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**DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE  
MINISTRY OF AGRICULTURE AND LANDS**

**TRAINING MANUAL  
INTRODUCTION TO MANAGEMENT**

**FAO Technical Cooperation Programme  
(TCP/SRL/4453)**

**June 1997**



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**RESTRUCTURING THE DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE  
(TCP/SRL/4453)**

**TRAINING MANUAL  
INTRODUCTION to MANAGEMENT**

**Food and Agriculture Organisation of the the United Nations**

**April 1996**

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**RESTRUCTURING OF THE DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE  
TCP/SRI/4453**

**MANAGEMENT MANUAL**

**INTRODUCTION**

The Technical Cooperation Programme conducted three management workshops as part of the fact-finding and training activity. The objectives of the workshops were:

1. To introduce all levels of staff to the main elements of management and to examine the elements in relation to their own organization.
2. To stimulate discussion and participation from all levels in solving the main management problems that confront first the RDIs and then other parts of DOA.
3. To develop the concept of team work and interdependence of all staff in achieving institutional objectives.

The workshops were aimed at Deputy Director and "middle management" (research officer, farm manager) level as most of the current Directors of DOA attended a more in-depth management training course in 1992 (Management Development Programme for DOA Senior Management Team under the Diversified Agricultural Research Project).

The workshops consisted of eight sessions of 90 minutes each. Each session had a strong element of participation in the form of individual and group exercises. The third session on the second day was devoted to examining management issues in the RDIs and trying to find solutions. The results of these sessions were edited and submitted to the Director and the Director General.

The workshop sessions were prepared to focus on simple management systems and avoid discussion of management theory and ideal practice. The portrayal of modern, private sector, management systems can rapidly lead to disillusionment as the trainee returns to the humdrum of his/her daily routine in an institution governed by rules that prohibit or present huge difficulties to the introduction of many basic management techniques used in the private sector (eg salary increases for good performance, the disincentives of government financial systems etc.) However, by introducing staff to simple management principles it was hoped that real benefits could be achieved in two ways. First improvements could be made within the current systems of bureaucratic controls and secondly more fundamental needs could be addressed through the due processes of changing systems and administrative reform.

The workshops were supported by this manual so that the participants had a ready reference which contains some supplementary material. It is hoped that they will refer as they participate in transforming the Department into an efficient and responsive institution for the 21st century.

The manual is based on a two week management training course prepared by Biotechnology Consultants Ltd of Reading, United Kingdom and supplemented by material from the Economic Development Institute of the World Bank. Acknowledgement is duly accorded to these organisations.

## WHAT IS MANAGEMENT?

There have been many attempts to define management, in terms of both its objectives and its underlying activities. Fundamentally management involves the productive organisation of people and resources, to the mutual benefit of both the organisation as a whole and the individuals within it. The challenge for the manager is to identify these different benefits clearly and to establish ways by which they can be delivered.

Five main categories of managerial operation can be identified:

- **setting objectives for the organisation**, and quantifying the targets of achievement for each objective. Managers must then communicate these objectives and targets to others within the organisation;
- **organising the work**, dividing the total into clearly identifiable activities and jobs. The jobs must be arranged so as to create a coherent organisational structure. People must be selected to perform the jobs;
- **motivating employees** and communicating information to them to enable them to optimise their performance;
- **measuring performance**, by:
  - establishing objectives and, where possible or appropriate, quantifiable targets for every person in the organisation,
  - analyzing actual performance, appraising it against the objectives or targets set, and determining the causes of any deviations, and
  - communicating the findings and explaining their significance both to employees and to superiors; and
- **developing people**, by helping them to find their own strengths and weaknesses, and by helping to develop plans to enhance their personal capabilities.

In many organizations, staff develop an "us and them" attitude to management; "us" being the people who do the work while "them" are the managers who take the decisions. It is important to recognise two things:

- Staff who supervise only a few people still have to exercise management systems to achieve good performance and high output.
- Management is applied upwards as well as downwards - "managing the boss".

### The Characteristics of Management

The differences between the job of a manager and that of a worker can be described in terms of:

- **a high level of activity**, in the sense that managers tend to perform a high number of separate activities, and have a high number of interpersonal contacts, within short spaces of time;
- **discontinuity**. As the number of activities suggests, managers tend not to be able to spend long periods on single, continuous tasks. They are regularly interrupted by personal contacts and matters arising for their attention. Managerial activity tends to be a rather unpatterned mixture of routine (or planned) and unplanned tasks, since it is management's responsibility to handle the unforeseen and discretionary areas of an institution as well as the routine;
- **variety**. The nature and diversity of the managerial roles mean that managers generally have more job variety than do their subordinates;
- **separation from the location and detail of operations**. The more senior the manager the more likely they are to spend time physically off site and the more dependent they will therefore be on feedback from subordinates;
- **talking and thinking**. Managers should spend more time on activities such as thinking, planning, problem-solving and decision-making than do subordinates, therefore sometimes seeming less productive. In addition, up to 90% of total work time may be taken up in primarily oral activity - telephone calls, discussions, meetings, and so on;
- **time span of discretion**. Managers often perform actions and take decisions whose consequences may not emerge for a long time; and
- **networks**. The more senior a person is - and the "broader" their concerns in the organisation - the wider is the network of information in which they participate. Subordinate employees "network" with peers in their immediate sphere of work, and with immediate superiors and subordinates. At higher levels, information for decisions, planning and control will be drawn from a wider set of contacts, including many sources outside the organisation.

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## MANAGEMENT RESPONSIBILITIES

For the purposes of examining the organization and management of the PDIs, we have divided management responsibilities into the following:

- Organization
- Planning
- Decision making
- Personnel management/team building/leadership
- Communication
- Control/Financial management
- Management Information Systems

Each of these responsibilities is described in the following sections. The manual is completed with a section on managing change, an essential feature of institutional reform.

## MANAGEMENT CULTURES

The management culture of an organisation is an important determinant of the application of management systems. At one end of the scale are military organisations in which there is a strong emphasis on leadership, command and control; at the other end may be cooperative organisations which are highly participative and consensus seeking. Furthermore there may be organisations which have assumed a management culture which is inappropriate to their functions and performance.

Government institutions have traditionally been dominated by their administrative systems which may allow little room for initiative, the exercise of leadership and participation in management. This situation has to change as they face a complex and rapidly changing world. In many cases privatisation is the only logical response if the institution or service is to survive. In other situations a profound change in management systems is required. The restructuring of the Department of Agriculture has been brought about by the need for change and internal efforts have focused on establishing a more effective organisation. This FAO supported programme is supporting DOA in focusing on the other management responsibilities (planning, decision taking etc) within the new organisation.

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## ORGANISATION

Managers often have access to substantial and diverse resources, including people, time, money, equipment, materials, and so on. Organising is that activity concerned with directing and co-ordinating these various resources in order to meet set objectives. Typically it is human resources which occupy much of the manager's time in his role as organiser. Indeed the term "organisation" has become a label for any group of people who come together and interact with one another in order to achieve a set of predetermined objectives.

There are many different types of organisation, including public sector and local government organisations. Organising means:

- determining the activities required to achieve the institution's objectives;
- grouping these activities together into working units, or departments;
- assigning responsibility and authority for such units to managers; and
- linking different units within the organisation by means of information flows and lines of authority.

Whilst each organisation will have particular requirements, there are various elements (or principles) of organisational structure which tend to be common to most organisations. A useful starting point is provided by a set of principles:

- **objective.** Every organisation and every constituent part must be an expression of its purpose, or else it is redundant;
- **specialisation.** The activities of every member of an organisation should be confined, as far as possible, to the performance of a single function;
- **co-ordination.** The purpose of organising is to facilitate co-ordination, or unity of purpose;
- **authority.** In every organised group the final authority must rest somewhere. There should be a clear line of authority from the final authority to every individual in the group;
- **responsibility.** The responsibility of the superior for the acts of their subordinates is complete;
- **definition.** The content of each position should be clearly defined, in terms of the duties involved, the authority and responsibility assigned and the relationships with other positions. Definitions should be published to all concerned;

- **correspondence.** In every position the responsibility and the authority should correspond;
- **span of control.** In general no person should supervise more than five or six direct subordinates whose work interlocks except where excellent MIS exist;
- **balance.** It is essential that the various units of the organisation should be kept in balance; and
- **continuity.** Reorganisation is a continuing process. In every organisation specific provision should be made for its on-going revision.

### UNITY OF OBJECTIVES

All parts of the organisation should work towards common, planned objectives and overall goals. Communication of these goals is of paramount importance. People are more likely to pursue the organisation's objectives rather than their own personal interests if these objectives are clearly defined and widely understood.

There should be a clear line of seniority, or command, from the highest to the lowest level in the organisation, along which authority and responsibility run from top to bottom. The clearer this line of authority from the most senior manager to every subordinate position, the more effective will be the decision-making process, and the greater will be the organisation's efficiency. Subordinates must know who delegates authority down to them, and to whom matters beyond their own authority must be referred back to.

Delegation is a key element of organising, in that it is the process which determines the expected results, assigns the tasks and assigns the authority and responsibility for the achievement of these tasks

### UNITY OF COMMAND

This is the principle that, the more completely an individual is subordinate to a single superior, the less conflict there should be in instructions, and the greater the feeling of personal responsibility for results. However, the larger the organisation, the more difficult it is to achieve unity of command.

### THE SPAN OF CONTROL

The span of control concerns the number of subordinates reporting directly to a supervisor. The appropriate span depends on a number of factors:

- whether the subordinates are qualified to make decisions without having to constantly refer upwards to the manager. If they are, the number reporting to the manager can be increased;

- whether the manager is prepared to delegate authority to subordinates; if not then the number of subordinates will not be large;
- where an organisation has effective mechanisms for feeding information to and from senior management, each manager is able to control a larger number of people.
- some organisations depend a great deal on personal contact to operate effectively. Such organisations are more likely to have small spans of control and many levels of subordinates and co-ordinates.

## **ORGANISATIONAL RELATIONSHIPS**

The hierarchical and divisional arrangements creates a variety of working relationships:

### **Line Relationships**

These are the direct working relationships between the vertical levels within an organisation; that is, those between managers and subordinates. This is the most common type of relationship and has the following advantages:

- formal communication channels are clear;
- authority and responsibility are agreed upon; and
- instructions and information flow up and down between the individuals concerned.

### **Staff Relationships**

Staff relationships occur where individuals provide advice, but without having the authority to order or command. Such relationships may exist with divisions that function purely in an advisory capacity (for example, centres) or between managers of equal seniority. In such cases it will still be the responsibility of line managers to make decisions and issue instructions.

### **Functional relationships**

Functional authority is the right delegated to an individual or division to control specific processes, policies or other matters within the department. Such authority may be necessary where a group or an individual possess specialist knowledge or are responsible for a function which affects an organisation generally. For example, the finance director of DOA is not only responsible for the conduct of financial matters, but also has the authority to insist that other directors should adhere to the Government financial procedures and policies.

### **Committee Relationships**

Committees can either be:

- **formal** - that is, have a written remit and authority to carry out a specific function; or
- **informal** - set up for a temporary purpose, possibly to provide a sounding board for management.

### **Matrix Relationships**

Matrix structures combine lateral and vertical lines of communication and authority in which employees and managers have dual responsibilities:

- to their immediate superiors; and
- to specialist working groups (eg RTWGs) of which they are members.

Matrix relationships can be either temporary or permanent.

Matrix structures are very flexible, but also have two main disadvantages:

- conflicts can arise over the allocation of resources and the division of authority between project groups and functional specialists; and
- similarly team members may develop split loyalties between their project managers and their functional superiors.

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## PLANNING

### THE IMPORTANCE OF PLANNING

Planning is a fundamental function of management, and involves:

- choosing one or more strategies from alternative possible courses of action, for an organisation as a whole and for distinct elements within it;
- at each of these levels, defining the objectives and goals to be met; and
- outlining the way to achieve these objectives.

Therefore planning is, in effect, deciding in advance:

- what to do;
- how to do it;
- when to do it; and
- who is to do it.

The future cannot be foreseen with certainty and even the best plans will require some level of alteration. Nevertheless, plans give direction to an organisation; without plans, events will be left to chance. Furthermore, if individuals and groups within an organisation are to be effective in working towards the achievement of the organisation's objectives, they need to know what it is that they are expected to do.

Forecasting is a vital part of planning, as expectations for the future have to take into account likely changes in circumstances (that is, in external and internal environmental factors).

Thus planning is used for four basic reasons, namely to:

- accommodate uncertainty and change;
- focus attention on objectives;
- optimise organisation of operations; and
- facilitate control.

## LEVELS OF PLANNING

To achieve the objectives outlined above planning needs to range from the long-term (particularly to accommodate uncertainty and change) through to the short-term (particularly to facilitate control). Therefore different levels of plan will vary in their nature.

Basically, the longer the period of time covered by a plan, the less certainty that can be attached and, consequently, the lower the degree of detail required. It follows that this type of planning should be undertaken by the most senior management.

The main levels of planning can be distinguished as follows.

Plans	Time-scale	Degree of Detail	Seniority of Managers
Strategic	5-10 years	vague	MALF/DG
Management	12 months	medium	DIRECTORATE
Operational	up to 1 month	high	M.MANAGERS

Examples of levels of planning within DOA are The Five Year Plan, Annual Research Programmes/Seasonal Plans and Monthly Work Plans such as those in use at Makundura RARDC.

Planning is a continuous process which calls for:

- an appraisal of the major strengths and weaknesses within the institution (that is, in the internal environment); and
- an appraisal of the opportunities and threats posed by the external environment.

For DOA opportunities may arise from the increasing involvement of the private sector in agriculture and threats may be the possibility of a major reduction in size of DOA if Government is forced into major budgetary cuts and is dissatisfied with the output of the Department.

Planning comprises:

### STRATEGIC PLANNING

- establishing where the institution is likely to be in 5-10 years' time, in view of any predicted developments in its environment, and
- developing high level plans to help the institution achieve its projected position;

### **MANAGEMENT PLANNING**

- determining the structure of the organisation,
- establishing functional and departmental objectives in line with policies,
- establishing targets for output, and
- formulating financial budgets and resource (including people) plans; and

### **OPERATIONAL PLANNING**

- set specific tasks in line with overall objectives,
- establish narrowly defined targets in line with these objectives, and
- monitoring of targets and, as appropriate, revisions of targets and plans.

### **OVERCOMING BARRIERS TO EFFECTIVE PLANNING**

In practice many managers are reluctant to make formal plans, preferring to deal with problems as and when they arise. There may be several reasons for this reluctance:

- a lack of knowledge about, or interest in, the purpose and goals of the organisation as a whole. Such a position should be a cause for concern. Unless a manager knows what the organisation's goals are, and how other departments and sections are trying to work towards these goals, their own efforts might:
  - duplicate the efforts of someone else, thereby causing a waste of time and resources,
  - conflict with the efforts of someone else, or
  - simply be useless to the organisation;
- a manager's lack of clarity about their existing position and authority - normally as a result of poor delegation. It is very difficult for people to plan if they do not know what their job is and how it relates to others in the organisation. A lack of clear authority also makes it difficult to make decisions;
- a reluctance to be committed to one set of targets. Planning involves choosing from among alternative courses of action. A manager might want to keep their options open, especially where the operating environment is changing rapidly

or prospects are very uncertain. Nevertheless this is unsatisfactory in any organisation where managers must co-ordinate their efforts and work together for the achievement of organisational goals. Otherwise an organisation will lack a co-ordinated response to developments in its environment;

- a fear of blame or criticism for failing to achieve planned targets. A variation on this might be a tendency to prepare very cautious projections, as this increases the likelihood of their being successful;
- an over-reliance on experience as the source of managerial wisdom;
- a manager's lack of confidence in themselves to perform their job efficiently and effectively. Similarly managers may lack confidence in senior management to provide the resources necessary if plans are to be achieved. This might, for example, happen in the case of a Director who is uncertain about the resources that the institution will commit;
- a reluctance to change working methods that have "worked in the past". If planning mechanisms had not previously been adopted then targets and controls would probably also be lacking. In such circumstances managers might genuinely be unaware of poor performance;
- an environment that changes so rapidly (for example a 10% budget cut after Parliamentary approval) that, as soon as initial plans are agreed, they have to be altered, thereby making it difficult to achieve identifiable results and providing further reason for resistance;
- a manager's lack of information about what is going on in the "environment". In some cases this may again reflect in a lack of confidence in other parts of the organisation (for example, finance not providing an appropriate analysis of costs, and so on); and
- a manager's resentment of plans made on his behalf. This reinforces the need for managers to be involved in the entire planning process, including preparation.

Many of these barriers are a reflection of basic human nature (for example, the fear of being seen to have "failed", the need for security, and so on). To ensure that corporate planning is both possible and effective, deliberate efforts must be made to remove the possibility of such impediments. Therefore:

- all levels of staff should be involved (at least to some extent) in the planning process. A rigorous framework for participation in planning, and for integration of all plans in an organisation, is provided by Management by Objectives (MBO). This is considered in more detail in the following section;

- planners must be provided with the information they need (and access to sources of future information, when it arises) to plan properly. The sources may be:
  - outside the organisation (for example, government figures on economic trends), or
  - inside the organisation, in the form of "feedback" on the results of actions taken;
- senior management must demonstrate its commitment to the planning process by behaving in ways that are consistent with the plans that are generated;
- a system of rewards for successful planning might be helpful. However, this introduces the danger of a system of punishment for those managers who are not successful. The motivational problems associated with rewards and punishments are not easily overcome; and
- managers should be taught the virtues of planning, and the techniques of planning.

If any of the above characteristics are absent from your organisation then your own ability to plan will be compromised. You must therefore look for appropriate solutions.

### **THE IMPORTANCE OF COMMUNICATION**

In order to establish an environment for effective planning there must be communication of goals, strategies and policies to those who need to know them. Inadequate or poorly directed communication can create what is known as a planning gap. In such a situation the senior management will know the goals and strategies, the workers know how to perform their jobs but middle managers will not understand how their departmental goals and plans tie in with those of the organisation as a whole. Effective planning occurs where managers are able to match plans and tasks to the overall goals and strategies.

Aspects of communication are considered in a subsequent section of this manual.

### **MANAGEMENT BY OBJECTIVES (MBO)**

The Five Year Plan for the DOA sets out the research programmes which are the objectives of the RDIs/RARDCs. It does not set out the management objectives of the Department, its Directors and other management staff. Yet a series of objectives can be identified such as installation of an MIS, reduction in year end unutilised budget by 10% etc. These are management objectives and can be set out in quantifiable and achievable targets; this is MBO. Once improved management systems are identified, then their adoption throughout the Department can be planned and achieved using MBO.

There are four key elements to the process:

- an analysis of the manager's job to determine the key areas where results are required;
- from these key areas, the generation of a list of key tasks that the manager has to perform. This list should be compiled by each manager jointly with their superior, and should rarely need to consist of more than eight or nine tasks. This may be formalised in a job description;
- from the key tasks, short-term targets - that is, the focus for immediate priority action - for the manager are drawn up. The tasks are all given a quantitative or qualitative standard against which their attainment can be measured. The sources of this information should also be specified; and
- at pre-agreed time intervals the manager and their superior should review the results of the tasks so as to assess the manager's performance (performance appraisal).

The MBO process offers a number of advantages:

- it forces managers to think of planning for results rather than merely planning the activities;
- it tends to force clarification of organisational roles and structures;
- it increases and unifies total commitment to overall organisational objectives; and
- it encourages the development and use of more effective methods of control.

However, organisations often fail to make the most of the MBO approach because:

- senior management does not spend enough time explaining the nature of the system and does not adequately promote its benefits;
- there is often failure to give adequate guidelines to those setting the objectives. In particular, managers must know what the institutional goals are and how their own tasks fit in with them;
- in setting short-term targets, the longer-term objectives are sometimes overlooked; and

- systems adopted are often unable to adapt to changes in circumstances. Whilst goals may cease to be meaningful if they are changed too often, it is nonetheless unwise to allow objectives to become obsolete due to revisions in institutional objectives or developments in the external environment. Achieving the right balance is therefore important.

Management by objectives is of most use in tactical planning and may, for example, be used by the DG and the Directors in planning their own work and targets over the next financial period (calendar year). MDO may be inappropriate, at least as a formal tool, at lower management levels at this stage of DOA's development.

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## DECISION-MAKING

Decision-making is the process of thought and action that leads to a decision. This process lies at the heart of managing and is an intrinsic part of all managerial activities. The classical concept of rational, economic decision-making assumes that the decision-maker:

- has complete knowledge of all the possible alternative courses of action;
- has complete knowledge of the consequences of taking each alternative; and
- can assign specific benefits to, and grade, each course and consequent outcome.

However, the manager is much more likely to be faced by the following:

- only partial awareness of all the possible courses of action available;
- a highly complex set of criteria, both quantitative and qualitative, by which to evaluate the alternatives; and
- a lack of opportunity, time or capacity to evaluate fully alternatives.

Therefore, a decision is usually taken on the grounds of future projections, subject to uncertainty and risk. The decision-making process is thus one involving value judgements and risk-taking.

It is possible to identify three broad levels of organisational decision making:

- **strategic decisions** - concerned with the problems presented by the environment in which the organisation operates and the courses of action necessary to best achieve its objectives (These decisions are normally taken by the Director General or the Secretary of MALF);
- **administrative decisions** - concerned with the development and structuring of the institution's resources, so as to satisfy strategic decisions. These decisions are usually taken by the DG and the Directors and are likely to address:
  - organisation - the structuring of functional relationships, with associated lines of authority and divisions of responsibility, workflows, information flows, and location of facilities, and
  - resource acquisition and development - financing and the acquisition of facilities and equipment, and personnel training and development ; and

- 
- **operating decisions** - concerned with achieving the greatest output at the lowest cost within the constraints of the strategic decisions, specifically relating to:
    - allocation of resources among functional areas (seed production, research, training etc) and lines (rice, field crops etc),
    - scheduling of operations, and
    - supervision of performance.

These tend to occupy the greatest part of managerial effort. Typically they are repetitive and capable of being programmed, and are delegated to middle and lower management such as Deputy Directors, Farm managers, Senior Administrators etc.

## **DELEGATION**

Organisational success requires that responsibility for different types of decision is allocated to the correct part of the institution. Senior management must seek to ensure that administrative and operating decisions are effectively delegated, to enable them to concentrate on strategic decision making. Similarly, managers should only refer to more senior management those decisions which are outside the scope of their own authority and/or ability. This is the principle of exception. A senior manager should only be informed by their subordinates when there is a deviation from plan or the anticipated course of events, and should not be unnecessarily involved in, or duplicate, the decision-making that has been delegated.

Allocation of decision-making responsibility will also be affected by the nature of the problems to be addressed, in terms of:

- how easy or complex they are to resolve;
- how frequently they arise;
- whether the problem can be quantified, or whether there are qualitative matters of judgement involved;
- how much information is available to help the manager make the decision; and
- how serious the consequences would be if a bad decision were made.

Some problems are recurring and have to be resolved fairly regularly (like the repair of motor vehicles). These can be dealt with in a routine or standardised way (that is, decision making can be programmed), with the help of rules or procedures (eg administrative regulations). Other problems are occasional, perhaps even unique, and cannot be

provided for in a book of rules and procedures (eg the restructuring of the Department). A higher decision-making ability is usually needed from managers to deal with such problems.

Problems may also be quantifiable, in that the likely outcome of each alternative decision can be measured and quantified (for example, in monetary terms or by measures of productivity). In such cases the option offering the best numerical result is likely to be preferred. An example may be the allocation of research funds to each commodity institute based on the national value of each group of crops. However, not all problems can be dealt with mathematically and, even should it possible to quantify elements of a problem, there will often be matters of doubt or uncertainty, where "qualitative" factors (such as employee morale) will affect the outcome too.

Qualitative issues require the use of managerial judgement, and prevent the use of programmed decision making. For example selection of research thrusts is an area that requires considerable judgement and even intuition in assessing "researchability".

### STAGES IN THE DECISION-MAKING PROCESS

There is a generally accepted model of rational decision-making and problem-solving.

#### ACTION

We have a problem	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Identify and specify the problem</li> <li>● Analyze the problem</li> </ul>
What solutions can we find?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Appraise available resources</li> <li>● List and compare alternative solutions</li> <li>● Select the optimum solution</li> </ul>
Now implement the solution	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Draw up action plan to implement solution</li> <li>● Carry out required actions</li> <li>● Check that solution has worked</li> </ul>

#### Identify and Specify the Problem

The problem should be classified, according to whether it is a strategic, operational or administrative problem, and in terms of:

- the **futurity of the decision**. A decision that attempts to anticipate events a long time in advance (that is, one that is strategic) should be taken by senior management;

- the impact of the decision on other areas or functions of the institution. Where other areas will be affected, decisions should be taken at a level of management which has authority over all the areas affected (or, if necessary, by joint agreement of relevant managers pooling their authority);
- the number of qualitative factors involved in the decision. Decisions calling for the exercise of careful management judgement should be taken by more senior managers; and
- whether the decision is a "one-off", or whether it is a decision involving a problem of a routine nature.

Classification of the problem will help to determine who is responsible for dealing with it.

### **Analyze the Problem**

The facts and background information relating to the problem should then be gathered and analyzed. It will be necessary to gather as much information as is reasonably possible or affordable. As previously observed, most decisions are based on incomplete information because:

- "all" the information is not available; or
- beyond a certain point, the gathering of more information would not be worth the extra time or cost involved.

Effective decision making is possible without all the facts, but a manager must know what information is missing in order to evaluate the amount of risk being taken.

### **Appraise Available Resources**

Availability of the following types of resource needs to be assessed:

- financial - in terms of amounts available, the limits of financial authority, the extent of unused budget funds available, and so on;
- human - in terms of numbers of personnel, their availability, skills, training and experience; and
- technical and physical - including premises, computer and communication systems, machinery, information, materials, etc.

Similarly constraints on solutions to the problem should be evaluated, in particular:

- financial constraints

- 
- employee constraints - some actions may be deemed inadvisable because of anticipated effects on employee morale;
  - time constraints - some resources may only be available at certain times; and
  - social or ethical constraints - there may be some restrictions on the decision imposed by the law, or by the requirement to uphold certain social or ethical standards.

### **List and Compare Alternative Solutions**

There is rarely only one solution to a problem and much of a manager's time will be exercised in framing, comparing and finally selecting between alternative solutions. The following guidelines may be helpful in searching for alternative courses of action:

- use historical knowledge and experience. Ready-made solutions may already exist;
- apply problem analysis techniques;
- question all aspects of the problem under investigation; and
- think creatively.

Where unfamiliar problems are encountered it may be useful to devote more time to the generation of alternatives. Whilst existing solutions should always be used where possible, the most appropriate course of action may often fall outside known practices.

The alternatives should be appraised in terms of the extent to which they meet the previously specified objectives, and also with respect to their overall consequences. It is the consequences of a decision that determines the effectiveness or desirability of a solution. Therefore appraisals must involve speculations on the likely consequences of alternative courses of action.

### **Select the Optimum Solution**

There are four criteria which should be applied when comparing alternative courses of action:

- the size of the risk should be compared to the expected benefits;
- the timing of each alternative. In some instances gradual, step-by-step changes might be preferable, whilst other situations will demand immediate and drastic impact;
- the economy of effort required; and

- demands on resources. Not only must the right resources be available; the most appropriate solution may be that which places least demand on scarce resources.

### **Implement the Solution and Follow-up**

An action plan to implement the chosen decision should be drawn up by the manager responsible in consultation with the subordinate managers or other individuals who will be involved. This plan must establish the budget and define all responsibilities involved in completion of the task. There needs to be a system of checking and control to ensure that:

- the decision was accepted by subordinates and other members of the organisation;
- the decision was fully implemented, as intended; and
- the problem has been solved in the manner and to the extent anticipated.

### **COMMON FAULTS IN DECISION-MAKING**

Poor quality decisions most often arise because of the following:

- failure to clearly identify goals or objectives. Poor quality decisions will result from failure to identify and state expected outcomes, or to recognise longer-term implications of a decision. Such failure will prevent proper evaluation of alternatives;
- "analysis-paralysis". Decision-makers do not always recognise the fact that decisions must, in practice, be made with imperfect information. The analysis phase may become excessively long, causing opportunities to be lost and wasting time and resources;
- undue haste and insufficient information. The decision-maker may feel unable to wait until full information is available, or may be pressured into making a decision without giving sufficient attention to the information that has been made available;
- risk-aversion. If an organisation is to be innovative, creative and progressive an element of adventure (risk taking) in decision-making is vital; and
- communication failure. This may apply both to the communication of decisions to those who have to implement them (in which case the decisions will be

ineffective) and to the seeking of feedback information necessary to monitor and control the results of decisions.

### **WAYS TO IMPROVE DECISION-MAKING**

Various factors may help to improve decision-making performance:

- managers should be trained in the processes of decision-making;
- organisational systems should assist decision-making. The corporate plan, rules and policies should provide a coherent framework, the control system should provide accurate information, and communication for and of decisions should be efficient;
- managers should receive the best possible information - that is, timely, relevant, accurate, sufficient but not excessive. This applies to the information needed for the decision, and also to feedback information required to enable monitoring and evaluation of the results of decision-making. Operational research, marketing, human resources and other departments might help to provide decision-support information (management information is dealt with in more detail later; and
- successful decisions must be recognised and rewarded, but small failures should be permitted to ensure that action and innovation are not inhibited. An absence of errors may indicate a lack of development; the essential point is that lessons from mistakes must be learnt and acted upon.

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## PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT, TEAMWORK AND LEADERSHIP

### PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT.

Personnel management is the process of management concerned with:

"recruiting and selecting people; training and developing them for their work; ensuring that their payment and conditions of employment are appropriate; where necessary, negotiating such terms of employment with Government, trade unions; advising on healthy and appropriate working conditions; the organisation of people at work; and the encouragement of relations between management and staff."

With respect to personnel, leadership can be viewed as gaining the commitment of staff to the objectives of the organisation at the level of the workplace. There is also the matter of employee development. Individual managers are expected to help the organisation to grow its talent. They are expected by staff to provide opportunities for learning and personal growth at work. This is no small task for managers, who have to fulfil these personnel responsibilities in the course of carrying out their principal operational duties.

### PERSONALITY TYPES

In developing skills in personnel management, it is important to be able to recognise personality types. The best known system of identifying personality types is the Myers Briggs Type Indicator which classifies people into one of 16 types each ascribed with different personality attributes. This may be appropriate for senior management but is too complex for general utility. Another system identifies how much a person is predisposed towards four main orientations:

- action
- process
- people
- idea

This can be determined by answering a range of either/or questions. Such an exercise serves to highlight how different people react to the same circumstances in different ways. For example when confronted with change. This test is attached as appendix 1.

### PERSONNEL ACTIVITIES

Typical personnel activities carried out by a manager include:

- staff selection;
- induction of new staff;

- 
- training and development;
  - performance appraisal;
  - structuring jobs;
  - implementing grievance and disciplinary mechanisms;
  - negotiating with employee representatives;
  - implementing the organisation's payment structure;
  - creating conditions for high morale;
  - providing adequate communication systems;
  - implementing the organisation's safety policy; and
  - planning for the effects of change on staff.

Planning the use of resources of the organisation is a key responsibility of every senior manager. In DOA the most important single resource is people. Therefore it is important to ensure that sufficient numbers of the appropriate calibre of people are available to the organisation in pursuit of its objectives. In this sense human resource planning can be regarded as a rational and planned approach for ensuring:

- the recruitment of sufficient and suitable staff;
- their retention in the organisation;
- the optimum utilisation of staff;
- the improvement of staff performance; and
- the disengagement of staff, as necessary.

In DOA all this has to be done within a rigid system and therefore requires particular skills. In most organisations the senior management is supported in carrying out this function by a personnel manager. In DOA the HRDC envisages to have something of this role but does not have the resources to undertake it. Thus the whole onus of responsibility for personnel management currently falls on the senior management.

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## **JOB ANALYSIS**

Job analysis is the process of examining jobs in order to identify their main features, in particular the duties they fulfil, the results they are expected to achieve, the major tasks undertaken and the job's relationships with other jobs in the organisational hierarchy. The product of job analysis is a job description. This may take one of several forms, depending on the nature of the job. Routine jobs of a junior kind are best described with an emphasis on the tasks to be achieved, whereas managerial jobs require the emphasis to be on the results to be achieved.

## **EMPLOYEE RELATIONS**

Employee relations embrace:

- the contractual obligations between employer and employed;
- communications policy and practice;
- joint decision-making;
- joint problem-solving;
- collective bargaining;
- individual grievance and disciplinary policy and practice;
- social responsibility;
- employee development; and
- employee welfare.

Managers tend to see employee relations in terms of:

- creating and maintaining employee motivation;
- obtaining commitment from the workforce;
- establishing mutually beneficial channels of communication throughout the organisation;
- achieving high levels of efficiency;
- negotiating terms and conditions of employment; and
- sharing decision-making with employees.

Management has considerable choice in the processes and techniques by which it seeks to manage relations with employees. One option is the level of involvement employees have in management control, which can be represented on the following scale:

No share in management	Limited consultation with employees	Full consultation with employees	Some share in management	Worker control
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## TEAMWORK

The word "team" conjures up images of groups of people playing or working together, pulling in the same direction, enjoying camaraderie and the sense of shared purpose or a common goal. In sport the goal is to enjoy the game and defeat the opponent through the team's concerted effort. The fuel for this effort is provided by each player's motivation. They are willing members of the team, each with a position to fill and a role to play. Genuine teamwork takes time to develop. Teamwork needs to be nurtured and it can break down for any one of a host of reasons.

Teamwork is about individuals working together to accomplish more than they could on their own - and then sharing the rewards. This is achieved by harnessing, pooling and exploiting the resources available to the team - individual skills, strengths and experience - and by compensating for areas of individual weakness.

In an effective team, members take genuine pleasure in each other's successes (as demonstrated to its ultimate in footballers embracing a goal scorer), support colleagues' decisions and willingly take their share of the blame for things that do not go to plan. In effective teams:

- things get done;
- there are clear standards of behaviour;
- individuals have clearly defined roles;
- there are close personal relations within the team;
- people share a clear concept of purpose; and
- people feel a strong commitment to the team.

Building an effective team is difficult. However, it is worth the effort - being part of a genuine team encourages people to believe that they have a value beyond the routine of their day-to-day job, to feel that they belong and have an important part to play.

## LEADERSHIP

Managerial leadership can be defined as the process of directing and influencing the work of team members. Leading is concerned with guiding and directing others; leaders act to help a group attain its objectives with the maximum application of its capabilities. They place themselves at the front of a group to facilitate progress and inspire it to accomplish its goals.

A distinction between management and leadership needs to be made:

- **leadership** is the ability to shape the attitude and behaviour of others; and
- **management** is the formal task of decision and command.

Thus leadership is one important aspect of a manager's job, but it is not all of it.

Great leadership is a rare quality and cannot be relied upon. The challenge for management is to create the conditions under which potential leadership can become effective, and to concentrate on other ways of creating an organisational spirit which will ensure that the enterprise is productive and will hold together.

However, the functions of management will produce far greater results if they have added to them the ingredient of effective leadership. When this effective leadership permeates the whole organisation the result is a successful institution.

## LEADERSHIP STYLES

Some early explanations of leadership styles classified them on the basis of how leaders use their authority. Three primary styles were identified:

- **autocratic** - the leader is seen as one who commands and expects compliance, who is dogmatic and positive, and leads by the ability to give or withhold rewards or punishment;
- **democratic/participative** - the leader consults subordinates on proposed actions and decisions and encourages participation from them; and
- **facilitative** - the leader gives subordinates a substantial degree of independence in their work, leaving them to set their own goals and discover their own way of achieving them. The leader adopting this style perceives his/ her role as one of

**facilitating the operations of followers by providing them with information, and acting as a contact with the group's external environment.**

**The style adopted will depend in part upon the manager's view of human nature, and on the ability of the team members in particular.**

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## COMMUNICATING

Communicating is a vital part of management. Without it, managers could not fulfil their other tasks. The most basic definition of communication is the transmission or exchange of information, in order to:

- initiate action (for example, by request, instruction or persuasion);
- make known needs and requirements;
- exchange information, ideas, attitudes and beliefs;
- establish understanding (and perhaps also exert influence or persuasion); and
- establish and maintain relationships.

Communication embraces a wide spectrum of activities in organisations, both in the way the organisation projects itself and in the way that individuals within and around the organisation communicate with each other.

### THE PURPOSE OF COMMUNICATION IN ORGANISATIONS

Among the most important roles of communication in an organisation are:

- providing information for planning, co-ordination and control activities. Without accurate data and information managers cannot formulate relevant plans, and it is only through the communication process that plans are relayed down the organisational hierarchy to those who have to implement the plans and meet the targets set out in them;
- providing information about the organisation and its services to the outside world;
- encouraging the formulation, exchange and testing of ideas (for example, through "quality circles" such as disciplinary working groups);
- co-ordination of the activities of all the interdependent sub-systems of the organisation, so that overall objectives are met;
- fulfilling the needs of employees for information about their task, the standards expected of them, how their performance compares, and so forth. Information is important for learning and development, because "feedback" is necessary for the change or correction of behaviour. It has also been claimed to have benefits for employee job satisfaction and motivation: without performance information, employees may be working without understanding or sense of purpose, without

commitment and without the satisfaction of feeling that they are contributing to the achievements of the organisation; and

- creating, developing and maintaining interpersonal relations between employees, managers, peers, customers and suppliers.

### Managing and Communication

Communication is, therefore, a basic input and output for the functions of management. Systematic efforts can and should be made to:

- educate employees in the processes and techniques of communication;
- help employees identify and overcome barriers to communication;
- encourage communication through organisational structure, procedures, systems and culture; and
- evaluate the effectiveness of communication (including its perceived value to employees).

### THE COMMUNICATION CYCLE

Effective communication is a two-way process: signals or "messages" are "sent" by the communicator and "received" by the other party, who "sends" back some form of confirmation that the "message" has been received and understood. It is this feedback that makes communication a two-way process. It is also a vital and often neglected aspect of the process. Failure to seek or offer feedback, or ignoring feedback offered, is one of the major problems in communication, as the sender has no indication of whether or not his message has been successfully received, understood and interpreted.

There are six main stages to successful communication:

- |                        |  |
|------------------------|--|
| ● conceive the message | consider the best means of getting the message across and remember that timing is important. Study your recipients carefully and pitch your message to suit their particular needs.  |
| ● encode the message   | choose the medium (or media mix) in which to encode your message. Graphics and pictures have immediacy and can be emotive; words and numbers convey detail but may be dull; the spoken word is fast but may leave no record. |

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- **select the communication channel**      **all channels offer a trade-off between speed, cost, simultaneous receipt of message, confidentiality and so on.**
  - **decode the message**      **thoughtful systems are necessary to ensure that the mass of information is filtered, that important incoming messages are given priority, that all messages are routed promptly and that time is taken to absorb their meaning.**
  - **interpret the message**      **the overt meaning of a received message may conceal a hidden meaning. It is always important to devote sufficient time and reflection to ensuring that incoming messages are interpreted carefully.**
  - **feedback**      **unless the message's sender is provided with prompt and unambiguous feedback then the communication process is likely to be frustrated.**

### **Criteria for Good Communication**

**Not only must there be an effective communication system, but this must also be properly used. The following are principles of good communications:**

- **the communicator must clarify his/her ideas before communicating;**
- **the true purpose of each message or communication must be examined;**
- **consideration must be given to the total physical and human setting in which the communication is made;**
- **there needs to be consultation with others in planning communications, so that conflicting or unintelligible messages are not sent out;**

- 
- the communicator must consider the overtones of the message being sent out, as well as its basic content;
  - opportunities should be taken to convey something of help or value to the receiver;
  - communications should be followed up to check that the intended meaning has been understood;
  - communications should be determined by future as well as present needs;
  - actions need to support communications, or else conflicting and contradictory messages will be transmitted to the receiver; and
  - good communications depend on a willingness to listen and understand.

#### **BARRIERS TO EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION**

- **lack of preparation.** This usually arises from a belief that there exists a ready-made package of information which needs only to be directed towards the appropriate recipients to effect the required change. In reality time and thought need to be given to communicating. The person initiating the message needs to be clear about his/her objective, needs to consider alternatives, and then select the form of the message. A conscious choice of communication techniques must then be made. Receivers must also be prepared to listen or to accept the information given them;
- **lack of clarity,** which frequently causes costly errors and necessitates expensive correction processes. This may result from distortion or omission of information, use of technical jargon, information overload, and so on;
- **unclarified assumptions;**
- **premature evaluation,** in that people tend to jump to conclusions rather than keeping an uncompromised position and then judging the message objectively; and
- **differing cultures and background,** which cause people to perceive the same event or information in different ways, therefore making it difficult to plan communication to convey the intended message to all recipients.

## COMMUNICATION CHANNELS

The manager has various means of communication at their disposal:

- written communications, including letters, memoranda, reports and minutes. As well as being presented in physical documents these can also be transmitted by telex, facsimile and electronic mail;
- oral communications, through conversations, interviews, meetings, conferences, presentations, seminars, briefings. These communications can be in person or via media such as telephone, dictation and advanced telecommunications such as audio-conferencing;
- non-verbal communications, expressed through facial, hand and body gestures and positioning. These may often be unintentional but they do convey messages; and
- dedicated communication tools, used to enhance communications, such as photocopiers, electronic mail, overhead transparencies, slides, computer graphics, and so forth.

These different methods have various advantages and disadvantages which are summarised below:

	Advantages	Disadvantages
<b>Written communication</b>		
Letter	Provides written record and evidence of despatch and receipt; capable of relaying complex ideas; provides analysis, evaluation and summary; disseminates information to dispersed receivers; can confirm, interpret and clarify oral communications; forms basis of contract or agreement.	Can take time to produce and can be expensive; communication tends to be more formal and distant; instant feedback is not possible; once despatched, difficult to modify message; does not allow for exchange of opinion, views or attitudes except over a period of time.
Memorandum		
Report		
Abstract		
Minutes		
Article		
Press release		
<b>Oral communication</b>		
Face-to-face conversation	Direct medium of communication; advantages of physical proximity and , usually, both sight and sound of sender and receiver; allows for instant interchange of opinions, views, attitudes - instantaneous feedback; easier to convince or persuade; allows for contribution and participation from all present.	More difficult to hold ground in face of opposition; more difficult to control when a number of people take part; lack of time to think things out - quality of decision-making may be inferior; often no written record of what has been said; sometimes disputes result over what was agreed.
Interview		
Meeting		
Oral briefing		
Public address		
Oral presentation		
Telephone call		
Conference		
Training session		

<b>Visual communication</b> Non-verbal communication - expression, gesture, posture Diagram Chart Table Graph Photograph Film slide Film Video tape Model Mock-up	Reinforces oral communication; provides additional visual stimulus; simplifies written or spoken word; quantifies - provides ideas in number form; provides simulations of situations; illustrates techniques and procedures; provides visual record.	May be difficult to interpret without reinforcing written or spoken word; requires additional skills of comprehension and interpretation; can be costly and expensive in time to produce; may be costly to disseminate or distribute; storage may be more expensive; does not always allow time for evaluation.
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Whichever communication methods are used the important feature is the existence of "channels", or defined routes by which communications can pass. There are two basic kinds of communication channels which exist in organisations:

- **formal channels** - those officially designated and recognised by the organisation for the transmission of messages within or outside it. The formal channels of communication are determined by the organisation's structure, which describes the official lines of authority, power, responsibility and accountability in the organisation. All these relationships rely on communication; and
- **informal channels** - an informal communication network is essential for the successful operation of a company and is based around social interaction inside and outside of the organisation. A typical informal network comprises members within the same level of the organisation, although in a generally informal culture this network may comprise employees at different levels. It cannot replace a formal network but, with the right encouragement, it can compliment and enhance it. The formal network is often static, while the organisation it seeks to activate is dynamic, and must react quickly to changing situations. By comparison an informal network is flexible and able to carry information with amazing speed. Thus it acts as a very beneficial, rapid problem-solver in many organisations.

The formal and informal communication channels tend to meet in team briefing groups. These groups are small (usually less than thirty people) and are arranged on a regulated but informal basis.

It is noticeable that organisational communication systems are designed predominately for downward and lateral communication. Upward communication (from employees to managers) is an important - and perhaps the most neglected - part of the communication system. Formal mechanisms for meetings of employee representatives and management are useful, but tend to be applied in a limited number of situations, such as negotiations, grievance handling, and so forth. The organisation needs a system which offers a channel for employee complaints, comments and - crucially - suggestions from lower levels as to

how work practices, systems or technology might be improved or problems solved. This may be achieved through:

- more regular non-negotiatory meetings with employee representatives;
- team meetings for "brainstorming" solutions or discussing work issues;
- "suggestion schemes", perhaps with incentives for positive contributions; and
- "open door" policy, whereby a manager is always available, or having defined times when employees are encouraged to bring problems, suggestions or feedback to the manager.
- annual staff appraisals

#### THE ART OF LISTENING

Your success as a communicator will depend critically on your listening ability, both to enable you to encourage your audience to listen to you and to ensure that you interpret accurately what you hear.

There are seven important principles behind effective listening:

- **stop talking.** This includes suppressing your internal voice. It is important to hear everything that is being said, particularly where the subject is familiar and the temptation is to assume that you know what will be said;
- **relax.** Research shows that tension reduces the effectiveness of your auditory receptors;
- **put the speaker at ease** by showing that you are listening. You should pay attention exclusively to the speaker: if you feel the need to take notes then explain what you are doing. Your facial expressions will be important in encouraging the speaker;
- remember that your aim at this stage is to understand what the speaker is saying, not to win an argument. Until you understand the speaker's position you cannot reasonably discuss the issues. Suspend the temptation to find counter arguments until you have received the whole message;
- **be aware of your personal prejudices** and make a conscious effort to stop them influencing your judgement;

- **listen with feeling as well as reason.** It is important to try to understand the speaker's position if you are to fully comprehend the logic of what is being said; and
- **be alert to what the speaker is not saying,** as well as what is being said. Very often what is missing is more important than what is there.

To be an effective manager you should spend at least half your time listening to what other people say. It is an active process, and most important when you are meeting somebody for the first time, when your objective should be to say as little and learn as much as possible in the shortest time.

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## THE CONTROL PROCESS AND BUDGETARY CONTROL

### INTRODUCTION

The managerial function of control is the measurement and correction of the performance of the individual activities and overall processes comprising an organisation's operations, to ensure that objectives are being realised.

Control is one of the maintenance systems of an organisation. Because an institution's environments alter over time so must the measurements of performance. In this way control systems should be used to help an organisation absorb change without unexpected results or trauma.

### THE CONTROL PROCESS

There are three basic elements to control:

- establishing standards of performance;
- measuring performance against these standards; and
- correcting any discrepancy between the two.

#### Establishing Standards

Standards are criteria of performance. Managers cannot judge their performance without well defined criteria. To be truly helpful to the manager these criteria must:

- relate to the wider goals and objectives of the organisation; and
- encapsulate the functions or activities for which they are responsible into a few key measures, thereby eliminating the need to monitor every element in the process.

The most meaningful standards are:

- objective;
- verifiable (whether quantitative or qualitative); and
- regularly reviewed.

The end results of the activities which individuals are responsible for are the best measures of success. Where these results can be stated in physical terms (such as quantity produced, number of technologies released, and so on) they can also easily be checked.

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## Measurement of Performance

Ideally measurement of performance should be forward looking, in that the process of comparing actual against target enables corrective action in time to maintain progress within overall plans. This is the underlying principle of budgets, the use of which should enable an organisation to adjust to deviations in projected budgetary allocations or expenditure before cumulative effects result, for example, in a cash crisis

If meaningful standards are established, appraisal of actual or expected performance is fairly easy. There are, however, many activities for which it is difficult to develop standards that can be accurately measured. Nevertheless it is important that standards are established within all parts of the organisation, even where these do not satisfy the ideal characteristics stated above.

An accurate measurement of performance depends on the relevance, accuracy and timeliness of information, or feedback, from the process being measured. There are many sources of such information, the single most important one being the finance or management accounting department, which should be responsible for producing regular operating statements, expenditure analyses, cashflow statements and other measures of performance.

## Correcting Deviations

The process of correcting deviations in performance against targets incorporates all the functions of management. Managers can correct deviations by adjusting their plans or by modifying their goals, or through reassignment or clarification of duties. They may also, for example, seek to correct deviations by better delegation, by training of subordinates, or by adjusting seasonal activities.

Once deviations have been identified and analyzed, the manager must develop and implement a programme of corrective action, in order to achieve the desired performance. Inevitably the development and implementation of corrective programmes are likely to be time-consuming tasks, and this reinforces the need for forward-looking control mechanisms. Effective management control requires a system that tells managers, in time to take corrective action, that problems will occur if they do not do something about them now. For example Directors will become aware earlier of delays in purchase of capital items.

In designing a control system, the following issues must be considered:

- what key targets are identified in the plan, how clearly are they defined and how realistic are they? Without clear and realistic goals managers will not be able to compare actual results in any meaningful way;
- what elements need to be checked or monitored regularly to show up significant variations from plan?;

- what size of variation in any given area will be considered significant? This may be determined by:
  - the size of a variation at one particular time, and
  - the length of time for which a variation of a certain size continues.

For example, a manager may not be concerned if one month's expenditure is over budget. However, should this overspending persist then the manager may need to analyze the cause and try to take corrective action;

- who needs to receive the control information? Ultimately this should be the individual with the authority to act on it;
- how frequently will monitoring and reporting be required? The desired frequency will depend on factors such as the likelihood of the operation being knocked off course (that is, how risky it is) and the cost of gathering control information;
- what types of controls are available/suitable? In some processes computerised systems may be able to apply automatic controls, which are specified by a certain degree of deviation from preset targets; and
- what is a justifiable cost of the control system? The benefits obtained, or risks averted, should outweigh the costs of the system itself. Therefore the system should be directed most at points of greatest risk as these will generally be the clearest indicators of whether operations are working to plan.

The concept of risk is perhaps alien to public sector institution managers but it still exists in a modified form. It will increase as a management factor as more pressure is put on the institution to show tangible results.

### **The Human Factor**

The human factor in the control system will also have to be considered:

- the control system must be tailored to the culture of the organisation or department, to ensure that it is properly used. Rigid systems may be less effective in organisations that generally encourage the use of initiative;
- controls should be tailored to the capabilities and personalities of the individuals concerned. For example, some managers may fail to understand particularly complex numerical reports and so will tend to mistrust them, ultimately not using them; and

- the control system must lead management into taking corrective action, by relating indicators to measurements of their own performance.

When considering the human factor the psychological and political processes (that is, those by which groups and individuals dominate others and establish an order of behaviour) must be recognised. In this sense control can be perceived as:

- positive, in that it creates stable and predictable conditions in which people can function effectively; or
- negative, in the form of coercion or manipulation.

Control in this sense can be applied through:

- rules, procedures, "norms" of behaviour and automated processes;
- centralised decision-making and direct supervision; and
- culture, by fostering in individuals a strong personal identification with the goals of the organisation. There may be few formal controls but strong "central guiding values".

#### **Control Information**

Control can only be exercised on the basis of information known as management information. The qualities of good control information are:

- **accuracy** - that is, the information must correctly portray what is actually happening;
- **timeliness** - timely information will avoid control delays and encourage prompt action;
- **conciseness** - the manager needs relevant information which highlights those issues of particular relevance (that is, those relate to criteria of performance); and
- **comprehensiveness** - the information should provide a complete picture of actual events, otherwise incorrect inferences may be made.

Management information systems are dealt with later in the manual.

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**BUDGETARY CONTROL**

A budget is a statement, usually represented in financial terms, of the desired performance of an organisation in the short term. Budgets should reflect an organization's operational plans and have as their purpose the following:

- to compel planning, by forcing management to forecast activities, thereby helping to set targets, anticipate problems and provide direction;
- to communicate ideas and plans to everybody affected by them;
- to co-ordinate the activities of different departments or parts of the organisation, so that individual plans combine into a coherent whole;
- to establish a system of control by having a plan against which actual results can be progressively compared; and
- to provide a basis for targeting and motivating individual employees.

In this way the budgetary process will provide:

- a forecast of the future;
- a means of allocating limited resources between competing demands; and
- indications of where and when control action may be necessary.

Thus budgets should be viewed as being tools to aid managers. To be truly useful the budgetary process must have the total support of top management and should comprise the following steps:

- **an outputs forecast** - based on an analysis of past performance and new objectives;
- **a recurrent budget** - based on past experience but adjusted in line with changes to the annual plan and ideas for improving performance. Production budgets should include cost estimates relating to labour and materials;
- **capital expenditure budget** - specifically outlines proposed expenditure on capital items (for example, plant, computer systems, and so on). Whilst such expenditure may originate within operational planning it needs to be tied in with long-term plans, because capital resources and investment usually require a long period for their costs to be justified.

These budgets can then be used to:

- identify discrepancies between actual and budgeted performance;
- indicate, using variances or other measures of performance, the reasons why actual results differ from those budgeted, and to establish the magnitude of the differences;
- initiate action to correct adverse trends and to take full advantage of any beneficial trends revealed by the analysis (ie initiate action early to get authorisation to switch savings in one vote to another to improve output);
- provide a basis for the revision of current, or the preparation of new, budgets;
- indicate the efficiency with which the various activities of the organisation have been co-ordinated (that is, the overall benefit that has been obtained from the available resources); and
- provide some centralising control, where activities and responsibilities are decentralised.

### **OBSTACLES TO EFFECTIVE BUDGETING**

Budgeting is a critical management tool that underlies the processes of planning, organising and control. Unfortunately there are a number of factors which can reduce the effectiveness of this mechanism:

- forecasting and planning, even in the relatively short-term, has to cater for many unknowns and is therefore often based on educated guesses;
- conflicts may arise when trying to co-ordinate the budgets of different departments or division;
- short-term planning may distract attention from long-term goals and the long-term consequences of short-term decisions;
- difficulties may arise with presentation of budgets:
  - budgets may be expressed in terms that managers find difficult to understand or relate to, and
  - budgetary control may eventually require unmanageable volumes of information;

- **managers uncommitted to budgeting tend to under-perform in this area of their work:**
- **future plans may be based on past results, without giving due consideration to new opportunities, alternatives, and so on,**
- **managers may fail to co-ordinate their budgets with those of related functions in the organisation.**

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## MANAGEMENT INFORMATION SYSTEMS

**Definition:** MIS are information systems using formal procedures to provide management at all levels and in all functions of an organisation with relevant information, both internal and external, to ensure that decisions are timely and effective, enabling planning, control and direction of the institution to take place.

### THE MANAGER'S NEED FOR INFORMATION

Three factors are combining to create an ever increasing demand for management information:

- a progressively complex institutional environment. Modern managers have to consider many more factors than did their predecessors, and hence the demand for information is correspondingly higher;
- change is more rapid than it was in the past and calls for more frequent decision taking. To do this the manager needs to be supplied with sufficient, accurate and relevant data; and
- organisations are being inundated with demands for information from society in general (for example, environmental policy and effects).

All managers must perform certain basic functions in order to achieve the goals/objectives of the organisation (a primary theme of this course). This provides a useful starting point in assessing the content of an MIS. Very briefly, managerial activity involves the following:

- **planning.** This involves:
  - identifying the objective. Information is needed to promote awareness of problems and opportunities,
  - gathering and analysing facts,
  - seeking suitable alternatives towards the most attractive course of action. It is, as well as the skill of the manager, the quality of the information received that determines the appropriateness of the options selected,
  - evaluating and selecting alternatives, and
  - follow-up;

- **organising**, which is the grouping of activities necessary to accomplish goals and plans, the assignment of these activities to appropriate departments, and the provision for the delegation and co-ordination of authority (eg RDIs, RARDCs);
- **staffing**, which involves selecting people, training employees to meet their job requirements, preparing employees for promotion to positions of greater responsibility and reassigning or dismissing employees when necessary; and
- **controlling**, which involves:
  - setting standards (which requires quality information),
  - measuring actual performance (which requires timely and accurate performance information),
  - comparison of performance with set standards, and
  - taking control action.

Within each of these contexts good information can lead to good decision-making which in turn leads to a successful attainment of organisational goals.

In considering the need for management information it is evident that a common information need basic to all managers is an understanding of the purpose of the organisation (that is, its policies, programmes, plans and goals). Thus the specific information required by a particular manager includes everything that managers have to do to:

- establish, evaluate and adjust goals;
- develop plans and standards, and initiate action;
- measure actual performance and take appropriate action when performance varies from the standard; and
- assess achievements.

#### **REQUIRED ATTRIBUTES OF MANAGEMENT INFORMATION**

Different managers view an organisation in different ways and this will influence their belief as to what information is relevant in analysing a problem. An MIS must be designed so that the manager is not faced with a scarcity of information, yet guarding against information overload. Management, given too much unfiltered information, will ignore it.

Like any other management resource, information has a cost. It is therefore necessary that the cost of acquiring information is compared to the value to be obtained from its availability.

Management information should have the following characteristics:

- **accuracy.** Facts and information should be correct;
- **timeliness.** Even accurate information is of no value if it is available too late. In the past a trade-off between timeliness and accuracy was often required. However, developments in computerisation has reduced the significance of this conflict;
- **completeness.** All the necessary information is required otherwise a critical missing fact may result in a poor decision. Better integration of the facts scattered across a institution is a major objective of information systems designers;
- **conciseness.** A computer-based information system is capable of storing vast quantities of facts and data. Concise information which summarises the relevant data and which highlights exceptions to normal or planned activity is what is most required by managers; and
- **relevance.** Information is relevant and is only worth producing if it will identify and support necessary action by responsible individuals within the organisation.

One of the reasons for the growth of computer-based information systems is that traditional systems are not able to provide information incorporating these five basic attributes. A computer-based management information system can be defined as a collection of inter-related processing procedures developed in an organisation and integrated as necessary with other manual and/or electronic procedures for the purpose of providing accurate, timely, complete, concise and relevant information to aid decision-making and other managerial functions.

## MIS DESIGN

The design of an MIS must take into account the different organisational levels of management. There are three types of organisational level and three concomitant types of management process (see planning section):

Organisational Level	Management Process
Top	Strategic Planning
Middle	Tactical Planning
Lower	Operational Control

Therefore one way of viewing information is to classify it in terms of the type of information provided to different managerial levels. Higher levels of management tend to be planning-oriented and therefore need information relating more to the external environment, as well as internal data in a highly summarised form. Lower levels deal with more detailed reports, generally control-oriented and internally focused. Middle management are less concerned with detailed control and more with tactical planning, but nevertheless have a vital role in the management control process of an organisation.

Whilst these categories may not, in practice, be as distinct as implied here, they do have to be considered when designing an MIS. The right amount of information must be available to support the appropriate level of management. Data must be distilled in order to produce the right quantity of information for each managerial level.

Management in different functions will require information on different subjects. Because of this variety a fundamental requirement of an MIS is that it is sufficiently flexible to cope with the changing requests by management for information.

An MIS will also need to meet the varying information needs determined by different management styles. Nor can an MIS be designed without regard to the structure of the organisation, because management operates within that structure. An organisational structure defines the distribution of authority and responsibility within an organisation, and so the structure of an information system must closely parallel the organisational structure it serves, to ensure that information is distributed to the correct points.

MIS within an innovative and fluid working environment must be designed to provide management control and information relevant to a relatively uncertain and unstructured situation. Finally the design of an MIS will also be influenced by the type of information technology used within the organisation.

## **THE DESIGN FUNCTION**

The management information system itself needs to be "managed" and the design stage is important in the future management of the MIS; indeed it can be regarded as the first stage in the management of an MIS.

### **The Systems Development Process**

The four basic stages in the life cycle of a management information system are:

- definition and analysis;
- design;
- development and implementation; and
- operation.

The systems process commences with problem definition. The analysis can be lengthy and expensive but it is vital that it is done thoroughly as this will produce clear objectives for the remainder of the project. The key is to collect sufficient relevant data to enable precise definition of the nature of the problem and to outline possible alternative solutions. The fact-finding should involve personal consultations with top management and managers of affected departments, the data processing section (PMEU), internal users of the system and possibly some external users such as customers who will be affected by any proposed changes. From this one or more alternative systems should be outlined, from which one will be selected for detailed investigation and development.

Once systems selection has been made, an estimate of costs and benefits of the system must be carried out. The cost of the system has a significant bearing in its feasibility. A systems proposal should be produced, setting out the nature and scope of the proposed solution. This should be studied by each interested party, modified as required and eventually formally agreed to. It can then serve as a guideline for the duration of the project.

System development will involve preparation of detailed specifications of computer programs, including details of inputs, outputs, data file structures, procedures for processing work and instructions for doing work, to ensure that the following have been finalised:

- output requirements;
- file design;
- input requirements and format;
- procedure design; and
- design and specification of controls.

The design will be followed by programme development. This will require a basis for testing the reliability and accuracy of programmes as they are developed. The final testing of the system as a whole should be carried out during a period of parallel running (that is, all the procedures of the new system are conducted whilst the old system is still in operation), giving a final opportunity to check user-reaction to the new system before the old one is replaced. This is the point at which the new system can be said to be fully implemented, although there will almost inevitably be further modifications required, to correct faults discovered during live system operation.

#### **PROBLEMS WITH MIS DESIGN**

There a number of problems that arise out of, or are associated with, MIS:

- the manager's primary information problem is that of an overabundance of irrelevant information, but the emphasis of many MIS seem to be supplying as much information as possible, whether relevant or not. Solving the problem of overabundance places emphasis on filtration and condensation of information, whilst preoccupation with the supply of relevant information emphasises the

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functions of generation, storage and retrieval. Therefore the wrong design parameters may be emphasised;

- for a manager to know what information is required they must be aware of, and have a reliable model for, each type of decision they make. Unfortunately this is seldom the case;
- efforts to make systems user friendly make it difficult for managers to appraise the MIS as a whole. Thus managers may unwittingly delegate much of the control of the organisation to the system's designers and operators, who are unlikely to be qualified in this role. To avoid this problem, no MIS should be installed unless the managers for whom it is intended are trained to evaluate and hence control it;
- much can be done to protect the security and reliability of centralised data, but this remains a problem, as does the issue of recovery of data after a system failure. Since the data is held only once and its use is widespread this issue of recovery is crucial. DBMS software is constantly being upgraded in terms of recovery capability;
- the effectiveness of an MIS will be determined by the way in which it communicates or presents information to its users (for example, using sequencing, spacing or colouring to aid interpretation). This presentation can be considered to be effective if it:
  - informs - changes the probabilities of a choice,
  - instructs - changes the efficiencies of a course of action, or
  - motivates - changes the values of the outcomes.

If the system design does not reflect the purpose of the decision-makers then it will not reduce their uncertainty.

An MIS can also suffer from problems associated with organisational structure. The four most prominent problems identified within modern organisations are:

- rigidity and resistance to change;
- failures in communication, which may occur because of physical or functional separations;
- conflict between the objectives of the organisation as a whole and those of its component units; and
- conflict between individual and organisational goals.

These tend to impede the objective of creating a flow of consistent, accurate and relevant information up through the organisation. Hierarchical organisational structures tend to encourage formal, highly structured information flows in which information is inconsistent, incomplete and inappropriately filtered. This problem may be intensified by the existence of an inappropriate organisational structure.

Individuals are often reluctant to accept new information systems, particularly where they fear that it may reduce their own worth or alter the working environment in undesired ways (for example, by altering patterns of human contact). It is important to take positive steps during design and implementation, to eliminate the anxiety and lack of co-operation that can result from ignorance.

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## MANAGING CHANGE

Change, in the context of organisation and management, could involve changes in:

- the "environment";
- the services an organisation provides;
- how services are provided or by whom;
- management and working relationships; and
- organisation structure or size.

### THE ADAPTIVE ORGANISATION

For rapid-change conditions the management structure needs to possess the following characteristics:

- there is a "contributive nature" of specialised knowledge and experience to the common task of the organisation;
- each individual has a realistic task which can be understood in terms of the common task of the organisation;
- there is a continual re-definition of an individual's task, through interaction between the individual and others, rather than rigid job descriptions;
- there is a spread of commitment to the concern and its tasks;
- there is a network structure of authority and communication, directed at getting things done; and
- communication tends to be lateral rather than vertical, and takes the form of information and advice rather than instructions.

Management can give encouragement to change and innovation by:

- providing financial backing, such as by spending on rapid rural appraisals, on evaluation, on following through viable new ideas;
- providing employees with the opportunity to work in an environment where the exchange of ideas for innovation can take place, particularly by:
  - encouraging employees and "customers" to put forward new ideas,

- setting up development teams and establishing an organisation built up on project team-work, and
- using quality circles and brainstorming groups to encourage creative thinking;
- filling vacant positions with employees with the necessary skills for doing innovative work. Employees should be trained and kept up-to-date;
- making certain managers responsible for obtaining information about innovative ideas from outside the organisation, and for communicating this information within it; and
- using strategic planning to set targets and rewards for innovation.

### **CHANGE MANAGEMENT**

The following steps should be incorporated into the process of managing change:

- determine need or desire for change in a particular area, and so the objectives of the change;
- prepare a tentative plan (brainstorming may be helpful);
- analyze probable reactions to change;
- make a final decision from the choice of alternative options (consider the advantages of group problem-solving);
- establish a timetable for change, bearing in mind that:
  - "coerced" changes can probably be implemented faster, without time for discussions,
  - speed of implementation that is achievable will depend on the likely reactions of the people affected (all in favour, half in favour, all against, and so on), and
  - it may help to identify those in favour of the change, possibly setting up a pilot programme involving them. Talk with the others who resist the change;
- communicate the plan for change (this should be continuous throughout the process); and

- implement and review the change (again this should be on-going).

Management must make sure that:

- they have the necessary resources to support the change, that is:
  - they have the money to buy new equipment, premises or other assets required, and
  - they have the staff, properly trained in advance to deal with the new system; and
- the change is worth doing. The benefits from the change - financial and non-financial - must justify the costs of making it, including the time and effort expended.

Change management will be judged by assessing:

- the impact of the change on organisational goals;
- the success of the change in meeting its specified objective (and short-term targets set for progress measurement);
- the behaviour of the people in the organisation (that is, has the change programme resulted in the planned behavioural changes?); and
- the reaction of the people in the organisation. Has the programme been implemented without arousing hostility, fear, conflict and its symptoms (absenteeism, labour turnover, and so forth)?

Like any management process, change management should be judged on two criteria:

- task effectiveness; and
- people satisfaction.

## RESISTANCE TO CHANGE

Above all, change affects individuals psychologically:

- there is a sense of disorientation before new circumstances have been assimilated;
- uncertainty is increased, which can lead to insecurity;

- new relationships, challenges and pressures can radically affect people's self-image and sense of competence; and
- change imposed from without can seem particularly threatening if it is perceived to be outside the individual's or group's control and power to choose.

Resisting change means attempting to preserve the existing state of affairs against pressure to alter it. Sources of resistance to change may include age and inflexibility, strong needs for security, emotional instability, and so on. Sources of resistance may include:

- attitudes or beliefs, perhaps arising from cultural, religious or class influences;
- loyalty to a group and its norms;
- habit;
- politics, in the sense of resisting change that might weaken the power base of the individual or group; and
- the way in which the change is put forward and implemented.

#### **Overcoming Resistance to Change**

Three factors need to be considered:

- **the pace of change.** Changes ought generally to be introduced slowly. Change is, above all, a "political" process - relationships are changed and must be reformed, old ways have to be unlearned and new ways learned. The more gradual the change, the more time is available for questions to be asked, reassurances to be given and retraining (where necessary) embarked upon;
- **the manner of change.** The climate must be prepared, the need made clear, fears soothed, and if possible the individuals concerned positively motivated to embrace the changes as their own. Individuals must be helped to learn. Training must be given to prepare employees and to give them confidence. The "big picture" of change should be communicated; and
- **the scope of change.** Change can be more successfully managed if the scope is limited as much as possible. It is often better to aim for change in small steps, using these to reassure and motivate people who will subsequently become affected.

#### **PLANNED CHANGE**

Briefly:

- **tell the people - clearly, realistically, openly;**
- **sell the forces making change necessary and desirable, and the vision of successful, realistically attainable change;**
- **evolve the people's attitudes, ideas, capacity to learn new ways; and**
- **involve the people where possible in planning and implementation.**

Key to this process will be encouraging people to unlearn what they already know or believe, thus enabling them to learn and accept new ideas. The important points to note are that:

- **people will change their behaviour if change is forced on them, but this only secures compliance - not acceptance - and resistance will still be there; and**
- **people will change their attitudes only if the sources of resistance are confronted. This secures acceptance, which is harder to obtain, but provides more genuine and longer lasting commitment.**

A chart to assist in analysing staff reaction to change and thus to overcome resistance is shown in Appendix 2.

## **APPENDIX 1**

### **Communication: A Self Assessment Exercise**

### **Communication: A-Self Assessment Exercise\***

Please select in each pair of attributes the one which is most typical of your personality. No pair is an either-or proposal. Make your choice as spontaneously as possible. There is no wrong answer.

1. I like action
2. I deal with problems in a systematic way
3. I believe that teams are more effective than individuals
4. I enjoy innovation very much
5. I am more interested in the future than in the past
6. I enjoy working with people
7. I like to attend well organised group meetings
8. Deadlines are important for me
9. I cannot stand procrastination
10. I believe that new ideas have to be tested before being used
11. I enjoy the stimulation of interaction with others
12. I am always looking for new possibilities
13. I want to set up my own objectives
14. When I start something I go through until the end
15. I basically try to understand other people's emotions
16. I do challenge people around me
17. I look forward to receiving feedback on my performance
18. I find the step-by step approach very effective
19. I think I am good at reading people
20. I like creative problem solving
21. I extrapolate and project all the time
22. I am sensitive to others' needs
23. Planning is the key to success
24. I become impatient with long deliberations
25. I am cool under pressure
26. I value experience very much
27. I listen to people
28. People say that I am a fast thinker

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\* See, P. Casse, Teaching for the Cross-Cultural Mind Washington, D.C.: SIETAR, 1981.

29. Cooperation is a key word for me
30. I use logical methods to test alternatives
  
31. I like to handle several projects at the same time
32. I always question myself
  
33. I learn by doing
34. I believe that my head rules my heart
  
35. I can predict how others may react to a certain action
36. I do not like details
  
37. Analysis should always precede action
38. I am able to assess the climate of a group
  
39. I have a tendency to start things and not finish them up
40. I perceive myself as decisive
  
41. I search for challenging tasks
42. I rely on observation and data
  
43. I can express my feelings openly
44. I like to design new projects
  
45. I enjoy reading very much
46. I perceive myself as a facilitator
  
47. I like to focus on one issue at a time
48. I like to achieve
  
49. I enjoy learning about others
50. I like variety
  
51. Facts speak for themselves
52. I use my imagination as much as possible
  
53. I am impatient with long, slow assignments
54. My mind never stops working
  
55. Key decisions have to be made in a cautious way
56. I strongly believe that people need each other to get work done
  
57. I usually make decisions without thinking too much
58. Emotions create problems
  
59. I like to be liked by others
60. I can put two and two together very quickly
  
61. I try out my new ideas on people
62. I believe in the scientific approach

- 63. I like to get things done
- 64. Good relationships are essential
  
- 65. I am impulsive
- 66. I accept differences in people
  
- 67. Communicating with people is an end in itself
- 68. I like to be intellectually stimulated
  
- 69. I like to organise
- 70. I usually jump from one task to another
  
- 71. Talking and working with people is a creative act
- 72. Self-actualization is a key word for me
  
- 73. I enjoy doing what I am good at
- 74. I dislike to waste my time
  
- 75. I enjoy doing what I am good at
- 76. I learn by interacting with others
  
- 77. I find abstractions interesting and enjoyable
- 78. I am patient with details
  
- 79. I like brief, to the point statements
- 80. I feel confident in myself

**Scoring:**

Circle the items you have selected and add them up. The maximum is 20 per style and your total for the four styles should be 40.

**Style 1**      1 - 8 - 9 - 13 - 17 - 24 - 26 - 31 - 33 - 40  
41 - 48 - 50 - 53 - 57 - 63 - 65 - 70 - 74 - 79

Description of Style 1 (A) =

20

**Style 2**      2 - 7 - 10 - 14 - 18 - 23 - 25 - 30 - 34 - 37  
42 - 47 - 51 - 55 - 58 - 62 - 66 - 69 - 75 - 78

Description of Style 2 (PR) =

20

**Style 3**      3 - 6 - 11 - 15 - 19 - 22 - 27 - 29 - 35 - 38 -  
43 - 46 - 49 - 56 - 59 - 64 - 67 - 71 - 76 - 80 -

Description of Style 3 (PE) =

20

**Style 4**      4 - 5 - 12 - 16 - 20 - 21 - 28 - 32 - 36 - 39 -  
44 - 45 - 52 - 54 - 60 - 61 - 68 - 72 - 73 - 77 -

Description of Style 4 (I) =

20

## **COMMUNICATION STYLES**

(Adjusting to other communication styles)

### **A. Communicating with an action (A) oriented person:**

- \* Focus on the results first (state the conclusion right at the outset).
- \* State your best recommendation (do not offer many alternatives).
- \* Be as brief as possible.
- \* Emphasize the practicality of your ideas.
- \* Use visual aids.

### **B. Communicating with a process (PR) oriented person:**

- \* Be precise (state the facts).
- \* Organise your presentation in a logical order;
  - Background
  - Present situation
  - Outcome
- \* Breakdown your recommendations.
- \* Include options (consider alternatives) with pros and cons.
- \* Do not rush a process oriented person.
- \* Outline your proposal (1,2,3....).

### **C. Communicating with a people (PE) oriented person:**

- \* Allow for small talk (do not start the discussion right away).
- \* Stress the relationships between your proposal and the people concerned.
- \* Show how the idea worked well in the past.
- \* Indicate support from well respected people.
- \* Use an informal writing style.

### **D. Communicating with an idea (I) oriented person:**

- \* Allow enough time for discussion.
- \* Do not get impatient when he or she goes off on tangents.
- \* In your opening, try to relate the discussed topic to a broader concept or idea (in other words be conceptual).
- \* Stress the uniqueness of the idea or topic at hand.
- \* Emphasize future value or relate the impact of the idea or the future
- \* If writing to an idea oriented person, try to stress the key concepts which underlie your proposal or recommendation right at the outset. Start off with an overall statement and work toward the more particular.

**COMMUNICATION STYLES  
(DESCRIPTION OF THEIR MAIN CHARACTERISTICS)**

FEATURES STYLES	CONTENT	PROCESS
ACTION (A)	<u>They talk about:</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>. Results</li> <li>. Objectives</li> <li>. Performance</li> <li>. Productivity</li> <li>. Efficiency</li> <li>. Moving ahead</li> <li>. Responsibility</li> <li>. Feedback</li> <li>. Experience</li> <li>. Challenges</li> <li>. Achievements</li> <li>. Change</li> <li>. Decisions</li> </ul>	<u>They are:</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>. Pragmatic (down to earth)</li> <li>. (to the point)</li> <li>. Impatient</li> <li>. Decisive</li> <li>. Quick (jump from one idea to another)</li> <li>. Energetic (challenge others)</li> </ul>
PROCESS (PR)	<u>They talk about:</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>. Facts</li> <li>. Procedures</li> <li>. Planning</li> <li>. Organizing</li> <li>. Controlling</li> <li>. Testing</li> <li>. Trying out</li> <li>. Analysis</li> <li>. Observations</li> <li>. Proof</li> <li>. Details</li> </ul>	<u>They are:</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>. Systematic (step-by-step)</li> <li>. Logical (cause and effect)</li> <li>. Factual</li> <li>. Verbose</li> <li>. Unemotional</li> <li>. Cautious</li> <li>. Patient</li> </ul>
PEOPLE (PE)	<u>They talk about:</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>. People</li> <li>. Needs</li> <li>. Motivations</li> <li>. Teamwork</li> <li>. Communications</li> <li>. Feelings</li> <li>. Team Spirit</li> <li>. Understanding</li> <li>. Self-development</li> <li>. Sensitivity</li> <li>. Awareness</li> <li>. Cooperation</li> <li>. Beliefs</li> <li>. Values</li> <li>. Expectations</li> <li>. Relations</li> </ul>	<u>They are:</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>. Spontaneous</li> <li>. Empathetic</li> <li>. Warm</li> <li>. Subjective</li> <li>. Emotional</li> <li>. Perceptive</li> <li>. Sensitive</li> </ul>
IDEA (I)	<u>They talk about:</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>. Concepts</li> <li>. Innovation</li> <li>. Creativity</li> <li>. Opportunities</li> <li>. Possibilities</li> <li>. Grand Designs</li> <li>. Issues</li> <li>. What's new in the field</li> <li>. Interdependence</li> <li>. New ways</li> <li>. New methods</li> <li>. Improving</li> <li>. Problems</li> <li>. Potential</li> <li>. Alternatives</li> </ul>	<u>They are:</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>. Imaginative</li> <li>. Charismatic</li> <li>. Difficult to understand</li> <li>. Ego-centered</li> <li>. Unrealistic</li> <li>. Creative</li> <li>. Full of ideas</li> <li>. Provocative</li> </ul>

## **APPENDIX 2**

### **Analysing Motivation towards Change**

ANALYSING MOTIVATION TOWARDS CHANGE

EXISTING SITUATION	<p>————— CHANGE —————&gt;</p> <p>INDIVIDUAL PERCEPTIONS</p>	PROPOSED SITUATION
<p>MOTIVATION TOWARDS STATUS QUO</p> <p>REWARDS ←</p>		
<p>MOTIVATION TOWARDS CHANGE</p> <p>—————&gt; PUNISHMENTS</p>	<p>MOTIVATION TOWARDS STATUS QUO</p> <p>PUNISHMENTS ←</p>	<p>MOTIVATION TOWARDS CHANGE</p> <p>—————&gt; REWARDS</p>

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