

**THE MINISTRY OF HIGHER AND
SECONDARY SPECIALIZED EDUCATION OF
THE REPUBLIC OF UZBEKISTAN**

**NAMANGAN INSTITUTE OF
ENGINEERING AND TECHNOLOGY**

**Teaching materials complex
in Management**

from subject “management”

Executed:

Ibragimov I.

Namangan - 2021

**“AGREED” by
vise rector in teaching affairs of
Namangan engineering-technology
institute
_____ U.Meliboyev
“ ” _____ 2021**

**THE MINISTRY OF HIGHER AND SECONDARY SPECIALIZED
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Syllabus in Management

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Introduction

Learning about management is important for two reasons. First, our society depends on specialized institutions and organizations to provide the goods and services we desire. Managers have the authority and responsibility to build safe or unsafe products, seek war or peace, build or destroy cities, or clean up or pollute the environment. Managers establish the conditions under which we are provided jobs, incomes, lifestyles, products, services, protection, health care, and knowledge. It would be very difficult to find anyone who is neither a manager nor affected by the decisions of a manager.

Second, individuals not trained as managers often find themselves in managerial positions. Many individuals presently being trained to be teachers, accountants, musicians, salespersons, artists, physicians, or lawyers will one day earn their livings as managers. They will manage schools, accounting firms, orchestras, sales organizations, museums, hospitals, and government agencies. The future success of the Uzbekistan or any industrialized nation in the global village lies in managing productivity, being able to cope with environmental changes, and properly managing the workforce. These challenges will require well-educated, knowledgeable, and hard-working individuals deciding that a management career is of value to them personally.

Management is a set of activities designed to achieve an organization's objectives by using its resources effectively and efficiently in a changing environment. Resources are used to accomplish the manager's intended purpose. **Effectively** means having the intended result; **efficiently** means accomplishing the objectives with a minimum of resources. Both are part of good management—reaching objectives with a minimum of cost. One factor that makes management difficult is that the work situation constantly changes. That is, such factors as employees, technology, competition, and cost vary greatly. **Managers** are individuals who make decisions about the use of the organization's resources, and are concerned with planning, organizing, leading, and controlling the organization's activities so as to reach its objectives. Although it may seem that management activities are quite diverse, they share some common characteristics.

Second, managers are in charge of the organization's resources—people, equipment, finances, data—and of using these resources to help the organization reach its objectives. How well a manager coordinates the firm's activities and uses its resources determines not only how well the organization accomplishes its objectives but also how he or she will be judged in terms of job performance.

The management practices of an individual affect more than the person himself or herself. Management is characterized by interaction with others, decision making, and completing work tasks. Because such activities are not carried out in isolation, management reaches several different groups connected with the organization. Moreover, management's effect is not neutral. If management is done well, it has a positive impact on these groups; if management is done poorly, it has

a negative effect. Finally, it is important to recognize that all management decisions have consequences.

Obviously, a manager's subordinates are directly affected by his or her actions. If the work process is organized well, everyone performs better, which is reflected in the performance appraisals of individual workers. Good performance appraisals often result in increased financial rewards and advancement opportunities. Research also suggests that employees' relationships with their manager strongly affect their work attitudes, such as commitment, satisfaction, and work involvement.¹

Finally, by its very nature, management affects the number and the quality of the organization's goods and services. As we have said, managers coordinate the organization's resources to help it reach organizational objectives. If the manager coordinates poorly or makes poor decisions, the organization's objectives will not be met as well or as quickly.

COURSE TITLE: 5340100, 5520700: **Management**

DESCRIPTION: The purpose of the course will be to provide a thorough understanding management theories, contemporary management application issues, and organizational models as they relate to organizational culture and structure.

SEMESTER: 3, 2014-2015

CLASS HOURS:

No	Type of the lesson	Hours	Semester	Course
1.	LECTURE	38	3	2
2.	PRACTICAL LESSON	38		
3.	INDEPENDENT WORK	61		

INSTRUCTOR: Ibragimov I.

COURSE DELIVERY AND MEETINGS: This course is being conducted where on specified weeks

SKILLS AND ABILITIES TO BE ASSESSED

The skills that students are expected to have developed on completion of this syllabus have been grouped under three main headings:

1. Knowledge and Comprehension;
2. Use of Knowledge;
3. Interpretation and Application.

Knowledge and Comprehension

The examinations will test candidates' skills and ability to:

1. grasp and recall basic facts, concepts, and principles of management theory;
2. understand the diverse managerial functions and roles;
3. understand the impact of workforce diversity on the management of organisations.

Use of Knowledge

The examinations will test candidates' skills and ability to:

1. select and use facts, theories and concepts appropriately in formulating solutions to business problems;
2. draw conclusions based on a body of information;
3. distinguish among various components of business and its environment.

Course Overview:

This survey course is a study of the basic managerial functions of planning, organizing, leading, and controlling resources to accomplish organizational goals. Special emphasis will be placed on skills necessary for a manager to be effective. The course will involve an overview approach to covering the various concepts required for an overall understanding of management's role in the contemporary organization. Course serves as the first course for management majors in the discipline of management and is required for all BBA degrees.

Student Learning Outcomes:

The objective of this course is for each student to be able to know, comprehend, apply, analyze, synthesize and evaluate the basic principles of the fundamentals of managing organizations. Students will complete specific activities, as identified in the syllabus, related to each of the four functions of management: planning, organizing, leading and controlling.

At the close of the semester, student will:

- Be prepared for further study in the area of management;
- Be able to identify and apply appropriate management techniques for managing contemporary organizations;
- Have an understanding of the skills, abilities, and tools needed to obtain a job on a management track in an organization of their choice.

LEARNING OBJECTIVES:

- Identify key theories and models examining management structure and behaviors within an organizational setting
- Analyze an organization for the purposes of making recommendations for initiating organizational improvement
- Understand the challenges involved in making good managerial decisions and be able to apply those theories that can help you improve these skills
- Demonstrate the ability to integrate and communicate knowledge, ideas, and innovations about individuals and organizations
- Demonstrate information literacy (an ability to find, analyze and extend research studies and their data) with respect to the academic Management Organizational Theory literature
- Apply the NDNU hallmarks (community engagement and social justice) to the practice of management and leadership

COURSE ASSIGNMENTS

Discussion Questions: Discussion Questions (DQs) regarding issues relevant to our class. Participation points will be awarded based upon your ability to provide a substantive analysis of the material. This means going beyond just providing a synopsis; rather it means identifying the relevancy (i.e., pros and cons) of the material and what salient information was noteworthy in context of this class.

Team Briefing: Successful teamwork and collaboration are the keys to the success of post-industrial organizations! Small teams of 3-5 students will be formed to explore and analyze selected topics in organizational behavior (see list below). Each team member is responsible for accomplishing cooperatively and on time a briefing that demonstrates the team's scholarly knowledge and ability to present in a professional environment (i.e., power point slides). The goal of the team project will be to prepare and present a 15 minute briefing to the class that provides a summary of their selected topic as well as all relevant management and organizational theories that are supported by and/or contradicted by this topic.

INDEPENDENT WORK topics which teams can select from

Conflict Management	Empowering Employees
Ethical Management	Human Resource Management
Management and Information	Managing International Project Teams

Technology	
Managing Generation X'ers	MBO (Management by Objectives)
Motivation and Rewarding Employees	Poor vs. Good Management Strategies
Situational Leadership Strategies	Teams and Teamwork Dynamics

INDEPENDENT WORK: The term paper is the principal experiential learning element of the course. The individual student paper is designed to test your ability to understand and translate theoretical research on organization theory to specific implications for any kind of management issues and concerns. Select a topic (i.e., theory, management issue, or concern) of your choosing that you consider valuable, interesting, and related to the material covered in this course. Your focus should be about what the real-world implications are to an organization. Research any theories that might be used to explain and deal with your topic in order to provide insight into the material. The requirement is for each student to conduct independent research about your selected topic with the goal of submitting a 15 page paper by the assigned due date.

Exams: There will be two required examinations in this course:

1. **Midterm Exam:** This will entail an open book 24 question test (i.e., combination multiple choice, true/false) based upon content covered in the assigned readings and/or lectures.

2. **Midterm Exam:** This will entail an open book 4 questions (i.e., combination multiple choice, true/false) based upon content covered in the assigned readings and/or lectures.

Final Exam: This will entail an open book 4 questions

GRADING PERCENTAGES

Grades will be assigned on the basis of the following percentages:

Attendance, attitude, class activities, & participation	10
Written assignments (homework, cases, exercises) & quizzes	26
Mid-Term Examination	34
Final Examination	30
Total	100

COURSE OUTLINE/CALENDAR (LECTURE)

№	Type of the lesson	Themes of the lessons	Hours
1	Lecture	Management – independent course	2
2	Lecture	Basic management models and theories	4
3	Lecture	Methods, principles and functions of management	4
4	Lecture	Organizing the organization	2
5	Lecture	Decision making	4
6	Lecture	Information and management	2
7	Lecture	The Manager's job	2
8	Lecture	Personnel and human resource management	2
9	Lecture	Leadership	4
10	Lecture	Conflict and stress management	4
11	Lecture	Business management	4
12	Lecture	Marketing management	2
13	Lecture	Innovation management	2
Total			38

CALENDAR (PRACTICAL LESSON)

№	Type of the lesson	Themes of the lessons	Hours
1	Practical lesson	Management – independent course	2
2	Practical lesson	Basic management models and theories	4
3	Practical lesson	Methods, principles and functions of management	4
4	Practical lesson	Organizing the organization	2
5	Practical	Decision making	4

	lesson		
6	Practical lesson	Information and management	2
7	Practical lesson	The Manager's job	2
8	Practical lesson	Personnel and human resource management	2
9	Practical lesson	Leadership	4
10	Practical lesson	Conflict and stress management	4
11	Practical lesson	Business management	4
12	Practical lesson	Marketing management	2
13	Practical lesson	Innovation management	2
Total			38

Appendix

On completing the learning activities for each chapter students will be able to do the following:

Chapter 1: Describe the basic functions of management; Identify where in an organization managers are located; Discuss the challenges that people encounter as they become first time managers; Describe the roles that managers adopt to perform the basic functions of management; Outline the competencies that managers must have to be effective.

Chapter 2: Describe the different Basic management models and theories; Explain the difference between models and theories; Describe the main components of models and theories; Explain how each component in the task environment impacts the organization; Identify the major components of an organization's general environment;

Chapter 3: Explain what Methods, principles and functions of management is; Describe functions of management; Identify the implications of principles for the business enterprise; Discuss different constraints that are limiting the principles and functions of management; Outline the benefits of going global for a business firm; Discuss Principles of Managing Organizations. Describe what is meant by

competitive advantage; Explain Subordination of individual to general interests; Explain how operations strategy can lead to competitive advantage;

Chapter 4: Describe the elements of organizational culture; Discuss the importance of organizational subcultures; List four categories of artifacts through which corporate culture is deciphered; Discuss the conditions under which cultural strength improves corporate performance; Identify four strategies to change and strengthen an organization's culture; Compare and contrast four strategies for merging organizational cultures. Explain what is meant by organization architecture; Explain the advantages and disadvantages of centralization and decentralization; Discuss the pros and cons of tall versus flat structures; Outline the different kinds of structure a firm can operate within and explain how strategy should determine structure; Describe the different integrating mechanisms managers can use to achieve coordination within a firm, and explain the link between strategy, environment, and integrating mechanisms.

Chapter 4. Describe the most common types of how a person chooses the optimal alternative, Identify the main pitfalls that managers encounter when engaged in formal planning processes, and describe what can be done to limit those pitfalls; Discuss the major reasons for poor decision, and describe what managers can do to make better decisions.

Chapter 6: Outline the main elements of a communication system; Explain why it is important to match media to a message; Discuss the formal and informal channels through which information flows in organizations; Identify the sources of noise that lead to miscommunication within organizations; Discuss the steps managers can take to counteract noise and improve communication within their organizations.

Chapter 7: Explain why power and influence are necessary to get things done in organizations; Identify the main sources of managerial power; Discuss the contingencies that influence the magnitude of a manager's power; Outline the various tactics managers can pursue to increase their influence in an organization; Describe what a manager can do to increase the chance of negotiating effectively.

Chapter 8: Describe Human resource management; Explain the difference between Personnel and human resource; Describe the main components of a typical Human resource planning system; Identify the main pitfalls that managers encounter when engaged in formal planning processes, and describe what can be done to limit those pitfalls;

Chapter 9: Explain why good leadership is critical for success as a manager; Summarize the main theoretical approaches to leadership; Identify the behaviors and skills that are commonly associated with effective leadership; Explain how the right approach to leadership might be influenced by important contingencies; Discuss the difference between transformational and transactional leadership.

Chapter 10: Explain why conflict and stress are natural parts of human life; Describe different operating strategies managers can pursue; Explain different levels of conflict; Describe basic stages of conflict.

Chapter 11: Explain what globalization is; Describe the processes that are driving globalization; Identify the implications of globalization for the business enterprise; Discuss different constraints that are limiting the pace of globalization; Outline the benefits of going global for a business firm; Discuss some of the challenges of managing in a global enterprise. Describe what is meant by competitive advantage; Explain how business-level strategy can lead to competitive advantage; Explain how operations strategy can lead to competitive advantage; Explain how corporate-level strategy can lead to competitive advantage.

Chapter 12: Identify the major components of marketing; Explain how each component in the general environment impacts the organization; Discuss the nature of market research; Outline the main components of the internal environment of an organization and articulate their implications for managerial action.

Chapter 13: Define teams and discuss their benefits and limitations; Discuss the success factors Innovation for self-directed teams; Outline the model of team effectiveness; Explain organizing for innovation; Describe the five stages of organizing; Identify that Bureaucracy is an enemy of innovation;

Evaluation criteria for this project will be based on the following:

1. Effective and accurate use of management terminology and principles.
2. Appropriate application of management principles and theories.
3. Quality and sophistication of writing and expression.
4. Reflective skills assessment and action plan.
5. Amount of preparation as evidenced by your answers (and research supporting them) to the management portfolio questions for your chosen organization.

Literature

1. Management basics. Susa Quin. 2010.
2. Management of organizations. Patrick M. Wright Raymond A. Noe 2011
3. Successful Project Management, 4th Edition by Jack Gido & James Clements (Book reviews by R. Max Wideman), 2009
4. Managing for Quality in Higher Education: A Systems Perspective © 2012 Ben A. Maguad, Ph.D. & Robert M. Krone
5. English for Bankers, Brokers, Managers and Market Specialists. Kovtun L.G. 2010
6. Developing Measurement Systems for Managing in the Knowledge Era. Bassi, L & McMurrer, D 2005,
7. 'Trust in Leadership: Meta- Analytic Findings and Implications for Research and Practice. Dirks, KT & Ferrin, DL 2002,
8. Management: Tasks, Responsibilities, Practices, Harper & Row, New York. Drucker, P 1994
9. Menedjment asoslari. Sharifxo'jaev M. Abdullaev Yo. T. 2002 yil
10. Korxonalarda boshqaruv faoliyatining asoslari. Toshniezov M. T. 1996 yil
11. Ma`muriy menejment. A. To'xtabaev, T. 2003 yil
12. M. Sharifxo'jaev, Abdullaev Yo. Menejment. Darslik. T. «O'qituvchi», 2002 yil.
13. Basakov M.I. Menedjment. Uchebnoe posobie. – M.: 2010.
14. Ivankov A.E., Ivankova M.A. Menedjment. Uchebnoe posobie. M.: 2010.
15. Razu M.L. Menedjment. Uchebnoe posobie. M.: 2010.

1-Theme. Basic management models and theories.

Plan

1. Classical Management Theory
2. Human Relations Theory
3. Neo-Human Relations Theory
4. System Theory

Basic management models and theories associated with motivation and leadership and be able to apply them to practical situations and problems

1. Classical Management Theory

Here we focus on three well-known early writers on management:

Henri Fayol

F W Taylor

Max Weber

Definition of management: Management takes place within a structured organisational setting with prescribed roles. It is directed towards the achievement of aims and objectives through influencing the efforts of others.

Classical management theory

- Emphasis on structure
- Prescriptive about 'what is good for the firm'
- Practical manager (except Weber, sociologist)

Henri Fayol (1841 - 1925), France

1. Division of work	Reduces the span of attention or effort for any one person or group. Develops practice and familiarity
2. Authority	The right to give an order. Should not be considered without reference to <i>responsibility</i>
3. Discipline	Outward marks of respect in accordance with formal or informal agreements between firm and its employees
4. Unity of command	One man superior
5. Unity of direction	One head and one plan for a group of activities with the same objective
6. Subordination of individual interests to the general interest	The interests of one individual or one group should not prevail over the general good. This is a difficult area of management
7. Remuneration	Pay should be fair to both the employee and the

	firm
8. Centralisation	Is always present to a greater or less extent, depending on the size of the company and quality of its managers
9. Scalar chain	The line of authority from top to bottom of the organisation
10. Order	A place for everything and everything in its place; the right man in the right place
11. Equity	A combination of kindness and justice towards the employees
12. Stability of tenure of personnel	Employees need to be given time to settle into their jobs, even though this may be a lengthy period in the case of the managers
13. Initiative	Within the limits of authority and discipline, all levels of staff should be encouraged to show initiative
14. Esprit de corps	Harmony is a great strength to an organisation; teamwork should be encouraged

Advantages

- Fayol was the first person to actually give a definition of management which is generally familiar today namely 'forecast and plan, to organise, to command, to co-ordinate and to control'.
- Fayol also gave much of the basic terminology and concepts, which would be elaborated upon by future researchers, such as division of labour, scalar chain, unity of command and centralization.

Disadvantages

- Fayol was describing the structure of formal organizations.
- Absence of attention to issues such as individual versus general interest, remuneration and equity suggest that Fayol saw the employer as paternalistic and by definition working in the employee's interest.
- Fayol does mention the issues relating to the sensitivity of a patients needs, such as initiative and 'esprit de corps', he saw them as issues in the context of rational organisational structure and not in terms of adapting structures and changing people's behaviour to achieve the best fit between the organisation and its customers.
- Many of these principles have been absorbed into modern day organisations, but they were not designed to cope with conditions of rapid change and issues of employee participation in the decision making process of organisations, such as are current today in the early 21st century.

F W Taylor - (1856 - 1915), USA- The Scientific Management School Taylorism involved breaking down the components of manual tasks in manufacturing environments, timing each movement ('time and motion' studies) so that there could be a proven best way to perform each task. Thus employees could be trained to be 'first class' within their job. This type of management was particularly relevant to performance drives e.g 'Action On' projects.

This was a rigid system where every task became discrete and specialized. It is fair to suggest that this is unlikely to be of value to the NHS with the Modernisation agenda suggesting that we should have a flexible workforce.

Key points about Taylor, who is credited with what we now call 'Taylorism':

- he was in the scientific management school
- his emphases were on efficiency and productivity
- but he ignored many of the human aspects of employment

For the managers, scientific management required them to:

- develop a science for each operation to replace opinion and rule of thumb
- determine accurately from the science the correct time and methods for each job (time and motion studies)

• set up a suitable organisation to take all responsibility from the workers except that of the actual job performance

- select and train the workers (in the manner described above)

• accept that management itself be governed by the science deployed for each operation and surrender its arbitrary powers over the workers, i.e. cooperate with them.

For the workers, scientific management required them to:

• stop worrying about the divisions of the fruits of production between wages and profits.

• share in the prosperity of the firm by working in the correct way and receiving wage increases.

• give up their idea of time wasting and co-operate with the management in developing the science

• accept that management would be responsible for determining what was done and how

- agree to be trained in new methods where applicable

The benefits (mainly for the management) arising from scientific management can be summarised as follows:

• its rational approach to the organisational work enables tasks and procedures to be measured with a considerable degree of accuracy

• measurement of paths and processes provide useful information on which to base improvements in working methods, plant design, etc

- improving work methods brought enormous increases in productivity

• it enabled employees to be paid by results and to take advantage of incentive payments

• it stimulated management into adopting a more positive role in leadership at shop floor level.

- it contributed to major improvements in physical working conditions for employees

- it provided the formation for modern work studies

The drawbacks were mainly for the workers:

- it reduced the worker's role to that of a rigid adherence to methods and procedures over which he/she had no discretion

- it led to increased fragmentation of work due to its emphasis on divisional labour

- it generated an economically based approach to the motivation of employees by linking pay to geared outputs

- it put the planning and control of workplace activities exclusively in the hands of the managers

- it ruled out any realistic bargaining about wage rates since every job was measured and rated 'scientifically'

Therefore, in summary, while the scientific management technique has been employed to increase productivity and efficiency both in private and public services, it has also had the disadvantages of ignoring many of the human aspects of employment. This led to the creation of boring repetitive jobs with the introduction of systems for tight control and the alienation of shop floor employees from their managers.

Taylorism prevailed in the '30s through to the early '60s - and in many organisations considerably later than this. Peters and Waterman in the 70s/80 and Senge late '80s/early '90s led us towards what we now call 'systems thinking' where the rights and potential wider contributions of employees received considerably greater emphasis.

Max Weber (1864 - 1924), Germany

Bureaucracy in this context is the organisational form of certain dominant characteristics such as a hierarchy of authority and a system of rules.

Bureaucracy in a sense of red tape or officialdom should not be used as these meanings are value-ridden and only emphasize very negative aspects of the original Max Weber model.

Through analyses of organisations Weber identified three basic types of legitimate authority: Traditional, Charismatic, Rational-Legal. Authority has to be distinguished from power in this discussion. Power is a unilateral thing - it enables a person to force another to behave in a certain way, whether by means of strength or by rewards. Authority, on the other hand, implies acceptance of the rules by those over whom it is to be exercised within limits agreeable to the subordinates that Weber refers to in discussing legitimate authority.

Weber presented three types of legitimate authority: Traditional authority: where acceptance of those in authority arose from tradition and custom. Charismatic authority: where acceptance arises from loyalty to, and confidence in, the personal qualities of the ruler. Rational-legal authority: where acceptance arises out of the office, or position, of the person in authority as bounded by the rules and procedures of the organization. It is the rational-legal

authority form that exists in most organisations today and this is the form to which Weber ascribed the term 'bureaucracy'.

The main features of bureaucracy according to Weber were:

- a continuous organisation or functions bounded by rules
- that individuals functioned within the limits of the specialisation of the work, the degree of authority allocated and the rules governing the exercise of authority
- a *hierarchical* structure of offices
- appointment to offices made on the grounds of technical competence only
- the separation of officials from the ownership of the organisation
- the authority was vested in the official positions and not in the personalities that held these posts. Rules, decisions and actions were formulated and recorded in writing.

It is not coincidence that Weber's writings were at a time of the major industrial revolutions and the growth of large complex organisations out of the cottage industries and/or entrepreneurial businesses.

The efficiency of this rational and logistical organisation shares a considerable amount of common ground with the thinking of Fayol. In particular, features such as scalar chain, specialisation, authority and the definition of jobs which were so essential to successful management as described by Fayol, are typical of bureaucracy. There is also little doubt that Weber's ideas concerning specific spheres of competence and employment based on technical competence would have considerable appeal for Taylor's scientific managers.

Advantages

- Appointment, promotion and authority were dependent on technical competence and reinforced by written rules and procedures of promoting those most able to manage rather than those favoured to manage. We take a lot of this for granted in the UK today. Anything else is regarded as nepotism and corruption.
- The adoption of bureaucratic type of management systems allow organisations to grow into large complex organised systems that are focused towards formalised explicit goals.
- It cannot be stated strongly enough that the Weber theory has the advantage of being used as a 'gold standard' on which to compare and develop other modern theories.

Disadvantages

Subsequent analysis by other researchers have identified many disadvantages:

- Tendency for organisations to become procedure dominated rather than goal dominated.
- Tendency for heavily formalised organisational roles to suppress initiative and flexibility of the job holders.
- Rigid behaviour by senior managers can lead to standardised services that do not meet the needs of the client.
- Rigid procedures and rules are demotivating for the subordinates that work in the organizations.

- Exercise of control based on knowledge as advocated by Weber has led to the growth of 'experts' whose opinions and attitudes may frequently clash with those of the more generalised managers and supervisors.

2.Human Relations Theories

Elton Mayo: Hawthorns studies

Where Classical theorists were concerned with structure and mechanics of organisations, the theorists of human relations were, understandably, concerned with the *human* factors.

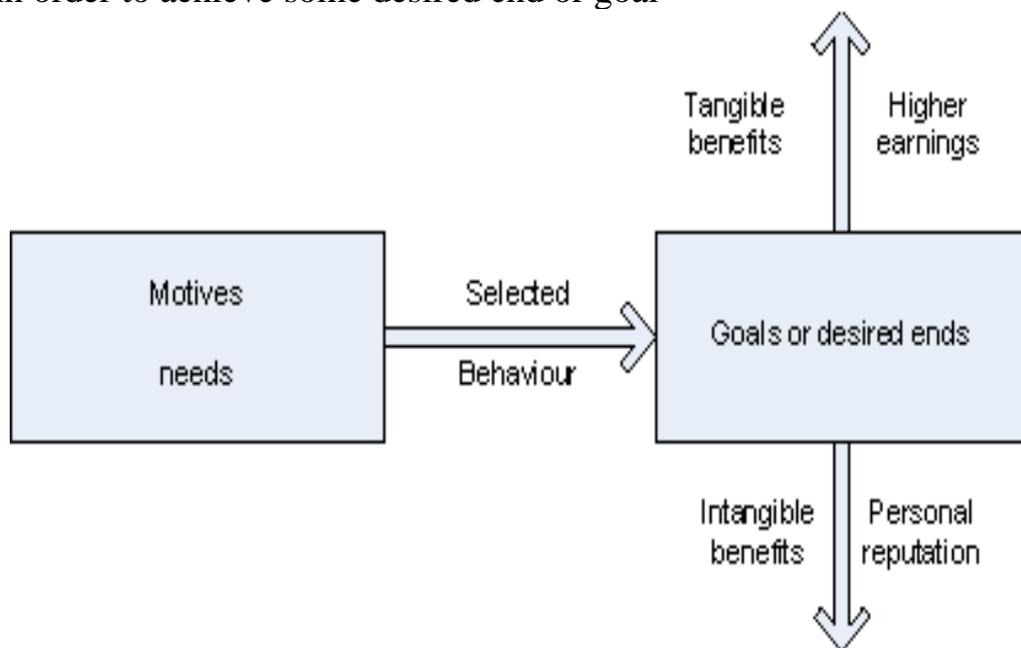
The human relations theory is on motivation, group motivation and leadership.

At the centre of these are assumptions about relationship between employer and employee. Best summarised by Schein (1965) or Elton Mayo

- they were academic, social scientists
- their emphasis was on human behaviour within organisations
- they stated that people's needs are decisive factors in achieving an organisation's effectiveness
- they were descriptive and attempted to be predictive of behaviour in organisations

A 'motive' = a need or driving force within a person.

The process of motivation involves choosing between alternative forms of action in order to achieve some desired end or goal



Alternative forms of action of motivation depend on a manager's assumptions about his/her subordinates:

	Prime Motivators	Theory
1. Rational-economic man	Self interest and maximisation of gain	Basis of Classical, especially, Taylor/Scientific theory

2. Social man	Social need, being part of a group	Basis of Mayo
3. Self actualising man	Self-fulfilment of individual	Maslow, Likert, McGregor, Argyris, Herzberg
4. Complex man	Depends on individual, group, task	'Systems approach'

Productivity restricted due to pressure from peers to adopt a slower rate to circumvent company wages incentive scheme to generally adopt own group rules and behaviour

Advantages

- first real attempt to undertake genuine social research in industrial setting
- individuals cannot be treated in isolation, but function with group members
- that individual motivation did not primarily lie in monetary or physical condition, but in need and status in a group
- the strength of informal (as opposed to formal) groups demonstrated a behaviour of workers (formal supervisors were powerless in Stage 4)
- it highlighted need for supervisors to be sensitive and cater for social needs of workers within the group

Disadvantages

- from 1930s -1950s some doubt was cast on the increased applicability of these theories to every day working life

3.Neo-Human Relations Theory

This group were social psychologists who developed more complex theories:

Maslow, McGregor (theory X and theory Y), Likert, Argyris

Maslow is often-quoted still today, having developed a seminal theory of the needs of human beings. Herzberg's and McGregor's neo-human relations theories both focus on motivation and leadership, but their theories are, as we shall see, very different.

In this group we find a particular focus on human motivation including:

- satisfaction
- incentive
- intrinsic

Maslow (1943)

1. This psychologist, from his studies, proposed a hierarchy of human needs building from basic needs at the base to higher needs at the top.



2. Maslow made assumptions that people need to satisfy each level of need, before elevating their needs to the next higher level e.g. a hungry person's need is dominated by a need to eat (i.e survival), but not to be loved, until he/she is no longer hungry.

3. Today the focus in most Western societies is on the elements towards the top of Maslow's hierarchy - in which work environments and 'jobs' (including 'having a job' and the satisfaction or otherwise such jobs provide - have become typical features. Notably the attainment of self-esteem and, at the very top of the hierarchy, what Maslow calls 'self-actualisation' - fundamentally the synthesis of 'worth', 'contribution' and perceived 'value' of the individual in society.

Advantages

- Managers can/should consider the needs and aspirations of individual subordinates.

Disadvantages

- The broad assumptions in 2 above have been disproved by exceptions e.g. hungry, ill artist working in a garret.

- Empirical research over the years has not tended to support this theoretical model.

Regarding monetary reward, sometimes beyond certain level of pays (e.g. consultant) other things become more important than another £1000 a year e.g. working conditions, boss, environment etc.

McGregor (Theory X and Theory Y)

Managers were perceived by McGregor, whose theories are still often quoted, to make two noticeably different sets of assumptions about their employees.

Theory X (essentially 'scientific' mgt)	Theory Y
Lazy	Like working
Avoid responsibility	Accept/seek responsibility
Therefore need control/coercion	Need space to develop imagination/ingenuity
Schein type: 'rational economic man'	Schein type: 'self-actualising man'

Advantages

- Identifies two main types of individual for managers to consider and how to motivate.

Disadvantages

Only presents two extremes of managerial behaviour.

200 engineers and accountants were asked to recall the times/occasions when they experienced satisfactory and unsatisfactory feeling about their jobs. Later this also involved manual and clerical staff similar results claimed:

Herzberg showed two categories of findings:

Motivators - factors giving rise to satisfaction

Hygiene factors - factors giving rise to dissatisfaction

Important Motivators	Important Hygienes
Achievement	Company policy and recognition
Recognition	Supervision - the technical aspects
Work itself	Salary
Responsibility	Interpersonal relations - supervision
Advancement	Working conditions

Other features include:

Motivators	Hygiene Factors
related to content of work	related to context/environment of work
promote satisfaction	only prevent dissatisfaction
only neo-human school attempts to address these	Taylor (salary) + Mayo (interpersonal relations) look at these

Advantages

- Herzberg's work led to a practical way to improve motivation, which had, up to that point, been dominated by Taylorism (salary, wages). In particular ' job

enrichment' programs mushroomed. The aim of these was to design work and work structures to contain the optimum number of motivators.

- This approach counters the years of Taylorism, which sought to break down work into its simplest components and to remove responsibility from individuals for planning and control.

Disadvantages

- There remain doubts about Herzberg's factors applicability to non-professional groups, despite the fact that some of his later studies involved the clerical and manual groups. The numbers were in these categories though were small and many researchers still argue about the results in these groups.

- Social scientists argue about the validity of his definition of 'job satisfaction'

Likert

Described 'new patterns of management' based on the *behaviours* of managers

Four main patterns:

1. Exploitative - authoritative where power and direction come from the top downwards', where threats and punishment are employed, where communication is poor and teamwork non-existent. Productivity is typically mediocre	'Rational economic man'
2. Benevolent - authoritative is similar to the above but allows some upward opportunities for consultation and some delegation. Rewards may be available as well as threats. Productivity is typically fair to good but at cost of considerable absenteeism and turnover	Weaker version of 'rational - economic man'
3. Consultative where goals are set or orders issued after discussion with subordinates, where communication is upwards and downwards and where teamwork is encouraged, at least partially. Some involvement of employees as a motivator	'social man'
4. Participative - group is reckoned by many to be the ideal system. Under this system, the keynote is participation, leading to commitment to the organisation's goals in a fully co-operative way. Communication is both upwards, downwards and lateral. Motivation is obtained by a variety of means. Productivity is excellent and absenteeism and turnover are low	Self - actualising man (see also McGregor: theory Y)

Another useful way of looking at this is that (1) is a highly task-orientated management style, whereas (4) is a highly people-orientated management style.

Advantages

Essentially Likert's work gives more alternatives in the spectrum between Theory X and Theory Y of McGregor

Disadvantage

- criticised for being based more on theory than empirical practice. Therefore not widely accepted by practising managers.

Argyris

Studied the needs of people and the needs of organisation. He felt that classical models of organisation promoted 'immaturity' (see below). He felt that it was important to understand the needs of people and integrate them with needs of organisation. Only in this way, he said, can employees become co-operative rather than defensive or aggressive

Characteristics of Immaturity	Employee Maturity
Passivity	Activity
Dependence	Relative independence
Behave in a few ways	Behave in many ways
Erratic, shallow interests	Deeper interests
Short time perspective	Long time perspective
Subordinate position	Equal or superior position
Lack of awareness of self	Awareness and self control

Advantages

- Argyris is moving here towards a 'contingency approach' i.e. remedy depends on diagnosing problems first
- He presents a spectrum rather than bipolar patterns of employees behaviour could be expected from immaturity to maturity. Certain behaviours of employees may be preferred

Disadvantages

- Still too centred around 'self -actualising man'. Viewed not to be applicable to production lines with manual workers, workers in sterile supplies, people manning phone helplines etc whose needs are perceived to be typically lower in Maslow's hierarchy of needs

4.System Theories

Attention began to focus on organisations as 'systems' with a number of inter-related sub-systems. The 'systems approach' attempted to synthesise the classical approaches ('organisations without people') with the later human relations approaches that focused on the psychological and social aspects, emphasised human needs - almost 'people without organisations'.

Systems theory focuses on *complexity* and interdependence of relationships. A system is composed of regularly interacting or interdependent groups of activities/parts that form the emergent whole.

Part of systems theory, *system dynamics* is a method for understanding the dynamic behaviour of complex systems. The basis of the method is the recognition that the structure of any system -- the many circular, interlocking, sometimes time-delayed relationships among its components -- is often just as important in determining its behaviour as the individual components themselves.

Early systems theorists aimed at finding a general systems theory that could explain all systems in all fields of science. The term goes back to Bertalanffy's basic work 'General Systems Theory'. Sociologists like Niklas Luhmann also worked towards a general systems theory. As of today, whilst no systems theory can live up to this claim, there are general system principles which are found in all systems. For example, every system is an interaction of elements manifesting as a whole. Miller and Rice likened the commercial and industrial organisation to biological organisms.

Systems theories took much more of an holistic view of organisations, focusing on the *total* work organisation and the inter-relationships between structures and human behaviours producing a wide range of variables within organisations. They help us understand the interactions between individuals, groups, organizations, communities, larger social systems, & their environments and help us enhance our understanding of how human behaviour operates in a *context*.

A system is a *part*, and it is a *whole*, at the same time.

An example of this in the Modern NHS is care pathways for patients which will often require a range of health disciplines to work together and will often also include professionals from social services or the local authority as well.

System Theory Key Terms:

Boundary - an imaginary line around system of focus. Regulates flow of energy (e.g. information, resources) into & out of the system.

Focal system - the system on which you are concentrating at any given time (eg: a manufacturing plant or a family).

Subsystem - a part of the focal system (e.g., in a family, it may be children or parents) , sometimes referred to as 'sibling subsystem' & 'parental subsystem').

Suprasystem - is external to focal system; it is its environment. May include place of employment, school, neighbourhood, church, social service system.

Open system - Relatively open systems have a freer exchange of information and resources within the system and also allow relatively free passage of energy from and to the outside of the system.

Closed system - is more self-contained & isolated from their environment.

The business organisation is an Open System: there is continual interaction with the broader external environment of which it forms a part, The systems approach considers the organisation within its total environment and emphasises the importance of 'multiple channels of interaction'. Thus the systems approach views organisations as a whole and involves the study of the organisation in terms of the relationship between technical and social variables with the systems. Thus changes in one part, technical or social, will affect other parts and therefore the whole system.

It was Trist and others at the Tavistock Institute of Human relations who focused in on socio-technical systems arising from their study of the effects of changing technology in the coal-mining industries in the 1940s.

The following Timeline gives an interesting perspective to the development of Systems Theory:

- 1950 General Systems Theory (founded by Ludwig von Bertalanffy)
- 1960 cybernetics (W. Ross Ashby, Norbert Wiener) Mathematical theory of the communication and control of systems through regulatory feedback. Closely related: "*control theory*"
- 1970 catastrophe theory (René Thom, E.C. Zeeman) Branch of mathematics that deals with bifurcations in dynamical systems, classifies phenomena characterized by sudden shifts in behavior arising from small changes in circumstances.
- 1980 chaos theory (David Ruelle, Edward Lorenz, Mitchell Feigenbaum, Steve Smale, James A. Yorke) Mathematical theory of nonlinear dynamical systems that describes bifurcations, strange attractors, and chaotic motions.
- 1990 complex adaptive systems (CAS) (John H. Holland, Murray Gell-Mann, Harold Morowitz, W. Brian Arthur,). The "new" science of complexity which describes emergence, adaptation and self-organization, all of which are basic system principles, was established mainly by researchers of the Santa Fe Institute (SFI). It is based on agents and computer simulations and includes multi-agent systems (MAS) which have become an important tool to study social and complex systems. CAS are still an active field of research.

Tavistock Institute of Human Relations

- organisation is an 'open system' with environment
- organisations are complex systems of people, task, technology
- technological environmental factors are just as important as social/psychological

Contingency Theories

From the late 1950s, a new approach to organisation theory was developed which became known as contingency theory. This theory argues that there is no 'one best way' to structure an organisation. An organisation will face a range of choices when determining how it should be structured, how it should be organised, how it should be managed. Successful organisations adopt structures that are an appropriate response to a number of variables, or contingencies, which influence both the needs of the organisation and how it works.

- these theories take a comprehensive view of people in organisations
 - they recommend a diagnosis of people/ task/ technology/environment
- then suggest the development of appropriate solutions

1. Pugh (UK)
2. Burns and Stalker (UK)
3. Lawrence / Lorsch (USA)

Contingency theorists have found that three contingencies are particularly important in influencing an organisation's structure. These are:

- its size
- the technology it uses
- its operating environment.

There are two significant implications of contingency theory:

- if there is no 'one best way', then even apparently quite similar organisations, for example, two nearby colleges, may choose significantly different structures and still survive, be reasonably successful in achieving their missions, and so on
- if different parts of the same organisation are influenced in different ways by the contingencies bearing upon them, then it may be appropriate for them to be structured differently, for example, one university department may have a functional structure, whilst another may have a matrix structure

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2-Theme. The Manager's job Plan

- 1.The Manager's job
- 2.Management functions
- 3.Management roles
- 4.Management skills

1.The Manager's job

The job of a manager is extremely difficult to describe. Job descriptions exist, and all will be different.

One of the major challenges for managers is exactly what is outlined above with Tasneem - the job is fragmented and constantly changing, even as the day progresses. Planning can be difficult with so many interruptions. As shown with Tasneem's day, it can be difficult to get done what needs to get done. On top of that, if the manager is "fighting fires" and dealing with crises and unforeseen events, then getting tasks done becomes even more of a problem.

The job description for a manager also changes depending on what industry they are in, what type of "organizational culture" they are part of and whether they are junior or senior in the organization. It can also depend on factors including how the manager gets rewarded, their own personality and whether they work in a for-profit or not-for-profit organization.

The term "manager" can be used in relation to all the various levels of management in the company. Most of the time, the term "manager" is used to

describe someone who supervises others. Some examples of manager job titles are:

- Team or area leader
- Front-line supervisor
- Mid-level manager
- Department head
- Vice-President
- President
- Officer, Chief Officer
- Managing Director
- Deputy Officer

If we look at the question, “what does a manager do?” the answer is not straightforward!

2. Management functions

Managers are involved in four main functions that form the basis of this text. These functions are planning, organizing, leading and controlling.

Planning - managers have to plan what they want to accomplish and develop specific actions in order to reach those goals.

Organizing - managers must figure out how many people are needed to get the jobs and tasks done. They also determine how the job flow happens (who does what). Generally, we talk about what kind of structure will be put in place to get these tasks done.

Leading - managers must supervise, lead, motivate, train, coach, guide, hire and assess employees. There are a lot of ways that these can be done.

Controlling - managers must monitor what’s going on in their area, to make sure that the goals or objectives are going to be met. If the goals are not going to be met, then corrective action can be taken. The earlier the corrective action is taken, the easier it is to correct.

3. Management roles

One of the most important pieces of research into the job of a manager comes from Henry Mintzberg. He is a Canadian academic and researcher who has studied management for years. He believes that a manager’s work is never really done!

He was the person who categorized the various roles that a manager plays in the organization. The following chart outlines Mintzberg’s categories and roles. It also gives brief examples of the roles.

When looking at the roles in the chart, you can see that Tasneem, in her one day outlined above, acted in almost all of those roles. If we describe the manager as wearing different “hats” representing the different roles they are doing, then we can see that Tasneem has indeed worn many hats during the day.

Different levels of managers will play these roles to a different extent. For instance, a front-line (junior) supervisor will likely be a resource allocator and a disturbance handler to a far greater extent than they will act as a figurehead. A Chief Executive Officer likely will act as a spokesperson and perhaps an entrepreneur more than they will act as a monitor.

4. Management skills

Management texts talk about different skills needed to be a manager. The skills are conceptual, technical and human skills.

Conceptual - be able to see the “big picture” of the situation. Ability to arrive at ideas, create a vision and plan for the future.

Technical - possess specific knowledge or have a specialized expertise.

Human - be able to work well with others both individually and in a group setting.

According to management writings, all managers need to have all three skills, but they need them in different amounts, depending on their position in the organization. So, for instance, a senior level manager will need to have and use more conceptual skills, while a lower level manager will likely use more technical skills. All levels will use human skills.

Mintzberg's roles of the manager

Category	Role	Activity
Informational	Monitor	Look for and receive information, review papers and reports, maintain interpersonal contacts and
	Disseminator	Pass information on to others by phone, in
	Spokesperson	Represent the area or organization to people outside the area or organization in speeches and reports. Deal with the media. Make presentations
Interpersonal	Figurehead	Perform ceremonial and symbolic duties inside the organization, receive visitors. Give
	Leader	Supervise direct subordinates, including recruiting, selecting, motivating, training and leading them.
	Liaison	Be the conduit (the in-between person) for information flowing in and out of the organization.
Decisional	Entrepreneur	Initiate change. Plan new projects, spot opportunities, identify areas of business
	Disturbance handler	Take corrective action during crises or operational breakdowns, resolve conflicts amongst staff, adapt
	Resource allocator	Decide who gets resources, sets the schedule, budget, set priorities
	Negotiator	Represent department during negotiations with unions, suppliers, and generally defend interests.

The roles of a manager or supervisor in the not-for profit organization are in large part very similar to those described above. Two additional challenges exist in the not-for-profit organization. One is that they deal with volunteers who contribute their work to the organization. This generally is not something that occurs in a for-profit organization. It requires different management skills to utilize

and recognize volunteer contributions of time, energy and task performance. The second challenge is that the funding in a not-for-profit comes from very different sources than a for-profit. In a for-profit company, revenue comes from sales of a good or a service. In the not-for-profit world, revenue comes in as a result of fund-raising and/or it comes from government sources or other funding groups. Generating revenue in this way requires unique skills in order to organize events to solicit money and requires talent and time to liaise with government or funding groups and write proposals to raise both on-going and project funding.

Questions for the manager's job:

1. Review the management functions, roles and skills. Which ones can you apply to Tasneem at Calm Seas?
2. Review the management functions, roles and skills. Relate these to a manager you know.
3. Review the management functions, roles and skills. Which ones are skills that you have? Which ones do you need to work on?
4. Do you agree that “a manager is responsible for the application and performance of knowledge” as Drucker says? Why or why not?
5. Do you think that management functions, roles and skills are different depending on the industry? Give some examples.
6. When you examine the management functions, roles and skills of a manager in a not-for-profit organization, how would they differ from a manager in a for-profit organization?

3-Theme. Planning in the organization.

Plan

1. Planning in the organization
2. Strategic planning process
3. SWOT analysis
4. Factors outside the organization
5. Action/implementation plan

1. Planning in the organization

The successful organization is one that has a clear plan. The plan clarifies to both employees working in the organization and to those dealing with the organization, what it is that the company is doing and where they are headed.

What this illustrates is that the plan can also help the employees make decisions in the company. If we look at the example of Calm Seas, above, we see that they have decided to *not* pursue making river, foldable or inflatable kayaks. This is not based on a whim nor is it simply a reflection of the preferences of senior management. This is based on a variety of factors that include an analysis of the market, predicting what the consumer will want and figuring out the strengths of Calm Seas, among other factors. These decisions reflect careful planning on the

part of Calm Seas.

So if, for instance, a salesperson at Calm Seas were to receive a request from a distributor that wanted to order river kayaks, that salesperson would be able to tell the distributor that Calm Seas does not make river kayaks and has no immediate plans to do so. Calm Seas has carved out a market for themselves in the ocean kayak area and that is the area in which they will specialize. They will leave the manufacturing of those other kayaks to other manufacturers.

Competitive advantage

Every company needs to figure out their own unique competitive advantage. What is it that makes the organization “better” than the others in the same industry or category? If the answer is “nothing”, then why does the organization exist? Should the organization exist if what it is producing or doing is not in some way “better” than the competition? Generally, in our capitalist and market-driven economies, the organizations that are successful are those that have figured out their competitive advantage.

“Better” can be defined in a number of different ways. Better could be:

- faster
- bigger
- cheaper
- stronger
- more luxurious
- locally produced or locally sourced suppliers
- sustainable
- customer-oriented
- providing unique employment (the organization perhaps employs recently-released jail inmates or people with developmental challenges in order to give them employment and job skills).

2.Strategic planning process

Let’s take an example from a non-organization setting. Let’s say you and your family want to go away for a holiday. First you have to figure out what everyone wants to do on the holidays and where you want to go. Members of the family will examine a number of factors including investigating accessibility of the location, time available, family budget, possibly sales for destinations that are of interest and features of different locations. Once they have done that, they will decide where they want to go. Once they know where they want to go, they have to decide how they are going to make it happen.

The first decision is the “big”, overall decision - the destination or end goal. The second set of decisions is more technical, or detailed. How are those goals going to be met? Exactly how is the family going to get to that destination? Are they going to drive, take the train or bus? When are they going to leave and return? How many bags can they take with them? What will they take with them? There are a lot of detailed decisions to be made!

The second set of decisions can ONLY be made once the “big” decision is made. The family can’t decide what method of transportation they will use if they

don't know where they are going. The end goal has to be decided and agreed on before the family can make any further decisions. There is no point bringing snorkeling equipment if the family ends up going hiking in the Alps.

The process for the organization is very similar. The "big" decision is the organization's strategic decision. What are they doing? Who are they? The second set of decisions involve operational or tactical decisions. Once they decide what it is that they want to do, they then decide how they are going to get there.

Usually, this involves the senior managers of the organization, although the employees could all be involved in the discussions.

3.SWOT analysis

The particular process that is commonly used at the beginning of strategic planning is an analysis of the company's

Strengths

Weaknesses

Opportunities

Threats

also known as a SWOT analysis.

This analysis on the part of the organization can take months for very large organizations - in fact, sometimes it may feel as though one round of planning has just finished when the next one begins! For smaller organizations, it can take only a few hours.

It is sometimes useful to have an outside consultant or facilitator help with the SWOT analysis because the analysis requires the participants to be truly objective as they complete the factors that will go into each category. This can sometimes be difficult for people inside the organization to do.

Stakeholders

An important concept in conducting strategic planning is to determine what the stakeholder groups are that have an impact on the organization. Once those stakeholder groups are determined, then the organization can figure out how the stakeholder group might exert its influence and how important this influence is on the organization.

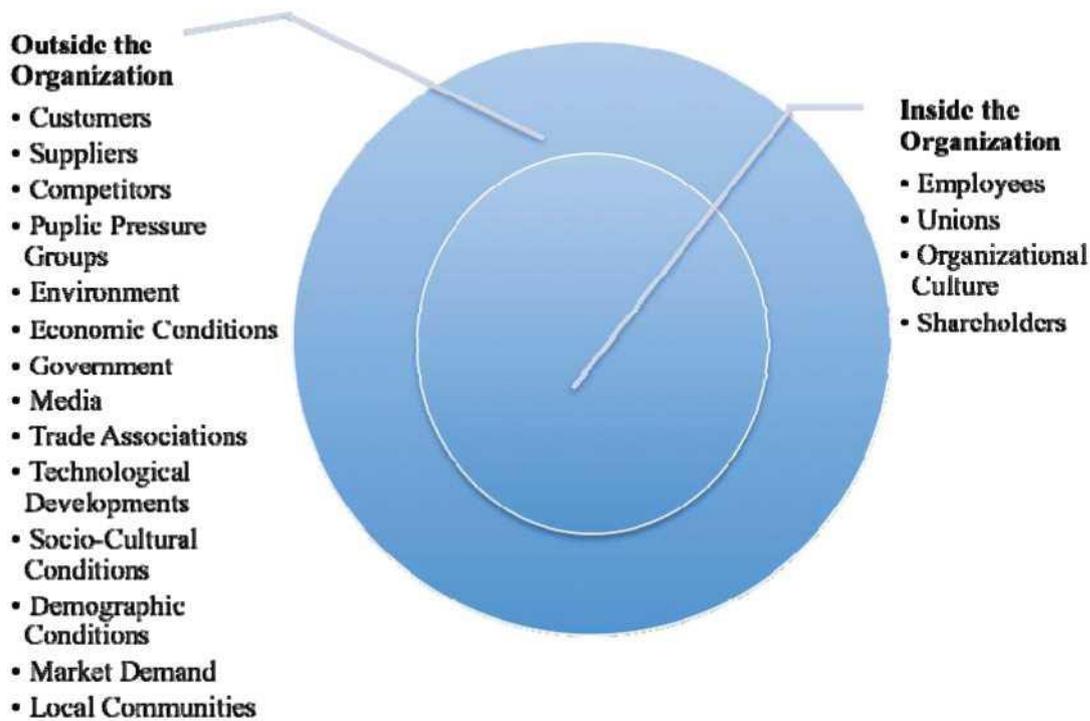


Figure. Stakeholder diagram

Strengths and Weaknesses

These points are factors that exist *within* the organization. So, for instance, if the organization is really good at research, that would be listed as a strength. If they aren't very good at product design, that would be listed as a weakness.

The strengths tend to be easier to list than the weaknesses. Everyone wants to claim they contribute to the strengths of the organization.

However, the head of a department is not likely going to want something that is the responsibility of that department to be listed as a weakness. Using our example here, the department head of product design will not want "product design" listed as one of the organization's weaknesses. Neither will the employees in that department. It doesn't look good for the design department! However, in order to deal with that weakness, it must be identified. In this way, the organization can tackle that weakness. This could provoke a number of responses ranging from investing more money into technology and/or salaries in the design area, to contracting out the design function to another company.

4. Factors outside the organization

Threats and Opportunities

In this section, the factors that exist outside of the organization are examined.

Factors that should be considered exist in the external environment (think of all external stakeholders). Refer back to the stakeholder diagram above.

The confusing term here is the word "opportunity". In every-day language, this is usually interpreted as "what could/should the organization do?" However, in strategic planning, the term refers to those factors that exist outside the organization that are favourable to the organization. So for instance, we might say

that there is a research report that forecasts an increase in interest in the general population to be involved in ocean kayaking. If you are an ocean kayaking company, this would definitely be listed as an opportunity. That company may be able to do something with that specific piece of information.

The threats are those factors outside the organization that are not good news for the company. For instance, if the government is going to introduce legislation that will increase the need for pollution control devices that the organization does not presently have, this will likely be a threat. This will increase the operating costs for the company.

What the company chooses to do with that information depends on what gets stated in the other categories. What is important to realize is that potential future directions for the organization are not identified at this stage - that comes a bit later.

Now, we want to marry the strengths with the opportunities. We also want to either minimize or somehow face and deal with the weaknesses and the threats.

Inside the organization	Outside the organization
Strengths	Opportunities
Weaknesses	Threats

Once the SWOT is concluded, there are four strategies to choose from in order to guide future directions:

- 1) Growth
- 2) Stability
- 3) Retrenchment
- 4) Combination

The names are pretty representative of the strategy.

Growth means exactly that - the organization is going to grow in some way. This includes decisions such as adding a product line, expanding to another country, buying another company or increasing investment in green energy.

A stability strategy means that the company is going to maintain the status quo. They are going to continue what they have been doing up until now. Nothing is going to change. No increase in production, no new markets, no growth in number of employees.

A combination strategy is more common with a large, multi-divisional company. With a combination strategy, one division of the company will pursue one strategy while another division follows another strategy. So for example, one division may withdraw from a geographic area where they are operating in order for another division to expand production to meet increased demand for the product.

The strategies outlined at this point flow directly out of the SWOT analysis. Done correctly, the strategies and the SWOT analysis form a great package. Everything becomes linked and the strategies come out of the factors in the SWOT. For instance, if a strategy is to develop a communications plan, then the

lack of a communications plan should have been mentioned in the SWOT.

Example

Let’s say a company has a strength in developing new products (strength). They also identify that there is an increase in demand forecasted for their product (opportunity). Their competition also does not have the capability to meet this demand (another opportunity). The company though does not have a strong advertising ability (weakness). And there may be a lack of skilled workers in their area (threat).

Given this example, the company would probably adopt a growth strategy. They might develop some new products (combine their strength and opportunities), cross-train their present employees (deal with the external threat) and hire some advertising people to increase their advertising of the new products (overcoming their weakness).

5.Action/implementation plan

The questions that get asked here are “how are we going to get there?”, “what do we have to do to get there?” and “who is going to do what?” In other words, we start to develop the specific action plan to reach the strategic goals established. Issues such as structure, staffing, monetary needs, funding, timetable, specific responsibilities and measurement tools can be addressed.

Example of action plan

Using the example from the previous section, here is a sample of their action plan

What?	Who?	How?/When?
Develop new products. Specific goal - develop one new product by the end of six months.	Representatives from design, manufacturing and sales department form a team to determine market needs and manufacturing capability.	Prototype presented to management by the end of four months for approval. Production in place at the end of six months.
Cross-train present employees.	HR Administrator	Training plan presented to management by the end of one month. Training started in six weeks and completed by the end of three months.

That’s the strategic planning process. The organization has figured out what’s going on in their environment and can now move forward with specific action plans that should give them a competitive advantage in the market. As long as they also fulfill the other management functions well, they will be much better positioned to succeed.

Not-for-profit note

Again, strategic planning for the not-for-profit sector follows exactly the

same steps. This sector clearly has additional and different factors that they will consider that are not present in the for-profit organization - searching for and managing volunteers and dealing with multiple and often-changing funding sources come to mind.

An issue that is discussed more commonly today in the not-for-profit sector as it relates to strategic planning centres on the topic of “competitive advantage”. Competitive advantage is a term that has arisen from the for-profit sector and can sometimes be a concept that may not fit the outlook of those in the not-for-profit area.

However, with government funding changing and in many cases decreasing, the not-for-profit sector is now looking at creating strategic alliances with the for-profit sector. This has given rise to many ethical debates that we won’t deal with here. The reality is that the not-for-profit sector is adopting more of the for-profit language and sensibilities.

Many in the not-for-profit sector do not perceive themselves to be in competition with other organizations in the sector that are doing similar work. Specifying what their competitive advantage is, describing how they are “better” than others in the sector, is sometimes a concept that does not come easily. If they are going to partner or create an alliance with the for-profit sector, these are both concepts and language that the not-for-profit sector must adopt. This may be a challenge that the not-for-profit sector must address in their strategic planning process.

Questions for organizational planning section:

1. One of the important factors to examine in planning is demographics. Go to this other on-line resource to look at demographic factors. How do you see these demographic changes impacting your work environment?
2. Using the demographic information from the previous question, conduct a strategic planning analysis for Calm Seas. Figure out the SWOT, grand strategy, mission statement and possible action plans. What is their competitive advantage? Who are their stakeholders?
3. Find other examples of mission statements. Are they clear? Do you understand what the company does as a result of reading the mission statement? Would these statements provide guidance to decision-making in the organization?
4. There is a lot of writing and research about the topic of “competitive advantage.” Look up current business articles that deal with this subject. How does it relate to organizational planning?
5. Popular topics today relate to the concepts of “corporate social responsibility” and “business ethics”. Research what these concepts refer to, why they are being discussed and what companies are doing about them.
6. Find a local not-for-profit organization. Conduct a strategic planning analysis for this organization. How is this process different from the analysis of the for-profit organization?

3-Theme Organizing the organization

Plan

- 1.Organizing the organization
- 2.Bureaucracy
- 3.Functional structure
- 4.The rise of the "group" structure

1.Organizing the organization

Structure follows strategy

Decision-makers in the organization have to ask themselves a number of questions:

- What kind of structure should be put in place?
- How do they want to get the work done?
- What about the idea of centralization vs. decentralization?
- How do we handle authority and responsibility?

Most organizations today in North America are structured using a “bureaucracy”. This is an ancient structure, dating as far back as Julius Caesar. It has a military background. The organization does not have to be structured using bureaucratic principles. There are a number of inherent drawbacks to bureaucracies that good organizations have learned how to minimize in order to function effectively.

There are other options. However, the next section will talk about bureaucracies, how they work and what they mean. Many companies are structured along bureaucratic lines, so it is important to know what they are all about.

2.Bureaucracy

It is the bureaucratic organization that looks like a pyramid - one person at the top, a lot at the bottom and layers of middle management. This sounds as though it exists only in large organizations. However, a bureaucracy can exist in an organization that has, for example, 10 people. When we use the word bureaucracy, we are referring to the structure used.

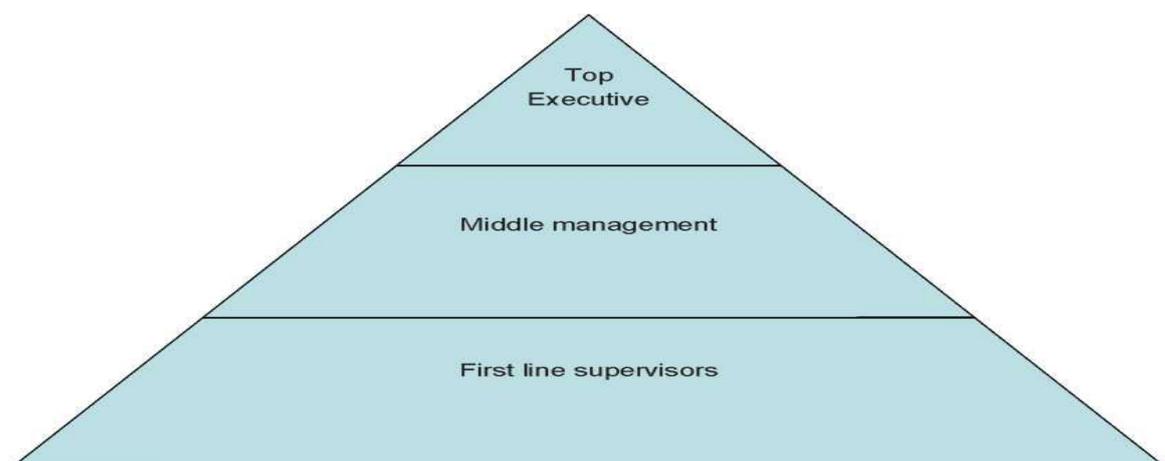


Figure. Basic bureaucratic structure

Authority - staff and line

There are two concepts related to “authority” within a bureaucracy. There is both line authority and staff authority in a bureaucracy.

It is easier to talk about some departments as line departments and some as staff departments. The people in a line department are called line employees and the people in the staff departments are staff employees. They have different roles and authority.

Line departments/line authority

To take a manufacturing company as an example, there are 3 absolutely essential functions that must exist in this company. These three are manufacturing, sales and finance. The company cannot exist without these functions. These departments are the ones that directly make money for the organization. These are the line departments.

In using the example in the preceding paragraph, we need to define some terms. “Manufacturing” refers to the area that makes the product. This area could also be labeled operations or production.

“Sales” refers to the area that directly sells the product to the end customer. In this way, this is the area that brings money into the company. If sales and marketing are separate areas, then sales is a line function and marketing is not. Marketing is the area that comes up with ideas (like new packaging or advertising) that help the sales area to sell the product. They are auxiliary to the sales function.

“Finance” is also distinct from accounting. Finance is the function that manages the money in the organization. They would be involved in activities such as raising money through going onto the stock market or acquiring debt or examining and approving capital expenditures (buying a new plant or expanding into another country). Accounting is the function that keeps track of the revenue and expenditures.

Staff departments/staff authority

The other departments in this company are nice to have, and they presumably support the activities of these line functions. However, they are not absolutely essential. These are staff departments. The role of these staff departments is to advise, counsel and assist the line departments to do their jobs.

Staff departments work by influencing the people in the line departments - as such then, the staff employees should have no power, except for activities in their own departments. Who are these staff departments? These would be anything other than the 3 line departments listed above. So, for instance. Human Resources, Accounting, Marketing, Public Relations, Engineering, Event Planning, would all be examples of staff departments. There are lots of others.

Let’s take an example of the Human Resource (HR) department. Their role is to help the managers and employees in the line departments in Human Resource activities. So let’s say that the manager of Manufacturing has a vacant position that needs to be filled. The Human Resource department will help to create the job description, advertise the position, receive all of the resumes and phone calls and do the preliminary interviews to screen the applicants. They will then refer perhaps the 3 “best” applicants to the Manager of Manufacturing, who then interviews

these three. The final hiring decision should be made by the Manager of Manufacturing, since the Manager of Manufacturing has to, in essence, “live” with this person. The HR department helps the Manager of Manufacturing to fill the vacancy. However, the HR department should not make the final hiring decision. If they do, then the HR department has assumed line authority, which they should not have. If the HR department makes the final hiring decision and assumes line authority, then the organization will have a whole pile of problems.

So the HR department has staff authority. They do not have the same type of power that a line department has. The line departments do not have to accept the advice offered by a staff department. The staff employees must use influence, created by their expertise and personal credibility, to help the line employees. If there was a budget cut, the company could fire the entire HR department. To use the above example, the Manager of Manufacturing would simply do all of the activities connected with filling their vacancy. It simply would not make sense for the company to keep the HR employees (because they are doing an important job) and fire manufacturing employees in a budget cut decision.

Bureaucratic structures

There are 4 bureaucratic structures we could put in place. Each of these structures has their pros and cons. The organization must choose which one of these structures would best suit their purpose or best accomplish their strategic plan. What we will show in the following examples is just the top level of the organization. There will be many positions (people) that report to these Vice-Presidents, but for simplicity’s sake, only that top level will be shown.

Let’s assume we are dealing with a manufacturing company that makes toys, baby furniture and children’s clothes. They make high-end products that they sell through their own retail outlets and they make discount brands that they sell to mass-market distributors around the world.

What we will see in the following pages is that this company could be structured in a variety of ways.

3.Functional structure

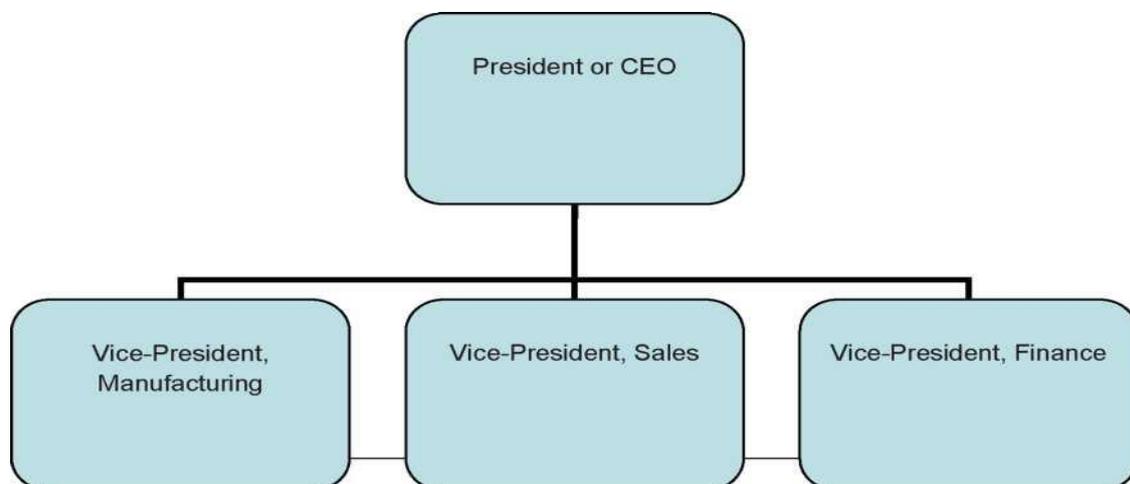


Figure.

In this structure, we have the three line functions of manufacturing, sales and finance represented. They are all shown to be at the same level because the positions are all Vice-Presidents.

If the company wanted to have a Vice-President of Human Resources for instance, they could choose to do that because Human Resources would represent another function in the organization. If they do, then that position would show up as a fourth box on the same level as the other boxes.

In this structure, we would read into it that the manufacturing process all happens under one roof, in one location. The company looks like they make all of the products in one location. For our manufacturing company example, this would be quite unusual.

Advantages of the functional structure

- Easy to understand
- Can be used in any sized organization
- Responsibilities are clearly defined
- Can be expanded to include other functional areas (legal, HR, PR, etc)

Disadvantages of the functional structure

- Won't be able to figure out which products are profitable, since they are all lumped together.

- If the manufacturing is in one location, transportation and distribution costs could be high to get the product

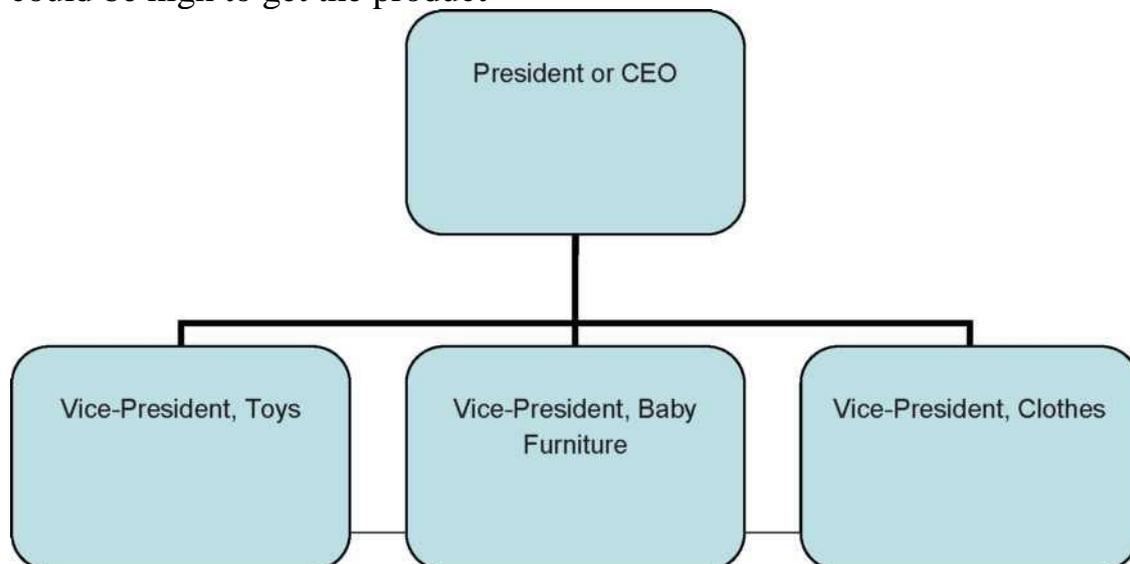


Figure.

In the product structure, each area then specializes in their particular product. Everyone who reported to the Vice-President of Toys, for instance would be involved in some aspect of toys - their manufacture, quality control, sales, marketing, etc.

This would be a good option for our fictional manufacturing company of toys and other goods.

Advantages of the product structure

- Employees in each division are specialists - they know their product from manufacturing to sales to accounting for it.

- Easy to see which product is profitable since each area will likely be set up as a profit centre.

- Can set up the different products in different geographic areas.

Disadvantages of the product structure

- Can only work in a large organization. Using this example, there will be a manufacturing department for the toy department, another one for the furniture department and yet another for the clothes department. Must have a large organization to sustain this.

Employees cannot easily move from one department to another since those departments are specialized and operate almost as completely separate divisions.

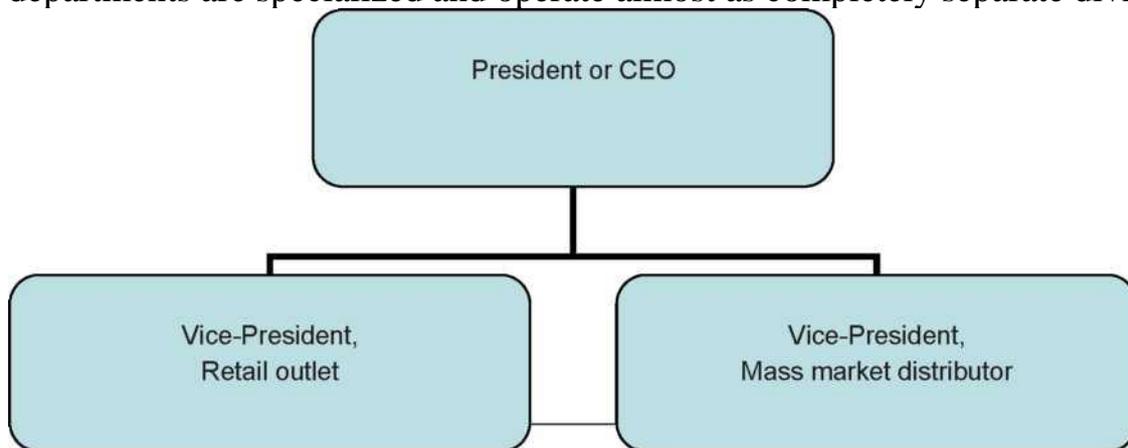


Figure.

This structure allows the organization to specialize their operations in a different way. In our example. they do make different products - the high end and the mass market products and they also sell them to different customers (retail outlet and distributor).

Advantages of the customer structure

- Customer-oriented structure. Most customer-focused structure to choose.

- Can change the product to suit the customer.

- Again, can see which line is profitable since they are set up as profit centres.

- Can set up divisions in different geographic areas.

Disadvantages of the customer structure

Need to have more than one product line, usually quite different products.

"Rules" of a bureaucracy

There are "rules" that employees must follow in the strict bureaucracy and are inherent in the structure of a bureaucracy:

1.Chain of command - this indicates who reports to who. In a strict bureaucracy, there is a rule that "you don't go over your bosses head." This has a profound impact on communication and decisionmaking.

2. Unity of command - an employee should have one and only one boss.

3. Span of control - refers to the number of employees a manager supervises. At the top of the organization, this number is small - around 3 - 8. As you go down in the organization, this number gets higher. A first-line supervisor could have a span of control of say, 50 in an assembly-line operation.

Centralized vs. decentralized

Bureaucracies have tended to be very centralized as opposed to decentralized, although this is not always the case. We would define an organization as being centralized if the decision-making is done by the person at the top and power and information is generally held by the person at the top. In a decentralized structure, the authority to make decisions and to act is delegated down to lower levels in the organization.

Disadvantages of a bureaucracy

While the bureaucracy has existed for years, is common and fairly easily understood, there are factors that exist within a bureaucracy that can make it cumbersome, unwieldy and sometimes downright dysfunctional.

When you look at the “rules” above, you can see the disadvantages popping out.

If there are lots of levels of management, there is a centralized decision-making style and an attitude that you don’t go over your bosses head, then that is an organization where communication and decisionmaking are slow. Not only are they slow, but since both the communication and the decisions have to go through many layers, there is a good chance that the message and the decision will either be lost or garbled.

Not only are these processes slow, but the organization will lack the ability to change quickly or to adapt to changes. There are too many layers to go through to get anything approved!

These problems exist not just from the viewpoint of communication and decision-making but also from the viewpoint of the new generation of employees coming up through the ranks. Older generations may have been more content to stay in their places and do their jobs, but the upcoming generations hold different values. This newer generation wants to contribute and tends to thrive on change and multitasking.

Changing the bureaucratic structure

Because of drawbacks to the bureaucratic structure, some of which are noted above, managers, leaders, consultants, academics and researchers have devised other ways of structuring the organization.

One of the first responses was to reduce many layers of middle management. If the organization could be “flattened”, so that there were not so many levels in between the top and the bottom of the organization, then the communication and decision-making problems outlined in the previous section here would be reduced. That seemed on the surface to be intuitively sensible.

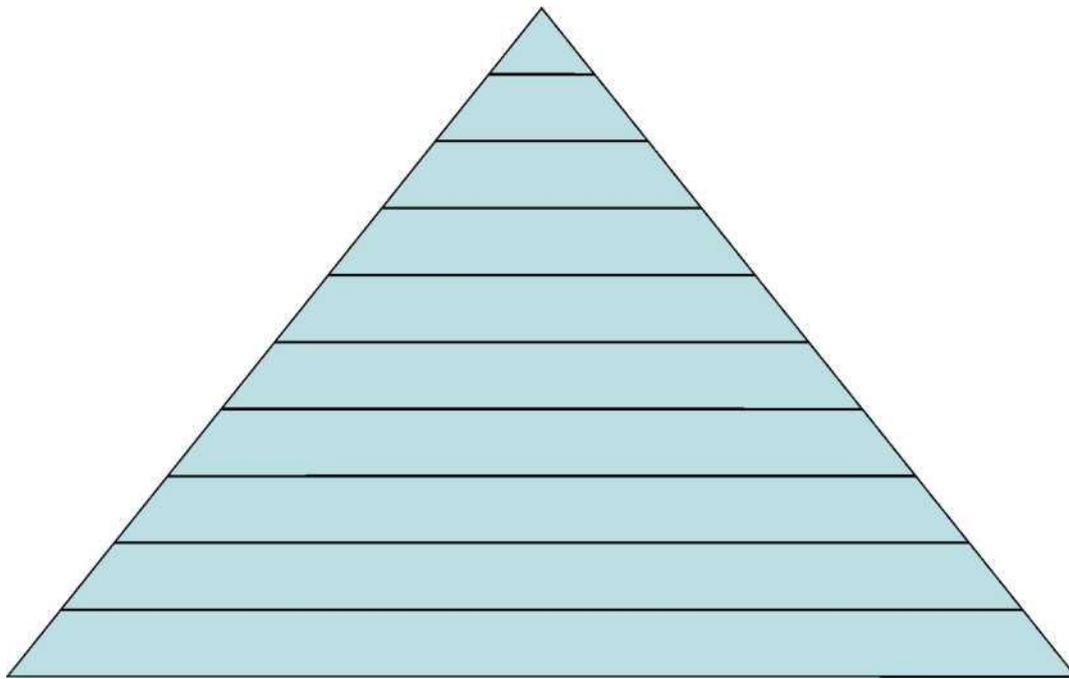


Figure.

4. The rise of the "group" structure

In addition to eliminating layers of middle management and delegating middle management roles to employees at lower levels, the idea of forming those lower levels into groups arose. What happens with this idea is that the groups become teams that “manage” sections of the work. If we look at our manufacturing example, the teams would not only manufacture the product, but would also confirm that there was enough raw material for their manufacturing, certify the quality of the end product, ensure that the members were doing their share of the work and check that enough product is made on schedule. These are the types of roles that middle managers used to do in the organization with many layers. The organization would look like this:

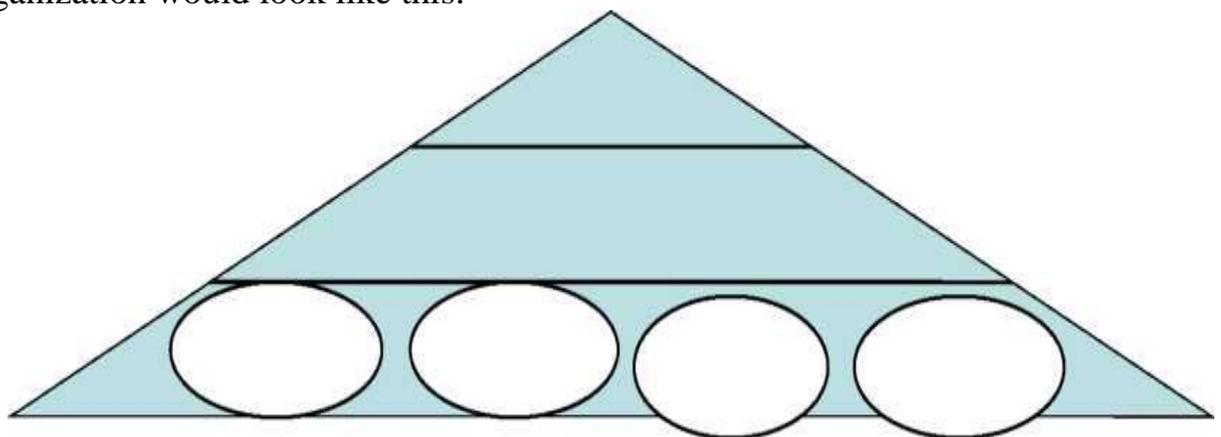


Figure 6.8

The remaining middle managers would act as co-coordinators between the groups. This would require more facilitation skills on the part of middle managers. The organization in this case also must train group members on group skills.

A checklist of group effectiveness is found at the end of this chapter.

Checklist for Team or Group Effectiveness

No clear idea of direction, confusion on goals	Goals and Directions	Purpose and direction well understood
0	5	10
Lack of agreement on goals, different directions in group		Strong agreement on goals, common direction accepted
0	5	10
Oppressive, doesn't want to be part of group negative atmosphere	Climate of Group Atmosphere	Exciting, congenial, people looking forward to group
0	5	10
Very low trust, highly suspicious	Trust Factors	High trust, acceptance of each other

Conflict

Not dealt with openly, repressed, in under-the-table group

Open discussion, managed order to use to help the

0 5 10

Time and material resources not used well, wasted and not managed

Resources Managed time and other resources well in order to get job done

0 5 10

No one felt they worked well or contributed

Members' Contribution Individuals felt like they "gave it their all"

0 5 10

No controls- just chaos, there is no agreed upon or accepted structure

Control and Structure Internal controls work well, structure is very appropriate

0 5 10

We don't accomplish anything we want to get done

Goal Accomplishments All of our goals were met

0	5	10
Very closed, secretive, guarded and cautious	Communications	Open, sharing, valid information shared
0	5	10
No one listens, can't hear anyone but self		Active listening and high interests in what others are

Questions for organizing section:

1. Examine all the bureaucratic structures. Which one would be best for Calm Seas?
2. Could Calm Seas use some type of group structure? If so, what would that look like? How would it be organized?
3. What structure exists in the company that you work for? Or study in?
4. There is a lot of material written about groups and teams in organizations. Do some research and find out what makes for successful groups in organizations.
5. If an organization wants to change from a structure with lots of layers to one that is more “flat”, they have to do more than just get rid of lots of middle managers. What other things would have to change?
6. When you look at the different generations that were described in the generations article mentioned earlier, what preference might each generation have for a centralized as opposed to a decentralized structure? Explain your answer

5-Theme. Leading in the organization

Plan

1. Leader vs. manager
2. Knowing what kind of manager/leader to be
3. Motivation Theories and Concepts
4. Good vs. bad bosses

In this section, some brief concepts surrounding leadership will be introduced. Since an important aspect of leadership is motivation, that topic will also be touched on.

1. Leader vs. manager

The first thing we have to do is to separate a “leader” from a “manager”. According to the Encarta Dictionary, a:

Manager is somebody who is responsible for directing and controlling the work and staff of a business, or of a department within it.

Leader is somebody whom people follow.

This is quite a difference. We have talked about managers up until now in this text. However, managers and leaders are different. We need managers but we are seeing an increasing need to have leaders.

Leadership theories

The chart and the accompanying description will combine a number of popular leadership theories. Boss Centered Subordinate Centered

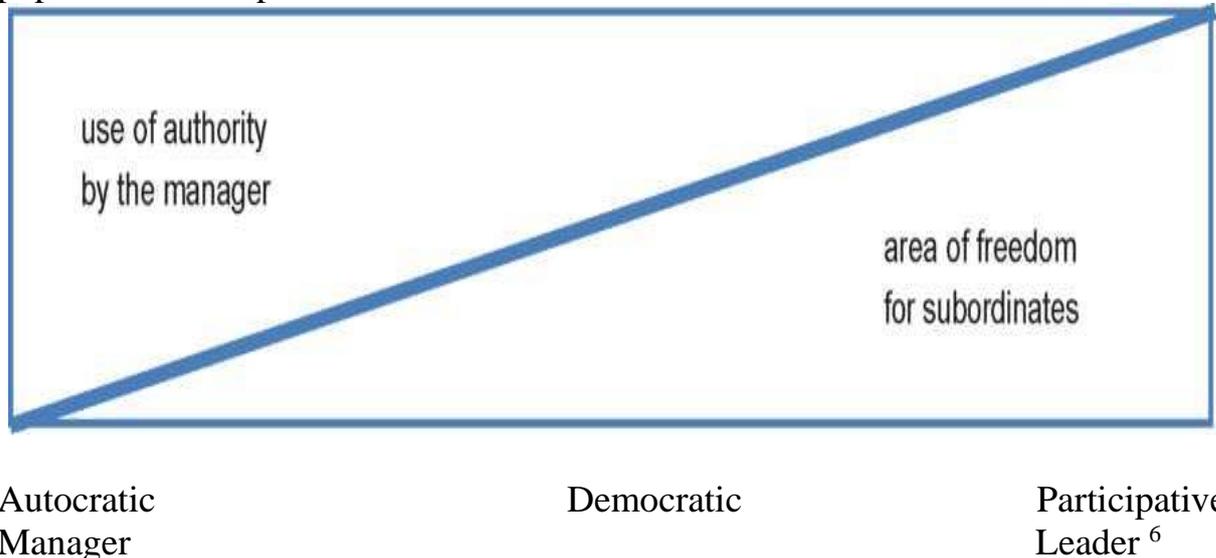


Figure.

If we look at the autocratic manager, that person will basically tell their employees what to do. As the chart indicates, the manager makes the decision and announces it. Input by employees is not sought and is not given. Power and authority rest with the manager. In this situation, the manager may also retain most of the information.

If we move to the right, part-way through the graph, we come to the democratic leader. As the chart indicates, the manager presents the problem, gets suggestions and then makes the decision. In this way, the manager is still retaining power and authority, especially because they see it as their role to make the final decision. However, this manager/leader will be far more likely to share information and actively solicit input.

On the far right of the diagram, we have the participative leader. This leader may let the individual or group make the decision and then simply inform the leader what that decision is. Another example would be the leader who participates with the group in arriving at a decision. In this case, the leader's opinion has no more weight than anyone else in the group.

One question that is often asked at this point is "what about the manager who asks for our opinions but doesn't really listen to what we have to say? What kind of manager are they?" My answer always is that this is a lousy manager who does not have any integrity. If the manager does not want to listen to the employees, then s/he shouldn't ask for employee input. Employees know when the manager doesn't really care for employees' opinions. This is one of the prime ways to destroy the relationship and trust between managers and employees.

This is different from soliciting input and then the manager choosing to do

something else. As long as the employees are listened to and their opinions truly considered, if the manager then chooses another option, the manager can still be described as democratic. The big difference comes down to listening.

The key to successful leadership today is influence, not authority.

Another interesting dynamic is the manager/leader who thinks they use one style but actually act another way. This generally happens with an autocratic manager who doesn't believe that they are autocratic.

After all, in today's business world, the description of the autocratic manager doesn't "sound" as good as the other styles. "Autocratic" itself is a term that does not sound positive. A manager can say that they have a democratic style and may believe that they are democratic managers but it's the actions that count. If they still behave in an autocratic manner, then they are autocratic.

2. Knowing what kind of manager/leader to be

This continuum chart above is also useful because it shows the variety of options for behaviour for the manager/leader. The smart manager/leader chooses which behaviour is best, given the variables of the situation. There is no one "right" style to use all the time

A manager/leader will generally operate and behave in a consistent manner. However, under different conditions or when something in the environment changes, it may be wise for the manager to use a different leadership style.⁷

For example, an autocratic style would often be wise to use:

- In a crisis or emergency
- When there is a legitimate, unforeseen rush needed for production
- Sometimes with untrained, unskilled employees

By contrast, a participative style would often be wise to use:

- When the outcome is more important to the employees than the leader
- When the employees know more about the issue than the leader
- When the employees can improve and develop their skills
- When lots of creativity is needed

Therefore, a good manager knows what the situation requires and will use the most appropriate style, given the particular situation. S/he may use one style in certain situations and another style in other situations.

3. Motivation Theories and Concepts

The Encarta dictionary says that motivate means "give somebody incentive" or "make somebody willing". This is a tall order for the leader/manager. The good leader/manager is one who can marshal the energies and enthusiasm of the employees so that they work in the desired direction and towards the goals of the leader and the organization. What the leader/manager wants is a group of employees who are productive and interested in contributing to the work.

Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation

One of the first distinctions to be made, which is a concept which also arises in some of the following motivation theories, is the distinction between intrinsic

and extrinsic motivation.

As the terms intrinsic and extrinsic suggest, intrinsic motivation is that motivation that comes from a source inside the individual, while extrinsic motivation is that motivation that comes from a source outside the individual.

We would describe someone as being intrinsically motivated if they derive their satisfaction from the knowledge of a job well done. Or they could derive a satisfaction from the challenge of the job. An extrinsically motivated person is one who wants something given to them as a reward. This reward for instance could be a cash reward, a prize of some sort or a medal.

This is not to say that the person who is intrinsically motivated does not also want or search for rewards. It's just that the externally granted reward will not motivate them if that is the only reward they get. The main source of their motivation comes from the internal source.

Content Theories of motivation

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs	<p>5 levels, physiological, security, social, esteem, self-actualization</p> <p>each level must be substantially satisfied before moving to the next</p> <p>refinements of Maslow's theory today include a recognition that individuals could be on more than one level at a time and that individuals could move up and down the hierarchy overnight.</p>
McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y	<p>actually defines how managers view employee motivation</p> <p>Theory X manager believes that employees need to be controlled, coerced and bribed.</p> <p>Theory Y manager believes that people are willing to work, are creative and independent and self directed when motivated properly.</p> <p>Concept of “self-fulfilling prophecy” may enter in here. If manager follows Theory Y beliefs, does that create Theory Y employees?</p>
Herzberg's Motivation Hygiene Theory	<p>hygiene factors are extrinsic to the work (work-environment, relationship with peers, supervisor, and salary). If absent, result is dissatisfaction; if present, result is neutrality.</p> <p>job satisfiers are intrinsic to the work itself (achievement, recognition, nature of the work, responsibility). If absent, effect is neutral; if present, result is motivation</p> <p>both hygiene and motivators must be present for motivation to occur. Can't have motivation if hygiene issues are not dealt with.</p>

Table.

Process Theories of motivation

Equity Theory	people compare their own input to their own perceived reward, then people compare their input and perceived rewards to one another perceived inequity negatively affects motivation
Expectancy Theory	the amount of motivation depends on the answers to the three questions: Will increased effort improve performance? Will increased performance be rewarded? Does the reward have value?

Expectancy Theory of Motivation explained in simple terms

The employee will ask themselves 3 sets of questions when asked to perform a task:

- Do I know what I am expected to do? Do I have the skills/resources necessary to do the job?
- Do I clearly know what I will get if I do the job?
- Do I value the reward?

This theory indicates that the employee must answer yes to all three sets of questions if the employee is to be positively motivated. Answering yes to two out of three isn't good enough and will not result in positive motivation. By contrast, answering no to one or more of these questions will bring motivation back to zero.

Equity Theory explained in simple terms

This theory says that the employee asks themselves these questions.

Internal Equity

- Does my reward (outcome) seem to make sense to me, given the effort (input) that I am required to make?

(If I get \$50 for doing a job that will take me all weekend to do, personally my answer to this question would be "no")

External Equity

- Given the reward I'm being offered for doing a certain job, does that make sense with the rewards other people are being given for the tasks they are being asked to do?

(I may think that being allowed to go to a local conference would be an OK reward for doing a certain task, until I find out that a colleague is being allowed to take an extra week's paid vacation for doing a "lesser" job).

The employee must feel there is equity in *both* of these dimensions in order

to be positively motivated.

There are numerous challenges for the manager with this theory. First, we are dealing here with “perception”. What does the employee perceive to be a “fair” situation? It is difficult for the manager to know this. What would be OK for one employee would not be OK for another.

The second challenge is to determine exactly who the employee is going to compare themselves to in external equity. Someone else in the same department? The same company? Someone they know in another company? Another industry?

A leader takes people where they want to go. A great leader takes people where they don't necessarily want to go but ought to be.

4. Good vs. bad bosses

Another article summarizes how employees view their bosses. In it, the employees described a good boss as:

- accessible
- supportive
- in tune with employees
- responsive

While a bad boss was:

- elitist
- condescending
- inconsistent
- dismissive

What's interesting is that these characteristics have been mentioned by all of the demographic groups. Every age group wants to see these good factors in their leaders and supervisors. These then are descriptors which form the template for action for the good manager.

Motivation summary

1. Know what your employees want and motivate them according to their needs.
2. Everyone is different.
3. Keep up-to-date on their needs.
4. Don't motivate them according to your needs.

Questions on leadership/motivation section:

1. What kind of leadership and motivation does Tasneem seem to be using now at Calm Seas? Is this appropriate? Why or why not? Should she change the leadership and motivation techniques? If so, how? Explain your answer.
2. Motivating the different generations on the workplace is one of the biggest challenges for managers. Review this resource for information on the different generations. <http://bookboon.com/int/business/hrm/generational-challenges-in-the-workplace>

How can managers and leaders know how to motivate these generations? Do they have to motivate these groups differently? Why or why not?

3. Go to the following link for an excellent 10-minute video on

motivation. <http://comment.rsablogs.org.uk/2010/04/08/rsa-animate-drive/>

What other insights about motivation do you get out of this video? How can you use this information?

4. Research the job design theory and the job characteristics model. Why are they placed in the motivation section? How can a leader put these concepts to use in the workplace?

5. The topic of “organizational culture” is often tied to the topics of leadership and motivation. Research this topic and explain how it ties in.

6-Theme Control in the organization

Plan

1.What does "control" mean?

2.What will we monitor?

3.Critical path planning

1.What does "control" mean?

One area of potential confusion about the purpose of the controlling function is the use of the word “control”. Control today often refers to the practice of closely supervising, being in charge or command of and having power over. As we saw in the previous section on leading, “being in command” and closely supervising are not as popular today for a number of reasons. And that isn’t what we mean when we talk about control in the organization.

We should instead think of the term “monitor” when we think of controlling in the organization. The question becomes, “what do we want to monitor?” Or, “what do we want and need to keep track of?”

What kinds of controls?

Most organizations know that they must have financial controls in place. These are widely accepted as being tools to decide on an organization’s financial health. Traditional financial control measures are ratios such as liquidity, leverage, activity and profitability - all of these are indicators of financial performance.

However, the organization must have more control mechanisms in place than just financial controls. We can see that the control function ties directly back to the planning function. It is only with a good, detailed and well-thought out plan that the organization can have a valid control function. The plan will guide the activities that need to be monitored.

So let’s go back to the action plan that we developed for our fictional manufacturing example in the planning section. The example we had in that section looked like this

What?	Who?	How?/When?
-------	------	------------

Develop new products. Specific goal - develop one new product by the end of six months.	Representatives from design, manufacturing and sales department form a team to determine market needs and manufacturing capability.	Prototype presented to management by the end of four months for approval. Production in place at the end of six months.
Cross-train employees.	HR Administrator	Training plan presented to management by the end of one month. Training started in six weeks and completed by the end of three months.

What we see is that the activities that will need to be monitored are those that are in the “how?/when?” column or the third column. We will be checking to see if the prototype is presented to management by the end of four months for approval and if production is in place at the end of six months. We will also be keeping track to see if the training plan was presented to management by the end of one month and the training program was started at the end of six weeks and completed by the end of three months.

In order to be proactive, the monitoring should be done constantly. If we use the above example, we should be communicating with the designers at the end of every month to see how much progress is being made in the design of the new models. For example, if the designers seem to be behind schedule at the end of one month, perhaps some corrective action can be put in place right away. Perhaps they need more people involved, more time during the workweek devoted to design or better technology to help with designing. Intervening at an early stage could keep the project on track so they accomplish what they want at the end of four months.

Measure what matters

The expression of “measure what matters” applies to the control function. The thinking here is that if some factor is important to the organization, then there must be a way of measuring that factor. In this way, the activity will be measured, monitored and put on the right track to achieving it.

For instance, if the organization says that they need to increase sales by 5% to sustain growth, then that is pretty simple to measure. However, if the organization says that their employees are important to them (which a lot of companies do), then the questions become “are you actually measuring this?” and “how are you going to measure it?” This measurement becomes trickier to figure out because it is not as straightforward as measuring sales increases.

In this case, there would probably have to be a couple of different measurement tools put in place. The organization could specify a retention or turnover rate that they want to achieve, in the thoughts that retention is an indicator of employee

satisfaction. Or they could set a target for satisfaction as indicated on an employee attitude survey.

2. What will we monitor?

The organization must look to their plan, their goals, their priorities, their values and culture to figure out what activities they will monitor. Here is a small sampling of possible goals and monitoring that could exist in an organization:

- Decreasing waste by-products in production
- Decreasing energy consumption in the plant
- Setting performance appraisal goals for each employee
- Shortening time between customer order placement and delivery of product
- Reducing time between interviewing and making hiring decision for employees.

Reducing response time between customer enquiry and sales staff filling orders

Flowcharting

Another method to make sure that production is going as planned is to create a flow chart. Also referred to as a flow sheet or a flow diagram, this is described as “a detailed diagram or chart of the operations and equipment through which material passes, as in a manufacturing process” or “a graphic representation, using symbols interconnected with lines, of the successive steps in a procedure or system.”

A flowcharting system can be useful to literally “map out” how a process is going to work. This ensures that the process is done efficiently and if there is a problem in the process, it becomes easier to see where that problem is. Once that problem or bottleneck is determined, it becomes relatively easy to fix.

Let’s look at the following example:

Sample Flowchart: Process for Shipping a Package

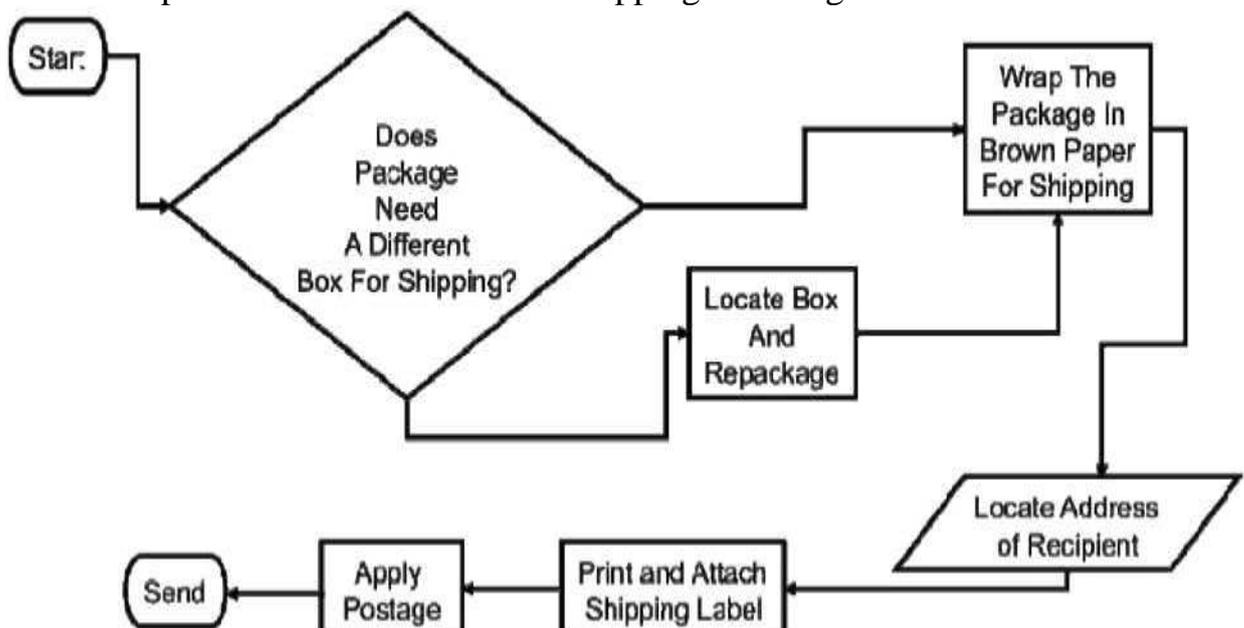


Figure.

3. Critical path planning

Critical path planning is another tool that outlines the specific tasks that comprise a project, lists them sequentially, puts a completion date for each task and assigns a person to the task. This ensures that everything is done so that the task is complete and responsibility is clearly outlined.

Fundraising Breakfast Tuesday, November 23, 2010			
Activity	Who	Deadline	Status
Budget			
Operating account	Stefanie	&N/A	
Sponsorship / Donors			
List of sponsors/donors to target. List to be reviewed prior to being distributed to the group. List to be sent out and divided amongst sub-committee members.	Marie & All	3-Sep-10	Complete
Donor brochure and Sponsorship brochure to be updated and distributed to all subcommittee members.	Stefanie	30-Jul-10	Complete
Coordinate revisions of content and printing of brochures	Marie	3-Sep-10	Complete
Planning			
Determine date	Veronique	N/A	Complete
Sub-committee members selected	Stefanie	27-Jul-10	Complete
Meet to initialize steps and get organized	All	27-Jul-10	Complete
Update website and e-vite design and content	Marie	8-Oct-10	Complete
Coordinate Program Brochure content and printing	Andrea & Stefanie	1-Nov-10	Complete
Coordinate thank you gifts for speakers	Marie	5-Nov-10	Complete
Logistics			
Develop a streamlined process for future years	Marie & Haddah	1-Dec-09	Complete

Signage	Marie & Haddah	1-Nov-10	Being printed
Name tags, registration, tent cards	Marie & Haddah	19-Nov-10	Being printed
Finalize registration set-up and volunteer roles	Haddah, Stefanie, Chelsey &	9-Nov-10	Complete
Marketing/Branding			
Website	Marie	8-Oct-10	Complete
Email Invites	Marie	19-Oct-10	Complete
Communicating with students & passing names of volunteers to Chelsey and Kristyn.	Haddah	29-Oct-10	Complete
Speakers / Program			
PowerPoint Presentation	Andrea	5-Nov-10	Complete
Determine make up of panel	All	27-Jul-10	Complete
Recruit three panel members		3-Sep-10	Complete
Lawyer	Raj Denman	6-Aug-10	Confirmed by
HR Practitioner	Kim Sykes	6-Aug-10	Confirmed by
Line Manager	Beverley	6-Aug-10	Confirmed by Alia
Co-hosts (Gord & Jim)	Veronique	3-Sep-10	Jim and Gord
Review event logistics with hosts	Alia	9-Nov-10	Complete
Review event logistics with hosts	Jim	23-Nov-	
Timing of program	All	5-Nov-10	Complete
Finalize draft program	Andrea &	1-Nov-10	Complete
Event location			
Event confirmation	Veronique	N/A	Complete
Breakfast details	Lindsay	1-Nov-10	Complete
Room set-up	Lindsay	1-Nov-10	Complete
Final headcount communicated	Lindsay	15-Nov-	Complete
Audio/Visual			
3-5 microphones, screen and media	Lindsay	1-Nov-10	Complete
Laptop	Stefanie or	1-Nov-10	Stefanie to
Remote to advance slides	Marie	23-Nov-	Marie to provide
Post-Event			
Post-event evaluation	Stefanie	3-Dec-10	
Thank you notes	Haddah	3-Dec-10	

Not-for-profit note

Controlling and monitoring in the not-for-profit area is equally important. Since many not-for-profits run on extremely tight budgets, being aware of potential deviations from the budget and taking immediate remedial action is crucial.

In the for-profit area, many organizations are using sophisticated (and

costly) computerized management information systems (MIS) to monitor and control costs. These can help enormously to keep track of costs and highlight deviations yet these systems can be beyond the budget of many not-for-profits. Therefore, the not-for-profit area may have to devote time, energy and resources to controlling of the important activities in their organizations.

Questions on the controlling function

1. What control measures should Tasneem put in place at Calm Seas?
2. Issues on the workplace today include monitoring of employee use of the internet at work and use of surveillance cameras to monitor employee behaviour at work. Employers can argue that these control methods are necessary. Employees can argue that these control methods are intrusive. Do you think these control measures are necessary? Why or why not? Are there any conditions under which they could be required?
3. Employee theft and white collar crime are obviously of concern to the organization. They are also issues that are increasingly being discussed as problems. Research this issue and relate it to the issue of control.
4. Do you agree with the saying that we “measure what matters”? Is that possible? Desirable? Why or why not?
5. Research a not-for-profit and determine what control mechanisms they might have in place

7-Theme. MANAGEMENT and MARKETING FUNCTIONS Plan

1. MANAGEMENT FUNCTIONS.
2. MARKETING FUNCTIONS
3. CHALLENGES OF LEADERSHIP IN TEAMS

1. MANAGEMENT FUNCTIONS

Management plays a very important role in any business. Management is composed of a team of managers who are responsible for organization of business at all levels. The team roles require leadership abilities that are expressed in the development of superior listening skills, personal responsibility, effective communication as well as the acquisition of coaching techniques. The duties of a manager include making sure company objectives are met and seeing that the business operates efficiently. Regardless of the specific job, most managers perform four basic functions. These management functions are *planning, organizing, directing and controlling*.

Planning involves determining overall company objectives and deciding how they can best be achieved. Managers evaluate alternative plans before choosing a specific course of action, then they check to make sure the chosen plan fits into the objectives established at higher organizational levels. Managers today are increasingly engaged in fact-based analysis of strategic plans for expanding,

redesigning, or contracting their firms' supply chains. They may be motivated by a need to efficiently replenish growing markets for the firm's products, to consolidate manufacturing and distribution operations after a major acquisition, or to close down underutilized physical facilities.

Planning is considered to be the first management function because the others depend on it.

Organizing, the second management function, is the process of putting the plan into action. This involves allocating resources, especially human resources, so that the overall objectives can be attained. In this phase managers decide on the positions to be created and determine the associated duties and responsibilities. Staffing, choosing the right person for the right job, may also be included as a part of the organizing function.

Day-to-day direction is the third management function. It includes supervising of employees. In directing, managers guide, teach, and motivate workers so that they reach their potential abilities and at the same time achieve the company goals that were established in the planning process. Effective direction, or supervision, requires ongoing communication with employees.

The last management function, *controlling*, includes evaluating how well company objectives are being met. In order to complete this evaluation, managers must look at the objectives established in the planning phase and at how well the tasks assigned in the directing are being completed.

If the major problem exists and goals are not being achieved, then changes need to be made in the company's organizational or managerial structure. In making changes, managers might have to go back and replan, reorganize, and redirect.

In order to perform these management functions efficiently managers need personal, organizational, and technical skills. Although all four functions are managerial duties, the importance of each may vary depending on the situation. Effective managers meet the objectives of the company through a successful combination of planning, organizing, directing, and controlling.

2. MARKETING FUNCTIONS

If production is to meet needs, two things are necessary. The first is that producers must know what to produce. And the second is that consumers must know what is being produced. Linking these two factors together is the task and responsibility of the marketing staff.

Marketing involves keeping producers aware of the needs of consumers and ensuring that their products are made available to consumers in the way and form they want.

There are some functions that marketing involves:

1. Market research. The object of market research is primarily to find out what the public wants. Market researchers should find out what consumers want and advise producers accordingly. They also recommend the standard of quality, style of packaging, choice of brand – name and general design of the products concerned.

2. Distribution. Products can be distributed to consumers in different ways. Some are best distributed through the manufacturer's own retail outlet, some through a network of wholesalers and retailers, others by direct mail-order.

3. Pricing. Marketing managers should always be in close touch with market conditions so that they can advise on the best price to charge for products.

4. Advertising. If customers don't know about new products, they will never buy them. Marketing managers are expected to know the best ways to advertise products. This involves choice of media (radio, television, press and boarding). It also involves knowing the best form of advertisement to be taken and the advertising slogan to be used.

5. Selling. This involves the skills of personal selling, together with display and presentation skills such as those involved in window displays, exhibitions, news releases, and product promotions.

3. CHALLENGES OF LEADERSHIP IN TEAMS

Within the global marketplace many successful companies have moved away from command and control management systems that rely on top-down decision making and functionally driven problem solving. Taking the place of these traditional methods of operation are flatter, team-based organizations designed to integrate people with diverse backgrounds and different skill sets into a culture that emphasizes cross-functional cooperation and personal responsibility for effective group participation. These team roles require unique leadership abilities that are expressed in the development of superior listening skills, the acquisition of coaching techniques, and the ability to apply the principles of mind-set management to create a workforce that is highly motivated and self-empowered.

By reconfiguring the workforce in this way, leading companies have recognized the benefits of improving effective response time to clients, innovating within product lines, and creating a culture that fosters cross-functional decision making and shared strategic problem solving. Classic leadership activity, consisting of telling people what to do and how to do it, has been replaced by senior executives who hone their abilities to orchestrate and facilitate significant and meaningful team-based activities.

Transforming organizations from a classic leadership organization to a shared leadership organization is predicated upon 'recognition of the importance of empowering team members by placing responsibility for performance at the locus of the team's productive activities'. Team leadership includes creating an environment that fosters the evolution of a set of appropriate behavioral patterns among team members and encourages assumption of personal responsibility, effective communications, and development of necessary skill sets.

Managers today are increasingly engaged in fact-based analysis of strategic plans for expanding, redesigning, or contracting their firms' supply chains. They may be motivated by a need to efficiently replenish growing markets for the firm's products, to consolidate manufacturing and distribution operations after a major acquisition, or to close down underutilized physical facilities. They seek supply

chain network optimization models to help them unravel the complex interactions and ripple effects that make strategic planning exercises difficult and important. Very recently, extended models have been developed and applied that integrate supply chain decisions with those concerned with demand management. The goal is to identify plans that maximize net revenues by varying product mix, rather than merely seeking plans that minimize the total supply chain costs of meeting fixed demand.

By constructing and optimizing “what if” scenarios about the firm’s future, supply chain network optimization models serve to refine and extend managerial intuition about major strategic decisions. In a typical supply chain study, 50 scenarios or more may be optimized and their results reviewed before managers have confidence in the courses of action to pursue. The state-of-the-art is to construct and optimize deterministic models that treat each scenario as a description of the firm’s future that will occur with certainty.

8-Theme. HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT.

Plan

- 1.Management of Men is a Challenging job.
- 2.Importance of Human Resources Management
- 3.Objectives of Human Resources Management
- 4.Pre-requisites for the Achievements of the Objectives

1.Management of Men is a Challenging job.

In any organisation, “The management of Man” is a very important and challenging job; It is important because it is getting a job done, not of managing but of administering a social system. The management of men is a challenging task because of the dynamic nature of the people. People are responsive; they feel, think, and act, therefore, they cannot be like a machine or shifted and altered like a template in a room layout. They, therefore, need a tactful handling by management personnel. If manpower is properly utilized, it may prove a dynamic motive force for running an enterprise at its optimum results and also work as an excellence output for maximum individual and group satisfaction in relation to the work performed.

Manpower management is a most crucial job because “managing people is the heart and essence of being a manager.” It is concerned with any activity relation to human elements or relations in organisation. Material elements, however, are beyond its domain. This view has been rightly summed up by *J.M. Deitz (of Chicago)*. He observes: “A business or an industry can be thought of as an inter-weaving of human elements and material elements, with the human elements as the warp; while inter-locking and inter-weaving with this element are the material elements – the woof of the fabric. The wrap of the fabric is the human element appearing and reappearing, strength giving element holding the entire

fabric together, and giving it life and a character of continuity.” A business cannot succeed if this human element is neglected.

2.Importance of Human Resources Management

Yodder, Heneman had discussed about the importance of human resource management from three standpoints, viz, social, professional and individual enterprise.

(A) Social Significance: Proper management of personnels, enhances their dignity by satisfying their social needs, this it does by: (a) maintain a balance between the jobs available and the jobseekers. According to the qualifications and needs; (b) providing suitable and most productive employment, which might bring them psychological satisfaction; (c) making maximum utilization of the resource in an effective manner and paying the employee a reasonable compensation in proportion to the contribution made by him; (d) eliminating waste or improper use of human resources, through conservation of their normal energy and health; and (e) by helping people make their won decisions, that are in their interests.

(B) Professional Significance: By providing healthy working environment it promotes team work in the employees. This it does by: (a) maintaining the dignity of the employee as a ‘human-beings’ (b) providing maximum opportunities for personnel development; (c) providing healthy relationship between different work groups so that work is effectively performed (d) improving the employee’s working skill and capacity; (e) correcting the errors of wrong postings and proper reallocation work.

Significance for Individual Enterprise: It can help the organisatoin in accomplishing its goals by; (a) creating right attitude among the employees through effective motivation; (b) utilizing effectively the avail able human resources; and (c) securing willing co of the employees for achieving goals of the enterprise and fulfilling their own social and other psychological needs of recognition, love, affection, belongingness, esteem and self-actualization.

Walton (1985), have attempted to define the Human Resource Management as, it is process of stresses mutually between employers and employees in following ways:

Mutual goals, mutual influence, mutual respect, mutual rewards, mutual responsibility. The theory is that policies of mutuality will elicit commitment which in turn will yield both better economic performance and greater human development.

Beer and Spector (1985) emphasized a new set of assumptions in shaping their meaning of HRM.

- Proactive system wide interventions, with emphasis of ‘fit; linking HRM with strategic planning and cultural change.

- People are social capital capable of development.

- Coincidence of interest between stakeholders can be developed.

- Seek power equalization for trust and collaboration.

- Open channel of communication to build trust and commitment
- Goal orientation
- Participation and informed choice.

3.Objectives of Human Resources Management

One of the basic principles of management is that: all the work performed in an organisation should, in some way, directly or indirectly contribute to the objectives of that organisation. This means that the determination of objectives, purposes or goals is of prime importance and is a prerequisite to the solution of most management problems. Objectives are pre determined ends or goals at which individual or group activity in an organisation is aimed. The formations of the objectives of an organisation is necessary for the following reasons:

- 1.Human beings are goal-directed. People must have a purpose to do some work. Announced organizational goals invest work with meaning.
- 2.Objectives serve as standards, against which performance is measured.
- 3.The setting of goals and their acceptance by employees promotes voluntary co-operation and co-ordination, self-regulated behavior is achieved.
- 4.The objectives stand out as guidelines for organisational performance . They help in setting the pace for action by participants. They also help in establishing the “character” of an organisation.

Ralph C, Davis has divided the objectives of an organisation into two categories: (a) Primary objectives, and (b) Secondary objectives.

A) Primary objectives, in the first instance, relate to the creation – and distribution of some goods or services. The Personnel Department assists those who are engaged in production, in sales, in distribution and in finance. The goal of personnel function is the creating of a work force with the ability and motivation to accomplish the basic organizational goals. Secondly, they relate to the satisfaction of the personal objectives of the members of an organisation through monetary and non-monetary devices. Monetary objectives include profits for owners; salaries and other compensation for executives; wages and other compensation for employees; rent for the landowners and interest for share/stock-holders. Non-monetary objectives include prestige, recognition, security, status, or some other psychic income. Thirdly, they relate to the satisfaction-of community and social objectives, such as serving the customers honestly promoting a higher standard of living in the community, bringing comfort and happiness to society, protecting women and children, and providing for aged personnel.

B) The secondary objectives aim at achieving the primary objectives economically, efficiently and effectively.

The fulfillment of the primary objectives is contingent upon:

- 1.The economic need for, or usefulness of, the goods and services required by the community/society.
- 2.Conditions of employment for all the members of an organisation which provide for satisfaction in relation to their needs, so that they may be motivated to work for the success of the enterprise.
- 3.The effective utilization of people and materials in productive work.

4.The continuity of the enterprise.

According to the *American Management Association*, the *objectives of personnel administration* may be laid down as follows:

1.To achieve an effective utilization of human resources in the achievement of organisation goals.

2.To establish and maintain an adequate organizational structure and a desirable working relationship among all the members of an organisation by dividing of organisatoin tasks into functions, positions, jobs, and by defining clearly the responsibility, accountability, authority for each job and its relation with other jobs/personnel in the organisatoin.

3.To secure the integration of the individuals and groups with an organisation, by reconciling individual/group with those of an organisation in such a manner that the employees feel a sense of involvement, commitment and loyalty towards it. In the absence of an integration, friction may develop in an organisation. Which may lead to its total failure. Friction produces inefficiency. Friction may result from political aspirations, from difficulties in communication, and from faults inherent in a particular organizational structure. The behaviour of individuals and groups in any organisation also involved frictions- personal jealousies and prejudices and idiosyncrasies, personality conflicts cliques and factions favoritism and nepotism.

4.To generate maximum individual / group development within an organisation by offering opportunities for advancement to employees through training and job education or by effecting or by offering retraining facilities.

5.To recognize and satisfy individual needs and group goals by offering an adequate and equitable remuneration, economic and social security in the form of monetary compensation, and protection against such hazards of life as illness, old age, disability, death, unemployment etc., so that the employees may work willingly and co-operate to achieve an organization's goals.

6.To maintain a high morale and better human relations inside an organisation by sustaining and improving the conditions which have been established so that employees may stick to their jobs for a longer period.

4.Pre-requisites for the Achievements of the Objectives

Setting up the objectives of an organisation may be the fullest contribution of human resources management for the achievement of the organisation of long and short term plans and of the operations of the organisation in an environment of high morale and vitality consistent with profit ability and social milieu with the ethical values of society and with the policies and regulations established by the country's legislature.

To achieve these objectives, the following *pre-requisites* must be satisfied:

1.Capable people should be picked upon the basis of the qualifications fixed.

2.Individual and group efforts/potentialities must be effectively utilized by providing suitable work opportunities, tools and raw materials, by showing an

appreciation of work well done, and by offering better chances for future advancement and training.

3. Willing co-operation of the people to achieve the objectives must be available by creating such feelings as “people work with us” rather than saying that “people work for us”

4. The tasks of an organisation should be properly divided in accordance with a sound plan into functions and positions, each indicating clear-cut authority, responsibility and duties, as also the relationship of the position with another.

5. The goals to be achieved should be specially made known to all concerned in the language best understood by them. Specificity and clarity are both important in defining the objectives. The objectives should also be comprehensive.

6. Since objectives have to be shared by many senior persons in an organisation, a wide-scale enquiry and consultation should be undertaken before their formulation and efforts should subsequently be made to develop a common understanding of the objectives among managers at various levels.

7. The objectives should be clearly defined, failing which a great deal of confusion may arise. Without clear-cut objectives, the management of organizational records cannot be kept in balance, and the management of one section may interfere with that of another. Moreover, without clear-cut objective, there can be – not standards by which to evaluate the performance of an individual or that of the whole organisation. Again, an absence of objectives often leads to organizational disaster. On the other hand, the refining or revising of objectives is the most fundamental task of all managers at all levels.

8. Suitable monetary and non-monetary incentives, in the form of adequate and reasonable pay-packets, service benefits and security against hazards of life and of employment and against the arbitrary actions of supervisors should be to employees. A properly prepared grievance handling procedure and disciplinary plan should also be available.

9-Theme. PERSONNEL FUNCTION IN ORGANISATION

Plan

1. Classification of function.
2. Managerial Functions
3. Operative Functions
4. Classification of personnel functions

Function of personnel management is the process of management of human resources in an organisation and is concerned with the creation of harmonious working relationships among its participants and bringing about their utmost individual development. Such management is concerned with leadership in both groups and ‘individual relationship’ and ‘labour relations’ and ‘personnel management’. It effectively describes the process of planning and directing the

application, development and utilization of human resource in employment. In fact, personnel management undertakes all those activities which are concerned with human elements or relations as well as with material elements in an organisation. Whatever functions are listed therein, the main objective of these functions is to bring together expertise in a scientific way and to create attitudes that motivate a group to achieve its goals economically, effectively and speedily.

1. CLASSIFICATION OF FUNCTIONS

Various philosophers and experts have generally classified the functions into two major categories, viz., *managerial functions* and *operative functions*. Others have classified functions as general and specific functions, and yet others as '*personnel administration functions*' and '*Industrial Relation Functions*'. Functions have also been classified on the basis of the capacities, or on the basis of authority.

This type of classification of functions has been discussed as below:

(a) The General and Specific Functions

The 'General' type of functions, in the personnel management is required the following steps: (i) to conduct personnel research, (ii) to assist in the programmes of personnel administration (iii) to develop a competent work force, and (vi) to establish and administer various personnel services delegated to personnel department'

(b) Personnel Administration & Industrial Relations Functions

Personnel administration functions relate to the functions of managing people from the lower to the upper level of the organisation and embraces policy determination as well as implementation of policies by the personnel at the lower levels. Accordingly, "personnel administration" refers to "creating, developing and utilizing a 'work group' involves all types of inter of inter-personnel relationships between superiors sub-ordinates".

The 'Industrial Relations' functions, on the other, are "not directly related to the function of 'managing people', but refer to interactions between the management and the representatives of the unions". Such functions involve all activities of employer-employee relationship, such as organisation of the union members, negotiation of contracts, collective bargaining, grievance handling, disciplinary action, arbitration, etc., the purpose of all these being to prevent conflict between the particulars.

(c) Functions Classified on the Basis of Capacities

Saltonstall suggests two approaches for the development of Line officials, viz., (a) the "reductive" or "threat approach"; and (b) the "augmentative" or "source of help" approach. The latter approach is more close to "behavioral approach to management."

Thus, according to him:

- The typical staff functions are indirectly related to action and characterized by development, consultation, planning, interpretation, evaluation, diagnosis, research, investigation and recommendation and

▪ The typical line functions are related to command action and characterized by direction, control, decisions, enforcement, application, performance and instruction.

(d) Functions According to the Degree of Authority

Dale Henning and French made an interesting observation that “The personnel man is described in the text books and journals is like ‘Abominable Snowman’ much talked about but seldom seen.” They have classified his functions in to three categories thus:

(a) Area of maximum authority, e.g., direction of payroll calculations, orientation procedure, transfer rules, etc.

(a) Area of combined use of authority and persuasion, e.g., establishment of disciplinary procedure, inter-departmental data gathering, determining the number of participants in a training programmes, etc; and

(b) Area of maximum persuasion, e.g., salary changes under the rules of the plant, employment of individuals recommended by the personnel department in other departments, initiating disciplinary action, etc.

The functions generally classified as

(1) Managerial functions, and

(2) Operative functions.

2. Managerial Functions

“Management is a multi-purpose organ which has three jobs, two of which are directly related to personnel managing a business: ‘managing managers and managing workers and the work *S Lawrence Appley* says that “Management is the accomplishment of results through the efforts of other people”. In the opinion of *Harold Koontz*, “It is the art of getting things done through people and with informally organized groups.

In their view, management may be thought of as the process of allocating an organisations inputs (human and economic resources) by planning, organizing, directing and controlling for the purpose of producing outputs (goods and services) desired by its customers so that organisation job objectives are accomplished in the process, work is performed with and through organisation personnel in an ever changing business environment.

(a) Planning is a pre-determined course of action. According to Allen, “it is a trap laid to capture the future” Terry is of the View that “planning is the foundation of most successful actions of any enterprise.” Planning is the determination of the plans, strategies, programmes, policies, procedures, and standards needs to accomplish the desired organisation objectives in fact, “planning today avoids crisis tomorrow.”

(b) Organizing: After a course of action has been determined, an organisation should be established to carry it out. According to J.c. Massie, “An organisation is a structure, a framework and a process by which a cooperative group of human beings allocates its tasks among its members, identifies relationships and integrates its activities towards common objectives.” In the words of Drucker: “The right organizational structure is the necessary foundation;

without it, the best performance in all other areas of management will be ineffectual and frustrated.”

(c) Directing (motivating, actuating or commanding) the subordinates at any level is a basic function of the managerial personnel. According to McGregor, “many managers would agree that the effectiveness of their organisation would be at least doubled if they could discover how to tap the unrealized potential present in their human resources”

(d) Coordinating and Controlling. Coordinating refers to balancing timing and integrating activities in an organisation, so that a unity of action in pursuit of a common purpose is achieved. In the words of Terry, “Co-ordination deals with the task of blending efforts in order to ensure a successful attainment of an objective.”

(e) Controlling is the act of checking, regulating and verifying whether everything occurs in conformity with the plan that has been adopted, the instructions issued and the principles established. It is greatly concerned with actions and remedial actions. “it is not just score-keeping. It is not just plotting the course and getting location reports; but rather it is steering the ship.”

3. Operative Functions

The operative functions of personnel management are concerned with the activities specifically dealing with procuring, developing, compensating, and maintaining an efficient work force. These functions are at known as service functions.

(a) The procurement function is concerned with the obtaining of a proper kind and number of personnel necessary to accomplish an organisation’s goals. It deals with specifically with such subjects as the determination of manpower requirements, their recruitment, selection and placement (comprising activities to screen and hire personnel, including application forms psychological tests, interviews, medical check-up, reference calling), induction, follow-up, transfers, lay-offs, discharge and separation, etc.

(b) The development function is concerned with the personnel development of employees by increasing their skill through training so that job performance is properly achieved. Drafting and directing training programmes for all levels of employees, arranging for their on-the-job, office and vestibule-training, holding seminars and conferences, providing for educational and vocational counselling and appraising employee potential and performance are undertaken under this function.

(c) The compensation function is concerned with securing adequate and equitable remuneration to personnel for their contribution to the attainment of organizational objectives. Functions related to wage surveys, establishment of job classifications, job descriptions and job analyses, merit ratings, the establishment of wage rates and wage structure, wage pans and policies, wage systems, incentives and profit-sharing plans etc., fall under this category.

(d) Integration function After the employee has been procured, his skill and ability developed and monetary compensation determined, the most important, yet difficult of the personnel management is to bring about an “integration” of

human resources with organisation, and to cope with inevitable conflicts that ensue. "Integration" is concerned with the attempt to effect a reasonable reconciliation of individual, societal, and organisation interests.

(e) The maintenance function deals with sustaining and improving the conditions that have been established. Specific problems of maintaining the physical conditions or employees (health and safety measures) and employ service programmes are the responsibility of the personnel department.

Flippo rightly says: "The purpose of all of these activities is to assist in the accomplishment of the organization's basic objectives. Consequently, the starting point of personnel management as of all management must be a specification of those objectives and a determination of the sub-objectives of the personnel function: The expenditure of all funds in the personnel departments can be justified only in so far as there is a net contribution toward company objectives."

4. CLASSIFICATIONS OF PERSONNEL FUNCTIONS

Below are given some important classifications of personnel functions made by experts in the field:

Yoder's Classification: According to Yoder, in a typical industrial relations and personnel department, the principal activities of manpower management are:

1. Setting general and specific management policy for relationships and establishing and maintaining a suitable organisation for leadership and co-operation.

2. Collective bargaining, contract negotiations, contract administration and grievances.

3. Staffing the organisation, finding, getting and holding prescribed types and number of workers.

4. Aiding the Self-development of employees at all levels, providing opportunities for personnel development and growth as well as for requisite skills and experience.

5. Incentivating, developing and maintaining motivation for work.

6. Reviewing and auditing manpower management in an organisation.

7. Industrial relations research, carrying out studies designed to explain employment behaviour and thereby effecting improvements in manpower management.

Yoder and Nelsons' Classification: On another occasion, on the basis of an enquiry regarding descriptions of 984 employee-relations jobs conducted in 189 companies. Dale Yoder and Robert J. Nelson classified seven functional categories as follows:

1. Departments Administration Programme: Planning, report preparing, policy formulation and general administration.

2. Employment and Placement: Recruitment, selection, placement, orientation, personnel rating, job analysis and description.

3. Training – Induction, on-the-job training, supervisory training and management development.

4. Collective Bargaining: Contract negotiation, contract administration and grievances.

5. Wage and Salary Administration, Job evaluation, wage and salary surveys.

6. Benefits and Services: Insurance, health, hospitalization, medical care, and retirements plan administration.

7. Personnel Research: Continuing studied of all employee relations policies, programmes and practices.

Northcott's Classification: After referring to three types of approach to the task, viz., (a) the welfare' approach, (b) the scientific management influence the industrial relations emphasis, Northcott gives the functions of personnel management thus: 1. Employment; 2. Selection and Training; 3. Employee Services, 4. Wages; 5. Industrial Relations; 6. Health and Safety Education; and 7. Education.

Scott, Clothier & Spriegels' Classification: Scott, Clothier and Spriegel divide the functions of the personnel management into these specific categories, namely: (i) Employment; (ii) Promotion, transfer termination, demotions, and separations; (iii) Formulation and direction of training programmes; (iv) Job analysis and evaluation; (v) Remuneration and incentives; (vi) Health and Sanitation; (vii) Safety and institutional protection; (viii) Financial aids to employees; (ix) Employee service activities; (x) Research, record keeping, reports and follow-up; (xi) Employee-employer and community cooperation; and (xii) Labour union contracts and co-operation.

Kindall's Classification: A.F. Kindall prescribes the following functions for the personnel management:

1. To aid in the development of general overall management policies and methods, in the organisation and planning of supervisory control, and in the communication of orders, ideas and inquiries.

2. To develop throughout the organisation an understanding of, and an enthusiasm for, consultative methods of management with tire objectives of:

a. Improving leadership and supervision; and (b) Obtaining the participation of operating groups and opportunity for creative analysis and initiative in carrying out their assigned tasks at all levels in the development and administration of the company's personnel programme. To aid the executive and supervisory organisation in developing (a) clearly written outlines of functions, authorities, and responsibilities, and (b) simple, workable methods of measurement of their accomplishments.

Terminology

A.I.R.M.I.C. Association of Insurance and Risk Managers in Industry and Commerce

ABC inventory management - управление запасами типа ABC (система отслеживания и контроля товарно-материальных, которая предполагает разделение их на три категории по степени значимости или стоимости: А — высокая, В — средняя, С — низшая)

abdicate responsibility - слагать полномочия

able to meet competition - конкурентоспособный

absentee management - заочное управление (управление, осуществляемое менеджером без его ежедневного присутствия на работе)

absentee management system - система учета рабочего времени (система автоматического контроля за присутствием на работе)

abuse of office - должностное злоупотребление, злоупотребление служебным положением (использование служебного положения в личных интересах, вступающее в конфликт с профессиональными интересами и должностными обязанностями)

acceptance inspection - приемочный контроль (проверка предложенной к поставке партии изделий на соответствие установленным для данной продукции стандартам качества) to make [carry out] an acceptance inspection — проводить приемочный контроль to pass an acceptance inspection — пройти приемочный контроль

acceptance sampling plan - план выборочного (приемочного) контроля, план приемочного выборочного контроля (план проведения контроля качества партии товара, включающий определение размера проверяемой выборки, критериев приемки или неприемки, приемочного числа и т. п.)

acceptance theory of authority - теория восприятия, теория принятия власти (концепция Ч. Барнарда, утверждающая что персонал является реальным держателем власти в организации, так как он решает, подчиниться или нет распоряжениям сверху; обычно подчиненные с готовностью выполняют решения руководства лишь в том случае, если они понимают смысл этих распоряжений, хотят и способны их исполнить)

accident control - предупреждение несчастных случаев а) (система правил по обращению с чем-л. или поведения где-л., а также мероприятий, направленных на предотвращение несчастных случаев) an accident control program for motor vehicle fleets — программа предотвращения несчастных случаев при эксплуатации корпоративного автопарка

achievement motive - мотив достижения (стремление человека к успехам в различных видах деятельности; в основе лежат эмоциональные переживания, связанные с социальным принятием этих успехов) Individuals with an achievement motive want to set and acquire goals that involve their personal efforts. — Обладающие мотивом достижения люди предпочитают ставить и достигать цели, которые требуют использования их способностей.

acting director - (временно) исполняющий обязанности директора [руководителя]

acting manager - исполняющий обязанности руководителя (директора, управляющего, заведующего и т. д.)

action plan план - [программа] действий (перечень действий, которые планируется совершить для реализации какого-л. проекта или достижения какой-л. цели, напр. план маркетинговой деятельности)

adaptive control AC - адаптивное управление, адаптивный [гибкий] контроль (метод управления, при котором параметры контролирующей системы пересматриваются по мере изменения параметров управляемой системы)

adaptive control system - система адаптивного управления (система управления и контроля, позволяющая учитывать изменения ситуации и соответственно корректировать характеристики управляющей системы, например, корректировать поставленные цели в течение планового периода)

adaptive management адаптивное - [гибкое] управление (подход к управлению, в котором во главу угла ставится оперативность реакции на изменяющиеся условия внутренней и внешней среды)

adaptive planning - адаптивное планирование (система планирования, предусматривающая корректировку планов в случае изменения каких-л. параметров среды, в которой осуществляется планируемая деятельность)

adaptive structure - адаптивная [органическая, органистическая] структура

administration decision-making - административное принятие решений (процесс принятия обязательных к исполнению управленческих решений исключительно руководящим лицом без участия персонала)

administration leadership style - административный стиль руководства (характеризуется требованием четкого исполнения предписанных правил, инструкций, директив, а также исключением персонала из процесса принятия решений)

administration of guarantees - обслуживание гарантий, управление гарантиями

administrative activity - администрирование, административная деятельность (включает формирование и исполнение бюджета, делопроизводство, контроль за процедурами и т. д.)

administrative agency - правительственное агентство, административный орган

administrative approach to management - административный подход к управлению

administrative authority - административные полномочия, административная власть

administrative centralization - административная централизация

administrative control - административный контроль (методы и процедуры, основанные на административных полномочиях и используемые управляющими для регулирования труда своих подчиненных)

administrative director - исполнительный

administrative function - административная функция (функция управления, связанная с бюджетированием, документооборотом и другими видами деятельности, касающимися обеспечения работы организации как системы)

administrative manager - административный менеджер (осуществляет распорядительскую деятельность в рамках стратегических решений, принятых руководством)

administrative methods of management - административные методы управления (методы управления, основанные на использовании распоряжений, приказов, предписаний, норм, обязательных для выполнения управляемыми людьми и подсистемами)

administrative planning - административное планирование (планирование доходов, расходов, распределения ресурсов, отчетности и т. п., осуществляемое административным руководством организации)

administrative professional - офисный работник (обобщающее название для секретарей, офис-менеджеров, администраторов и т. п.)

Advanced Product Quality Planning APQP - перспективное планирование качества продукции (метод управления качеством, при котором существенное внимание уделяется обнаружению и исправлению дефектов до того, как продукция попадет к потребителю)

advertising agency manager - менеджер [директор] рекламного агентства (по DOT: относится к группе "специальности, связанные с менеджментом по продажам и распределению")

Advertising Management Occupations - специальности, связанные с рекламным менеджментом [менеджментом в области рекламы] (раздел 164 в "Словаре названий профессий"; включает в себя 4 профессии)

advertising, marketing, promotions, public relations, and sales managers - менеджеры по рекламе, маркетингу, продвижению, общественным связям и продажам (входят в раздел "управленческие профессии" в Системе стандартной классификации профессий (SOC))

advisory authority - рекомендательные полномочия (включают разработку и предложение административных решений, которые могут быть как приняты, так и отвергнуты линейным руководителем)

affirmative action plan - план компенсирующих действий (план действий компании по устранению существующей в этой организации дискриминации некоторых социальных групп при найме на работу)

after-the-fact control system - реактивная система управления (система контроля, согласно которой корректирующее воздействие осуществляется после завершения планового периода, когда отклонения станут очевидны; в этом случае изменения вносятся для того, чтобы исправить ситуацию в следующем плановом периоде)

agent of management - агент [субъект] управления (лицо, уполномоченное выполнять управленческие функции или выступать в роли представителя управляющего органа)

aggregate planning - укрупненное [агрегированное] планирование

alleged discriminatory official ADO - должностное лицо, подозреваемое в дискриминации (работник или руководитель, указанный в жалобе как лицо, совершившее или позволившее совершить дискриминационные действия, напр., при найме на работу)

alternate director - исполняющий обязанности директора (лицо, наделенное всеми полномочиями директора на время его отсутствия; в отличие от заместителя директора в период своего управления обладает всей полнотой власти)

American Management Association AMA - Американская ассоциация по совершенствованию методов управления

annual meeting of shareholders - ежегодное собрание акционеров

application management system - система управления внедрением (комплекс мероприятий (в том числе контрольных), направленных на эффективное введение инноваций на производстве, реализацию новых проектов)

approach to management - подход к управлению

assessment of management quality - оценка качества управления (процедура оценки профессионализма руководителя)

assistant manager - помощник [заместитель] руководителя

authoritarian management - авторитарное управление

authoritarian leadership style - авторитарный стиль руководства, авторитарное лидерство (характеризуется единоличным принятием решений, требующих беспрекословного исполнения)

authority-compliance management - властное управление (стиль управления, при котором руководитель большое внимание уделяет достижению поставленных целей и не заботится о подчиненных)

autocratic leadership style - автократичный [авторитарный] стиль руководства

autocratic management style - автократичный стиль управления (стиль управления, проявляющийся в единоличном принятии решений, игнорировании мнения подчиненных, формальном использовании властных полномочий и т. п.)

automated management - автоматизированное управление (осуществление ряда управленческих операций с помощью технических средств автоматически, т. е. без непосредственного участия человека)

automated production management - автоматизированное управление производством (комплексное управление производственным процессом, осуществляемое при помощи информационных систем управления)

backward planning - обратное планирование, планирование от цели

bank management - банковский менеджмент, управление банком (учебная дисциплина или практическая деятельность, связанная с управлением банком как организацией)

bargaining strategy - стратегия ведения переговоров (план достижения согласия между сторонами в рамках поставленных ими задач)

bargaining structure - система коллективных переговоров, структура системы коллективных переговоров

base staff - базовое количество персонала [сотрудников], основной состав (минимальное количество сотрудников, необходимое для достижения уровня обслуживания и соблюдения временных ограничений; используется при планировании работы центров обработки звонков)

basic solution - базисное решение, опорный план

behavioral approach to leadership - поведенческий подход к лидерству (теория, основанная на предположении, что лидерами не рождаются, а становятся; фокусируется на поведении лидеров, а не на том, кем являются лидеры)

behaviour management - управление поведением (деятельность преподавателей, направленная на поддержание определенного типа поведения учащихся)

behavioural autonomy - поведенческая автономия (способность человека самостоятельно принимать решения и действовать в соответствии с задуманным)

behavioural science approach to management - бихевиористский [поведенческий] подход (к управлению)

benefits manager - менеджер по оплате

benevolent leadership - благожелательное лидерство [руководство] (стиль руководства, основанный на жесткой иерархии, контроле, дисциплине, дистанции между менеджерами и работниками, при отеческом отношении менеджеров к работникам)

benevolent-authoritative - благожелательно-авторитарная

board of administration - руководящий [административный] совет (орган, создаваемый для координации распорядительской деятельности на предприятии, в международных организациях, в области государственного и муниципального управления)

board of directors - совет директоров

bottom management - нижний уровень управления (менеджеры, работающие непосредственно с рядовыми сотрудниками; реализуют решения руководства компании, в принятии которых чаще всего не участвуют)

bottom-up management - управление по принципу "снизу-вверх" (руководство предприятием с участием рабочих или рядовых сотрудников)

building manager - главный смотритель [комендант] здания ; управляющий зданием (осуществляет контроль за помещениями и зданием в целом, работы по тепло- и энергоснабжению и др.; руководит работой смотрителей, сторожей, заведующих хозяйством и т. д.)

bureaucrasy - бюрократия (согласно М. Веберу: модель организации, основанная на формальных, обезличенных правилах (положительное свойство современного бессловного общества, в котором все равны перед законом), где продвижение возможно исключительно в силу квалификации; в этой модели присутствует детальная структуризации организации и четкое описание роли каждого ее элемента)

business administration - деловое администрирование

business management - управление коммерческими организациями (теоретическая дисциплина и практическая деятельность, связанная с управлением коммерческим предприятием; является одним из разделов общей теории управления организацией)

business planning - бизнес-планирование (составление бизнес-плана)

business strategy – 1) business policy 2) деловая стратегия (устойчивая линия поведения фирмы, нацеленная на реализацию долгосрочных интересов и определяющая направления развития фирмы)

business-manager - управляющий делами, коммерческий директор

career development - профессиональное развитие; организация и планирование карьеры

career management - карьерный менеджмент, управление карьерным ростом

centralization of management - централизация управления

centralized organization - централизованная организация

certified management consultant СМС - дипломированный консультант по управлению

chairman of the board - председатель совета директоров [правления]

change management - управление изменениями

change of management - изменение администрации

charismatic leadership - харизматичное лидерство , лидерство, основанное на харизме

classical approach to management - классический подход к управлению

classical organization theory - классическая организационная теория

classical school of management - классическая школа менеджмента

co-management - совместное [смешанное] управление, совместный контроль

command structure - командная структура (управления)

complacent management - самоуспокоенный менеджмент

complex management environment - сложная управленческая среда

conflict management - управление конфликтами

construction management - управление строительством; строительный менеджмент

contingency approach to management - ситуационный подход к управлению [лидерству]

contract management - управление контрактами, управление контрактом

control over management - контроль за управлением

corporate management - управление корпорацией, корпоративный менеджмент

crisis management - антикризисное управление

data processing manager - менеджер по обработке данных

database management - управление базами данных

database management system - система управления базами данных

day-to-day management - повседневное руководство; оперативное управление

decentralization of management - децентрализация управления

delivery management - управление поставками

democratic leader - демократичный лидер (привлекающий большинство членов коллектива к процессу принятия решений)

democratic leadership style - демократичный стиль руководства

democratic management style - демократичный стиль управления

departmental organization - организационная структура департамента [отдела, подразделения] (порядок устройства отдела учреждения или департамента (управления))

deputy administrator - заместитель руководителя

design manager - менеджер по дизайну, дизайн-менеджер

detective control - выявляющий контроль

direct control - прямой [полный] контроль; прямое [непосредственное] управление [регулирование] (возможность непосредственно и зачастую единолично влиять на контролируруемую систему, процесс и т. д.)

economic mismanagement - неэкономичное управление; бесхозяйственность (получение недостаточно высоких результатов управления при серьезных затратах)

employee motivation - мотивация работников [труда]

enterprise resource planning system ERP system, ERP - система планирования бизнес-ресурсов, ERP-система

entrepreneurial manager - предприимчивый руководитель

facilities management - техническое управление, управление оборудованием [техникой, эксплуатацией оборудования]

facilities management company - служба технического управления

factory management - 1) управление заводом [фабрикой] (как вид деятельности) 2) руководство [правление] завода [фабрики] (руководители и управляющие заводом)

factory services manager - управляющий вспомогательными службами

functional authority - функциональные полномочия (право принимать самостоятельные решения, если они относятся к определенной функциональной области)

functional management - функциональное управление

functional structure (линейно-)функциональная структура

fund management - 1) = money management 2) , управление фондом (распоряжение средствами фонда)

general management - общее руководство, общее управление

general manager - генеральный директор [менеджер] (главный менеджер организации, подчиняется только совету директоров)

hands-off - management style пассивный стиль управления (характеризуется бессистемностью в применении методов и механизмов управления, отсутствием четких планов, отсутствием системы контроля и т. п.)

human resource management HRM - управление трудовыми ресурсами (направление менеджмента, базовой идеей которого является повышение производительности посредством создания благоприятных условий для деятельности сотрудников организации)

human resources records - management кадровый учет (ведение документации, связанной с наймом, продвижением, поощрением и увольнением сотрудников)

improvised management - потерянное управление (стиль управления, при котором управляющий теряет контроль как за ходом выполнения задач, так и за поддержанием хороших отношений с подчиненными и сохранения благоприятной психологической атмосферы в коллективе)

impression management - управление впечатлением (приемы, позволяющие человеку корректировать впечатление, производимое на окружающих людей; исследование управления впечатлением берет свое начало от работы И. Гоффмана "Представление себя другим", 1959 г.)

incumbent management - действующее руководство (лица, находящиеся на данный момент у власти, т. е. на высших должностях организации)

industrial management - управление промышленностью (организация и поддержка деятельности промышленного производства)

industrial organization manager - руководитель промышленного предприятия

industrial production managers - производственные менеджеры

information management - управление информацией [потоками информации]

innovation management - управление инновациями (направление стратегического менеджмента, занимающееся управлением разработкой и производством новых товаров и услуг)

integrated management system IMS - интегрированная система управления

interface management - управление [руководство] взаимодействием (между взаимозависимыми объектами управления (напр. двумя организациями, подразделениями, фазами производства и т. п.))

international management - международный менеджмент

job management - организация труда (деятельность менеджера по созданию наилучших условий для эффективного труда каждого работника и персонала в целом)

joint managing director - содиректор (разделяет полномочия исполнительного директора)

joint venture administration JV administration - правление совместного предприятия

junior manager - младший менеджер, младший администратор, помощник управляющего

Labor-Management Relations Act - закон о регулировании трудовых отношений

labour of management - управленческий труд

labour-management relations - производственные отношения (отношения между руководством организации и ее работниками в лице профсоюзов)

level of management - уровень управления (положение в иерархии управления, определяемое набором функций, полномочий, обязанностей менеджера)

line management - линейное управление, линейное руководство, линейная система управления

management activity - управленческая деятельность

management and administration - менеджмент и администрирование

management by commitment - управление по обязательствам

management by consensus - консенсусное управление

management by walking around MBWA - управление [менеджмент] методом хождения, управление путем личных встреч, управление через общение с коллективом, управление "из среды подчиненных"

management capabilities - управленческие способности

management occupations - управленческие профессии (раздел в Системе стандартной классификации профессий (SOC))

management potential analysis - анализ потенциала управления; оценка потенциала управленческого персонала

management science approach - подход с точки зрения науки управления

management theory - теория управления (совокупность научных положений, описывающих общие закономерности в управлении)

managerial skills - управленческая квалификация; управленческие способности; компетентность в управлении

metamanagement - метауправление, метаменеджмент (приемы руководства управленческими процессами)

middle of the road management - сбалансированное [гармоничное] управление

office and management personnel - административно-управленческий персонал [аппарат] (менеджеры и обслуживающие их работу сотрудники)

office manager - администратор, офис-менеджер

operations management - управление операциями

operations specialties managers - операционные менеджеры (по SOC: занимаются управлением внутрифирменными процессами; входят в раздел "управленческие профессии")

operative management - оперативное управление (управление предприятием, учреждением без получения права собственности, т. е. с определенными ограничениями по владению и распоряжению его имуществом, решению стратегических вопросов)

organization department - структурное подразделение, подразделение организации

organizational leadership - руководство [управление] организацией

organizational structure - организационная структура, структура организации (система отделов и подразделений, из которых состоит организация, и административно-финансовые отношения между ними)

overall management - общее управление; общее руководство (деятельность по установлению наиболее выгодных взаимосвязей всех элементов управляемой системы и обеспечению эффективности ее работы в целом)

owner-manager - собственник-распорядитель (собственник предприятия, осуществляющий функции управляющего)

personal motivation - личностная мотивация, личный мотив, мотив личного характера

personnel administration - подбор и расстановка кадров, кадровое управление

personnel management - управление персоналом

productivity of management - продуктивность управления, производительность управления (измеряется динамикой производительности/продуктивности организации в целом)

professional management - профессиональное управление (управление, осуществляемое в соответствии с основными положениями теории управления и соответствующее лучшим стандартам качества в этой профессии)

project management - проектный менеджмент, управление проектом

promotion manager - менеджер по продвижению (по DOT: специалист (относится к группе "Специальности, связанные с менеджментом по продажам и распределению"), занимающийся планированием и управлением политикой продаж)

psychology of management - психология управления (отрасль психологии, изучающая психологические закономерности управленческой деятельности)

purchasing manager - менеджер по закупкам; заведующий [управляющий] отделом закупок

qualification structure - квалификационная структура (иерархия ступеней квалификации, т. е. соотношение квалификационных показателей (уровня образования, стажа и др.) специалистов отдела, организации, отрасли, социально-профессиональной группы и т. п.)

quality management - управление качеством

research management - 1) руководство [управление] исследованиями (научными) 2) руководство исследовательских работ (управленческий персонал, начальство)

safety manager - менеджер по безопасности (

sales-force - management управление торговым персоналом (совокупность принципов, методов и форм отбора, обучения и мотивации торгового персонала фирмы)

self-assessment of management quality - самооценка качества управления

self-management - 1) = self-administration 2) , самоуправление (форма промышленной демократии, при которой работники выступают одновременно субъектами управления и производства)

shift boss - начальник [старший, бригадир] смены, сменный мастер (лицо, контролирующее действия работников и несущее ответственность за работу цеха, производственной линии и т. д. в течение рабочей смены)

situational management - ситуационное управление [лидерство, руководство]

social management - социальный менеджмент управление социальным обслуживанием, организация социального обслуживания (организация мероприятий по оказанию социальных услуг; также академическая дисциплина)

staff management - штабное управление [руководство]

technology management - технологический менеджмент, менеджмент технологий

top management - высшее руководство, высшая администрация, высший уровень управления

vice-manager - вице-управляющий, вице-менеджер, вице-руководитель; помощник [заместитель] руководителя

The questions of final control work from subject “Management”

Version № 1

1. Management and manager's job (management, manager, organization, levels of management, leader)

2. The types of classification of functions (the general and specific functions, personnel

administration & industrial relations functions, functions according to the degree of authority)

3. Managing conflict (conflict, employee assistance programs, cultural differences, particular method)

4. Characteristics of Useful Information (accurate information, timely information, complete information, relevant information)

Executed:

Ibragimov I

The questions of final control work from subject “Management”

Version № 2

1. The importance of human resource management (human resource management, social significance, professional significance, individual enterprise, effective motivation)

2. Barriers to rational decision making (lack of goal consensus, problems in monitoring the environment, bounded discretion, noisy environments)

3. Types of Management (business management, personnel management, human resource management, risk management, investment management)

4. Costs of stress (health problems, absenteeism and turnover, performance problems, burnout)

Executed:

Ibragimov I

The questions of final control work from subject “Management”

Version № 3

1. Human resource management (human resources, potential of human resources, recruited, compensated, developed, motivated, human resource managers)

2. The importance of information in decision making (information, decision making, quality of the information, managerial functions)

3. Basic management models and theories (motivation and leadership, [Classical Management Theory](#), [Human Relations Theory](#), [Neo-Human Relations Theory](#), [System Theory](#))

4. Types of leadership behavior (directive, supportive, participative, achievement-oriented leadership)

Executed: Ibragimov I

The questions of final control work from subject “Management”

Version № 4

1. The decision making process (identifying the problem, evaluating the alternatives, selecting the best alternative, evaluating the decision)

2. Classical Management Theory (management theory, [Henri Fayol](#), emphasis on structure, mechanics of organizations)

3. Types of leadership (leader, leadership style, autocratic, democratic, liberal)

4. Controlling and motivation (determine the behavior, reason, direct people's, desire or willingness, instance of motivating)

Executed: Ibragimov I

The questions of final control work from subject “Management”

Version № 5

1. Types of Management functions (planning, organizing, conforming, controlling and motivation)

2. How organizations actually make decisions? (Satisficing, sequential consideration of alternatives, performance programs, expert development, nominal group technique)

3. Stages and levels of conflict (conflict, latent conflict, perceived conflict, felt conflict, manifest conflict, intrapersonal conflicts, interpersonal conflict)

4. Management and manager's job (management, manager, organization, levels of management, leader)

Executed: Ibragimov I

The questions of final control work from subject “Management”

Version № 6

1. Stress in organizations. (stress, general adaptation syndrome, physical threat, physical response, communication)

2. The Role of Information in Management (Information, data, unorganized facts, statistics, opinions, making decisions - planning)

3. Planning and organizing (alternative plans, allocating resources, duties and responsibilities, coordinate the activities)

4. How organizations actually make decisions? (Satisfying, sequential consideration of alternatives, performance programs, expert development, nominal group technique)

Executed: Ibragimov I

The questions of final control work from subject "Management"

Version № 7

1. Management information system (MIS) (system, projected data, internal and external sources, information systems)

2. The nature of conflict (conflict, values, goals, needs are incompatible, intrapersonal conflict, resource scarcity)

3. Communication (information, transmission, communication process, oral communication, written communication, encoding, transmitting, and receiving/decoding)

4. Types of managerial decisions (decision, decision making, problem, programmed decisions, nonprogrammed decision)

Executed: Ibragimov I

The questions of final control work from subject "Management"

Version № 8

1. The types of classification of functions (the general and specific functions, personnel

administration & industrial relations functions, functions according to the degree of authority)

2. Types of Management functions (planning, organizing, conforming, controlling and motivation)

3. Stress in organizations. (stress, general adaptation syndrome, physical threat, physical response, communication)

4. The Role of Information in Management (Information, data, unorganized facts, statistics, opinions, making decisions - planning)

Executed: Ibragimov I

The questions of final control work from subject “Management”

Version № 9

- 1. Stages and levels of conflict** (conflict, latent conflict, perceived conflict, felt conflict, manifest conflict, intrapersonal conflicts, interpersonal conflict)
- 2. Management and manager's job** (management, manager, organization, levels of management, leader)
- 3. Barriers to rational decision making** (lack of goal consensus, problems in monitoring the environment, bounded discretion, noisy environments)
- 4. Types of Management** (business management, personnel management, human resource management, risk management, investment management)

Executed: Ibragimov I

The questions of final control work from subject “Management”

Version № 10

- 1. The importance of information in decision making** (information, decision making, quality of the information, managerial functions)
- 2. Basic management models and theories** (motivation and leadership, [Classical Management Theory](#), [Human Relations Theory](#), [Neo-Human Relations Theory](#), [System Theory](#))
- 3. Types of Management functions** (planning, organizing, conforming, controlling and motivation)
- 4. Stress in organizations.** (stress, general adaptation syndrome, physical threat, physical response, communication)

Executed: Ibragimov I

1. ARE YOU AN EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATOR?

Mark "T" for "true" or "F" for "false" next to each of the following statements.

___ 1. When speaking with people who are not specialists in my field, I avoid using jargon.

___ 2. If I am angry, I wait until I calm down to discuss something.

___ 3. I don't worry about nonverbal messages I convey; I expect people to rely on my words.

___ 4. I don't like to deliver bad news to people because I am afraid of how they will react.

___ 5. When warning someone about the serious consequences of their actions, I smile so that they will feel comfortable.

___ 6. When describing a complicated event or process, I try to keep my language simple.

___ 7. When explaining to my employer why I have to leave work early today, I will tell her

I understand she is short of staff and will do what I can to help out in other ways.

___ 8. When talking on the phone, I give the other person a chance to respond to my comments before changing the subject.

___ 9. When I receive a letter or memo from someone, I try to respond as soon as possible.

___ 10. I speak to someone in person whenever possible because I don't believe written communications are very effective.

2. DO YOU PREFER CERTAIN, RISKY, OR UNCERTAIN DECISION-MAKING CONDITIONS?

Mark "T" for true or "F" for false next to each of the following decisions.

___ 1. I get my hair cut at Judy's Salon every month because I know it will always be cut the same way.

___ 2. I know that if I hire the job candidate who has a master's degree in engineering, she'll have the knowledge to do the job.

___ 3. With the growing consumer market in China, I think we have a chance to sell our products there.

_____ 4. This new computer is expensive, but I estimate that we will generate enough business to cover the cost in just four months.

_____ 5. Both auto shops are reliable and say they can repair my car tomorrow, but the first one says they can do it for \$25 less. So I'll take my car to the first one.

_____ 6. If we don't jump into the service sector of our market, we may miss a golden opportunity.

_____ 7. Pete always gets to the office by 8:30 AM, so I'll call him there at 8:45.

_____ 8. If I buy one health-insurance policy, I'll pay less money in premiums but a higher deductible; if I buy another policy, my premiums will be high and deductible lower. Since I'm generally healthy, I'll buy the first policy.

_____ 9. We think that switching to environmentally responsible packaging will appeal to our customers, even though the packaging is not as attractive.

_____ 10. One hardware store opens at 7:00 AM and another at 9:00 AM. Only the second store carries the brand of batteries I prefer. I don't need them first thing in the morning, so I'll wait until the second store opens.

3. Complete these sentences

- **Management** is –

- The duties of a manager include

- Managers are involved in four main functions...

- Motivation - a reason or reasons for...

- Autocratic manager, that person

- We know three types of leadership....

- Leadership is the process of

- A decision is a choice

- Decision making

- Information -

- Characteristics of useful Information....

- Conflict a perception that.....

4. Инглиз тилига таржима қилинг.

- Бошқарув усуллари ва унинг турлари –

- Менежмент тамойиллари –

- Менежмент фанининг мақсади ва предмети -

- Хулқ-атвори бошқариш –

- Менежмент мактаблари; илмий менежмент, маъмурий менежмент, инсон муносабатлари мактаби, тизимли ёндашув –

- Бошқарувни номарказлаштириш –

- Расмий ва норасмий лидерлик –

- Қарор қабул қилиш босқичлари –

- Низони келтириб чиқарувчи омилар -

The duties of a manager include making sure company objectives are met and seeing that the business operates efficiently.

Motivation - a reason or reasons for acting or behaving in a particular way

Autocratic manager, that person will basically tell their employees what to do.

Leadership is the process of inspiring and empowering others to voluntarily commit themselves to achieving the leader's vision.

A **decision** is a choice made from alternative courses of action in order to deal with a problem.

Decision making the process of choosing among alternative courses of action to resolve a problem.

Information - Data that are relevant for a specific purpose

Conflict a perception that values, goals, or needs are incompatible.