Roosevelt was good at gathering information. The essence of his technique was competition. One of his aides reported:

He would call you in and ask you to get the story on some complicated business. After a couple of days of hard labor, you would come back and present the juicy morsel you'd uncovered under a stone somewhere, and then you'd find out he knew all about it, together with something else you didn't know. Where he got his information from he wouldn't usually mention, but after he had done this to you once or twice you got damn careful about your information.

THE MANAGER AS MONITOR.

In much the same way as a radar set, the manager in the monitor role continually scans the environment to receive and collect information. The manager must not only check continually to see that the unit is operating properly but must also check continually inside and outside the unit to ensure that possible changes are identified and problems and opportunities detected and to determine when information has to be given to others and decisions made.

In the monitor role, the manager makes use of the formal and informal contacts developed in the liaison role and of the reports generated by the organization, such as current sales and expense figures. At the strategic level, much of the monitoring is external to the organization itself. The successful president of a company must know as much as possible about what competitors are doing; he or she cannot wait to take action until after a competitor has introduced a new product. The manager also must know what effect pending or upcoming legislation or new regulations may have on the organization and what effect the rise or fall of the dollar will have on it. As already mentioned, the head of Coca-Cola spends about half his time in countries outside the United States determining what is happening in places like Moscow and Cairo.

At the administrative level the manager uses operating reports to determine how the organization is functioning, constantly reviews how well specialized functions are operating in conjunction with each other, and obtains outside information from those who use the "products." For example, the dean of a school of management may spend considerable time meeting with other deans and with outside business people. At the operating level, the assembly line supervisor may use production schedules and similar internally generated information along with informal communications to make certain that parts are available before the assembly is to start. The department head in a university may check with the bookstore to make certain the textbooks are available before classes start.

In the Jaws case described in Chapter 1, Steven Spielberg had to continually monitor what was going on. How was the script coming along? Was there trouble with the townspeople? Was Bruce working properly? Were the weather conditions right for filming? Only on the basis of up-to-date information obtained from a variety of sources could he film the picture.

The effective manager designs a personal information system, largely informal rather than formal, largely oral rather than written. The manager then pieces together all the incoming information into a mental image or "model" of the unit and its interaction with the external environment or other units.

A manager in one organization made a special effort to cultivate and make friends with the maintenance supervisor. The close interpersonal contact helped ensure that the equipment in the unit was maintained properly. Furthermore, the manager was among the first to know that the maintenance supervisor was resigning to join another company. Long before the official announcement of the resignation, the manager began cultivating the supervisor's replacement, who did not even know yet that his boss was leaving.

THE MANAGER AS DISSEMINATOR.

The disseminator role involves passing along special or privileged information that subordinates will not otherwise be able to obtain. When subordinates do not have quick and easy contact with each other, the manager also passes information among them.

A change in the manufacturing schedule must be quickly transmitted to the appropriate supervisor, who will in turn pass the information on to subordinates. The president informs a vice-president that he has just heard that Company X, a supplier, is going bankrupt. The vice-president immediately tells the purchasing agent, since the situation may affect orders that have been placed with Company X.

A significant problem of the disseminator role is delegation. As the nerve center for the unit, the manager has a good deal of information "stored in memory" (to use a computer term). There is little problem in delegating tasks that are specialized or that involve only one function. A different situation occurs when tasks cut across specialties or involve the manager's special information. As the nerve center, the manager has most of the relevant information and is thus best suited to handle these tasks. But no individual person can do everything, so some tasks must be delegated. The problem is that the manager cannot easily pass all relevant information on to subordinates. Much of it was received orally, and passing it along is difficult and time-consuming.

THE MANAGER AS SPOKESPERSON.

In the spokesperson role, the manager speaks for the unit and represents it to others. The nature of the role is highly varied. At the strategic level, the president of an organization or a member of its board of directors may, for example, be asked to appear before a congressional committee conducting a hearing. During the oil crisis in 1973 and 1974, presidents of several major oil companies were asked to explain their organizations' position and the steps they were taking to help the situation.

At the technical level, the first-line supervisor in a manufacturing organization may be told by a subordinate that there is a parts shortage. The immediate response is to contact someone in purchasing to see if parts can be expedited. The person in the purchasing department may in turn contact a supplier.

As can be seen from these illustrations, the spokesperson role requires that the manager keep a number of groups informed. The first of these groups is the unit's key influencers. For the company president, this may mean the board of directors; for the city's mayor, it may mean the city council.

A second series of groups is the organization's "public." For the chief executive the public may include government agencies, customers, suppliers, and the press. For example, a chief executive may "lobby" for the organization, give a speech to a trade association outlining the firm's plans, and oversee the preparation of the annual report to stockholders. The first-level supervisor in a manufacturing unit may interact with engineers, inspectors, purchasing people, and a variety of others primarily within the organization. The head nurse, on the other hand, may have extensive contact with visitors and others outside the formal unit.

A key concept of the spokesperson role is that of representation. The manager must act as an advocate for subordinates. A sales manager may respond to complaints from salespersons about slow delivery time by asking the manufacturing supervisor for faster delivery. Managers must recommend pay increases for their subordinates. A department head may convince a dean and an academic vice-president that more faculty members are needed to handle an influx of new students.

In summary, the informational role involves the manager in gathering and receiving information in the monitor role and transmitting that information in the disseminator and spokesperson roles. Further, the manager uses this information in the decision-making roles--the subject of the next section.

THE DECISIONAL ROLES OF THE MANAGER.

Developing interpersonal relationships and gathering information are not ends in themselves. They are the basic inputs to decision making. The third and perhaps most important of the manager's roles are the decisional roles--entrepreneur, disturbance handler, resource allocator, and negotiator.

THE MANAGER AS ENTREPRENEUR.

In the entrepreneur role, the manager works to improve the unit, to bring about planned, voluntary, controlled change for the better. The effective manager is constantly looking for new ideas to help in doing a better job. After a new idea is identified, the manager considers whether it will be helpful to the unit. If it is both helpful and simple, it may be put into action immediately. For example, Del Goetz centralized the used furniture business at the front of the warehouse and opened a twelve-by-twelve foot door facing the sidewalk to make it easier for shoppers to come in and browse.

If the new idea is complex or difficult to implement, a development project may be started. Many of these projects are supervised directly by the manager, while others are delegated until their completion, at which point the manager approves or modifies them.

A few years ago, Eastern Airlines instituted a new service between Boston, New York, and Washington. The "shuttle service" was very different from previous scheduled flights. Planes left every hour. No reservation was required. Passengers could board the plane directly and purchase tickets in flight. Every passenger was guaranteed a seat. If the airplane was filled, another was brought out, even for a single passenger (which actually happened). This project took a number of years to implement, since the necessary capital had to be raised, the operating procedures had to be established, and the approval of a number of regulatory agencies had to be gained. Once implemented, however, the project was an instant success. (Indeed, the shuttle service is still a success.)

THE MANAGER AS DISTURBANCE HANDLER.

In the disturbance handler role the manager takes corrective action to respond to pressure and change that are beyond personal control. At the strategy level, the disturbance may be new legislation. At the administrative level, it may be a wildcat strike or a supplier's failure to fulfill a contract. At the technical level, it may be a machine breakdown or the illness of key employees.

There are many other types of disturbances. A subordinate may quit. An airplane crash may create an emergency for both the airport and the local hospitals. A protracted storm may delay delivery of vital parts. A competitor may unexpectedly come out with a new, innovative product.

By their very nature, disturbances must be handled quickly; the manager's disturbance handling role must take priority over other roles. When a disturbance occurs, the manager must shift activities and work to find at least a short-term solution. For example, if a wildcat strike occurs, the first priority is to get people back to work. Solving the longer-term problem is put off to "buy time." After the strike is over, there will be time to explore the deeper reasons and take long-term corrective action.

As sociologist Leonard Sayles phrases it:

The achievement of . . . stability, which is the manager's objective, is a never-to-be attained ideal. He is like a symphony orchestra conductor, endeavoring to maintain a melodious performance in which the contributions of the various instruments are coordinated and sequenced, patterned and paced, while the orchestra members are having various personal difficulties, stage hands are moving music stands, alternating excessive heat and cold are creating audience and instrument problems, and the sponsor of the concert is insisting on irrational changes in the program.

In summary, the disturbance handler role is a highly significant one. Not only does the manager have to cope rapidly with unforeseen problems, but also decisions made under pressure can affect longer-term strategy because of the precedents they set.

THE MANAGER AS RESOURCE ALLOCATOR.

In the resource allocator role, the manager decides who will get what resources in the unit. The resources can include time, money, material, equipment, people, and the unit's reputation. Almost all organizations have limited resources; few can accomplish everything they hope for. Choices must be made continually as to how the resources will be allocated.

Resource allocation is one of the most vital of the manager's decisional roles. The decision to allocate resources to one area automatically means that they cannot be allocated to another.

At the strategy level, resource allocation determines the organization's long-range direction. Should greater national priority be placed on cancer research, aid to emerging nations, or a landing on Mars? Should time and effort be spent on buying or merging with other organizations? How much effort should be expended on influencing the larger environment? Should the university build a new library or a theatre arts center? In the local municipality, should street improvement or a new sewage disposal plant receive the greater priority?

At the managerial or administrative level, should the dean push for more faculty members or more books in the library? Should money be spent for renovating the old plant or building a new one? What should be the design of the next year's automobile? What proportion of money should be put into advertising and what proportion into improving an existing product? Should police and fire department personnel get bigger raises than other municipal employees? What procedures should be established to service the products manufactured and sold by the organization?

Questions of resource allocation at the operating level are also vitally important. With a tight manufacturing schedule, which products should have priority? Should the machine be stopped for maintenance, or should it continue running in order to get the product out? Should a second shift be put on, or should time and a half be paid for overtime? Given limited faculty, which courses should be offered next semester? Given a limited budget, should the welfare department concentrate more on counseling welfare clients or on catching chiselers?

Decisions on resource allocation are not made completely on the basis of objective facts. To illustrate: After doing a thorough cost and feasibility analysis, a large multinational company approved the installation of a computer in Europe. The computer was to be placed at the company's office in Switzerland, since this was a central (and effective) location. The installation was to

involve additional staff to program and operate the computer. The London manager strongly objected to the choice of Switzerland, feeling that this was a reflection on his own status and prestige. Because he made such a fuss, the organization eventually installed two computers, one in Switzerland, as originally intended, and one in London, to satisfy the well-respected and capable London manager.

THE MANAGER AS NEGOTIATOR.

The fourth and final decision-making role is that of negotiator. In this role the manager discusses and bargains with other units to obtain advantages for his or her own unit. The owner of a football team may negotiate with a superstar who is holding out for more money. The first-line supervisor may negotiate with the maintenance department to get machines repaired faster. The purchasing agent may negotiate with vendors for lower cost or faster delivery. The sales manager may negotiate price with a large customer.

Sayles suggest that negotiation is at the core of the manager's relationships with others:

Sophisticated managers place great stress on negotiations as a way of life. They negotiate with groups who are setting standards for their work, who are performing support activity for them, and to whom they wish to "sell" their services. . . . It is also worth noting that the realistic manager recognizes that the terms of any agreement are not fixed but always are subject to reopening.

Thus, as with the other roles, the manager as negotiator is frequently dealing with uncertainty and change. Negotiations are duties that cannot be shirked, since only the manager has the nerve center information that many negotiations require and the formal authority to commit the organization to action.

THE MANAGER'S ROLES--A CONTINGENCY APPROACH.

Although described separately, the manager's ten roles form an integrated whole. No specific one can be taken from the others if the managerial job is to remain intact. For example, the manager who has no liaison contacts does not develop sufficient external information to pass on important information to others. The manager who does not monitor the internal and external environment cannot do an adequate job of planning. The purchasing manager who remains blissfully unaware that a major supplier is involved in a long and bitter strike is headed for trouble. The company president who does not plan to meet or stay ahead of competition may not have the job for long. (The organization that makes last year's calculators at last year's prices may soon be out of business.)

Managers do not give equal attention to each of the roles. Each manager is an individual with a personal style. In addition, the roles emphasized depend on managers' organizational levels, the type of organization in which they work,

and the types of jobs they hold. Thus, much of the role variation depends not only upon the individual managers but also on the varying situations in which they are placed.

LEVELS IN THE ORGANIZATION.

As already pointed out, much of the differing emphasis on managerial roles stems from the manager's level in the organization. In fact, the organizational level appears to be more important than the type of organization. For example, the president of the United States, the president of a company, the head of a school committee, and others at the strategy level may spend proportionately more time in the figurehead role than does a supervisor at the technical level.

Chief executives gather information to be used in broad strategy making. Administrative-level managers gather information that helps implement the broad strategy. Technical-level managers gather information to keep the work process going.

Chief executives may negotiate acquisitions or mergers. Managers at the coordinating level may negotiate delivery dates on orders or sales. Assembly line supervisors may negotiate with production engineers about redesigning a part to make the assembly process easier. The supervisor of a keypunch unit may negotiate with upper-level managers about the priority of materials to be prepared for the computer.

TYPES OF JOBS.

In general, managerial jobs at the strategy level tend to be broader and to have greater scope than jobs at the coordinating or technical levels. The lower the level, the more likely the manager's job is to be specialized and narrow in scope.

In addition, managers at the same level tend to concentrate their time on different sets of roles as a function of the job itself. For example, manufacturing managers appear to spend the majority of their time in the negotiator and disturbance handler roles. They also spend more time with subordinates and work more at troubleshooting than do other types of managers.

Sales managers too are concerned with people, although they tend more toward the interpersonal roles in dealing with external contacts (the liaison and figurehead roles) and in developing and training the sales force (the leadership role). Once a salesperson's training has been completed, however, the sales manager of a national or international firm may see the person only infrequently, perhaps at an annual sales meeting. Because of the nature of the job, sales managers spend much more time than other managers outside the organization. It is not unusual for some sales managers to spend more time with customers than with people inside the company.

Managers of specialists--such as accountants, personnel specialists, and industrial engineers--form another distinct group. On the whole, these managers often tend to work alone and to be heavily involved with paperwork, although they also advise others in peer and lateral relationships. These managers spend a great deal of time within the speciality function of their units. As a result, the monitor and spokesperson roles appear to be the most important to them.

TYPES OF ORGANIZATIONS.

The size of the organization appears to affect what managers do. The larger the firm, the more the separation into strategic, coordinating, and technical levels. In smaller organizations, this separation is not as clear and distinct (as the DeI Goetz case shows).

The chief executives of large firms spend a good deal of time in the figurehead and liaison roles. In smaller organizations, there is more informality and a greater concern for internal operating issues. Managers of smaller firms may deal directly with suppliers, associates, and clients. As a result, the heads of smaller organizations may spend more time in the leader, information processing, and negotiator roles than do executives of larger organizations.

The managers of public organizations, such as school systems and state and federal agencies, deal more directly with the general public than do managers of privately owned organizations. Since there are political issues, problems, and choices in the public organization, the liaison, spokesperson, and negotiator roles are generally important for manager in public life. Whether or not the stereotype is true, managers in profit-making organizations are seen as relatively more involved in the entrepreneur role.

In summary, there is evidence that each managerial job contains interpersonal, informational, and decisional roles. The emphasis on each role differs by managerial level, type of job, and type of organization. The difference is one of emphasis and scope. The chief executive is concerned about and responsible for the effectiveness of the entire organization and obtains a great deal of information from an environment external to the organization. The supervisor at the technical level gathers and disseminates information of a more specific, concrete type, usually primarily from within the organization itself.

IMPLICATIONS FOR THE MANAGER.

This chapter describes the basic activities a manager engages in to accomplish the common managerial functions of POSDCORB--primarily planning, organizing, and directing. It also identifies ten managerial roles that vary by the level of the organization, the type of job, and so on.

The manager's ten working roles can be observed. (For example, we can see the president of an organization acting as a figurehead in giving a gold watch to a retiring employee.) They can also be grouped into three basic categories: interpersonal relationships, information processing, and making significant

decisions. The three categories can be further divided into the ten observable roles. The interpersonal roles are those of figurehead, liaison, and leader. The informational roles are those of monitor, disseminator, and spokesperson. The decisional roles are those of entrepreneur, disturbance handler, resource allocator, and negotiator.

These roles form an interrelated, interdependent whole. Although they can be described individually, they cannot exist in isolation. Each is dependent on the others.

The manager is in a unique position to act as a "nerve center" for information of the organization. Contacts with subordinates and with those outside the unit help the individual develop a powerful data base of internal and external information. As a result, the manager is the organization's generalist, with the best store of nonroutine information.

Much of the manager's information is tangible, current, and oral. It is used to detect changes, to inform outsiders and subordinates, to identify both problems and opportunities, and to build a base for decision making.

The manager makes or approves the significant decisions for the unit. Some of the decisions bring about change and improvement; other handle unexpected problems that come up. The manager also oversees the allocation of the unit's resources, including both money and personnel. Finally, the manager negotiates with other organizations or units.

In summary, the manager is the nerve center of the organization or organizational unit--a key link between the unit and the environment and between subordinates and others within the unit. Even though the work of the unit is usually specialized, the manager must not only know all about it but also be able to perform the ten observable roles. Managers in different jobs may emphasize different roles but must perform all of them well.

REVIEW.

1. How did the material covered in this chapter correspond to your own knowledge of managers?
2. Select a variety of managers to observe, such as the manager of a service station, the manager of a clothing store, a head nurse, and a manufacturing supervisor. What roles do they appear to emphasize?
3. Identify and discuss as many different roles as you can from the case "A Day in the Life of Del Goetz."
4. Explain how the ten roles of the manager form an interrelated and interdependent whole.
5. Explain what is meant by the statement "The basic managerial roles are observable."
6. Discuss the concept of nerve center. In what way is the idea important?
7. Can one be an effective manager without getting oral information? Discuss.

8. From your own experience, give examples of the different roles of the manager. Does the emphasis seem to vary with the organization? Explain.
9. Interview other students for their ideas of what a manager does. Do you agree with their explanations? Discuss.
10. What roles does a department head emphasize? A college dean? An editor of a school newspaper? A football coach? Which roles does each seem to spend the most time on?

THE DIRECTOR OF SOCIAL WORK

Mercy Hospital is a 225-bed general hospital. Helen Strauss, director of social work for the hospital, has a master's degree in social work and is a certified member of the National Association of Social Workers. Her primary training is in psychotherapy, and she has held several previous supervisory jobs.

The department of social work has about twenty professional and paraprofessional workers. Its primary task is to help patients and their relatives in a number of ways. The help ranges from psychotherapy, to counseling patients on how to pay their bills, to working on teams with physicians and nurses to provide complete health care, to arranging for placement in nursing homes.

On a particular day, Strauss left home about 7:45 a.m. On her way to the hospital, she dropped off a revised transfer agreement at a nursing home. While there, she chatted briefly with the director about the agreement and paid a quick visit to a patient recently transferred from the hospital.

Arriving at her office about 9:30, she found six phone messages on her desk. While taking off her coat, she talked to one of the social workers, who reported that the relatives of a patient admitted the day before had been located. The phone rang. The director of fiscal affairs asked Strauss to attend a meeting about collections from patients not covered by insurance. The meeting was set for 1:00 p.m. After finishing that phone call, Strauss called back several of the people who had left messages. One call was to a person in the Veterans Administration and dealt with a recent change in medical benefits to veterans. Another was to an irate wife concerned about her husband; this matter was referred to one of the social workers. While talking on the telephone, Strauss opened some of her mail, much of which she threw into the wastebasket after a quick look at it. Between phone calls, her secretary and several other workers dropped in with questions or to give or get information.

At 10:30, she left her office to attend a regularly scheduled mental health workers meeting of the medical, surgical, and pediatric wards, bringing her proposed revision of a medical record form (one of the items to be discussed at the meeting). On her way back from the meeting, she dropped into the office of the personnel director to discuss potential secretarial candidates, since her secretary was leaving.

So the day went. Lunch was with the chief of the psychiatric unit and several other administrators. One of the agenda items was new admissions to the in-patient psychiatric unit.

At 1:00, Strauss attended the meeting on patients not covered by insurance. She reported on the results of her phone call to the individual from the Veterans Administration and found out that several patients had been admitted that morning who would require social service help.

As she returned to her office, she received a call from a nursing home indicating that it now had a bed for a patient. She relayed the information to the appropriate social worker. From 2:00 to 2:10, she talked by phone to the director of volunteers, negotiating taxi fares for the volunteer worker in social service who could not walk to the hospital on snowy days.

For a few minutes, she worked on the fiscal budget for her department. The meeting was a week away, but she had been working on the budget, off and on, for a month. The budget request would recommend some needed improvements in the department. Again, the phone rang. It was a graduate student from a local university conducting a survey. The call was cut short by another one, this time from the manager of the city infirmary. Following that, a new worker came in for advice about a dying patient and how best to work with the patient and relatives.

Leaving the office. Strauss attended the social service rounds on the surgical floor. (Although there was a social worker assigned to surgery, she attended to keep herself informed.) Before returning to her office, she stopped briefly at a good-bye party for the head nurse in pediatrics. She waited until the gift (to which she had contributed) was presented and then left. While at the party, she talked to a number of other hospital workers and mentioned to a social worker some results of the 1:00 p.m. meeting.

After she returned to her office, several people dropped in. One was a mental health worker who was applying to graduate schools of social work and wanted her to write letters of recommendation. Meanwhile, her desk was again covered with messages about incoming calls. She began returning the calls but stopped at 5:30 since her car pool was waiting.

Twenty minutes after she returned home, she received a call from the head nurse in the emergency room. The police had brought in an incoherent eighty-six-old man. After several calls to nursing homes and other potential sources of information, she joined in the decision to admit the individual and attempt to do a thorough psychiatric workup the next day.

1. What concepts of the manager's job described in Chapters 1 and 2 can you identify in the job of director of social work?
2. How many of the managerial roles can you identify? Are the roles always clear-cut? Specify how the roles you identified are interdependent with each other.
3. Specify how the roles you identified are observable from Helen Strauss's actual behavior.

RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

Chapter 3

MANAGEMENT ANALYSIS
"Case Study Method"

One of the tools we use to reinforce management principles is the case study method. The case method, which is in general use today, was originally developed about forty years ago by the Harvard Business School as a deviation from the traditional law school technique. Three characteristics are widely associated with the case method. First, the case normally deals with a real situation in which the problem has not been defined. Second, the case often contains a large amount of data. This material is normally presented in chronological order, but may not be completely necessary in solving the problem. The student must determine what information is important. Finally, the case is solved by the student. The student does the analysis of the case situation and draws any conclusions that should be made. The sum, the case method is intended to develop the student's ability to solve problems.

STEPS IN ANALYZING A CASE PROBLEM

1. State the principal problem or problems expressed by the case.

Merely identifying the problem is not satisfactory. The group's case solution should also include why it found the problem to be as it has stated it. The group should use data in the case to support its problem statement.

2. Identify the significant facts.

The group should identify those facts that have a significant bearing on the problem it has stated. The group should also explain why it has identified these facts as significant.

3. Identify alternative solutions to the problem.

The group should identify those reasonable alternatives to solving the problem it has stated.

4. Analyze each alternative.

The group should determine the efficacy of each alternative by analyzing its positive and negative aspects. One criterion that will aid in this analysis is to try to determine the likely outcome of the alternative.

5. Compare the alternatives.

Using the positive and negative aspects of each alternative or any other set of criteria, the group should compare the alternatives to select that alternative which in consideration of the facts is most appropriate and most likely to be successful.

6. State the solution to the case.

The group should state the solution it has selected. More importantly, however, the group should give an explicit rationale for why it found this alternative more satisfactory than the others.

7. Identify the principles of management.

To help it understand why it was asked to solve this problem, the group should identify those principles of management that were not used effectively in the case situation. The group should also state why it found these principles to have been misused.

GUIDELINES FOR CASE SOLUTION

The following questions should be answered in the written solution of your case study:

1. Can the reader of your solution get all the information he needs without referring to the case itself?
2. In identifying the problem, have you included why you see it as the problem?
3. Have you identified all the significant facts in the case?
4. To every problem there is more than one solution; otherwise, you don't have a decision or a recommendation. However, limit yourself to two definable alternatives to analyze. (Continuing present course of action or ignoring a significant part of a managerial function is not an alternative.)
5. Have you analyzed both the positive and negative aspects of each of your alternative solutions and evaluated what would be the possible outcome under each one?
6. Have you compared each alternative against the others to see which one will best solve the problem you have identified as key?
7. After choosing your solution, have you told why you chose that particular solution instead of any other?
8. Have you supported all conclusions and/or assumptions made throughout the case with facts and/or logical analysis?
9. Have you explained what management principles were involved in the case?
10. Your case study will be critiqued by your faculty group member.

Chapter 4

COLONEL CAMPBELL'S STAFF MEETING

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United States Army Logistics Management Center

Colonel Thomas A. Campbell, Infantry, was assigned as Post Commander at Fort Watkins, a small Class I installation. Before returning to the United States, Colonel Campbell had been commander of an infantry brigade in Alaska. Throughout his military career his assignments had been almost exclusively with troops. He was a graduate of West Point and had attended Command and General Staff College at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas.

Shortly before reporting at Fort Watkins, Colonel Campbell visited the Army Headquarters which exercised command jurisdiction over Watkins. There he learned that his predecessor had retired and that the installation was regarded as one in which "an alert officer could make a good showing."

Although Fort Watkins was small, its facilities were used for training in the common specialties: clerks, cooks and bakers, and auto mechanics. In addition there was one infantry training brigade.

The day after his arrival, Colonel Campbell called a brief meeting of his principal subordinates. He was surprised to find that many civilians occupied staff positions which he had been accustomed to thinking of as requiring military personnel. Colonel Campbell spoke in general terms about himself and what he expected of his staff. In part he said, "I do not plan to make any changes immediately, nor to lower the boom on anyone until I have had a chance to get settled and until you have had a chance to get accustomed to me. I will be frank, however, and tell you that Army thinks this post needs some jacking up. I intend to do just that."

For the next month, Colonel Campbell spent his time meeting and becoming familiar with the personnel and the operations on the post. His typical routine was to visit a staff unit with his Deputy, Colonel Walker, who had been assigned four months earlier. Together they would ask questions about the unit's activities and observe the members of the staff in action. Afterwards the Colonel usually asked the officer or civilian in charge of the unit what its major problems were. Typically, they included shortage of personnel, both military and civilian; shortage of funds; and too strict limitations on the use of those funds. Colonel Campbell noticed that individual staff members seemed to know very little about the activities of other staff agencies on the post. He decided to keep this point in mind in planning his staff meetings.

At the end of the month, Colonel Campbell called a staff meeting, announcing it through the daily bulletin. It was attended by 21 members of his staff, of whom slightly less than half were civilians. The Colonel opened the meeting by asking how many had brought their assistants, as the announcement had instructed them to do. A number of staff members left the conference room, made phone calls, and returned immediately. Shortly thereafter four or five individuals entered the conference room and sat in the rear. At this point the Colonel, who meantime had been talking with his adjutant, formally began the staff meeting.

COLONEL CAMPBELL:

"Ladies and gentlemen, the first topic I would like to discuss with you this morning is the very important topic, reports of survey. I want to caution each and every one of you who are charged with the responsibility of conducting an investigation to make certain you get statements from every individual involved. Make your report complete and be sure you can make it stick. At the same time, remember we have had entirely too many surveys; I cannot convince myself that they are all genuine. I suspect that in any number of these cases the damage results from pure neglect on the part of the individual involved. Army has cautioned us about this and we must not repeat in sending to Army surveys which cannot pass the scrutiny of the Commanding General.

"Next I would like to let you know that the IG from Army will make an inspection on August 22. The deficiencies from last year have been corrected, or so I have been informed. I want everyone to certify that to me in writing. If you don't know what your deficiencies were or if you weren't here when the inspection was conducted last year, get in touch with the adjutant and he'll give you the information. Let's not let Army catch us napping on the same things that we were caught short on last year.

"Next I would like to point out to you that it has been my observation throughout my first month here that there is just not enough delegation of authority. I found on a number of occasions that a key officer was absent and no one in his place knew what was going on. Now you and I know that just shouldn't be the case. Let's have more delegation of authority so that when someone comes around to ask questions, those in the second or third line of supervision can answer questions intelligently.

"Next, that old subject sick leave for civilians. As you know civilians can get 13 days' sick leave, so they think they are entitled to it and they take it. Here at Watkins, we are way over our percentage. It was running 3.71% in June, down a bit from May which was 5.41%, but it is still not good enough. Now I think the way that we can lick this thing is for me to leave this policy with each of you supervisors: beginning 1 August anyone who is home 24 hours must bring in a doctor's certificate. Now, use your heads about this. If a person is sick one day in six months, he doesn't need to have this kind of excuse or certificate. I am talking about those who take a day off after every payday, or regularly take one or two days a month. That's no go. Now, Army tells us our percentage is too high and I want to see some action on it. Tell your people that if they are sick they are to report in at 0800 or 0810. If they don't they are absent without leave. If a person comes back after having been sick and has no doctor's certificate, send him over to our dispensary. Doc, can you take care of him?"

LTC MATHERS (Medical Corps)

"Yes, sir, we can investigate their illness and give them an examination if it is necessary."

COLONEL CAMPBELL:

"Fine! Now that ought to take care of this business.

"All right, now the next item on my agenda is supplies on hand. And about this I am very, very concerned. You were all supposed to turn in excess supplies by 30 June. The comptroller tells me that our supplies are 240% of our allowance. Now when the IG comes around next month and sees this he'll chew my rear end. Pardon me, ladies, but I mean it. He'll really raise holy hell, and I want those gotten rid of and I want them gotten rid of right now! Is there any question? When that property gets turned over to property disposal they should now be able to handle it. They have been short, I know, of personnel spaces and of storage area, but we got that straightened our last week. Disposal has informed me that they are going to be able to take care of \$300,000 worth of property quarterly. Incidentally, Dick, we will just check on that beginning tomorrow morning. Any questions?"

"Okay. Now the next item is that Army is putting on an economy drive and we can expect a 10% cut across the board in spaces and money. Everyone will be frozen and there will be no military personnel to fill the civilian spaces that are cut, so we just have to tighten up our belts and do the job with the people we have. We've got a job to do and we'll have to do it regardless of how much time it takes. If you think that's rough, just remember I'm the last one out of this Headquarters every night. Sometimes it's my fault and sometimes it's not.

"Now as long as we are talking about getting jobs done on time with the people we have, I would like to mention reports that go out of this Headquarters to Army or to some other higher echelon. One of the reasons I am getting out late at night when it's not my fault is that these reports come up at the last minute for signature. For example, yesterday at 4:17 three reports that had to go out came to my office for my signature. Now you know we have civilians who have to work on these reports even after I sign them, and civilians are not supposed to work after 4:30 unless we pay them overtime. Now I would like to know sometimes what I am signing. I don't want you to put yourself on the spot when you sign anything, and I want you to feel the same way about everybody else, including me. Now, except for personnel shortages, is there something I can do to help you so that we can get these reports out on time?"

The officers and civilians in the conference room squirmed on their chairs but made no move to

reply. Colonel Campbell spoke again.

COLONEL CAMPBELL:

"There are two reports that came from the Engineers. Now is there any reason why I had to get those two last night at 4:17?"

LTC ABEL (Post Engineer):

"Well, sir, we sometimes get the requests for those reports from Army very late, too late to comply with the deadline they give us; and lots of other times, like on these reports that you got last night, we have to get other data."

COLONEL CAMPBELL:

"Is that local data?"

LTC ABEL:

"Sometimes it is local, sir. Sometimes we have to get it from the fiscal office and sometimes the comptroller's office. We just don't always get the information on time and, as you said, we are short of people and we can't keep everybody late to get the reports out."

COLONEL CAMPBELL:

"What about this information, Mitchum?"

MAJOR MITCHUM (Comptroller):

"Sir, the Colonel has asked us for certain information on a daily basis, and so far as I know for the last two weeks we have been sending down daily reports of the sort he wanted. Aren't you getting that information, Colonel?"

LTC ABEL:

"Yes, but we get it a day late. Sometimes it leaves your office late and sometimes it sits in the message center for hours at a time."

COLONEL CAMPBELL:

"For God's sake, can't we straighten out little things like this among ourselves? Now you two get together to get that information on a timely basis, particularly on those days when you know you've got reports to get out. If you can't handcarry it from one office to another, then we can make some other arrangement, I am sure. Now, is there anybody else that needs help in order to get these reports on time?"

There was no answer, no comment. The Colonel looked around for a moment and returned to his notes.

COLONEL CAMPBELL:

"Now the next item I have here is to tell those officers who are duty officers in the Headquarters not to report to my secretary for instructions. If anything ever happened, we couldn't hold a civilian responsible for issuing orders. I don't want to see anybody reporting to my secretary regardless of how many years this may have been going on before I got here. Is that understood?"

Those present answered in unison: "Yes, sir."

COLONEL CAMPBELL:

"Well, that's about all I have at this time. Does anybody else have anything to bring up, any reports or anything?"

There was a silence for about half a minute and Colonel Campbell resumed.

COLONEL CAMPBELL:

"Now don't tell me we haven't any problems or anything to bring up of an informational nature. I am sure that everything doesn't get into the bulletin. When I come around and talk with you and ask you about problems you all have something on your mind. How about it, Major Margolis, have you anything?"

MAJOR MARGOLIS:

"Well, sir, the thing I just want to emphasize is what you have already said, ah, particularly with regard to correspondence. The deadlines are not being met. Many times we are given a two-day suspense date on a report. When each officer or civilian in charge of a division receives a request for a report, he should note in the righthand corner what the suspense date is, estimate how long it will take to get out the report, and let us know. Then we'll hit Army right away. I know sometimes these things come down from Department of Army to Army and Army holds them for several weeks and we get them very late. So if you'll just call me the moment you get a request for a report or letter calling for compliance or some sort of indorsement, by all means let me know and we will go right back to Army and tell them when they can expect the report and why."

COLONEL CAMPBELL:

"That's right, Major. Now there is another thing that occurs to me in that connection since we are on the subject of correspondence, and that is use of the DF's for your communications on the post. I have seen some stuff going around here with many comments. Let's be a little more informal on these intrapost communications. All right, Major, is there anything else?"

MAJOR MARGOLIS:

"Yes, sir, there is one other thing and that is with regard to stencils. We have just a few people who can cut stencils and we have only two mimeograph machines. We try to arrange a schedule and get the regular reports out on time. Therefore, we can't give immediate service to everybody for any particular crash report or form that has to be accomplished on mimeograph. So please bear with us and let us know of your requirements ahead of time."

COLONEL CAMPBELL:

"Now is there anybody else that has anything? Mr. Jenkins, didn't you have something?"

CWO JENKINS (Personnel Officer):

"Well, Colonel, there is one thing that is worth mentioning. I wish every section chief and staff member would keep me informed about their activities with regard to personnel. For example, without mentioning any names, one section chief in our Headquarters contacted his counterpart at Army with regard to the directed transfer of some men from our Headquarters to another. He made a rearrangement which would enable him to use some of these men for a few weeks; however, we were not notified of this change, we cut orders and then, of course, we have to amend those orders to comply with the informal request approved by Army. If you will please send those requests through us, we'll expedite the matter as soon as possible and we'll do our best to help you in every way we can."

COLONEL CAMPBELL:

"For God's sake, don't we all know by this time that we are supposed to use proper channels? Now let's be sure we don't get out of line on this. Remember the IG is coming down here on 22 August and he is going to ask about things like this, so let's make sure we all know the channels we are supposed to use. It's the old story, if you need something start shaking hands with the guy who can help you and he'll be there to bat for you when you need him. Are there any questions or comments now on anything? Yes, Mr. Bordner."

MR. BORDNER:

"Colonel, can you tell us when the 10% cut that you mentioned earlier is effective?"

COLONEL CAMPBELL:

"Immediately I believe. Isn't that right, Major Margolis?"

MAJOR MARGOLIS:

"Yes, sir. The 10% cut is effective immediately. Army is trying to get some of the funds reinstated; we think we might be able to do it with regard to some of the civilian spaces, but as far as the military is concerned, that cut we think will stay."

COLONEL CAMPBELL:

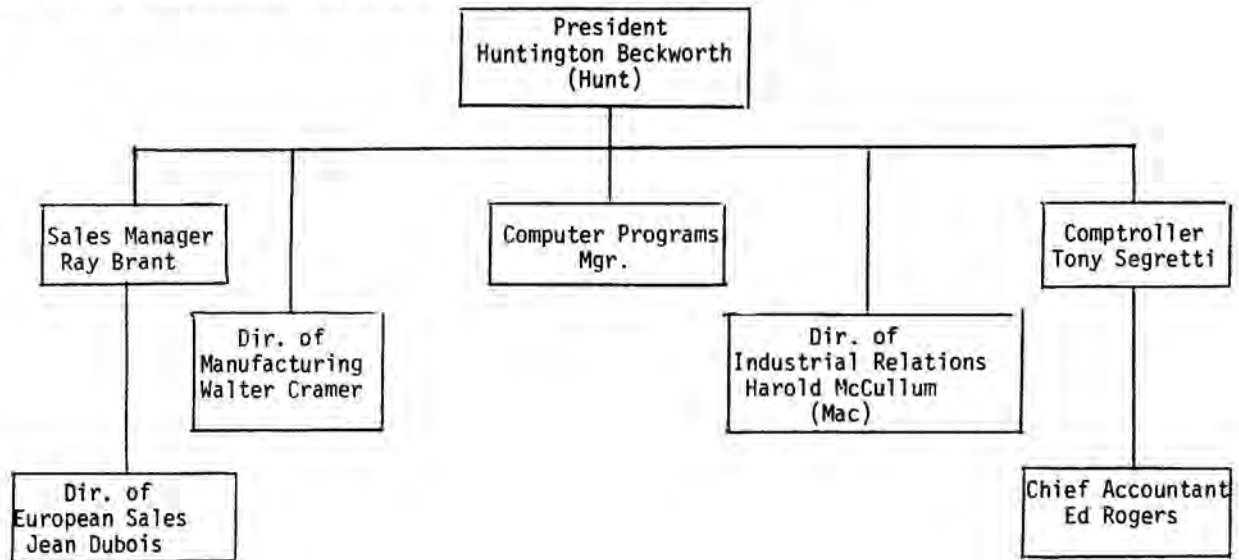
"Well, if there is nothing else, I just want to say this before we close. We'll have another staff meeting pretty soon and I'd like to hear more from you at these staff meetings. Let's work together as an effective team. Just because I am new, don't feel that these things we are talking about are new. They are not new. For example, at the command that I came from there were 468 reports of survey that were sent up for review. The commanding general returned 461. We'll do the same here if necessary.

"Now once again remember the IG inspection the week of 22 August. Expect a crabby IG and hold out for superior or excellent ratings. If we get a good Joe here to look at us, so much the better. Now just bear with me till we make this post into a really topnotch post. I want to be proud of it, as you want to be, and if everything goes okay in this inspection, I'll certainly tell you and give credit where credit is due. That's all. Dismissed."

CHAPTER 5

"THE MANAGER AND THE ORGANIZATION"
A Series of Six Video Tapes With Peter Drucker

General Pipe and Plumbing Supply Co.--Organization Chart



Tape No. 1 How to Manage the Boss

All bosses are different. They have their individual habit patterns, work patterns, likes, and dislikes. It thus is up to the subordinate to "read" the boss to find out the best way to get things done. Most important, the subordinate must communicate with the boss, find out what he/she wants to know about the subordinate's work, and above all protect him/her from "surprises" --problems and crises that could have been anticipated. Recognizing, too, that bosses need "support" from the staff will augment one's effectiveness materially.

Points To Look For:

- 1) What is Drucker's appraisal of Hunt, the Co. President?
- 2) What is Ray's (sales manager) apparent weakness in dealing with Hunt?
- 3) What is Mac's (Dir. of Industrial Relations) secret in dealing with Hunt?

Tape No. 2 How to Work With Your Fellow-Managers

The theme of this film is that friction, lack of understanding and poor teamwork among managers is largely a matter of poor relationships, rather than just "poor communication." Managers with differing specialties often talk past each other. A helpful axiom for the manager: What is obvious to me nobody else understands. So I have to educate. I have to avoid jargon. I have to ask myself: "Who depends on me for what?" But I don't guess. I go and ask them. In short, I have to develop a good relationship with my peers to permit communication to flow freely and authentically. For "poor communication" is generally a symptom of a poor relationship.

Points To Look For:

- 1) Where does the manager spend most of his time, according to Drucker?
- 2) When the comptroller, Tony segretti complains to President Hunt that he can't get the information he needs from other managers what does Hunt tell Tony?
- 3) What is Paula's (Computer Programs Manager) problem in her peer relationships?

Tape No. 3 Helping People Perform--What Managers are Paid For

Managers are many things to the organization, their bosses and themselves. But first and foremost in the manager's key roles is that of helping his/her people to perform--and to perform well. This means both removing roadblocks to performance and providing lubricants for high-quality results. In more specific terms, the film covers three vital aspects of the subject: (1) appraisal and development; (2) performance standards and self-control; and (3) motivation.

Points To Look For:

- 1) What does Drucker say about motivation? Do you agree?
- 2) According to Drucker what question should Ray Brant ask his sales force?
- 3) What are the needs of individuals working in an organization? What does the organization need to know about its people?

Tape No. 4 Planning and Goal-Setting: Time Waste or Management Tool?

Instead of thinking of planning as a company exercise, each manager should learn to use planning to get the best out of one's own department and people. Use it for (1) the discipline of thinking through objectives and goals of one's own department; (2) assigning people where they can make the best contribution; (3) staff appraisal and development; and (4) the foundation of effective communication within and outside each group.

Points To Look For:

- 1) What can planning do for the manager?
- 2) What is the attitude of Walter Cramer, head of manufacturing, toward planning?
- 3) Mac and Tony disagree on planning procedure. What is the nature of their disagreement?

Tape No. 5 How To Take The Right Risks--The Manager as Decision-Maker

Since all decisions involve an element of risk, the manager's job is to minimize risk by carefully defining the issues, the boundary limits and the scope of the problem to be solved. Also, one must ask this key question: Is this an isolated incident or a problem which is generic and can only be solved through a decision which establishes a rule or a principle? If the question is answered affirmatively, a policy should be established; for to operate continually on a case-by-case basis can only produce constant friction and complaint.

Points To Look For:

- 1) What common element runs through all decisions?
- 2) Is there a distinction between problem solving and decision making?
- 3) What are typical barriers to thinking creatively about decisions?

Tape No. 6 How To Make The Organization Work For You

Rules, procedures and good manners are the lubricant that makes an organization function well. However, no organization can operate solely "by the book." The manager should know when to observe the rules and when to bend them a little. The organization does not stifle an individual unless one lets it. The unhappy manager is one who keeps one's eye on promotion rather than accomplishment. The manager should develop satisfying outside interests as a buffer against possible disappointments in the later stages of one's career.

Points To Look For:

- 1) What behavior does the manager exhibit who does not know how to use the organization?
- 2) What advice does Drucker give Paula about getting things done in an organization despite its usual red tape?
- 3) How do Paula and Drucker see the rule about having only one boss?