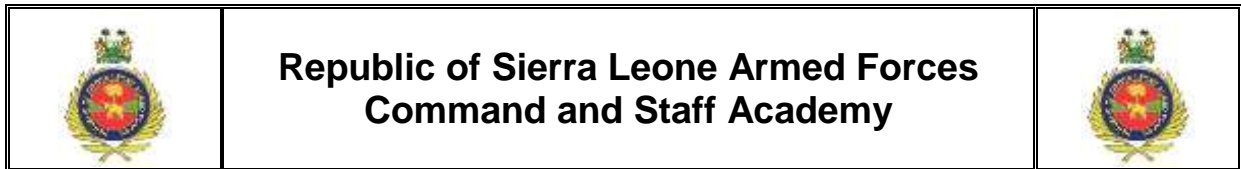|	**Republic of Sierra Leone Armed Forces Command and Staff Academy**	

STAFF OFFICER'S HANDBOOK PART TWO

COMMUNICATION, LEADERSHIP, MANAGEMENT AND ADMINISTRATION

The Horton Academy
Duty-Knowledge-Leadership

Version 1 – March 2011

RSLAF

STAFF OFFICER'S HANDBOOK (SOH)

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PREFACE

The Staff Officer's Handbook (SOHB) Part 2 is a document designed to support students attending courses at the Horton Academy. It is provided to students as a personal issue and is further intended to act as a ready reference of extant RSLAF doctrine and principles for the general use of officers at Command and Staff. The SOHB is an evolving document that will develop over time through use; it is expected that the handbook will go on general release across the RSLAF in due course.

GENERAL

SIERRA LEONE NATIONAL PLEDGE

I pledge my love and loyalty to my country Sierra Leone;
I vow to serve her faithfully at all times;
I promise to defend her honour and good name;
Always work for her unity, peace, freedom and prosperity;
And put her interest above all else
So help me God.

THE NATIONAL ANTHEM

High we exalt thee, realm of the free;
Great is the love we have for thee;
Firmly united ever we stand,
Singing thy praise. O native land.
We raise up our hearts and our voices on high,
The hills and the valleys re-echo our cry;
Blessing and peace be ever thine own,
Land that we love, our Sierra Leone.

One with faith that wisdom inspires,
One with a zeal that never tires;
Ever we seek to honour thy name
Ours is the labour, thine fame.
We pray that no harm on thy children may fall,
That blessing and peace may descend on us all;
So may we serve thee ever alone,
Land that we love our Sierra Leone.

Knowledge and truth our forefathers spread,
Mighty the nations whom they led;
Mighty they made thee, so too may we
Show forth the good that is ever in thee.
We pledge our devotion, our strength and our might,
Thy cause to defend and to stand for thy right;
All that we have be ever thine own,
Land that we love our Sierra Leone.

EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION

General

One of the qualities of an Officer is that of him being a good Communicator. Communication takes up more time than any other activity in our work and daily lives. Communication is the exchange of information between two or more people. At its most basic level, communication has a SENDER and a RECEIVER. Whether communication is spoken, written or nonverbal, no matter who is involved or where it occurs, information is always exchanged.

Unlike Written communication, Oral Communication is a vibrant or potent tool and if commanded well, gives an Officer admiration and likeness. It is essential to our existence because it has enabled humans, specifically the Military to organize and work in groups. Without communication, there would be no Organization or Institution.

As officers, you must be able to communicate orally in a clear and concise manner in a wide range of situations - lectures, briefings, formal and informal speeches, drills and in everyday conversations.

Researchers have categorized people into three basic groups. They are:

- Individuals who think and communicate best in pictures or visually (seeing, reading, watching).
- Others who communicate through sounds or auditory (hear, explain)
- Still others who use sensory or kinaesthetic experience (learning by doing, technical people).

Barriers to communication:

- The Closed Mind.
- Fear
- Attitude
- Know-it-alls
- Jumping to conclusions

Whenever we speak, we want to accomplish something. The clearer we are in our own minds concerning what we want to accomplish, then the greater the likelihood that we will communicate the message that we intended.

Rule of 3:

- Tell them what you're going to tell them.
- Tell them.
- Tell them what you told them.

Characteristics of Effective Speaking:

- No fillers
- Pace
- Volume
- Choice of language (appropriate level) and saying (enunciation)
- Emphasis (repetition and organization)

- Non-verbal

Types of Questions:

- Closed/direct questions
- Open/non-directive questions
- Probing questions
- Summary/action questions

Listening is a skill. It is an essential ingredient of understanding in the process of communication. Listening is not something that happens to us; rather it is something that we cause to happen. Listening is an active interaction that demands the ability to integrate, understand, analyse and interpret a variety of inputs in a search for meaning in a discussion.

Five Principles of Active Listening:

- Resist Distractions.
- Use Your Thought Speed.
- Hold Your Response.
- Identify The Purpose And Main Point.
- Do Not Interrupt.

5 Skills of Active Listening

- Restating and Summarizing.
- Paraphrasing.
- Using Non-Words.
- Using Supporting Statements.
- Non-Verbal.

5 Types of Interviews:

- Selection Interview.
- Appraisal Interview.
- Counselling Interview.
- Disciplinary Interview.
- Problem Solving Interview.

Points to help conquer stage fright:

- Memorize opening statement.
- Personal appearance
- Prepare your speech.
- Convince yourself.
- Pick out a friendly face.

4 Steps to Good Briefings/Presentations:

- Step1 – Know your audience.
- Step 2 – Nature of the occasion.

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- Step 3 – Select the subject.
- Step 4 – Types of presentations.

Steps to assist theSpeaker during his/her presentation:

- Get the audience's attention.
- Present the facts.
- Keep it simple.
- Keep statements accurate.
- Summarise.
- Ask for questions.

Briefings must be:

- Accurate
- Complete
- Timely
- Logically arranged

Step Strategy of Giving Feedback:

- State why you are giving feedback.
- Describe what the person said or did.
- Listen to what the other person has to say.
- Describe your reactions to the behaviour.
- Suggest Alternative behaviours and Summarize.

Good written communication is a vital means of getting business done, but the quantity of the written work produced is not a measure of its quality.

Before you start to write, consider whether you need to write to communicate your intention. What do you want to achieve? What message do you want to get across? Could it be done better by a telephone call, an oral briefing, a short e-mail or a short meeting? A telephone call or a walk down the corridor is often more effective, cheaper and quicker than writing, particularly where you need to clarify some aspect of business first. In other words, keep it simple.

Talk first and write only if you need to, is a good rule. You need to write if:
- A record has to be kept for your colleagues, your successor or yourself to account for expenditure or a financial or other important decision.
- Information has to be conveyed to a wider audience.
- Your message is too detailed or complex to transmit orally or may need to be studied carefully.
- Oral advice would not be practical or appropriate. For example, where decisions on legal or personnel matters have to be notified formally.

When writing, you should aim to apply the 'ABC Rule'

- Accurate
- Brief.
- Clear.

<u>Your document should be:</u>

- Logically structured
- Effective
- Relevant
- Persuasive

SKILLS OF PRESENTATION

Introduction

Oral Communication is a vibrant or potent tool and if commanded well, gives an Officer admiration and likeness. A good presenter must also have very good briefing skills.

Briefing is a key officer skill and a high profile skill. A good briefer is known to everyone across to be a good Briefer; similarly there are few hiding places for those who cannot brief well.

As Staff Officers or Officers Commanding, it is difficult to imagine you being in a post where you will not be required at some point to conduct a briefing.

Presentational skills

- Getting started: - Determine the 'Aim'
- Research your 'Topic'
- Record 'Necessities' (quotations, paraphrases etc).
- Develop an Outline plan:
- Rough outline sketch.
- Fairly detailed skeletal plan.
- Final outline plan; enables you to test the validity of the reasoning and accuracy of the analysis.

Design a format or structure:

- Introduction
- Body/Discussion
- Summary/Conclusion
- Strive for balance; logical and chronological flow of thoughts.
- Rehearse.
- Accuracy, concise or brevity and timeliness (stick to required time line)
- Communication speed, intonation, rhythm
- Language use – simple or complex,
- Idiosyncratic, culturally specific, gender   specific etc
- Eye contact
- Facial expression
- Position and movement
- Enthusiasm or zeal
- Body language
- Distracting habits
- Dress

Presentational Aids

A good verbal communicator will make use of his intellect and experience to target his message at the right level for the audience he is addressing, using:
- Flip Chart
- White or Black boards

- Power Point
- Scripts or Handouts
- Visual Aids (A picture paints a thousand words)

Common pitfalls

- Some common practises or pitfalls in communication are as follows:
- Substituting clarity for brevity
- Use of fillers
- Grammatical errors
- Lack of confidence
- Ignoring target audience

Remember!!
- The more you say, the less people remember!
- The fewer the words, the greater the profit!

LISTENING AND NOTE TAKING SKILLS

"Nature has given us one tongue, but two ears, that we may hear from others twice as much as we speak!" Epictetus

Introduction

Have you ever played "gossip"? The same story is relayed from one person to the next, and the fun comes when the last person in line tells everyone the version he heard. It's usually unrecognizable to those who first passed the story along.

Listening is a prime source of information in this Academy. No matter what your learning style, you'll discover that much of the information you are given in this Academy is auditory and visual. How well you listen in class is vital to your success as a student. Practice good listening skills as tools for academic success!

Lectures are intended to present new material, ideas and concepts which have been organized by an instructor to provide students with an overview of a specific topic area. Lecture material should not be seen as the sole source of information on a topic. You will need to supplement lecture material with other reading

Before a Lecture

There ARE advantages in spending time preparing for a lecture:
Background reading greatly enhances the value of a lecture.
Have in mind some questions you expect to have answered by a lecture.
This all helps FOCUS your thoughts.

During the Lecture

Listening is more important than just hearing. Hearing is a passive process whereas listening must be active.

Listening Skills: How good are you at listening? Listening is an art and a gift. It is a tool that is essential to your success as a student, an employee, and a friend, yet most of us have never been taught how to listen. Most of us listen poorly. We concentrate more on ourselves than on what other people are telling us.

Becoming a better listener requires improving behaviours and attitudes. We have to understand our listening mistakes so that we can learn to be better listeners. Suggestions for improving listening can help student correct poor habits and practice good ones.

In military academies and school students fail to listen carefully to instructions, and after every test we hear about those who lost credit by not following the directions. That's an important testing skill too! Communication can be a problem if active listening is not involved.

Listening Problems

There are many mixed reasons for poor listening. Here's a list of problems that result from weak listening skills. Day dreaming is probably the most common listening problem because it affects everyone. Frequently a speaker will mention some person or thing that triggers an association in our minds, and off we go. When we return to reality and start listening again, we may find that the third point is being discussed, and we have no recollection of points one and two.

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There are lots of opportunities for daydreaming because the speaker's speed of talking is so much slower than our speed of thought. While your instructor is talking at 125 words per minute, your mind is racing along at several times that speed. You can see the problem with this situation. Is there a solution?

Closed-mindedness is a fault that happens more outside the classroom, especially when we are arguing. We often refuse to listen to the other side of the argument, especially when we've already made up our minds. We think there's no use in listening since we know all there is to know!

Anytime you fail to listen with an open mind, you may lose valuable information. Closed-mindedness interferes with learning and relationships. Besides, it's not fair to the speaker - your family, your instructor, your minister, your friend, your co-worker, your partner. If your point of view is the correct one, opposing arguments will only reinforce your beliefs. If, on the other hand, your position is wrong, refusing to listen won't make it right!

False attention is a protection technique that everyone uses from time to time to fake out the speaker. When we're not really interested in what someone is saying, we pretend to listen. We nod our heads and make occasional meaningless comments and eye contact to give the impression that we're listening. Usually our minds are a million miles away.

Sometimes the fake-listener has no choice; a boring person may be talking, and the listener can't escape. Maybe the listener is seated at a table or in a room with relatives when some very important personal matter comes to mind. Conveniently, this listener can go through the motions of listening, even make an occasional comment, while giving real attention to something of a higher priority. This habit of false listening can become a problem for you if it becomes a routine procedure, a technique to use whenever something not very interesting comes your way. Remember that boredom is a state of mind. Don't let the bad habit of false attention become a part of your life.

Intellectual despair means giving up before you even get started. Listening can be hard to do sometimes. In college you have to sit through many lectures that are hard to understand. Expect it; that's why you're going to college - to learn what you don't understand. Occasionally, you may feel the urge to give up. You may say to yourself, "No matter how hard I try, I don't get it. I just can't learn this stuff." With this type of thinking, it's easy to stop trying.

This listening despair is a self-defeating behaviour and may lead to a negative self-fulfilling prophecy. Obviously, you'll never understand it if you give up. The thing to do is to listen more carefully than ever. Take notes in class; it'll help you focus. It's your responsibility to ask questions when you don't understand something. Discuss the material with another student. Attack the problem as soon as you identify it. Try not to let several weeks go by before you take some action! Procrastination is not the answer to intellectual despair. Catch up right away, and you'll feel more in control of your learning process.

Memorizing is a problem that happens when listeners try to memorize every word the instructor says. These are usually students who are stressed, and in their goal to listen well, they commit this listening fault because of their anxiety and come away from class remembering less. There's no way to remember everything an instructor says. When you try, you miss the overall sense of the class, and you're worse off than ever. A student who has this listening problem doesn't seem to know any other way and may never have been taught techniques for effective listening.

Personality listening is something we all do. It's natural for listeners to evaluate a speaker, but our impressions should not interfere with our listening. The content (what the speaker is saying) should be judged on its own value to you and the speaker. Sometimes you may be tempted to tune out the speaker because of his or her appearance. If an instructor is sloppily dressed and careless about her appearance, you may conclude that what she is saying isn't worth listening to. Avoid the temptation and don't let your personal feelings interfere with your learning.

<u>Good listening skills</u>:
You're aware of problems to avoid when listening in class. Keep them in mind and check your listening behaviour often. Here are some positive steps to take to help improve your listening skills:

Prepare to listen. Your attitude in attending class is important. If you feel that a particular class is generally a waste of your time, you obviously won't be in a good mood to listen. Use some positive self-talk by deciding before class that this time will be well spent. Commit yourself to this learning experience. The lecturer's introductory comments provide the key purpose to the lecture. Try to be in the habit of focusing your attention early so you do not miss this.

Some students consider lectures supplementary to the textbook studying they do at home. With an attitude like this, listening becomes a chore. Learn to study while listening in class.

Watch the speaker. Don't take your eyes off the speaker! Eye contact is a very important part of the active listening process. Of course, taking notes is recommended to help you maintain your focus; however, when you look away, you'll be aware of visual distractions that compete with the instructor for your attention. You have to listen with your eyes and your ears! Try to develop an awareness of your instructor's mannerisms. Gestures, tone of voice, and other body language usually emphasize a speaker's remarks. Some experts say that tone of voice and body language is 95% of the listening communication process. All speakers communicate physically as well as orally, so you must watch as you listen.

Note questions. If you listen with a questioning attitude, learning will be easier for you. When the instructor asks a question, pay close attention. This is usually a signal that the instructor thinks this is important information. You have to realize that the instructor knows the answer, so there's nothing he or she can learn from the answer. She is asking it so you will learn. She wants you to understand and remember the answer. Speakers' questions are designed to help you listen and learn. Also, be sure to notice questions asked by others in class. Student questions signal the instructor about how the information is coming across to students. At this point, the instructor will often give a more detailed explanation, repeat the point, or give examples to help the listeners to understand better. Questions from both the instructor and students are valuable; pay attention to them.

Listen creatively. You should not be listening and thinking about other things at the same time, but you should be evaluating and organizing the speaker's words by taking notes. If you sit passively, like a sponge, expecting to soak up knowledge, you are really only half listening. To listen totally, you have to react by putting your mind to work. Like a computer, start to process the data coming in. This causes you to think ahead and anticipate what is coming up. Watch for verbal clues.

NOTE: Listening is a prime source of information in college. No matter what your learning style, you'll discover that much of the information you are given in college is auditory and visual. How well you listen in class is vital to your success as a student. Practice good listening skills as tools for academic success!

(a) **Watch for verbal clues**. For example. There are four main aspects:
- To sum up
- Repetition of a point
- Change in voice tone
- Physical gestures (bashing the blackboard or hammering the lectern usually means the point is worth taking down!)

(b) **Ask questions**:

- If you feel you can't ask in the lecture, then jot down the question and ask later.
- Take notes:
- Even if you don't intend to use them later, the fact of doing something aids your concentration. How many people doodle when on the phone etc?

Note Taking
Do not try to take down every word the lecturer says. The amount of notes you take will vary from lecture to lecture. If you take no notes at all you tend to lose concentration. Even if you are given a transcript of the lecture as a hand out, underline and highlight major arguments etc. The problem with taking too many notes is that even if you do succeed in keeping up, you risk becoming so bogged down in detail; you may fail to appreciate the major argument.

Here are some suggestions for successful note taking:

- ALWAYS start a new page and head your notes clearly with date, lecturers name, topic, and number in lecture series.

- Try building logical framework into your note taking:
- Use headings
- Use sub headings sub-headings
- Letters (a)
- Numbers (i)
- Indent from the margin like this and underline for emphasis.
- Leave plenty of space for adding points.
- Some people find it useful to split the page; writing major and minor arguments down one side, and examples on the other.
- Develop your own short-hand.
- Using standard military shorthand helps.

Here are some commonly used abbreviations:
> Increase   = equals   =/= unequal   bec. Because
< decrease   ex. example   w/o without   ≡ identical to
def. definition   imp. Important   → caused, led to   i.e. that is
sig. significant   w/ with   vs. versus

You can increase the speed of your writing by simplifying the style. Take a look at your handwriting, does it have any excessive loops, or unnecessary extras like circled dots. Like this

You will also find your notes easier to read a month down the track if you have avoided using pencil or green biro.

Take full note of any references given. Make sure you have all the publication details author, title, date, publisher etc.

Take notes in your own words. It means you have to think about the material. Don't neglect to note down any blackboard summary. (If it was important enough for the lecturer to put up, it's most definitely important enough for you to write down.)

After the Lecture
- Review. That night (not in six weeks when you have forgotten all the important bits!)
- Check your notes for legibility (easy to do now, impossible if you leave it until you have forgotten what it was all about)
- Add words or phrases to improve the clarity
- Can you improve on the organization at all?
- Follow up references NOW, before everyone else wants them
- If there are any areas which seem unclear, get them sorted out NOW.
- Reviewing lecture notes the night of the lecture is a very useful study habit to adopt. It need only take a few minutes but it means potential problems can be dealt with before they become overwhelming.
- Organizing time in the Library: Spend some time in the library. You might want to photo copy relevant materials but however, consider the following:
- It can fool you into thinking you've read a reference when you have really only copied it.
- You are wasting forest resources, breathing noxious fumes and you still haven't read the material..
- You may well have spent more time waiting in the photocopying queue than it would have taken to extract the essential points.
- Mounds of photocopying material are difficult to file and store them often just end up on the floor.

Summary

Listening is a prime source of information in college. No matter what your learning style, you'll discover that much of the information you are given in college is auditory and visual.   How well you listen in class is vital to your success as a student. Practice good listening skills as tools for academic success.

LEADERSHIP

Definitions

The under mentioned are the definitions required for conceptual understanding:

Leadership: Leadership is the **art** of influencing human behaviour in order to accomplish a mission in the manner desired by the leader.

Management: Management is the **science** of employing personnel and materiel in the economical and effective accomplishment of the mission.

Command: Command is the **lawful authority**, which a superior exerts over his subordinates by virtue of rank or appointments. In another words, command is the lawful authority vested in a designated commander for the planning, direction, coordination and management of military forces.

Comparison of Leadership, Management and Command:

Leadership is influencing others, it is not a position and it is not getting people to do something simply because their job requires it;

Example: having your soldiers follow you in the line of fire and endanger their lives requires leadership;

Management is more directed towards employing resources (material and personnel) efficiently; and

Example: ensuring that your troops are provided with transport and food to accomplish their mission; and

Command is an authority given by a position or rank;

Example: giving specific orders / directives for that same mission.
As an officer you will be required to use leadership, management and command skills. The required style is greatly influenced by the situation and you must adjust your leadership style according to the situation.

Leadership
Strength of leadership depends on strength of influence; how easily the support and commitment of others in achieving goals is gained. Influence is about people, not things, and develops through an awareness of people's opinions and ideas. Leaders who possess positive influence recognise this and modify their behaviour in order to influence the progress of interactions between people by gaining their interest and commitment, and steering them toward accepting the leader's needs and goals through individual choice. A leader's identity does not depend upon their position within the organisation. Their sources of personal power come from:

- Widening their network (looking for mutual benefit or helping others selflessly)
- Possessing good negotiating skills (aiming for win/win outcomes)
- Having an ability to get people to communicate (by offering confidential support)
- Giving personal praise (on the basis of good performance)
- Involving others (Welcoming and utilising other's ideas)

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- Having knowledge and experience of the business (which is shared to help and encourage others).
- A leader needs personal power to lead effectively.

Several studies which attempt to define leadership have been conducted. Notably: The Traits Approach (1930's), Leadership as a Behavioural Category (Ohio State Leadership Studies, University of Michigan study, 1940's), The Situational Approach, (Fiedler's contingency approach, 1967) and The Functional Approach (associated with the work of John Adair, 1979).

The Traits Approach

The Traits Approach attempted to identify the qualities of great leaders on the basis that leaders are born, not made. The approach successfully identified that leaders are individuals and generally defy common stereotypes, and thus failed to compile a definitive list of leadership personality traits. Though there maybe some qualities with which leaders are born, they may not be realised without appropriate nurturing and training. A recent study of 500 business owners in the UK revealed that many gained leadership qualities sociologically. Kim Parish, chief executive of ILM said: "This study shows that many young people learn about leadership at a very early age. Activities often seen as childhood hobbies - such as being a member of the Scouts or Guides, or playing on a school team - actually furnish young people with skills such as team ethos, ambition, goal setting and many of the other qualities that we associate with good leadership." (www.i-l-m.com, 04/04/07). The Traits Approach also neglects to take situation into account. Someone may be a great leader in some situations but not in others.

Leadership as a Behavioural Category

Unlike the Traits Approach, leadership as a Behavioural Category takes account of leadership behaviour in multiple situations. During the Ohio State Leadership Studies (1950's), where the core of this approach was developed, two general types of leadership behaviour emerged; "initiating structure" (the schedule of activities, r **Leadership** Strength of leadership depends on strength of influence; how easily the support and commitment of others in achieving goals is gained. Influence is about people, not things, and develops through an awareness of people's opinions and ideas. Leaders who possess positive influence recognise this and modify their behaviour in order to influence the progress of interactions between people by gaining their interest and commitment, and steering them toward accepting the leader's needs and goals through individual choice. A leader's identity does not depend upon their position within the organisation. Their sources of personal power come from:

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The Situational Approach

Mary Follett describes this approach best in her book, The New State: Group Organization the Solution of Popular Government. She writes "In neighbourhood
groups where we have different alignments on different questions, there will be a tendency for those to lead at any particular moment who are most competent to lead in the particular matter in hand. Thus a mechanical leadership will give place to a vital leadership. Here in the neighbourhood group leaders are born" (Follett, 1918, p. 223). A situation may give rise to a leader who may not be a leader in any other situation. Hersey and Blanchard (1969) based their approach to Situational Leadership on the ability of the leader to adapt four styles of leadership to the competency and motivation of the 'follower':

- Telling (Leader-led)
- Selling (Leader-led)
- Participating (Follower-led)
- Delegating (Follower-led)

Telling is appropriate where the follower is of low competence and has a low commitment level. This style makes the objective clear and avoids any confusion as to what is expected on the part of the follower. Selling, where the follower is of mediocre competence and erratic commitment, involves an explanation of decisions by the leader in order to avoid any defiance on the part of the follower. Participating is used when the follower is of a high competence, but has erratic commitment, possibly due to insecurity. The key to this style is motivation, and more time is taken by the leader in encouraging and verbally praising the follower. Delegating is appropriate when dealing with a follower of high competence who is fully committed and can be trusted to accomplish the objective with little supervision. Fiedler's theory suggests that group performance is dependent upon the personality of the leader and three other variables: group atmosphere, task structure and the leader's power position. (Value based Management, 2007). He concluded that there is no single best way of leading and that the most effective style of leadership is dependent upon adaptability to all constraints.

The Participatory Approach

The University of Michigan studies, which were also conducted in the 1950's, identified 3 behavioural characteristics of effective leaders: "Task orientated" (planning and co-ordinating work and providing resources), "Relationship orientated" (a more considerate and caring approach to employees), and "Participative Leadership" (a more involved approach). Rensis Likert (1967) summarised the study, dividing supervisors into two categories: "Employee-centred", and "production-centred". Both the Ohio State Studies and The University of Michigan studies conclude that better performance and employee satisfaction were gained through a more personable participative approach.

The Functional Approach

John Adair's work focused on leadership functions whilst satisfying the needs of the employee group in accomplishing the task, rather than personality traits. It logically follows previous thinking on motivation by Maslow, Herzberg and Fayol. In Adair's "Action Centred Leadership" diagram, the three variables; "task needs, individual needs and team maintenance needs" (originally identified by Henry Harris in the late 1940's, Gosling,J, 2005), are integrated to mutual satisfaction in order to accomplish the job at hand. Adair's "Action Centred Leadership" diagram clearly shows the need for leadership within management as 'Achieving tasks' is primarily a management function, whereas 'Building the Team' and 'Developing Individuals' draw mainly on leadership skills. Adair believed that good leadership was not inborn and was accessible to all through appropriate training.

Conclusion

Though leadership and management would appear to be separate notions, within a corporate environment one cannot be truly effective without the other. Management without leadership uses status and power to control the workforce and its resources. This power without leadership skills is overt and can often prompt resistance. It does not invoke voluntary loyalty and commitment. Management's primary goal is to ensure that the task is accomplished. Leadership without management relies upon the trust and respect of the workforce through influence. It can inspire others to accomplish a task, but without management neglects to provide the necessary resources to do so. Management with leadership inspires the workforce to accomplish given tasks and provides them with the necessary resources to fulfil the requirements of those tasks. Therefore, I find that a combination of John Adair's work surrounding management and leadership theory together with Fiedler's ideas presented in his contingency theory are most valid in the workplace today. Managerial leadership must be flexible in its approach. It must have the capacity to adapt to varying situations, tasks and employees. It must be focused on the task at hand, but must invoke loyalty and commitment through influence.

Maslow's Theory of Motivation - Hierarchy of Needs

In 1943, Dr. Abraham Maslow 's article "A **Theory of Human Motivation** " appeared in Psychological Review, which were further expanded upon in his book: Toward a Psychology of Being In this article, Abraham H. Maslow attempted to formulate a needs-based framework of human motivation and based upon his clinical experiences with people, rather than as did the prior psychology theories of his day from authors such as Freud and B.F. Skinner, which were largely theoretical or based upon animal behaviour. From this *theory of motivation*, modern leaders and executive managers find means of motivation for the purposes of employee and workforce management. Abraham Maslow's book *Motivation and Personality* (1954), formally introduced the Hierarchy of Needs.

The basis of Maslow's motivation theory is that human beings are motivated by unsatisfied needs, and that certain lower factors need to be satisfied before higher needs can be satisfied. According to Maslow, there are general types of needs (physiological, survival, safety, love, and esteem) that must be satisfied before a person can act unselfishly. He called these needs "deficiency needs." As long as we are motivated to satisfy these cravings, we are moving towards growth, toward self-actualization. Satisfying needs is healthy, while preventing gratification makes us sick or act evilly.

As a result, for adequate workplace motivation, it is important that leadership understands the active needs active for individual employee motivation. In this manner, Maslow's model indicates that fundamental, lower-order needs like safety and physiological requirements have to be satisfied in order to pursue higher-level motivators along the lines of self-fulfilment. As depicted in the following hierarchical diagram, sometimes called 'Maslow's Needs Pyramid' or 'Maslow's Needs Triangle', after a need is satisfied it stops acting as a motivator and the next need one rank higher starts to motivate.
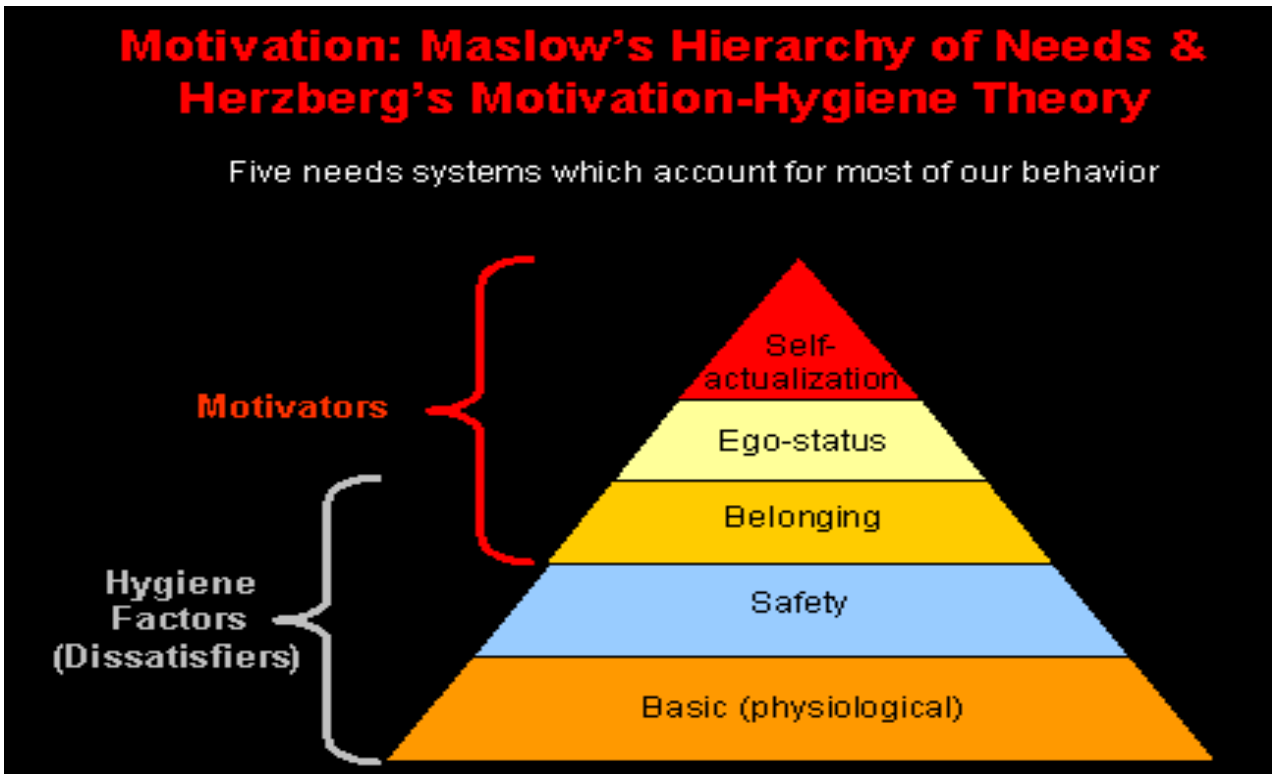
Self-Actualization

Self-actualization is the summit of Maslow's motivation theory. It is about the quest of reaching one's full potential as a person. Unlike lower level needs, this need is never fully satisfied; as one grows psychologically there are always new opportunities to continue to grow.

Self-actualized people tend to have motivators such as:

- Truth
- Justice
- Wisdom
- Meaning

Self-actualized persons have frequent occurrences of *peak experiences*, which are energized moments of profound happiness and harmony. According to Maslow, only a small percentage of the population reaches the level of self-actualization.

Esteem Needs

After a person feels that they "belong", the urge to attain a degree of importance emerges. Esteem needs can be categorized as external motivators and internal motivators.

Internally motivating esteem needs are those such as self-esteem, accomplishment, and self respect. External esteem needs are those such as reputation and recognition.

Some examples of esteem needs are:

- Recognition (external motivator)
- Attention (external motivator)
- Social Status (external motivator)
- Accomplishment (internal motivator)
- Self-respect (internal motivator)

Maslow later improved his model to add a layer in between self-actualization and esteem needs: the need for aesthetics and knowledge.

Social Needs

Once a person has met the lower level physiological and safety needs, higher level motivators awaken. The first level of higher level needs is social needs. Social needs are those related to interaction with others and may include:

- Friendship
- Belonging to a group
- Giving and receiving love

Safety Needs

Once physiological needs are met, one's attention turns to safety and security in order to be free from the threat of physical and emotional harm. Such needs might be fulfilled by:

- Living in a safe area
- Medical insurance
- Job security
- Financial reserves

According to the Maslow hierarchy, if a person feels threatened, needs further up the pyramid will not receive attention until that need has been resolved.

Physiological Needs

Physiological needs are those required to sustain life, such as:

- Air
- Water
- Food
- Sleep

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According to this theory, if these fundamental needs are not satisfied then one will surely be motivated to satisfy them. Higher needs such as social needs and esteem are not recognized until one satisfies the needs basic to existence.

Applying Maslow's Needs Hierarchy - Management Implications

If Maslow's theory is true, there are some very important leadership implications to enhance workplace motivation. There are staff motivation opportunities by motivating each employee through their style of management, compensation plans, role definition, and company activities.

- Physiological Motivation: Provide ample breaks for lunch and recuperation and pay salaries that allow workers to buy life's essentials.
- Safety Needs: Provide a working environment which is safe, relative job security, and freedom from threats.
- Social Needs: Generate a feeling of acceptance, belonging, and community by reinforcing team dynamics.
- Esteem Motivators: Recognize achievements, assign important projects, and provide status to make employees feel valued and appreciated.
- Self-Actualization: Offer challenging and meaningful work assignments which enable innovation, creativity, and progress according to long-term goals.

Remember, everyone is not motivated by same needs. At various points in their lives and careers, various employees will be motivated by completely different needs. It is imperative that you recognize each employee's needs currently being pursued. In order to motivate their employees, leadership must understand the current level of needs at which the employee finds themselves, and leverage needs for workplace motivation.

Maslow's Theory - Limitations and Criticism

Though Maslow's hierarchy makes sense intuitively, little evidence supports its strict hierarchy. Actually, recent research challenges the order that the needs are imposed by Maslow's pyramid. As an example, in some cultures, social needs are placed more fundamentally than any others. Further, Maslow's hierarchy fails to explain the "starving artist" scenario, in which the aesthetic neglects their physical needs to pursuit of aesthetic or spiritual goals. Additionally, little evidence suggests that people satisfy exclusively one motivating need at a time, other than situations where needs conflict.

While scientific support fails to reinforce Maslow's hierarchy, his theory is very popular, being the introductory motivation theory for many students and managers, worldwide. To handle a number of the issues of present in the Needs Hierarchy, Clayton Alderfer devised the ERG theory, a consistent needs-based model that aligns more accurately with scientific research.

Frederick Herzberg - Motivational Theory

History

Frederick Herzberg's motivation theory is one of the content theories of motivation. These attempts to explain the factors that motivate individuals through identifying and satisfying their individual needs, desires and the aims pursued to satisfy these desires. Frederick

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Herzberg studied clinical psychology in Pittsburgh, researching work-related motivation of thousands of employees. He published his findings in "The Motivation to Work" (1959).

This theory of motivation is known as a **two factor theory**. It is based upon the notion that motivation can be split into hygiene factors and motivation factors. He concluded that there were two types of motivation:

Hygiene Factors which can demotivate when not present. Hygiene Factors affect the level of dissatisfaction, but are rarely quoted as creators of job satisfaction.

- supervision
- interpersonal relations
- physical working conditions
- salary

Motivation Factors which will motivate when present. Job dissatisfaction isn't usually blamed on Motivation Factors, but they are cited as the cause of job satisfaction.

- achievement
- advancement
- recognition
- responsibility

These two separate 'needs' are the need to avoid unpleasantness and discomfort and, at the other end of the motivational scale, the need for personal development. A shortage of the factors that positively encourage employees (the motivating factors) will cause employees to focus on other, non-job related 'hygiene' factors.

ERG Theory of Motivation - Clayton P. Alderfer

In 1969, Clayton Alderfer's revision of Abraham Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, called the *ERG Theory* appeared in Psychological Review in an article titled "An Empirical Test of a New Theory of Human Need." Alderfer's contribution to organizational behaviour was dubbed the ERG theory (Existence, Relatedness, and Growth), and was created to align Maslow's motivation theory more closely with empirical research.

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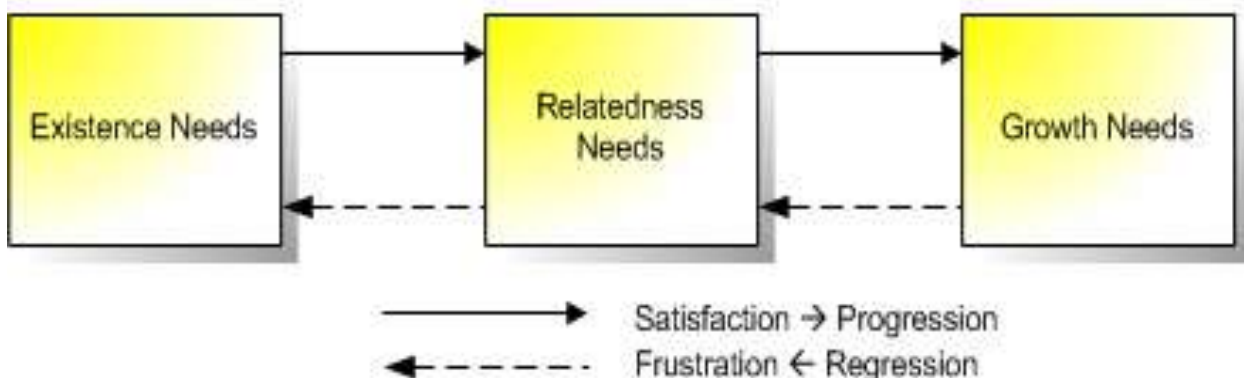
Similarities to Maslow's Needs Hierarchy

After the original formulation of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, studies had shown that the middle levels of Maslow's hierarchy overlap. Alderfer addressed this issue by reducing the number of levels to three. The letters *ERG* represent these three levels of needs:

- **Existence** refers to our concern with basic material existence motivators.
- **Relatedness** refers to the motivation we have for maintaining interpersonal relationships.

Growth refers to an intrinsic desire for personal development appearance. Existence needs motivate at a more fundamental level than relatedness needs, which, in turn

Growth
Self-Actualization
External Esteem Needs

Relatedness
Internal Esteem Needs
Social Needs

Existence
Safety Needs
Physiological Needs
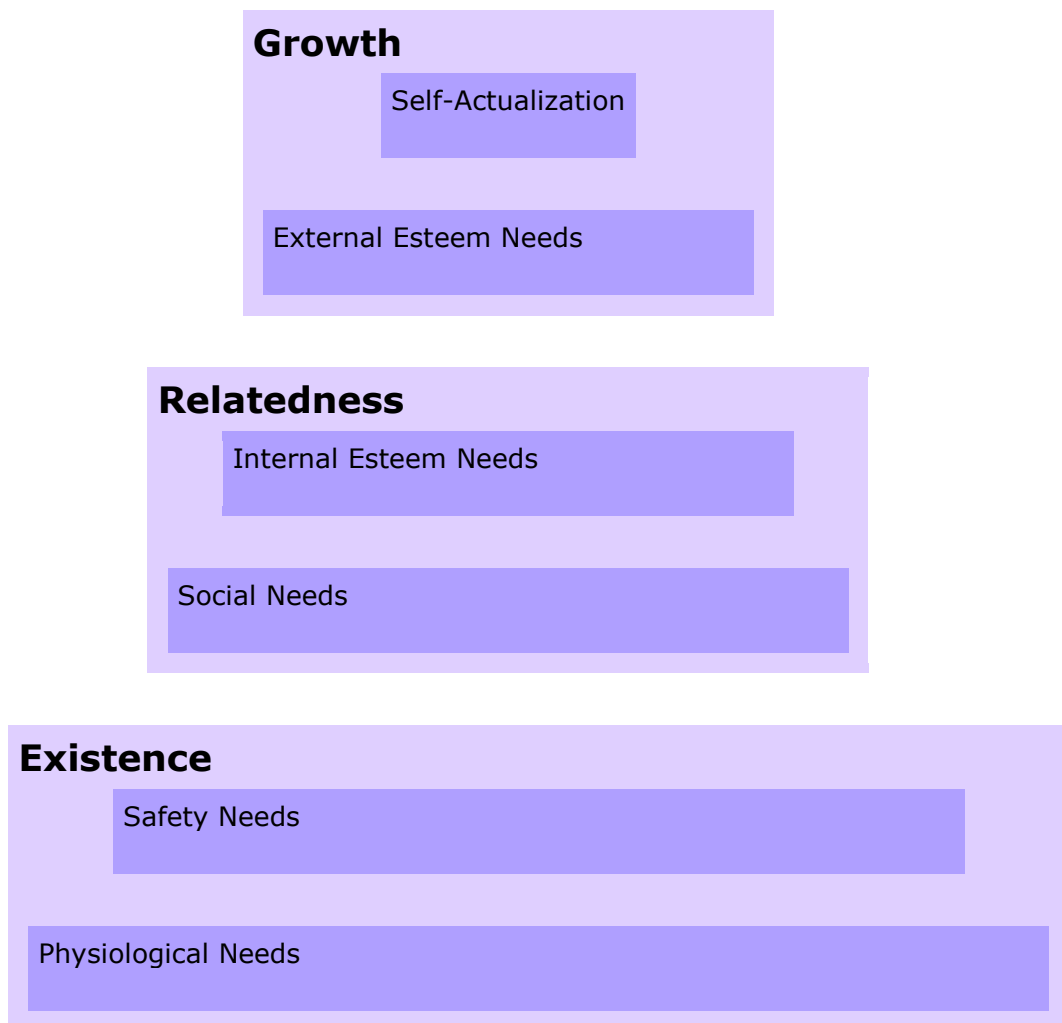
Supersedes growth needs. Like Maslow's model, the ERG motivation is hierarchical, and creates a pyramid or triangle.

Differences from Maslow's Needs Hierarchy

Beyond simply reducing the distinction between overlapping needs, the ERG theory improves upon the following shortcomings of Maslow's Needs Hierarchy:

- Alderfers ERG theory demonstrates that more than one need may motivate at the same time. A lower motivator need not be substantially satisfied before one can move onto higher motivators.
- The ERG theory also accounts for differences in need preferences between cultures better than Maslow's Need Hierarchy; the order of needs can be different for different people. This flexibility accounts for a wider range of observed behaviours. For example, it can explain the "starving artist" who may place growth needs above those of existence.
- The ERG theory acknowledges that if a higher-order need is frustrated, an individual may regress to increase the satisfaction of a lower-order need which appears easier to satisfy. This is known as the *frustration-regression principle*.

Leadership Lessons

Unlike with Maslow's theory, managers need to understand that each employee operates with the need to satisfy several motivators simultaneously. Based upon the ERG theory, leadership which focuses on exclusively one need at a time will not motivate their people effectively.

Furthermore, the frustration-regression principle has additional impact on motivation in the workplace. As an example, if employees are not provided opportunities to grow, an employee might regress to fulfilling relatedness needs, socializing with co-workers more. Or, the inability of the environment or situation to satisfy a need for social interaction might increase the desire for more money or better working conditions. If Leadership recognizes these conditions soon enough in the process, they can take steps to satisfy those needs which are frustrated until such time that the worker can again pursue growth.

Leadership Functions

TASK

Purpose	Am I clear what the task is?
Responsibilities	Am I clear what mine are?
Objectives	Have I agreed objectives with my superior?
Programme	Have I worked one out to reach my objective?
Working Conditions	Are these right for the job?
Resources	Are these adequate for the job (money, men materials etc)?
Targets	Has each member clearly defined them and agreed them?
The Boss	Does everyone know to whom they are accountable?
Group Size	Is it too large can it be reduced?
Authority	Is the line of authority clear?
Training	Are there any gaps in the groups abilities?
Priorities	Have I made a good time estimate?
Progress	Do I check this regularly and evaluate?
Supervision	In my absence who covers for me?
Supervision 2	Am I supervising enough or too much?
Example	I am setting a good example
Support	Do I visit people at work enough?

TEAM

Objectives	Does the team understand them?
Standards	Do they know what is expected?
Safety	Do they know the consequences of safety violations
Size of Team	Is it too big or too small?
Team members	Are the right people working together?
Team spirit	Is the task structured to encourage this?
Discipline	Are the rules know and seen to be reasonable?
Supervision	Am I impartial?
Grievances	Are these dealt with properly, is there a formal procedure?
Consultation	Is this genuine. Do I encourage and welcome ideas and suggestions?
Briefing	Is this regular and structured?
Policy	Do the team know the org's attitude?
Subordinates	(eg Sect Comds) do they have the tools to be effective?
Back up	Am I prepared to back my team when required?
Support	Do I visit people at work enough?

INDIVIDUAL

Targets	Have they been agreed and quantified?
Induction	Does he really know the org?
Achievement	Does he know his work contribution?
Responsibilities	Has he got a job description?
Authority	Does he have sufficient for the task?
Training	Is he trained to do the job?
Recognition	Do I emphasise peoples success
Criticism	Is my criticism constructive?
Growth	Does he see the chance for development?
Performance	Is this regularly reviewed?
Reward	Are the tasks and rewards in balance?
The task	Is he in the right job?
The person	How well do I know him?
Time/Attention	Do I spend enough time with individuals Listening, counselling and developing?
Grievances	Are these being dealt with properly
Security	Does he know about pensions, benefits, redundancy.
Support	Do I visit people at the work enough?

ADAIR'S CYCLE

Adair's cycle seeks to explore three areas where people integrated to work more effectively. Therefore have 3 areas to work in:

- The Task (or the job).
- The Individuals.
- The Team

All three areas are inter-related. To be effective a group needs team spirit and targets to aim at in order to get the task done. The individual has personal needs and ambitions and the need to feel an active part of the team.

Therefore your Responsibilities as a Leader are:

- To Achieve the Task set you
- To Develop and motivate the Individual team members
- To build and maintain the team

Note well that a breakdown in one area will affect the others and prevent the job being done as effectively as it could be. Overleaf is a checklist for each area, use it when you have to plan a task or are having problems achieving a task.

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              ┌────────┐
              │  TASK  │
              └────────┘
             /          \
            v            v
   ┌────────────┐      ┌────────┐
   │ INDIVIDUAL │─────>│  TEAM  │
   └────────────┘      └────────┘
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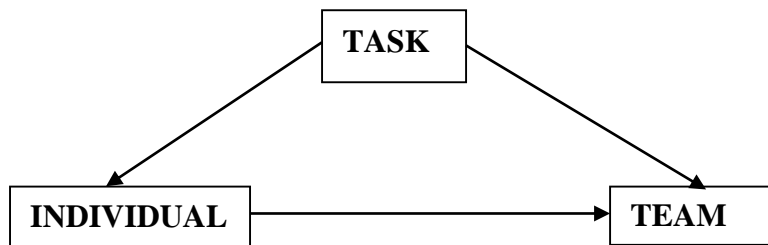
Position Power and Power

Position Power

USE OF AUTHORITY BY THE LEADER

AREA OF FREEDOM FOR SUBORDINATE   **People Power**

TELLS	SELLS	CONSULTS	SHARES	DELEGATES
MAKES A DECISION AND ANNOUNCES IT	MAKES DECISION EXPLAINS IT	GETS SUGGESTIONS DISCUSSES AND DECIDES	DEFINES LIMITS LETS GROUP DECIDE	ALLOWS SUBORDINATES TO FUNCTION WITHIN DEFINED LIMITS
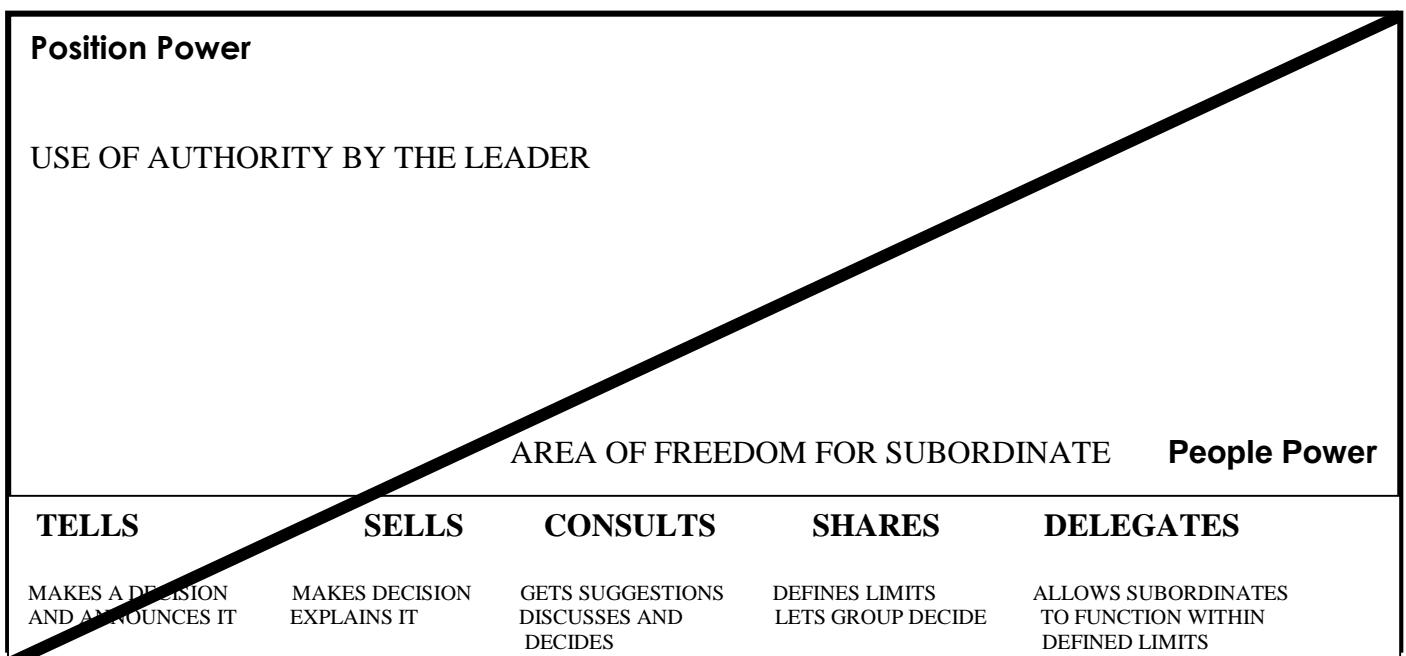
QUALITIES OF A LEADER (Mnemonic - CWIKISEA)

Military leaders should endeavour to possess the following qualities:

Courage: Strength, firmness in the face of danger and difficult painful situations (bravery, zeal, boldness, moral courage).

Willpower: The determination to get things done regardless of how unpleasant or difficult it is.

Integrity: Believing in what one is and what one is doing (honest, impartial, irreproachable, fair).

Knowledge: Know your job and continue to learn.

Initiative: The willingness to take action and to take the lead when necessary, to act on your own when needed.

Self-Confidence: You must believe in yourself and stick with your decisions, and have the confidence to make those decisions.

Enthusiasm: Be a self-starter. Enthusiasm is infective and you must pass this enthusiasm on to your men.

Ability to Communicate: The ability to make those under you understand exactly what you want them to do and why.

Others could be: Common sense, a sense of humanity, fitness, flexibility of mind and pride in your command.

Principles of Leadership

There are ten (10) basic principles of leadership. They are as follows:
Achieve professional competence.

- Evaluate your own strengths and limitations and pursue self-improvement.
- Seek and accept responsibility.
- Lead by example.
- Make sure that your followers know your meaning and intent, then lead them to the accomplishment of the mission.
- Know your soldiers and promote their welfare.
- Develop the leadership potential of your followers.
- Make sound and timely decisions.
- Train your soldiers as a team and employ them up to their capabilities.
- Keep your followers informed of the mission, the changing situation and the overall picture.

Self Improvement

Leadership can be learnt through:

- Education

- Training
- Experience
- Coaching
- Advice
- Following a good example

There are two major components of leadership - self-awareness and self discipline.

<u>Self Awareness</u>

- Know yourself.
- Find out what others think about you. - take action:
- Seek advice.
- Extra training.
- Home study - work on your weaknesses
- Be honest!

<u>Self Discipline</u>

- Stay focused.
- Establish what you want to do and drive it through.
- Don't bend under pressure from others.
- Maintain your ambitions.
- Use leadership checklist.

THE OFFICER / SNCO RELATIONSHIP

Introduction

As a junior Officer your relationship with your NCOs is crucial. Failure in this area could lead to your failure as an Officer. This section will explain how relations can be fostered and developed.

What's the difference?

Officers are selected based on their education and leadership potential. SNCOs attain their rank based on their performance as soldiers.

OFFICERS ARE PAID TO *THINK* & SNCO's ARE PAID TO *IMPLEMT (but think also)*.

How is the relationship formed?

Trust and mutual respect: Young Officers must respect the experience and knowledge of SNCOs. As the experience of the Officer grows, so he will take a greater share of command.

Company and Battalion Commanders already possess a good deal of experience and they will not need to rely on their CSMs/RSMs so much. They will remain the key advisors on soldiering issues, but the balance of power needs to be maintained so as not to usurp mission command.

How is the relationship developed?

- By exercising good leadership!
- Respect your soldiers.
- Develop your soldiers.
- Listen to advice.
- Delegate tasks
- Give credit where it's due.
- Care for, and get to know, your soldiers.
- Your soldiers should repay you – with loyalty, trust, mutual respect and comradeship.

What are the benefits of the relationship?

- An SNCO who works well for you should be able to:
- Advise his Officer on the mood of the men.
- Provide seasoned advice on all admin issues.
- Translate your intent into soldier speak.
- Take over for short periods of time.
- Development of trust, loyalty and mutual respect encourages teamwork and self discipline.

How far should the relationship go?

It is good to have a personal relationship with your SNCO, but never allow it to become informal. Informality will interfere with your ability to command. It is difficult to command or discipline a friend, less so a colleague.

MORALE

Morale is perhaps the single most factor that influences the success of most military operations. Sound operational spirit generates the physical and emotional drive to perform to or beyond expectation. Where morale is dampened, this cannot be achieved

Factors Influencing Morale

When a group has high morale, it is mainly because each of its members feels well in the group. For a military formation, requirements in that domain are as follows:

Common Objective: The lowest level in a group offers the best possibilities for making soldiers aware of a common aim. The principle of teamwork in accomplishing short-term objectives is conducive to adopting the principle common formation objectives;

Command: The leader who does not give a good example and who does not put into practice what he teaches, sometimes drains morale from his troops. The efficient leader contributes to good morale whereas the ineffective one destroys that feeling of well being permeating the group, replacing it with the sensation that everything is going wrong;

Discipline: In the true sense of the word, discipline is essential to good military morale. At the very first stages of training, good discipline produces good morale. There is a very close connection between good discipline and good morale.

Self-respect: Good morale can only be achieved if each soldier is aware of his own dignity. Men have an innate need to belong to a group and contribute to its work. The leader should encourage and profit from that need. The new arrival must be incorporated into the formation once his basic training is completed. In allotting tasks, the leader will take into account the type of work suitable for the formation, its capabilities and the special aptitudes of each person. It is important to promptly and openly praise work well done and or to criticize intelligently and in private, the person responsible for poor work;

Pride: Once the soldier has acquired self-respect, he should be encouraged to be proud of his unit. The leader should organise sports meets or competitions with other formations and constantly seek the opportunity to challenge other units. It is up to the leader to take the initiative, and ensure participation of the greatest number of his soldiers in these activities and to encourage the group along those lines. By constant effort, the leader will create a suitable climate and promote the development of a sense of pride within the group;

Comradeship: The leader can develop a sense of loyalty in the group, create a family spirit and encourage the development of a sense of humour. Those steps will enable the group to store up energy that will be quite useful during difficult times;

Mutual confidence: Mutual: confidence is related to the respect soldiers have for each other's professional competence. It should exist at all levels and be evident among all soldiers without distinction of rank. The confidence of subordinates will increase greatly if the leader can, himself, carry out all the work that he assigns to them. This factor is especially important when the mission includes such dangers as, for example, underwater operations. The group should be convinced that the leader will represent them justly and equitably to higher levels of command and he himself should always avoid criticising his superiors. Thanks to those measures, mutual confidence will reign within the group;

Religious beliefs: The head of the group must ensure that his subordinates can see to their own spiritual needs; for this purpose, he arranges interviews for them with the military

chaplain and gives them the opportunity to participate in religious ceremonies. He ensures that all members of the group are able to practice their faith without prejudice and ridicule within the group. The leader's personal convictions are not of great importance; he should support and encourage any step that aims at encouraging his troops to perform well;

Family welfare: Members separated from their families can have problems, which may assume such importance that their morale is affected and their effectiveness reduced. The leader should know well, the means available to his men for getting help from various organisations; and

Comfort and well-being: When members work for long hours even under difficult conditions, their morale will remain high providing:

- The leader explains the reason for the mission to them.

- The men know that their superiors are truly looking after their well-being.

- Comfort is important and desirable when the situation permits, but it does not replace other factors and is of no significance in itself.

- The soldier must be convinced that the leader does everything possible for them. If they are so convinced, they are ready to accept hardships and lack of comfort without adverse effect on their morale.

Evaluating Morale

A leader should be aware of factors affecting the troops during their military career. The morale of a subordinate is measured against his attitude towards:

- The service (RSLAF);
- Himself
- His comrades
- His leader
- His nation

ETHICS

There is a need for all Officers (RSLAF) to take morally and ethically correct decisions and understand how to make the right choices in their respective societies.

Defining Ethics

Not at all easy to define. However, Ethics are:

- Morale principles Governing or Influencing 'CONDUCT"
- Ethics deals with 'CHOICES'
- Ethics are not a set of rules, they are 'A WAY OF LIFE"

We are dealing with the simple choice between RIGHT and WRONG. Ethics are based on the principles and obligations that govern all actions and practices of institutions and individuals in society, of which the military is just a part.

This is a very wide topic as it not only deals with honesty and right and wrong choices - it takes in any action, or lack of action that affects human beings directly or indirectly.

Simply put, the more democratic a society is the more ethical it becomes because it has to deal fairly and honestly with all members of society. Those countries less democratic need not worry about ethics as human rights, human freedoms and the rule of law do not count as much there.

Ethics deals with all the freedoms that we expect. It is no one thing, but ethics are underpinned by basic democratic rules such as:

   a. Every individual is equal before and under the law

   b. Everyone must be treated with equal respect and concern

   c. The dignity of all people must be respected

So Ethics is **"doing the right thing with consideration to others"**

Doing the right thing with consideration to others

Making the right decision is not always easy, you often have conflicting interests. Often your choices affect people adversely. You have to choose which the right decision is. It will often take high level morale courage to choose the right one.

Societies change, develop or go backwards. SL has made huge changes in the way that it views people's rights. As it continues to develop so people's rights will become more and more important.

However, one area where SL is not improving is in the level of corruption. Honesty is another aspect of being ethical. To steal or embezzle is a simple option that will always have an impact on other people. The ethical climate in SL is still one where corruption is so widespread it seems to be accepted. As society develops so the resistance to dishonesty will increase, but honesty is one of the factors that will determine whether you develop or not.

Finally there are two areas of ethics: public and private. What you do in your private life has little to do with anyone else – UNLESS It affects some one else.

Finally, here is a list of your obligations as ethical officers.   Again all closely linked to leadership principles and all that you have been taught in the leadership package:

- Integrity
- Loyalty
- Courage
- Honesty
- Fairness
- Responsibility.

ESPRIT D'CORPS

The leader can contribute to development of esprit de corps by using his personality and influence in the following fields:

Pride in the unit. The feeling must be developed that the unit is much more important than any of its individual elements. Each member of the group is convinced that the leader needs his/her special talent, which he/she is truly part of the group and the leader is not merely a vague symbol of authority. From such a sense of collective pride comes the desire to create a homogenous unit to which individual members give limitless loyalty;

The exceptional character of the unit: Within a unit with special characteristics, such as, for example, the first to try out new equipment or to accomplish a special mission, a feeling of pride is very pronounced. Further, if the mission to be accomplished is dangerous, even in peacetime, esprit de corps can gradually manifest itself in an almost unbelievable manner. In this category one finds the crews of submarines, squadrons flying the most advanced aircraft as well as armoured regiments. It is also important to take into account those units that stand out because of the excellence of their leaders; and

Tradition: Within new units inheriting noble traditions, we become aware that the new arrival is very impressed with the prestige these traditions give him. The man boarding a ship bearing the name of a well known warship of old takes pride in it just as would members of a famous regiment or squadron. Those traditions found emblazoned on regimental colours, on trophies and in the name given to ships and squadrons, are outward signs of pride and encourage men to redouble their efforts to improve the efficiency of the unit to which they belong.

How to get things done

Merely apply the leadership principles you have been taught. When you are running through that leadership checklist, make sure you are doing all that is required of you. In the communications modules you are being instructed on how to write clearly, simply and directly so that everyone knows what you want done by whom and when. Follow the Rules here:

a. Be confident – you are a trained officer and know your job. Know that you can do it and be confident that you will do a good job

b. Know what you responsibilities are, you are an officer and are paid to take a certain level of responsibilities. If you are ever unsure what they are – ask! However there are some responsibilities which you will always have as an officer

c. Do not be afraid to take the initiative if you see or know something has to be done. Moral Courage!

d. If something has to be done then examine the problem, look at ways of solving it, come up with a plan, communicate it to the people who need to do it and then see it through to the end. Take the initiative, if you don't chances are no-one else will.

e. Be direct in your communication (oral or written). If you want something done then be clear about who is to do what, when and to what standard. Tell them in simple direct terms.

Principles of Discipline

For an organization or an individual to be considered, that organization or individual must uphold the principle of discipline. These are as follows:

Understanding: Understanding of the law, of your soldiers' rights and of your own powers. You also need to understand then powers that your superior officers have. Often you will not be able to take action yourself but must report it, or charge the offender and refer to a higher authority. You must know how to do this.

Standards: Setting and maintaining the correct standards at all times and in whatever environment you are in.

Communication: You must ensure that everyone knows the rules and this involves you making it absolutely clear to everyone what they are. You must communicate what the rules are before people can be expected to keep to them. People must know the rules and understand them; therefore they have to be reasonable and fair. You will often have to discuss what rules you are putting in place with your subordinates, especially your SNCOs and WOs.

Enforcement: Once you have made the rules and ensured everyone knows what they are they must be enforced. If they are not they are no longer rules, precedents will be set and all the standards you have set will be in doubt. This takes a strong moral courage.

Personal Example: If you make the rules and intend to enforce the rules then you must stick by them all. Your personal example will be watched very carefully and any weakness you show will be followed by your soldiers. For example, you are in a Company Harbour Area and you order that everyone should have their rifle and webbing with them at all times, but you then walk about with just your rifle. The rule no longer applies as you have demonstrated that the rule can be broken. You can no longer, in fairness now punish anyone for not obeying your rule.

Fairness/Impartiality: Favouritism and bias towards certain groups, tribes and political groupings is not acceptable. To maintain discipline, you must be absolutely fair. This is particularly important when dealing with different ranks.

Basic Rules for Maintaining Discipline

There are basic rules for upholding or maintaining discipline within an organization or military institution. Some of these are:

- Know the law.
- Know what your powers are.
- Know how to use your NCOs.
- Never act when you are angry. Take time to cool down and think the problem through.
- Listen to both sides.
- Be impartial even when the matter involves a clash of ranks (but take care not to destroy an NCO's credibility unless you are going to remove or demote him), a clash of cultures, a clash of tribes or a clash of interests.
- However always do something, and always '*be seen*' to be doing something when there is a breakdown of discipline.
- Don't let anyone (no matter what Pl, Company Bn), get away with wrongdoing, eg not saluting a commissioned rank.
- You may well get involved in other disciplinary matters – boards of enquiry, courts martial making, statements to the RPU/SLP etc.   Think the problem through and take

your time. Seek out as much information/evidence as you can, take advice and talk to your commanders. Saying the wrong thing at the wrong time can have serious repercussions later.

- Always think first act later.
- However it still comes down to leadership within your unit. If your men trust you and respect you, then even if they do something wrong and you punish them for it they will accept it as fair.
- Never - One rule for Officers, Another for Junior Ranks!

COURAGE, MORALE AND LEADERSHIP IN BATTLE

Leaders must have courage, be able to maintain morale and ultimately be able to lead their men in battle, whether they are the Pl Comd, Pl Sgt, Sect Comd or the Sect 2IC.

Courage

"War is the realm of danger; therefore **COURAGE** is the soldier's first requirement. Courage is of two kinds: courage in the face of personal danger, and courage to accept responsibility, either before the tribunal of some outside power or before the court of one's own conscience."

In war some men will fail completely – not so much by running away, as by giving false reports after a patrol or by getting taken out of the frontline with "illness" when in fact there is nothing wrong with them what so ever and they are perfectly fit. This type of failure should not be confused with battle shock, which can be treated and is temporary. Leaders must be prepared to do more than is asked of them, to act always, to be bold to be opportunistic and to show by example what needs to be done. Much on the battlefield is decided by example, by men who make things happen and **COURAGE,** like fear, is infectious.

Morale

Battles are largely won or lost in the hearts of men. The WILL TO WIN, which is the manifestation of high morale, can only be generated by the disciplines and the challenges of peacetime training. It is too late to inculcate comradeship, team cohesion, professional pride and self-confidence when battle is joined. To achieve these goals training must be demanding – and some weaker men will be found wanting in the process. Better during training, than on the battlefield when lives of others will also be lost by such weakness.

Leadership in Battle

Leadership in battle is influenced by several factors which are mentioned below:

(i)   **Preparation**: The foundation of leadership in battle should be laid long before operations begin. The leader, who has trained his men well and imposed the stamp of his character upon them, will be well rewarded with their trust and their confidence in his leadership under all conditions. Rigorous and realistic training will also help reduce psychiatric casualties. **Drills and skills**: Individual skills and drills from fire team to company level, instilled by constant and thorough practice, are fundamental to survival in battle and to overcoming inertia and inaction. In battle, leaders will be totally reliant on the standards they have achieved in training. Whatever edge one side possesses over another, in tactical skills, can be attributed in large part to their superior performance. The people who really count in battle are the commanders and trainers at battalion level and below. Tactical decisions taken at higher level may lose a battle, but they can never win it. It is the combat power generated

by skills and drills and procedures at battalion, company, platoon, section and fire team level that breaks the enemy's will to fight on. Commanders at all levels must therefore place the highest priority on peacetime training.

(ii)   **Position of commanders**: It is a fundamental truth that a leader will only succeed in battle if he is to be prepared to lead from the front and risk the penalties and dangers of so doing. This need to lead from the front is as relevant to unpleasant tasks off the battlefield as to dangerous ones on it. There is of course a balance to be struck. A commander will need to judge when his presence is required and whether moving forward will result in getting himself killed or wounded for no benefit. The primary requirement will be for the commander to keep closely in touch with events at his main effort. His position must allow him to feel the ebb and flow of battle so that he can identify the fleeting opportunity or sudden appearance of an enemy weakness and thus know when and where to commit his echelon or reserve to best effect. He should not, therefore allow himself to become physically embroiled in his subordinates' battles.

(iii)   **Orders**: Leaders should develop the techniques and skill to cover the essential points in their orders, in relation to time available and the situation facing them. To confine orders to the essentials takes practice and confidence and is of course a much harder skill than going through every heading in an orders book.

(iv)   **Commanders' intentions:** It is also most important that subordinates understand their higher commanders intentions, so that their own mission and tasks can be interpreted in the light of those intentions. All must understand the framework within which a particular sub – unit is required to execute its task. Without this understanding, resourcefulness, versatility and initiative can become more of a liability than an asset.

(v)   **Unswerving execution:** One of the greatest problems for a commander is to train his subordinates to "close the circuit". All may be loyal, but all will not be sufficiently self-disciplined to see a task through to its proper finish. Leaders, who are soft on the business of unswerving execution, will fail their superiors.

(vi)   **Information**: Leadership in war goes beyond technical expertise and personal bravery. Naturally enough, soldiers fight with greater determination when they have confidence in their leaders and are convinced that everything possible has been done to make the operation a success and the risks to their lives has been minimized. But they also demand to be taken into their leaders confidence and given as much information as possible. We come from an information hungry age, where the media provides a constant flow of information and soldiers will expect to be fully briefed. Failure to do so is likely to damage morale. Leaders should understand that awareness of what is going on, even if only at the lowest level, and the actualities of command are advantages not available to the soldier.

(vii)   **The will to win**: The task of all leaders in war is to ensure that men are made to forget their natural instincts, sublimating the desire to escape beneath a veneer of courage, cohesiveness and corporate strength, for if this can be achieved the chance of victory increases. Thinking back to morale, it is not

something that can be imposed; it is a feeling that must come from the soldiers themselves, manifested in a desire to win and a will to withstand the pressure of war.

(viii)   **Boldness and Caution:** There are times in battle when caution and thought is required and moments when supreme boldness is the key to success. Judging these moments is one of the most difficult yet important skills for a commander to develop. This is the reality of "winning the fire fight", and more important, the exploitation of such fire. The shock effect of fire - direct or indirect - on the enemy, has to be followed up at once or its impact is lost, the enemy has recovered and the potential advantage thrown away.

(ix)   **After the Battle**: The hours following a battle will demand sound reorganization, possibly resistance to counter attack, perhaps exploitation. They will almost certainly produce a heavy volume of indirect fire from the enemy. Yet mental and physical exhaustion will have overcome those who have come through the battle. They may be bewildered by the terrible experience of battle, depressed and angry by the loss of friends, numbed and shocked by the enemy fire. It is time for strong leadership when men must be rallied and kept active and alert. Those showing signs of battle shock should be kept within their group, unless they have actually become dangerous liabilities.

<u>MANAGEMENT</u>

<u>Introduction</u>

Throughout the years, the role of a manager has changed. Years ago, managers were thought of as people who were "the boss." While that might still be true today, many managers view themselves as leaders rather than as people who tell subordinates what to do. The role of a manager is comprehensive and often very complex. Not everyone wants to be a manager, nor should everyone consider being a manager.

<u>Historical Development</u>

Difficulties arise in tracing the history of management. Some see it (by definition) as a late modern (in the sense of late modernity) conceptualization. On those terms it cannot have a pre-modern history, only harbingers (such as stewards). Others, however, detect management-like-thought back to Sumerian traders and to the builders of the pyramids of ancient Egypt. Slave-owners through the centuries faced the problems of exploiting/motivating a dependent but sometimes unenthusiastic or recalcitrant workforce, but many pre-industrial enterprises, given their small scale, did not feel compelled to face the issues of management systematically. However, innovations such as the spread of Arabic numerals (5th to 15th centuries) and the codification of double-entry book-keeping (1494) provided tools for management assessment, planning and control.

Given the scale of most commercial operations and the lack of mechanized record-keeping and recording before the industrial revolution, it made sense for most owners of enterprises in those times to carry out management functions by and for themselves. But with growing size and complexity of organizations, the split between owners (individuals, industrial dynasties or groups of shareholders) and day-to-day managers (independent specialists in planning and control) gradually became more common.

<u>Definition of Management</u>

Some would define management as an art, while others would define it as a science. Whether management is an art or a science isn't what is most important. Management is a process that is used to accomplish organizational goals; that is, a process that is used to achieve what an organization wants to achieve. An organization could be a business, a school, a city, a group of volunteers, or any governmental entity.

"Management is the science of using human and material resources to do a task. It is not commanding or leading but getting a group together to do a task".

Managers are the people to whom this management task is assigned, and it is generally thought that they achieve the desired goals through the key functions of (1) planning, (2) organizing, (3) directing, and (4) controlling. Some would include leading as a managing function, but for the purposes of this discussion, leading is included as a part of directing.

The four key functions of management are applied throughout an organization regardless of whether it is a business, a government agency, or a church group. In a business, which will be the focus here, many different activities take place. For example, in a retail store there are people who buy merchandise to sell, people to sell the

merchandise, people who prepare the merchandise for display, people who are responsible for advertising and promotion, people who do the accounting work, people who hire and train employees, and several other types of workers. There might be one manager for the entire store, but there are other managers at different levels who are more directly responsible for the people who perform all the other jobs. At each level of management, the four key functions of planning, organizing, directing, and controlling are included. The emphasis changes with each different level of manager, as will be explained later.

Planning - Planning in any organization occurs in different ways and at all levels. A top-level manager, says the manager of a manufacturing plant, plans for different events than does a manager who supervises, say, a group of workers who are responsible for assembling modular homes on an assembly line. The plant manager must be concerned with the overall operations of the plant, while the assembly-line manager or supervisor is only responsible for the line that he or she oversees.

Planning could include setting organizational goals. This is usually done by higher-level managers in an organization. As a part of the planning process, the manager then develops strategies for achieving the goals of the organization. In order to implement the strategies, resources will be needed and must be acquired. The planners must also then determine the standards, or levels of quality, that need to be met in completing the tasks.

In general, planning can be strategic planning, tactical planning, or contingency planning. Strategic planning is long-range planning that is normally completed by top-level managers in an organization. Examples of strategic decisions managers make are who the customer or clientele should be, what products or services should be sold, and where the products and services should be sold.

Short-range or tactical planning is done for the benefit of lower-level managers, since it is the process of developing very detailed strategies about what needs to be done, who should do it, and how it should be done. To return to the previous example of assembling modular homes, as the home is nearing construction on the floor of the plant, plans must be made for the best way to move it through the plant so that each worker can complete assigned tasks in the most efficient manner. These plans can best be developed and implemented by the line managers who oversee the production process rather than managers who sit in an office and plan for the overall operation of the company. The tactical plans fit into the strategic plans and are necessary to implement the strategic plans.

Contingency planning allows for alternative courses of action when the primary plans that have been developed don't achieve the goals of the organization. In today's economic environment, plans may need to be changed very rapidly. Continuing with the example of building modular homes in the plant, what if the plant is using a nearby supplier for all the lumber used in the framing of the homes and the supplier has a major warehouse fire and loses its entire inventory of framing lumber. Contingency plans would make it possible for the modular home builder to continue construction by going to another supplier for the same lumber that it can no longer get from its former supplier.

Organizing - Organizing refers to the way the organization allocates resources, assigns tasks, and goes about accomplishing its goals. In the process of organizing, managers arrange a framework that links all workers, tasks, and resources together so the organizational goals can be achieved. The framework is called organizational structure,

which is discussed extensively in another article. Organizational structure is shown by an organizational chart, also discussed extensively in another article. The organizational chart that depicts the structure of the organization shows positions in the organization, usually beginning with the top-level manager (normally the president) at the top of the chart. Other managers are shown below the president.

There are many ways to structure an organization, which are discussed extensively in the articles referred to previously. It is important to note that the choice of structure is important for the type of organization, its clientele, and the products or services it provides—all which influence the goals of the organization.

Directing - Directing is the process that many people would most relate to managing. It is supervising, or leading workers to accomplish the goals of the organization. In many organizations, directing involves making assignments, assisting workers to carry out assignments, interpreting organizational policies, and informing workers of how well they are performing. To effectively carry out this function, managers must have leadership skills in order to get workers to perform effectively.

Some managers direct by empowering workers. This means that the manager doesn't stand like a taskmaster over the workers barking out orders and correcting mistakes. Empowered workers usually work in teams and are given the authority to make decisions about what plans will be carried out and how. Empowered workers have the support of managers who will assist them to make sure the goals of the organization are being met. It is generally thought that workers who are involved with the decision-making process feel more of a sense of ownership in their work, take more pride in their work, and are better performers on the job.

By the very nature of directing, it should be obvious that the manager must find a way to get workers to perform their jobs. There are many different ways managers can do this in addition to empowerment, and there are many theories about the best way to get workers to perform effectively and efficiently. Management theories and motivation are important topics and are discussed in detail in other articles.

Controlling - The controlling function involves the evaluation activities that managers must perform. It is the process of determining if the company's goals and objectives are being met. This process also includes correcting situations in which the goals and objectives are not being met. There are several activities that are a part of the controlling function.

Managers must first set standards of performance for workers. These standards are levels of performance that should be met. For example, in the modular home assembly process, the standard might be to have a home completed in eight working days as it moves through the construction line. This is a standard that must then be communicated to managers who are supervising workers, and then to the workers so they know what is expected of them.

After the standards have been set and communicated, it is the manager's responsibility to monitor performance to see that the standards are being met. If the manager watches the homes move through the construction process and sees that it takes ten days, something must be done about it. The standards that have been set are not being met. In this example, it should be relatively easy for managers to determine where the delays are occurring. Once the problems are analyzed and compared to expectations, then something must be done to correct the results. Normally, the managers would take

corrective action by working with the employees who were causing the delays. There could be many reasons for the delays. Perhaps it isn't the fault of the workers but instead is due to inadequate equipment or an insufficient number of workers. Whatever the problem, corrective action should be taken.

Managerial Skills

To be an effective manager, it is necessary to possess many skills. Not all managers have all the skills that would make them the most effective manager. As technology advances and grows, the skills that are needed by managers are constantly changing. Different levels of management in the organizational structure also require different types of management skills. Generally, however, managers need to have communication skills, human skills, computer skills, time-management skills, and technical skills.

Communication Skills - Communication skills fall into the broad categories of oral and written skills, both of which managers use in many different ways. It is necessary for a manager to orally explain processes and give direction to workers. It is also necessary for managers to give verbal praise to workers. Managers are also expected to conduct meetings and give talks to groups of people.

An important part of the oral communication process is listening. Managers are expected to listen to their supervisors and to their workers. A manager must hear recommendations and complaints on a regular basis and must be willing to follow through on what is heard. A manager who doesn't listen is not a good communicator.

Managers are also expected to write reports, letters, memos, and policy statements. All of these must be written in such a way that the recipient can interpret and understand what is being said. This means that managers must write clearly and concisely. Good writing requires good grammar and composition skills. This is something that can be learned by those aspiring to a management position.

Human Skills - Relating to other people is vital in order to be a good manager. Workers come in about every temperament that can be imagined. It takes a manager with the right human skills to manage this variety of workers effectively. Diversity in the workplace is commonplace. The manager must understand different personality types and cultures to be able to supervise these workers. Human skills cannot be learned in a classroom; they are best learned by working with people. Gaining an understanding of personality types can be learned from books, but practice in dealing with diverse groups is the most meaningful preparation.

Computer Skills - Technology changes so rapidly it is often difficult to keep up with the changes. It is necessary for managers to have computer skills in order to keep up with these rapid changes. Many of the processes that occur in offices, manufacturing plants, warehouses, and other work environments depend on computers and thus necessitate managers and workers who can skilfully use the technology. Although computers can cause headaches, at the same time they have simplified many of the tasks that are performed in the workplace.

Time-Management Skills - Because the typical manager is a very busy person, it is important that time be managed effectively. This requires an understanding of how to allocate time to different projects and activities. A manager's time is often interrupted by telephone calls, problems with workers, meetings, others who just want to visit, and

other seemingly uncontrollable factors. It is up to the manager to learn how to manage time so that work can be completed most efficiently. Good time-management skills can be learned, but managers must be willing to prioritize activities, delegate, deal with interruptions, organize work, and perform other acts that will make them better managers.

Technical Skills - Different from computer skills, technical skills are more closely related to the tasks that are performed by workers. A manager must know what the workers who are being supervised are doing on their jobs or assistance cannot be provided to them. For example, a manager who is supervising accountant needs to know the accounting processes; a manager who is supervising a <u>machinist</u> must know how to operate the equipment; and a manager who supervises the construction of a home must know the sequence of operations and how to perform them.

Management Thought

There are many views of management, or schools of management thought, that have evolved over the years. What follows is a brief discussion of some of the theories of management that have greatly affected how managers manage today.

Classical Thought - The classical school of management thought emerged throughout the late 1800s and early 1900s as a result of the Industrial Revolution. Since the beginning of time, managers have needed to know how to perform the functions discussed earlier. The Industrial Revolution emphasized the importance of better management as organizations grew larger and more complex. As industry developed, managers had to develop systems for controlling inventory, production, scheduling, and human resources. It was the managers who emerged during the Industrial Revolution, many who had backgrounds in engineering, who discovered that they needed organized methods in order to find solutions to problems in the workplace.

Classical Management Theorists thought there was one way to solve management problems in the industrial organization. Generally, their theories assumed that people could make logical and rational decisions while trying to maximize personal gains from their work situations. The classical school of management is based on scientific management which has its roots in Henri Fayol's work in France and the ideas of German Sociologist Max Weber. Scientific management is a type of management that bases standards upon facts. The facts are gathered by observation, experimentation, or sound reasoning. In the United States, scientific management was further developed by individuals such as Charles Babbage (1792–1871), Frederick W. Taylor (1856–1915), and Frank (1868–1924) and Lillian (1878–1972) Gilbreth.

Behavioural Management Thought - It was because the Classical Management Theorists were so machine-oriented that the behaviour lists began to develop their thinking. The behavioural managers began to view management from a social and psychological perspective. These managers were concerned about the well-being of the workers and wanted them to be treated as people, not a part of the machines.

Some of the early behavioural theorists were Robert Owen (1771–1858), a British Industrialist who was one of the first to promote management of human resources in an organization; Hugo Munsterberg(1863–1916), the father of industrial psychology; Walter Dill Scott (1869–1955), who believed that managers need to improve workers' attitudes and motivation in order to increase productivity; and Mary Parker Follett (1868–

1933), who believed that a manager's influence should come naturally from his or her knowledge, skill, and leadership of others.

In the behavioural management period, there was a human relations movement. Advocates of the human relations movement believed that if managers focused on employees rather than on <u>mechanistic</u> production, then workers would become more satisfied and thus more productive labourers. Human relations management supported the notion that managers should be paternalistic and nurturing in order to build work groups that could be productive and satisfied.

The behavioural science movement was also an important part of the behavioural management school. Advocates of this movement stressed the need for scientific studies of the human element of organizations. This model for management emphasized the need for employees to grow and develop in order to maintain a high level of self-respect and remain productive workers. The earliest advocates of the behavioural science movement were Abraham Maslow (1908–1970), who developed Maslow's hierarchy of needs, and Douglas McGregor (1906–1964), who developed Theory X and Theory Y. These theories are discussed in depth in other articles.

Contemporary Management Thought - In more recent years, new management thoughts have emerged and influenced organizations. One of these is the socio-technical system. A system is a set of complementary elements that function as a unit for a specific purpose. Systems theorists believe that all parts of the organization must be related and that managers from each part must work together for the benefit of the organization. Because of this relationship, what happens in one part of the organization influences and affects other parts of the organization.

Another contemporary approach to managing involves contingency theories. This approach states that the manager should use the techniques or styles that are most appropriate for the situation and the people involved. For example, a manager of a group of Ph.D. chemists in a laboratory would have to use different techniques from a manager of a group of teenagers in a fast-food restaurant.

Closed Management Systems - Within the classical and behavioural approaches to management, the managers look only within the organization to improve productivity and efficiency. This is a closed system—the organization operates as though it is in its own environment. Outside influence and information are blocked out.

Open Management Systems - Another perspective is the open system. As one would expect, here the organization functions in conjunction with its external environment, acting with and relying upon other systems. Advocates of an open system believe that an organization cannot avoid the influence of outside forces.

<u>**Managerial Process**</u>

One of the first and most widely quoted, analyses is that given by Henri Fayol, who analyzed the activities of industrial undertakings into six groups:

- Technical (production, manufacture and adaptation)

- Commercial (buying, selling, exchange & Mkt info)
- Financial (obtaining capital & making optimal use of available funds)
- Security (safeguarding property and persons)
- Accounting (info on economic position, stock taking, balance sheet, cost, statistics etc)

- Managerial (the term management is a translation of the French term administration)

Managerial work involves planning, organization, direction, co-ordination and controlling of work activities. It also deals with motivation.

Principles of Management

Fayol suggested that a set of well established principles will help concentrate general discussion on management theory. He emphasizes that these principles must be flexible and adaptable to changing circumstances. Fayol suggested that there are no limits to the principles of management but in his writing advocated 14 of them. These are as follows:

- **Division of work**: The essence is to harness more and better work from the same effort, thereby maximizing the advantages of specialization. However there are limits to division of work which experience and a sense of proportion tells us should not be exceeded.

- **Authority and responsibility**: Responsibility is the corollary of authority. Wherever authority is exercised responsibility arises. The application of sanction is essential to good management, and is needed to encourage useful actions and discourage their opposite. The best safeguard against abuse of authority is the personal integrity of the manager.

- **Discipline**: Is essential for the efficient operation of the organization. It is the outward mark of respect for agreement between the organization and its members.

- **Unit of command**: In any action the employee should receive orders from one superior only; if not authority is undermined and discipline, order and stability is threatened. Dual command is a perpetual source of conflicts.

- **Subordination of individual interest to general interest**: The interest of the organization should exceed individual or group interest.

- **Unit of Direction** - In order to provide for unity of action, co-ordination and focusing of effort, there should be one head and plan for any group of activity that has the same objective.

- **Remuneration of personnel**: This should satisfy both employee and employer. Amount and method of payment fosters organizational effectiveness and this should be fair to encourage keenness by rewarding well directed effort, but not lead to over payment.

- **Centralization**: Evident in any organization. The degree of centralization is a question of proportion and varies from one organization to another.

- **Scalar chain**: The chain of superiors from the ultimate authority to the lowest ranks. Respect for line authority must be reconciled with activity which require urgent action and with the need to provide initiative.

- **Order**: This includes material and social order. The object of material order is avoidance of loss. Everything should be placed in its appropriate places. Social order requires an appropriate place for each employee. Social and material order requires good organisation and selection.

- **Equity**: The desire for equity and for equality treatment is aspirations to be taken into account in dealing with employees throughout all levels of the scalar chain.

- **Stability** of tenure of personnel: Generally, prosperous organizations have stable managerial personnel, but changes of personnel are inevitable and stability of tenure is a question of proportion or option.
- **Initiative**: This represent source of strength for the organization and must be encouraged and developed. Tact and integrity are required to promote initiative and to retain respect for authority and discipline.

- **Esprit de corps**: This should be fostered as harmony and unity amongst members is a great strength in the organization. It is necessary to avoid divide and rule of one's own team if you are to maintain esprit de corps.

Management is not homogeneous. It takes place at different places and at different levels of the organization. Managerial process involves division and apt execution of all work activities within a given organization. There are has been no set limits to the principles of management so far.

Management in the 21st Century

In the 21st century observers find it increasingly difficult to subdivide management into functional categories in this way. More and more processes simultaneously involve several categories. Instead, one tends to think in terms of the various processes, tasks, and objects subject to management.

Branches of management theory also exist relating to nonprofits and to government: such as Public Administration, Public Management, and Educational Management. Further, management programs related to civil-society organizations have also spawned programs in non-profit management and social entrepreneurship.

Note that many of the assumptions made by management have come under attack from business ethics viewpoints, critical management studies, and anti-corporate activism.

As one consequence, workplace democracy has become both more common, and more advocated, in some places distributing all management functions among the workers, each of whom takes on a portion of the work. However, these models predate any current political issue, and may occur more naturally than does a command hierarchy. All management to some degree embraces democratic principles in that in the long term workers must give majority support to management; otherwise they leave to find other work, or go on strike. Despite the move toward workplace democracy, command-and-control organization structures remain commonplace and the de facto organization structure. Indeed, the entrenched nature of command-and-control can be seen in the way that recent layoffs have been conducted with management ranks affected far less

than employees at the lower levels of organizations. In some cases, management has even rewarded itself with bonuses when lower level employees have been laid off.

Multi-Divisional Management Hierarchy

The management of a large organization may have about five levels:

- Senior management (or "top management" or "upper management")
- Middle management
- Low-level management, such as supervisors or team-leaders
- Foreman
- Rank and File

Top-Level Management

- Require an extensive knowledge of management roles and skills.
- They have to be very aware of external factors such as markets.
- Their decisions are generally of a long-term nature
- Their decisions are made using analytic, directive, conceptual and/or behavioural/participative processes
- They are responsible for **strategic** decisions.
- They have to chalk out the plan and see that plan may be effective in the future.
- They are executive in nature.

Middle Management

- Mid-level managers have a specialized understanding of certain managerial tasks.
- They are responsible for carrying out the decisions made by top-level management. Finance ,marketing etc are comes under middle level management

Lower Management

This level of management ensures that the decisions and plans taken by the other two are carried out. Lower-level managers' decisions are generally short-term ones.

Foreman / Lead hand

They are people who have direct supervision over the working force in office factory, sales field or other workgroup or areas of activity.

Rank and File

The responsibilities of the persons belonging to this group are even more restricted and more specific than those of the foreman.

MANAGEMENT THEORY

Introduction

The Manager's primary commitment is to the employing organisation. His/her job is to manage members of the organisation in achieving that organisation's goals using his/her positional power. Good management involves:

- Information Control (Keeping people informed about issues which affect them)
- Resources control (Allocated on the basis of business priority)
- An Appraisal system (Using performance indicators and objectives as the basis of appraisal)
  ob Seniority (Giving clear instructions for tasks)
- Specialist Expertise (Sharing expertise to help and develop others) Rewards and Punishment (Using rewards fairly and transparently based on objective criteria)
- Managing Access to People (on the basis of need and business priority)

A manager needs formal positional power to be effective. Douglas McGregor (1960) described two ways in which employees may be viewed, Theory X and Theory Y. Theory X stipulates that employees are "motivated mainly by money, are lazy, uncooperative and have poor work habits." This is the traditional view of direction and control by managers. Three of the main theories of management are: F.W. Taylor's Scientific Management, (1856-1915), Henri Fayol's Classical Organisation Theory (1841-1925), and The Hawthorne Experiment Approach (1924 -1932), which gave rise to The Human Relations Movement.

Scientific Management

F.W. Taylor believed that the most efficient methods for completing a task and for the selection, development and motivation of employees could be scientifically determined.
His theories were based on his studies of pig-iron production lines at the Bethlehem Steel Corporation, and centred on the increased productivity of a Dutch labourer by the name of Schmidt. By tailoring Schmidt's work methods, Taylor was able to improve his output level. Schmidt was rewarded for the increased output by a 60% rise in wages. The theory was applied to the other steelworkers where there was a notable but erratic increase in output. (LJ Mullins, 2006). On the surface, Taylor's theory of scientific management seemed successful. However, it was based on the theory that workers conform to the personality of Douglas McGregor's Theory X. Clearly, employees are individuals, are not purely motivated by money and have a wide variety of needs. This fact is illustrated by Abraham Maslow's 'Five Tier Hierarchy of Needs' (1954), in which he states: "an employee's most powerful need is the one which has not yet been met."

Classical Organisational Theory

Henry Fayol's Classical Organisational theory attempted to identify principles of management that would apply to all organisations. He defined management as having five functions; "planning (examining the future and drawing up plans of actions), organising (building up the structure of the undertaking), commanding (maintaining activity among the personnel), co-ordinating (unifying and harmonizing activities and efforts) and controlling (seeing that everything occurs in conformity with policies and practices)". His study showed the idea that the principles of organisational and administrative effectiveness depended on the positional power held and discouraged any ideas of rigidity. The theory was based upon the idea that human beings are driven by physiological needs and that they are rational, a mistaken assumption

similar to that made by FW Taylor's Scientific Management theory. Both theories seem to regard the organisation and its members not as individuals, but as parts of the organisational machine.

The Human Relations Movement

The Human Relations Movement viewed people as driven by both economic and social needs. It attempted to approach the subject of organisational management psychologically. The theory was based upon increased productivity and employee satisfaction as a result of increased management concern for employee welfare and individual attention. Elton Mayo's work on human behaviour at The Hawthorne Works of The Western Electric Company in Chicago (1924-1927) produced many conclusions in respect of human relations and motivation theory. These highlighted the need for group collaboration to be planned and developed, and understanding of the influence on the workplace of an employee's personal circumstances. Though a huge step toward the Neo-Human Relations Approach, which more deeply investigates human behaviour and its influences on organisational management, it still neglected to fully appreciate the individuality of employees within the organisation.

HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

Quote

"The best Human Resource people are a form of hybrid: One part Pastor who hears all sins and complaints without recrimination, and part parent who loves and nurtures, but gives it to you fast and straight when you are off track ....They see the hidden hierarchies in peoples minds – the invisible organisational chart of political connections that exists in every organisation."
 (JACK WELCH)

Introduction

The efficiency and performance of staff, and their commitment to the objectives of the organisation, are fostered by good human relationship at work. This demands that proper attention be given to human resource management and harmonious employment relations. The manager needs to understand the importance of good managerial practises and how to make the best use of people. The promotion of good human relations is an integral part of the process of management and improved organisational behaviour.

Nature of Human Resource Management

However the activities of management are identified, and whatever the nature of organisational processes, an essential part of the process of management is that proper attention be given to the efficient use of resources, in particular human resources. The significance of human resources and people as the most important aspect of any organisation is emphasised by Gratton. As the basis of her living strategy, Gratton puts forward four basic propositions:

- There are fundamental difference between people as an asset and the traditional assets of finance or technology.

- An understanding of these fundamental differences creates a whole new way of thinking and working in organisation, a shift in mind-set.

- Business strategies can only be realised through people.

- Creating a strategic approach to people necessitates a strong dialogue across the organisation.

Human Resource Management (HRM) /Personnel Management debate

You will be aware that in recent years there has been a noticeable popularity in the use of the term human resource management to replace the term personnel management. Discussion generally centers on the extent to which either: HRM is a new and distinctive philosophy with a paradigm shift towards a more strategic approach to people management, or simply 'new wine in old bottles' and in reality no more than a different term from what good managers have always been. There seems little to be gained over the proliferation of this debate.

What is worthy to note here is that it does not necessarily implies HRM will result in higher level of motivation, job satisfaction or organisational performance than would be achieved by a traditional personnel management approach.

However, it is recognised that with development in IT, new forma of work organisation and structure, flexible working arrangements etc, provide a challenge to traditional personnel management. There seems little to be gained over the proliferation of this debate. What is worthy to note here is that it does not necessarily implies HRM will result in higher level of motivation, job satisfaction or organisational performance than would be achieved by a traditional personnel management approach.

However, it is recognised that with development in IT, new forma of work organisation and structure, flexible working arrangements etc, provide a challenge to traditional Personnel Management.

HRM Definitions

HRM is often defined in very general and broad terms. According to Fisher et al, HRM "involves all managerial decisions and practises that directly affect or influence the people, or human resources, who work for the organisation".

The Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development: define HRM as "the design, implementation and maintenance of strategies to manage people for optimum business performance including the development of policies and processes to support these strategies and the evaluation of the contribution of people to the business".

According to Torrington et al in 1995, HRM is "a series of activities which: first enables working people and the organisation which uses their skills to agree about their objectives and nature of their working relationship, and secondly ensures that the agreement is fulfilled".

It seems reasonable to conclude that there is no clear distinction between Personnel Management and HRM.

However, the increasing emphasis on effective employee relations and the importance of securing the involvement and commitment of the staff to the aims of the organisation may at least in part be argued as justification for the change in title according to Crainer.

Critical Reflection!! - Until HR professionals can produce hard and clear measures of their value to improved performance, it is perhaps no surprise that they are perceived as making only marginal contribution to organisational effectiveness.

Do you think HR professionals lack credibility among line managers? How would you attempt to measure the contribution of the HR Department?

Organisation of HRM Function

Smaller organisations may not justify a specialist human resource manager or a separate department. But it is still necessary to have an effective HRM Function, whether it is the responsibility of the owner or a Manager or an Administrative Assistant. Even in smaller organisations or organisations where a specialist department has not been established, there will be a need to recruit staff, to train them, motivate them and to comply with the laws relating to employment.

In larger organisations, where more time is taken up with problems of organisation and the management of people, there is a greater need for a specialist member of staff to charge with the responsibility of advising top management on human resource matters. For instance, high staffing costs together with increasing employment legislation and changing nature of work organisation combine to suggest that personnel activities and employee relations are areas of increasing specialisation.

Human Resource Manager

Quote: "Good Managers have a bias for action." (Thomas J. Peters)

Even when personnel work is established as a separate, specialist function, it is not easy to define closely the activities of the HRM department. The range of responsibilities varies from one organisation to another, as to the title and status of the head of the department and position in the management structure.

In the larger organisations, activities might be divided between two or more specialists, so that it will be possible to have, e.g. HR Manager, Training Officer and Employee Relations Advisor. Whatever the range of responsibilities, the manager operates by consent & by delegated authority. How much consent is dependent on the attitude of top management, the role they see the personnel specialist (s) performing and formal organisational relationships with Line Managers.

Line Managers are Department or Unit Managers with responsibility for the production process – for operational functions directly related to the purpose and aims of the organisation. The form a hierarchical level in the chain of command throughout the organisation structure and are responsible for management of their own staff. However, although Line Managers are specialists in their own area of work, they are not necessarily specialist in HRM. Just as Line Managers turn to specialists on legal, accounting, IT, etc so they may be able to help, guide and give specialist advice on personnel activities.

Many organisations especially in public sector, are working towards a service legal agreement approach where a service is defined along with costs, and department purchase full or part of the service according to needs. This encourages HR to focus on customer service.

Effective managers are catalysts, brokers, facilitators, coaches and people developer. Because thinking is the most important work we do today, Managers need to ask stimulating questions to draw new solutions out of people, to get mental work done through them. This makes Managers facilitators more than decision makers as they were thought of in the old days. Certainly they still make decisions but ineffective managers do too much of their own thinking, hence not reaping the fullest return of all resources at their disposal – they are poor investors

Effective managers know that delegation is not enough in today's knowledge driven world to get work done through people. Why – most of the critical work we do today is to make decisions, solve problems and think creatively – this is mental.

Smart managers get this kind of work done through people by asking them the sort of questions that stimulates people to think in order to draw solutions out of people

Skilled managers know how to get the best out of people by asking them the right questions – those that make them think differently, not simply fact-gathering questions. Managers need to be upgraded for the 21st century. They need to cast off the negative image as mechanistic, controlling and task oriented. We need a concept of management that makes it nurturing, supportive and development.

Leadership is just one of the many assets a successful manager must possess. Care must be taken in distinguishing between the two concepts.

Manager - A manager is a person tasked with overseeing one or more employees or departments to ensure these employees or departments carry out assigned duties as required. Depending on the size of the company there might be a single, dual or triple management layer involved.

Leader - An individual who is able to exert influence over other people to help achieve group or organizational goals is referred to as a leader. The definitions of leadership and management revolve around their output or focus and not input (personality)

Peter Drucker: "The only definition of a leader is someone who has followers."

Warren Bennis : "Leadership is a function of knowing yourself, having a vision that is well communicated, building trust among colleagues, and taking effective action to realize your own leadership potential."

John W. Gardner: Leadership is the process of persuasion and example by which an individual (or leadership team) induces a group to take action that is in accord with the leader's purpose, or the shared purposes of all."

Effective management requires a different set of skills from leadership.

- Managers promote efficiency to deliver on today's goals, to   execute existing directions – Leaders generate new directions
- Anything to do with making decisions, to allocate resources, motivate or develop people is a matter for managers
- In contrast, leaders influence people to change direction
- When senior managers decide to change direction, this is seen as leadership – such a decision (simply because it is a decision) is an investment decision – not leadership
  -   A decision is made to emphasize a different market segment or product group.
  - Decision flow from authority, leadership is an act of persuasion
- Managers have resources at their disposal to invest – people, material and a budget, in addition to their own time and energy.
- Smart managers think carefully on a regular basis about how to get the best return on these resources.
- In the case of the human resources, it is not just a matter of having the right employee in the right place at the right time, it is also about developing and improving that resource

Functions of a Manager

To be an effective manager, it is necessary to possess many skills. Not all managers have all the skills that would make them the most effective manager. As technology advances and grows, the skills that are needed by managers are constantly changing. Different levels of management in the organizational structure also require different types of management skills. Generally, however, managers need to have communication skills, human skills, computer skills, time-management skills, and technical skills.

Managerial Skills

- Communication Skills - fall into the broad categories of oral and written skills, both of which managers use in many different ways.

- Human Skills - Relating to other people is vital in order to be a good manager.

- Computer Skills - Technology changes so rapidly it is often difficult to keep up with the changes. It is necessary for managers to have computer skills in order to keep up with these rapid changes.

- Time-Management Skills - Because the typical manager is a very busy person, it is important that time be managed effectively. This requires an understanding of how to allocate time to different projects and activities.

- Technical Skills - Different from computer skills, technical skills are more closely related to the tasks that are performed by workers. A manager must know what the workers who are being supervised are doing on their jobs or assistance cannot be provided to them.

Managerial Roles

Based on the study of the work of five chief executives of medium-sized to large organization, Mintzberg classifies the activities which constitute the essential functions of a top manager's job. The manager's job can be described more meaningfully in terms of the various activities or roles associated with the position.

Mintzberg recognises that people who manage have formal authority over the unit they command and this leads to a special position or status in the organization. As a result of this formal authority and status, managerial activities can be seen as a set of ten managerial roles groped into four categories:

- Figurehead Role - The most basic and simple of managerial roles. The Manager is a symbol and represents the organization in matters of formality.
- Leader Role – Amongst the most significant of roles and it permeates all activities of a Manager.
- Liaison Role – Involves the horizontal relationships with individuals and groups outside their own unit or organization.
- Monitoring Role - Identifies the manager in seeking and receiving information. This information enables the manager to develop understanding of the working of an organization and its environment
- Disseminator Role - Involves the manager transmitting external information into the organization through the liaison role and internal information through leader role between the subordinates.

- Spokesperson Role – Involves the manager as formal authority in transmitting information to people outside the unit, such as the Board of Directors or other superiors, and the general public such as suppliers, customers, government departments and the press.
- Entrepreneurial Role - Is the manager's function to initiate and plan controlled (ie voluntary) change through exploiting opportunities or solving problems, and taking actions to improve the existing situations.
- Disturbance Handler Role – Involves the manager in reacting to involuntary situations and unpredictable events. He is a leader of corrective measures in his unit or organization.
- Resource Allocator Role – Involves the manager in using formal authority to decide where effort will be expended, and making choices on the allocation of resources such as money, time, materials and staff.
- Negotiator Role – Participation of negotiating activity with other individuals or organization. eg. a new agreement with a trade union.

Note - Mintzberg emphasize that this set of ten roles is a somewhat arbitrary division of the Manager's activities. Mintzberg set of managerial roles can now be summarised into the under mentioned principal functions:

- Planning: Deciding what needs to happen in the future (today, next week, next month, next year, over the next 5 years, etc.) and generating plans for action.
- Organizing: (Implementation) making optimum use of the resources required **to** enable the successful carrying out of plans.
- Leading/Directing: Determining what needs to be done in a situation and getting people to do it.
- Controlling/Monitoring: Checking progress against plans.
- Co-ordination: unifying and harmonising all activities.
- Staffing: Job analyzing, recruitment, and hiring individuals for appropriate jobs.
- Motivation: motivation is also a kind in basic functions of management because without it employee cannot work effectively

Management Skills

- Interpersonal and Communications Skills
- Decision Making Skills

Planning: Is to formulate a plan to achieve an objective: 'Good' planning is coming up with a 'Good' plan. Planning Stages

- Establish Objectives
- Consider Alternative Solutions
- Choose Best Action Plan (Note That This Is An Estimate!!)

Planning Tips

- Draw on skills and experience of team members.
- Break task main task down to a series of simple tasks.
- Allocate resources/men to tasks.
- Be realistic in establishing a time frame.
- Allocate the right people to the right tasks.

- Establish key functions/tasks that you will need to closely supervise (Vital ground).

Organisation: Is the establishment of a framework and conditions within which the planned work can be completed.

Organisational Process

- Analysis of work – creates a structure.
- Definition of work – description of duties and tasks.
- Delegation of responsibilities, authority and accountability.

Control, Direction & Supervision

Control: Control is ensuring that the results match the objective as closely as possible.

Preliminary Control: sets the expectation in advance.
Retroactive Control: evaluates work while in progress and at the end.

Characteristics of Effective Control

Timely
Economical
Complete
Balanced
Acceptable

Direction

Is the way in which a manager uses his power and persuasion, but not necessarily his authority, to exert a degree of influence over others.

Supervision

Is a manager's controlling check that the job is being done the way should be done, that those he has delegated authority to are coping. It is also a manager ensuring that each aspect of the project is in synchronisation with the others.

Delegation: Authority can be delegated, but the responsibility for that authority cannot be.

Principles of Delegation

This ensures that subordinates:

- Clearly understands the objectives of the task delegated and the standards required.
- Know what resources they have to perform the job
- Know whom to report to if in difficulty.
- Define clearly the extent of authority that is delegated. Explain carefully what may be done and what may not be done without reference to you.
- Set a target date for the completion of the task
- Set up a system of progress reporting

- Allow subordinates as much freedom as possible.

Reasons for Delegation

- It is often impossible for one manager to cope with the problems at every level. He needs the help of others.
- Subordinates must be encouraged to develop a sense of responsibility to prepare for promotion in the organization. #
- Delegation usually improves the motivational level of the workforce through a feeling of greater involvement in the organization.
- Delegation of routine tasks to subordinates enables the manager to spend greater time on the more important functions of management such as planning and policy and decision-making.

What and What Not to Delegate

Should be delegated:

- Routine and minor tasks
- Tasks that others can handle as well as or better than he or he has specialized skills
- Tasks that will develop subordinates and test their abilities

Should not be delegated: Important matters that have serious consequences.

To whom to delegate

- Your immediate subordinates, not to theirs.

- Those with the most spare time.

- Those needing experience.

- Those whose ability you wish to test.

- To the lowest level at which the task can be done properly.

Why some Managers are reluctant to delegate

- Feelings of personal insecurity.
- They feel they are more competent than their subordinates.
- They feel unable to define objectives clearly (poor communicators).
- They fear their subordinates as competitors.
- They are afraid of being thought incapable of doing the job themselves.

Why some subordinates are reluctant to accept delegation

- They fear criticism if they fail.
- They lack confidence in their own ability.

- They find it easier to ask for a solution than solve the problem themselves.
- They believe managers are paid to 'Do their job' rather than delegate it.
- While they do the work the manager gets the credit for it.
- They lack identification with the organisation.

Supervision

Is a manager controlling check that the job is being done the way it should be done and that those he has delegated authority to are coping. It is also a manager ensuring that each aspect of the project is in synchronisation with the others.

Why supervise

Shows personnel that the job is important; enables you to modify your orders to take into account changes in the situation;

Allows you to encourage and motivate personnel when the going gets tough;

Makes it possible for you to immediately detect and correct errors in their work.

How

Supervision is a complex responsibility consisting of the following four separate operations:

- Observing your personnel at work;

- Giving orders in reaction to changes in the situation;

- Examining the completed work; and

- Responding to the quality of your personnel's work.

When

You should make it a standard procedure to observe your personnel while they are working, issue whatever orders are necessary to react to changes in the situation and examine personnel's work when it is finished.

There are two key times when it is particularly important to supervise:

- When personnel are working on an unfamiliar job, they will welcome your supervision; and

- When your personnel are working on a job where failure would be costly, they will appreciate full supervision;

- you must supervise as early as possible since the main of purpose of supervision is to ensure that the work is done properly and that mistakes are detected early enough to be corrected; supervision yields better results when work in progress is being observed and directed than when completed work is inspected; and

- Supervision of <u>work in progress</u> also saves time: the more closely you observe and the more timely your direction, the less thoroughly you need to examine the finished product. However, if you have been unable to observe and direct your personnel while working, it is essential that you make a detailed examination of the completed task.

Whom

Although you are responsible for supervising all of your personnel, there are individuals who require special treatment:

- Personnel who have done good work of a similar type in the past need not to be closely observed and directed while they work. Use the time saved to increase supervision of other individuals;

- Individuals who have performed poorly in the past warrant closer supervision and their finished work should be carefully examined. This extra supervision will have to be kept within reason and explained to the individual(s) concerned so they will not feel singled out unfairly;

- Personnel whose past work record or knowledge about the job is unknown should be supervised closely and their finished work thoroughly examined;

- when your personnel are divided into two groups working in different places, it will be best for you to take charge of the larger group and put the smaller group under the supervision of your assistant (2 i/c);

- When groups of your personnel are doing things that vary in importance, you should take charge of the group with the most important responsibility, regardless of its size;

- It may often be necessary for you to move from one group to another in order to exercise general supervision over the whole operation. You should assign your 2 i/c to assist.

- Make full use of your 2 i/c to help you supervise. This frees some time for planning and coordinating. You must, of course, also supervise the work of your 2 i/c.

What

Some major activities you should supervise:

- Hygiene and sanitation;
- Instruction;
- Maintenance (make bed, clean clothes, equipment, layout);
- Personal appearance;
- Physical fitness;
- Special activities;
- Special preparations (cam, web kit preparation);
- Supplies; and
- Troop movements (embark/disembark from various modes of transport, march discipline).

It is your responsibility to observe your men while they perform these activities, to issue whatever orders are necessary to react to changes in the situation, and finally to inspect the finished product (if there is one) to ensure proper completion of the task.

Qualities of a Good Manager

For a Manager to be effective at his job, he needs to possess several qualities that will project his image both internal and external. The list is not exhaustive:

- Professional
- Organized
- Detail oriented
- Task oriented
- Follows policies and procedures of organization
- Gets the daily job done
- Must be able to make decisions
- Must be willing to take risks;
- Must know people in general and his people in particular. Understating their abilities, weaknesses, aptitudes, and motivations.
- Must cultivate good relationships with other members of staff.
- Must get work done through other people by carefully delegating responsibility and giving authority.
- Communicate what you want, & listen to what others are saying
- Respect your employees, & make them feel like an important part of the operation
- Give employees a living wage
- Look into benefit packages
- Give younger workers an opportunity

The Pay off for Good Managers: With the above exhibited qualities, the Manager in turns receives the under mentioned:

- Increased income.
- Greater job satisfaction.
- Happiness and Opportunities for career advancement

Why Organization needs a Manager?

As a result of describing the nature of managerial work in terms of a set of ten roles, Mintzberg suggests six basic purposes of a manager or reasons why organization needs managers:

- To ensure that the organization or unit serves its basic purpose-efficient production of goods or services.

- To design and maintain the stability of the operations of the organization.
- To take charge of strategy making and adapt the organization in a controlled way to changes in its environment.
- To ensure the organization serves the ends of those people who control it.
- To serve the key informational link between the organization and the environment.
- As formal authority to operate the organization's status system.

Human Capital Management

Quote: "To successfully respond to the myriad of changes that shake the world, transformation into a new style of management is required. The route to take is what I

call profound knowledge -knowledge for leadership of transformation." (W. Edwards Deming)

Recent attention to a more strategic approach to HRM has given rise to the idea of human capital management.

According to a DTI report, although the expression, human capital management is now widely used, there is no general agreed definition. In the report the term is used to denote a strategic approach to people management that focuses on the issues that are critical to an organisation's success.

The report maintains that greater transparency on how value is created through effective people policies and practises will benefit organisations and the stakeholders.
 The accounting for people task force believes that they way organisations manage their people affects their performance.

Human Capital Management is an approach to people management that treats it as a high level strategic issue and seeks systematically to analyse, measure and evaluate how people policies and practises create value.

Elements of Human Capital Management

Gratton refers three elements of human capital – intellectual capital, emotional capital and social capital – which have implications on both individuals and organisations:

Intellectual capital: is at the heart of individual development and the creation of knowledge and personal value. This enables the exercise of choice.

Emotional Capital: enables the continual growth and fulfilment of ambition. It is maintained through self awareness and insight.

Social capital: Arises from the forging of relationship s. Traditional hierarchical roles and responsibilities are now being replaced by integrated structures and relationships of trust and reciprocity.

The three elements of personal assets are highly interrelated. It is through their combination, the feed-back loops and connectivity, that they bring advantage to the organisation and to the individual.

Compare and Contrast Management and Leadership

There are many differences between management and leadership. Management relies on positional power that is authority or status. It depends on the rules, structures and systems within an organisation, which surround a job. Leadership relies on personal power. This comes from the ability to develop strong and mutually rewarding relationships. It depends upon good interpersonal skills, positive personal characteristics and supportive behaviour. The key to leadership is influence. Leadership is a facet of good management but a leader does not necessarily have the positional power of a manager.

The crux of this comparison between management and leadership is one of choice. People choose to follow and commit to a leader but a manager must be followed. We

are emotional animals and the commitments we make based on our emotions are forcible.

The table below summarizes and gives a sense of the differences between being a leader and being a manager. This is, of course, an illustrative characterization, and there is a whole spectrum between either ends of these scales along which each role can range. And many people lead and manage at the same time, and so may display a combination of behaviours as indicated in the table below:

Subject	Leader	Manager
Essence	Change	Stability
Focus	Leading people	Managing work
Have	Followers	Subordinates
Horizon	Long-term	Short-term
Seeks	Vision	Objective
Approach	Sets direction	Plans detail
Decision	Facilitates	Makes
Power	Personal charisma	Formal authority
Appeal to	Heart	Head
Energy	Passion	Control
Culture	Shapes	Enacts
Dynamic	Proactive	Reactive
Persuasion	Sell	Tell
Style	<u>Transformational</u>	<u>Transactional</u>
Exchange	Excitement for work	Money for work
Likes	Striving	Action
Wants	Achievement	Results
Risk	Takes	Minimizes
Rules	Breaks	Makes
Conflict	Uses	Avoids
Direction	New roads	Existing roads
Truth	Seeks	Establishes
Concern	What is right	Being right
Credit	Gives	Takes
Blame	Takes	Blames

PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT

The components of work performance

Performance is an ongoing process and not just a one-off snapshot event. It is the achievement of agreed results or the degree of accomplishment of the tasks that make up a job. Work performance reflects how well or how badly an employee is **fulfilling** the **requirements** of a job. The principal focus of performance is **results**. Any discrepancy where the actual result achieved for a given task falls short of the agreed results constitutes a **Performance Improvement Zone (PIZ).**

PIZ: an area where improvement needs to be made in order to achieve the agreed results for a task.

The components of work performance are characterized by the five Ts listed below for discussion:

- Time
- Tools
- Training
- Temperament
- Talent

Time: The time taken to perform a task assuming there is no loss productive time provides a yardstick for the degree of effort put into a job. It is expected that high effort will yield good results and effective performance. There are situations however were efforts are high but results are low and situations were efforts are low but results are high.

Tools: The resources required to perform a task efficiently. They include finance, manpower, equipment, material, and information. It is expected that the more resources made available to a task, the better the degree of task accomplishment. Note that for obvious reasons this may not always be the case.

Training: Knowledge and skills development. Training improves employee task perception. Task perception is what the employee understands his or her tasks to be. It is expected that employees who have better understanding of their tasks produce better results than those with limited understanding of their tasks. An employee that lacks clear task perception although may produce much results such results will be misdirected.

Temperament: the attitude and behaviour an employ apply to a task to achieve a given result. For effective performance, appropriate behaviour is key. The reason for this is that rather than been just an input for results, behaviour can be judged separately from results to give an overall performance picture. **Appropriate behaviour** is behaviour that upholds core values.

Talent: Natural endowment (personal ability) an employee brings to a job. It is expected that talented employees produce better results than the untalented. However, depending on the level of efforts and temperament, it is possible for a talented employee to produce unacceptable results whilst an untalented employee produces acceptable results.

Note:
- For peak performance, an appropriate combination of time, tools, training, temperament, and talent is required.
- Time, Tools, and Training are job related work components. Temperament and talent are employee related work components.

Activity

Scan your organization, department, or unit and identify the PIZs. How has the five components of work performance affected performance of your organization, department, or unit.

What is Performance Management?

Management: The task of creating and maintaining conditions in which **defined objectives** are achieved by the **combined efforts** of a group of people.

The phrase 'defined objectives' indicates that management is a purposeful activity. The phrase 'combined efforts' indicates that management relies on coordination and cooperation.

There are a variety of views held by management consultants concerning what PM is. Some of the most widely held views of PM are presented here for discussion:

- Upholding the core values of an organization
- The encouragement of productive discretionary behaviour
- A tool for measuring and evaluating the competence of management and employees.
- A management process for ensuring that employees are focusing their work efforts in the directions that contribute to achieving expected results.
- A forward looking process for setting goals and regularly checking progress towards achievements of those goals.
- A systematic process of improving organizational performance through the development of the performance of the individuals, teams, and systems that makes up an organization. It involves managing people and systems (Policies, rules, procedures, and processes).

Policies, Procedures, Rules, and Processes

Policies: General guidelines for behaviour of management at all levels under all circumstances. They provide a framework for a high level of consistency in decisions. Policies guide managerial decisions. Example, managers will be recruited from within the organization.

Procedures: A detailed set of instructions for carrying out activities that occur regularly. They provide a framework for a high level of consistency in the way activities are carried out. Procedures guide managerial actions. They complement policies. When policies are made procedures are put in place to help achieve them. Example, pay procedure, safety procedures etc.

Rules: Set of laws that a specific action must or must not be taken in a given situation. Rules are binding and can attract some form of punishment when flouted. Example, no one comes to work late without a valid excuse.

Processes: The methods used to carry out a task or set of tasks. They are a set of coordinated activities that produce a given outcome. Processes are used by organizations to produce and deliver their products or service. Example, the production of bottled drinks follows a manufacturing process.

Activity
State some policies, procedures and rules your organization is governed by.

Principle of Performance Management

PM is based on the principle of management by objectives (MBO). MBO requires managers and subordinates to act as partners within a framework of shared objectives. The manager and subordinate jointly identify goals, define major areas of responsibilities and results expected and use these as guide for assessing the contribution of individual members and teams.

The rationale behind MBO is:

- A common objective ensures a unification of management action.
- Focusing on results against a time scale increases the likelihood of achievement.
- The greater the participation in setting of work targets the greater the motivation for completion.
- Progress can only be measured against recognizable goal.
- If we don't know where we are going, it is unlikely that we will get there.

Note:

PM becomes a control system only by exception.

Activity

Write down what you perceive as the objectives of your organization. Then consider the objectives of your own department or unit.

The Objectives of Performance Management

Below are some of the direct objectives of PM:

- Alignment of individual and organizational objectives (overall aim).
- Achievement of shareholder and customer performance expectations.
- Identifying training and development needs.
- Establishing a high performance culture.
- Organizational effectiveness, stability, and growth.
- Up-holding organisational core values.
- Greater employee involvement.

The Benefits of Performance Management

The following are some of the immediate benefits of PM:

- Effective performance.
- Motivated employees.
- Planned and organized work systems.
- Employee development.
- Shared understanding about results.
- Eliminate under performance.
- Reward top performance.

Performance Management Activities

The following specific PM activities are carried out by all types of organizations:

- Job design.
- Recruitment and selection.
- Performance agreement.
- Performance development.

- Performance feedback.
- Performance evaluation.
- Design effective reward systems.
- Career planning.
- Conduct exit interviews

Note:
Exit interviews are conducted to understand why valued employees leave an organization.

Activity
Which of the PM activities is your organization involved with. How are they carried out by your organization?

Approaches to Performance Management

The systems approach: The systems approach to PM is generally referred to as an Operative Performance Management system (OPM). OPM is a comprehensive process used by organizations to measure, evaluate, improve, and reward overall performance. OPM rejects the traditional notion of focus on employee PM alone to focus on performance of all aspects of an organization.
Because of the direct impact of PM on results, some organizations in addition to having HRM create the post of Performance Management Coordinator (PMC) to purely oversee PM activities. An effective OPM system puts procedures in place to address all PM activities. Below are the major procedures put in place by an OPM:

- Procedure for recruiting and laying off.
- Procedure for communicating employee performance expectations.
- Procedure for maintaining ongoing performance dialogue.
- Procedure for conducting annual performance appraisal.
- Procedure for addressing under performance.
- Procedure for encouraging and facilitating employee development.
- Procedure for resolving grievances and discipline.
- Procedure for handling resources.
- Procedure for handling information.
- Procedure for dealing with customers etc.

Activity

Which of these procedures does your organization have in place? Briefly explain how they are operated in your organization.

Responsibilities of a PM

In addition to overseeing the PM activities, the PMC has the following specific responsibilities:
- Ensure that tasks performed by employees accomplish the mission of the organization.

- Ensure that employees have a clear understanding of their performance expectations.
- Ensure that employees receive ongoing feedback about their performance.
- Ensure that rewards for performance are fairly distributed.
- Ensure that employees are evaluated
- Ensure that opportunities for employee development are identified.
- Ensure that performance that does not meet expectation is addressed.
-

The Performance Management Cycle

A continuous self-renewing cycle consisting performance planning, managing performance, and performance review.

Performance Planning

The establishment of performance agreement/performance contract with employees. At the start of the work cycle, managers should meet with their employees to establish expectations regarding performance, specify how performance will be measured, specify how success will be determined, and impart on them an understanding of how meeting their performance expectations will contribute to the achievement of the organization's mission.

Managing Performance

Quote - "Satisfactory under-performance is a far greater problem than a crisis." (Christopher Bartlett (1945– Australian Business Writer)

Providing the resources and the supports needed to help employees meet their performance expectations. During the work cycle, managers need to maintain ongoing performance dialogue with employees on progress towards their performance expectations. Such performance dialogues need to be documented as they occur. Managers also need to identify training and development needs and provide the required support and guidance needed by employees to meet their performance expectations (Time, Tools, and Training).

The principal focus of performance is about result and not personality. It is about ability, effort and task direction. When such result falls below set standard, then under performance occur. Managing under performance is a fundamental part of managing performance generally and the continuous process of performance management. Over their career, employees may have times when they are performing well and other times when they are not bringing out the desired results.

The challenge faced by line managers is not only to develop the performance of the team they lead but to also maintain the desired performance standard of members of the team.

Underperformance

Poor performance is therefore a management problem as much as it is an individual employee problem. Risher (2003) made the bold comment that 'it was unlikely for poor performance to emerge if people were effectively managed.' The question then is what constitutes effective people management?

To a large extent, effective people management is a positive process that is based on continuous feedback, problem solving, and more importantly providing support and help. Specifically, to effectively manage poor performance, Managers must first identify and agree on the reasons for the under performance.

Poor performance is obviously the result of several underlying factors. These factors could be personal or job related or both. Some of the most common reasons for poor performance include:

- Personal ability: has the employee the capacity to perform? Are there any skill gaps needing training? Are there any attitudes requiring improvement?

- Personal circumstances: Has something at home or employee's social life affected performance at work?

Reasons for Underperformance

- Motivation: What is the level of the employee's motivation? Is the employee demotivated or suffering stress or lack of challenge?

- Management ability: Have I as line manager or team leader given enough direction and made sufficient resources available to the employee?

- Process gap: Is there distributive and procedural equity in the work environment? Is the appraisal and performance review system faulty?

- Environmental forces: Has the organization created departmental barriers, red-tape over-skill, cultural restrictions, etc. which make tasks unattainable?

Handling Poor Performance

Handling poor performance involves five basic sequential steps:

- Decide and agree on the action to take: Action can be taken by the manager, the team, and the individual concerned. Actions taken normally include changing behaviour, changing attitudes, clarifying expectations (job requirements, objectives and standards), and jointly develop abilities and skills through coaching, training and mentoring.

- Identify and agree on the performance problem: This can be done by analyzing feedbacks from other personnel

- Establish the reason(s) for the poor performance: The manager needs to work with the individual concerned to recognize the source of the problem and how it should be resolved. The reason could be personal or job related or both .

- Resource the action: This involves practically providing the resources required to enable the accomplishment of agreed action.

- Monitor and provide feedback: Both managers and individuals should monitor performance and take further action as required. Establish realistic performance measures and regularly analyze feedbacks against these measures.

Summary - Performance is about result not personality. It is about effort, ability and task direction. When work performance falls below standard then underperformance occur. Many reasons abound for poor performance ranging from personal note to organisational problems. Managing underperformance is through the application of Corrective Action Plan (CAP).

Performance Review

Assessing and evaluating performance. At the end of the work cycle, managers should evaluate employee's performance against their performance expectations and recommend appropriate action plan. If performance meets or exceeds expectation, the action plan should recommend reward. If performance falls below expectation, the action plan should recommend a Corrective Action Plan (CAP).

The PM cycle

```
         ┌───────────────────────┐
         │ Performance Agreement │
         └───────────────────────┘
           ▲                   ╲
          ╱                     ▼
┌──────────────────────┐   ┌──────────────────────┐
│  Performance Review  │◄──│ Managing Performance │
└──────────────────────┘   └──────────────────────┘
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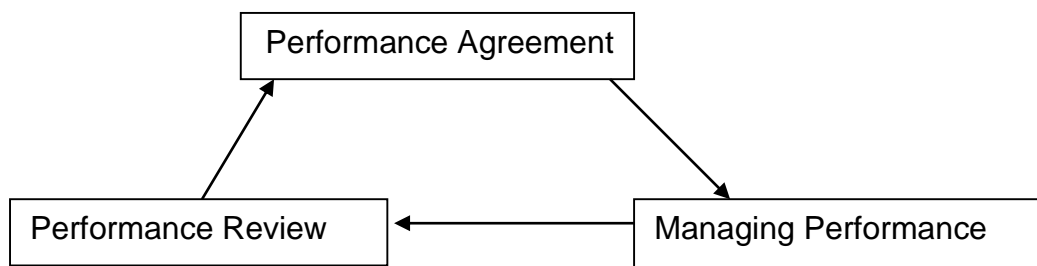
The Performance Hierarchy

Generic Structure: The PM hierarchy deals with defining **goals** and **objectives** and planning how best to achieve them in order to achieve the organizational mission(s). At the top of the performance hierarchy, is the **mission statement**. The mission provides the overall guide and focus for effective performance. The mission is closely followed by the organizational goals and objectives. Both goals and objectives are influenced by the internal resources the organization has and external factors (customer needs, technology, infrastructure, legislature etc). These three mission, goals, and objectives define the expected results (performance expectations).

At the bottom of the performance hierarchy are organizational strategies and operational plans. Organizational strategies are the conceptual means by which the organization intends to achieve its objectives. Operational plans are the practical means by which the organization intends to achieve each organizational objective. These two organizational strategy and operational plans define how the expected results can be achieved.

PERFORMANCE HIERARCHY

```
Internal resources    MISSION              External   factors:
:
                         |
                         v
                       Goals
                         |
                         v
                     Objectives
                         |
                         v
                      Standards
                         |
                         v
             Organizational strategies
                         |
                         v
                Operational Plans
```

Mission Statement

A statement in writing that expresses the overall purpose for the existence of an organization. The mission is central, overriding and relevant to all aspects of the organization. In simple terms the mission statement says exactly where an organization or organizational unit is conceived to be throughout time. Every organization or organizational unit needs to be clear about its defined mission.

Missions do not change overnight. When the mission changes, the purpose for existence of an organization or an organizational unit also changes. A Mission statements can be internally oriented or externally oriented or a mixture of both internal and external orientation. An internally oriented mission statement is inward looking and directed towards internal resources and processes. An externally oriented mission statement is outward looking and directed towards external factors such as customers, competitors, technology etc.

Characteristics of a Mission Statement

- Brief but all embracing.
- General and open-ended (not stated in quantifiable or commercial terms)
- States the purpose of the organization
- States the business domain.
- Not time assigned

Benefits of a Mission Statement

- Communicates to both insiders and outsiders
- Gives guidance and strategic direction
- Used to generate goals and objectives
- Assist in the formulation of strategic plans
- Provides a source of motivation to workers
- Improves decision making.
- Guides expectations, attitudes, and behaviour.

The search for a Mission Statement

The mission of an organization is generally drawn from and influenced by:
- The history of the organization
- Current preferences of the organization's management and shareholders
- The environmental factors affecting the organization
- The resources at the disposal of the organization
- The organization's distinctive (core) competence

Organisationnel Goals

A goal is something aspired to. It is an object of effort or ambition. Goals are derived from the mission and must be agreed to. Clearly defined goals prevent an organization from drifting away from its mission. Unlike mission, as the environment changes and presents new challenges, goals need to be reviewed and reassessed.

To agree on a new goal, an organization needs to be clear about what current goals are and how far they have been achieved. When choosing goals attention must be placed on critical success factors (possible obstacles, resource needs, and external factors). Goals must be SMART. By SMART goals it means that goals must be:
- Specific
- Measurable
- Achievable
- Reasonable
- Time assigned

Examples of areas in which organizations can set goals include:
- Organizational Growth
- Organizational Stability
- Organizational Effectiveness
- Shareholder wellbeing
- Survival etc.

Note:
- Goals are ends in themselves.

Activity

- State the mission(s) of your organizations. Say whether they are internally oriented, externally oriented or a mixture of both.
- Are your organizational goals different from those listed above? If different, outline them. Test whether your goals are SMART and derived from the mission.

Organizational Objectives

After agreeing on what goals are to be pursued, organizations must agree on what objectives need to be achieved in order to satisfy each goal. Objectives are the specific things that have to be accomplished to satisfy a goal. More than one objective may be required to satisfy a given goal. A measure of managerial effectiveness is getting the balance right between these many and sometimes conflicting objectives. Like goals, objectives must be SMART.

Writers on objectives vary in opinion as to what critical objectives are for an organization. Argenti (1968) makes out the case for profit as the most dominant objective. His augment was simple; through profit comes survival. Whilst Argenti's argument may be true for 'for-profit-organizations', it is definitely not true for 'not-for-profit organizations such security services, public utility services, public welfare services etc. Organizations providing these sought of public services usually set customer satisfaction as the dominant objective.

Examples of areas in which organization can set their objectives include:

- Profit
- Costs
- Quality of service
- Customer satisfaction
- Resource productivity
- Speed
- Employee relations
- Public concern
- Increased market share
- Effectiveness
- Flexibility etc

Note:
- Objectives are means to an end.
- Objectives have relatively shorter durationfor accomplishment than goals.

Illustration

The interplay between mission, goals and objectives are interesting. The form the core and chain of the Organisational aspiration to succeed for without it, difficulty may arise in mapping out strategies geared towards good performance. A diagrammatic illustration of how goals, objectives and standards can be drawn from a mission can be depicted below so that one can easily identify and trace:

```
                        Mission
               Enhance the wealth and
             wellbeing of our shareholders.
```

Goal 1	Goal 2	Goal 3
Provide shareholders with ROI to match their expectations	Protect the security of our shareholders investment	Increase the capital value of our shareholders

Objective 1	Objective 2	Objective 3	Objective 4
ROI of x% during next n years	Growth in sales turnover of x% in next n years	Maintain a match between foreign currency assets and liabilities	Achieve a price earnings multiple of x by y date

Standards

Standards describe the approved expressions of performance thresholds below which there is under performance. For each organizational objective, a standard must be set

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to check progress towards its achievement. Unlike goals and objectives which are agreed to, standards are set and imposed from above.

Examples of standards

'5% defect is tolerated.'

'No defects are tolerated.'

Note:

Standards must be realistic.

Goals, objectives, and standards make up performance expectations.

Why organizations set performance expectations

- Effective performance (overall aim).
- To force organizations plan for results.
- To form a basis for performance measurement and evaluation.
- To easily identify performance improvement zones.
- To keep the organization on course.
- To guarantee high level performance.
- To motivate employees and monitor work progress
- Serves as a basis for self assessment

Organizational Strategy

The conceptual means by which the organization intends to achieve its objectives. In formulating strategies organizations ask themselves three basic strategic questions:

'Where are we now?'

'Where do we want to be?'

'How do we get there?'

To determine own position, organizations need three coordinates:

- Objective
- Organizational strengths and weaknesses (Internal analysis)
- Environmental opportunities and threats (External analysis)

Organizations must use this information to conduct SWOT analysis from which they choose where they want to be and how to get there.

Activity

Conduct SWOT analysis on your organization and answer the three strategic questions above.

TIME MANAGEMENT

Introduction

Personal time management skills are essential skills for effective people. People who use these techniques routinely are the highest achievers in all walks of life, from business to sport to public service. If you use these skills well, then you will be able to function exceptionally well, even under intense pressure.

What's more, as you master these skills, you'll find that you take control of your workload, and say goodbye to the often intense stress of work overload.

Begin by Tracking Your Time

The only way to improve your time management skills is to learn from – and understand – your current time management habits. This process simply involves carrying around a notepad, and jotting down what you are doing every 15 minutes.

After 1 week, you should have a good and thorough understanding where you are spending your time and where you are wasting it. Do not move onto any other time management strategies until you successfully undertake this step. After 1 week, analyze your time logs and determine where you feel you could be more productive.

Once you have a clear understanding of your time management habits, you are now ready to setup the bigger picture by setting and writing down S.M.A.R.T. Goals.

S…pecific: Your goals must be very specific in terms of what you would like to accomplish.

M…easurable: Your goals must have a time measure, or in other words a date of when they will be accomplished.

A…chievable: Your goals must be achievable given the resources you have available to you.

R…ealistic: Your goals must be realistic given the time frame you have laid out to accomplish them.

T…imed: Your goals must be timed, meaning that they must be broken down into smaller short-term objectives that lead to medium and long-term goals. Through an understanding of the bigger picture you are working towards, you will be better equipped to more effectively manage your time. Once you have a clear understanding of your time management habits, you are now ready to setup the bigger picture by setting and writing down S.M.A.R.T. Goals.

At the heart of time management is an important shift in focus:

- Concentrate on results, not on being busy

Many people spend their days in a frenzy of activity, but achieve very little, because they're not concentrating their effort on the things that matter the most.

Time Management Process Follow Up with Plans of Action: Whenever goals are set, a plan of action must immediately follow. Create a quick write-up and general action plan of how you will go about achieving these goals.

Create Task Specific TO DO Lists: Now take your Plan of Action and convert it into a Master TO DO List of all the things that you must do in order to achieve this bigger picture.

Prioritize Your Tasks Accordingly: Now that you have your Master TO DO List written out, the next step is to create a Daily TO DO List where you write down and specify 6 key important tasks that you will do today. As a general rule of thumb you should be spending your time on Important rather than Urgent tasks.Many of us spend so much time during the day trying to put out fires. We deal with so many low important urgent tasks and activities that keep us busy and moving – then at the end of the day we wonder how in the world we accomplished so little. Step out of this habit trap today and begin focusing on just the important tasks before they become urgent and potentially stress inducing.

Chunk down your tasks: By grouping your tasks into similar categories of activities you will become far more productive and time efficient. For instance, make all your telephone calls within a ONE block hour, and respond to all your emails during only specific times of the day. You can also group stationary activities (when you are at your desk) together with other activities that don't require you to move around your office. Once your "chunk time" is over, simply move onto something else, without making any further telephone calls or writing up emails.

Schedule Blocks of Time to do Tasks: When setting tasks, be sure to specify how much time you will be spending on each of these activities. If you do not specify a time, you may become caught up in wasting time on activities that are simply taking up too much time. Every task and activity must be set around a realistic and achievable time frame. Do whatever you can to accomplish this activity within the time frame you have set. And when time has lapsed , immediately move onto something else. Don't allow perfection to sabotage your success as an efficient and proficient time manager.

Stick to the 80 / 20 Rule: The 80 / 20 Rule states that 80% of your efforts will bring about only 20% of the results. On the flip-side, 20% of your efforts will bring about 80% of your results. Knowing this, identify the highest value activities that will have the largest impact on your success at the end of the day, week, month and year. Focus on accomplishing these tasks and activities first, before moving onto the 80% of activities that will only bring about 20% of the result. The 80 / 20 Rule is a large in-depth topic that will become a future Mind Map.

Balance Your Routine: Finally, establish a daily, weekly and monthly routine schedule that will keep you moving forward and focusing on your most important goals, tasks and activities. Routines are excellent ways of forming new and empowering habits that will help you become an effective time manager. However, be sure that at all costs you keep your routine balanced personally and professionally.

Effective Time Management Tools

In this section, we start off with simple and practical techniques, so that you can get off to a quick start in taking control of your time.

Be Flexible with Your Time: Know and understand that the day will rarely go as you had planned. Emergencies will pop up and unexpected events may change your course and direction. You must be prepared for situations like these by creating a "Buffer" system within your schedule. This "Buffer" will allow you time throughout your day to deal with unexpected events and circumstances. However, be very careful not to become lost within these scenarios. Set a time limit for yourself in respect to how much time you will spend in putting out these fires, and then return back to your most important activities without a second thought. Just keep focusing on the bigger picture and keep moving forward with what is most important in respect to your end result.

Organize Yourself: Get yourself organized by starting with your thoughts. If you are finding that there is just too much information circulating around your mind at one time, than develop a strategy of writing your thoughts out on paper and clearing your head from all these heavy weights. Once your plans, tasks and ideas are on paper, your head will be much clearer and more organized.

Organize Your Environment: Do you waste many precious minutes of your day simply looking for things? If you answered YES, than you know what you must do. Simply organize your files and folders in ways that will make things quick and easy to find at a moments notice.

Another area you should take a look at is your computer and emails. If you are spending too much time browsing through icons, folders and files, trying to look for something that should be easy to find, than you might want to look at rearranging your computer folder system and email management process.

Remember, the initial process of organizing your environment is the easy part. It is the ongoing process of keeping it organized that may be difficult for the unprepared mind. As a simple tip, just follow the rule of putting things away where you found them or storing things immediately when you receive them. The moment you leave one piece of paper lying around "where it don't belong", is the moment when you start to lose control.

Get Organized by Setting Reminders: Two simple ways to remind you about task and activities is to use Sticky Notes or to carry around a Voice Recorder. Both are proven ways of capturing quick ideas that you can later transfer into your Daily TO DO List.

Identify Bad Habits: As you are moving through the process of organizing yourself and your environment, keep a watchful eye on "Time Sapping" habits that may sabotage your progress and success. Identify them and work on strategies to rid yourself of these nasty habits once and for all.

Techniques to get more time throughout the day

Computer Literacy: Improve your Computer Literacy by learning how to use certain pieces of software that will cut down the time, energy and effort it takes you to undertake specific tasks and activities. Even learning simple program shortcuts can dramatically

cut down the time it takes you to write a report or prepare a presentation. Look online for beginner tutorials or find a workshop or course within your area.

Creative Capacity: Learning to be <u>creative</u> will allow you to develop ingenious and unique ideas on how to save time and become more productive throughout your day.

Delegating Ability: Learning how to delegate work efficiently and effectively will save you an ample amount of time. Having another pair of hands undertaking the tasks and activities that you would normally spend time on, clearly frees you up to focus on other matters. The opportunity cost of paying someone to do something could well be the catalyst that makes you both more efficient and proficient. This will become a future Mind Map.

Negotiation Skills: Sometimes because we cannot agree with others about how things should be, it naturally draws time away from more important matters. By learning how to negotiate more effectively you will reach a satisfactory agreement much faster, which will therefore allow you time to focus on other matters. This will become a future Mind Map.

Emotional Intelligence: Whenever our emotions tend to get the better of us, we lose time, and become very unproductive in the process. Emotional Intelligence involves the process of taking proactive control of our emotions and projecting them in ways that will boost our productivity and performance. This will become a future Mind Map.

Multitasking Ability: Spend time grouping tasks and activities together, and work on developing and improving your multitasking abilities. As a cautionary note – on very important tasks that require a lot of thought and attention it is suggested that you do not multi-task.

Decision Making Ability: The faster you are able to reach a definitive decision, the more time you will save. This will become a future Mind Map.

Speed of Reading: The <u>faster you learn to read</u> and absorb information the more information you will cover in less time.

Mindset of an effective Time Management

Become an "Optimistic Realist" Becoming an Optimistic Realist means being optimistic about your ability to get things done in the most effective and efficient manner. Moreover, it also means that you understand possible obstacles, challenges and problems that may arise, and therefore you have outlined a set of steps or plan to overcome them in a proficient manner.

Become "Proactive" Rather than "Reactive": Being proactive means that you are physically and emotionally taking charge of the tasks and activities that you are responsible for on a daily basis. Despite unexpected surprises and challenges that may arise, you remain calm and under control, thinking proactively in ways that will bring about solutions and move you forward in a productive manner. If on the other hand you are always physically and emotionally reacting to events and circumstances, you will suffer the consequences through experiencing the emotions of fear, overwhelm and stress.

Apply Focused Concentration: To become an efficient time manager, you must display focused effort and concentration on nothing other than the activity you are currently undertaking. Remove absolutely all distractions and zero in on just the task at hand.

Don't Seek Perfection: If you have a habit of seeking to perfect everything you do, then you have very little chance of being a great and proficient time manager. Realize that perfection is simply an opinion. What you consider as being perfect may not be how others look at the situation. On the other hand, your imperfect actions may indeed be more than satisfactory for others. Ask yourself, "Will an extra 10 minutes spent on this activity really make a significant difference to the end result?" If the answer is NO, than you know what to do.

Show Commitment & Discipline towards Completing Your Tasks: When you set a task or activity for yourself, commit yourself towards applying diligent consistent effort to do whatever it takes to get the job done within the time frame you outlined for yourself. Only with this type of mentality will you develop the necessary habits that will evolve you into an efficient time manager.

Show an Enthusiastic Attitude: Throughout your day no matter what sudden surprises or problems pop up, keep a smile on your face and a bubbly attitude. Simply see everything as a challenge that you will work through in a progressive and proactive manner towards the bigger objectives and goals you would have outlined when we began this discussion. An enthusiastic attitude will also keep your energies high when things seem to be falling down all around you.088888999

Common Time wasting activities: Avoid the Habits of Procrastination & Laziness: Procrastination is the habit of simply avoiding a certain activity through any means possible. Be very careful with this one, because procrastination sometimes sneaks up on us when we least expect it. Even simple things as planning too much, taking an extended lunch-break, having too many breaks, etc – all are key signals of procrastination. Keep an eye out on these signals and work on cultivating the Time Efficiency Mindset discussed above.

Avoid the Trap of "Waiting" Whether you are waiting in line at the grocery store, or for your appointment to arrive; it all means one thing – you are simply wasting time when you could be doing something that will bring you a greater sense of fulfillment and the result you want most at the end of the day. However, sometimes these kinds of things are simply unavoidable. In that instance, prepare yourself in advance by taking some reading materials or making important telephone calls. As long as every minute of your working day you are doing something that keeps you moving forward and gets you the end result you are after, then you are on the right path towards mastering your time.

Avoid Constant Disruptions: Disruptions will make you lose focus, concentration and will interrupt your creativity and thinking processes. Studies have shown that it can take anywhere from 5 to 15 minutes after a disruption has occurred for a person to gain back the momentum they had before the disruption. To avoid these occurrences, simply inform others that you will not be available during a specific period of time, and that you don't want to be disturbed unless it is a personal emergency.

Avoid the Habit of Just "Staying Busy" Staying busy is a form of procrastination. There are just so many things that we can do throughout our day that have very little impact on our goals and objectives. Go back to the 80 / 20 rule and commit yourself to

working on the 20% of activities and tasks that will help you accomplish 80% of your goals and objectives. Only once these tasks have been completed should you move on to the 80%.

Avoid the Technology Trap: Technology is great, if used in a way that will benefit your long-term goals and objectives. On the other hand, if technology is abused it can sabotage your time and lock you away into the habit of ongoing procrastination. Too much internet surfing, email responding, watching television, talking over the telephone, or listening endlessly to the radio will sabotage your time probably more than anything else on this list.

Avoid these 3 Time Robbing Emotions
The 3 emotions of <u>Fear</u>, <u>Stress</u> and Overwhelm are all an outcropping of one's inability to proactively manage their time. If you are able to use and apply all the techniques and strategies discussed within this post, than these emotions will no longer inflict you in their energy sapping ways.

<u>Conclusion</u>

Applying the habits of Effective Time Management takes a little diligent effort, however if consistently practiced and implemented throughout your day, it will lead to a greater sense of satisfaction and freedom that you might not have experienced in a very long time

By actually taking the time to cultivate these strategies, techniques and mindset, you will likely find that you will not only gain more time – you might also discover that you have taken back your life.

RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

"Many Generals have failed in war because they neglected to ensure that what they wanted to achieve operationally was commensurate with their administrative resources; and some have failed because they over-insured in this respect. The lesson is, there must always be a nice balance between the two requirements."
(Field Marshal, the Viscount Montgomery of Alamein)

The Principles of Logistics

There are 5 principles of logistics. The principles of logistics provide a valuable checklist against which commanders can judge logistic plans:
      a. Foresight.
      b. Economy.
      c. Simplicity.
      d. Cooperation.
      e. Flexibility.

Foresight: The first, and often most time consuming preparations that have to be made for an operation are frequently administrative. The objective of the logistician is to ensure that the execution of the operational plan is free from delay or limitations caused by the lack of essentials that could have been foreseen. The commander will aid the logistic process by involving the chief logistic officer in his planning group from the outset. This will enable the staff to anticipate changes in demand, which is particularly important if the enemy has the initiative. The chief logistic officer must inform the commander of the support implications of the operational proposals, and advise what is and is not logistically possible. The commander and his chief logistic officer achieve foresight by applying all the principles of mission command5. Consequently, misunderstandings that could lead to a delay in accumulating resources or, conversely, prejudicing operational security by too premature an action are avoided.

Economy: The logistic concept of operations must satisfy 3 conditions: to use or apply resources to achieve that which is required (**effectiveness**); to use as few resources as necessary (**economy**); and to get as much out of them as possible (**efficiency**). The tendency to over-insure must be resisted, even though it leads to a belief that the logistic arrangements are excellent. In reality, over-provision means that supplies, transport, time, manpower and money will all have been wasted because materiel has been unnecessarily demanded, moved, stored, repaired, consumed or abandoned. 'Working hard' should not be confused with 'working smart'.

Simplicity: A simple plan is more likely to survive the stress of intensive operations or sudden shocks. Simplicity enables faults in plans, systems or organizations to be more easily identified and confers flexibility. Simplicity of planning and execution will be aided if the commander's intent is understood and clear directives issued. The involvement of too many control agencies and over complex inter-relationships is contrary to the principles of mission command and increases the risk of a breakdown in the logistic system.

Co-operation: The joint and probably multinational nature of most military operations has implications for the logistic system. In the same way that the fighting echelons of allied forces will be expected to cooperate, so will the associated logistic support. There

is an increasing shift toward tri-Service solutions and in-theatre inter-dependence. For example fuel, particularly aviation fuel, may be best provided on a joint basis. Whilst nations retain ultimate responsibility for the sustainability of the forces they contribute, the pace and unpredictability of operations will require a cooperative intent to give and receive logistic support from the most appropriate source. But multinational arrangements should not be regarded as prescriptive; they should only be agreed where it is economic, efficient or effective to do so. Cooperation is equally applicable to staff within headquarters and formations. It has its roots in mutual trust, a clear statement of intent and an understanding of the need for unity of effort.

Flexibility: The logistic organization needs to support operations in a variety of scenarios across the spectrum of conflict. Specialization should be avoided as this tends to produce a lack of flexibility. Flexibility underpins responsiveness and creates the ability to change direction and vary tempo. This responsiveness will be derived from the physical attributes of speed, capacity and mobility, and the mental capacity of the staff to adjust, improvise and adapt. It will be assisted by the establishment of logistic reserves, but the potentially conflicting demand for economy must be balanced with the need for flexibility in order to provide an overall robust system. Flexibility demands a strong command support system, which maintains **centralized control** of resources whilst allowing **decentralized execution** of logistic operations.

Combat Supplies (CSUPS)

- Ammunition
- Rations
- Water
- POL (Petrol, Oil & Lubricants)

Measured in DOS (Days of Supply)

The 4 Ds

Destination: The destination sets the overall environment in which the Operation is to take place. The environment determines the conditions for the pattern of wear and tear on equipment, and the physiological demands on troops. The destination of resources and the distances involved will define the strategic LOC, and the resources needed to prime it. When matched to the capacity of the strategic movement resources, the timing, speed of deployment and reaction, and the execution of subsequent operational plans will be critically influenced by the destination. The length and difficulty in maintaining the LOC, and the ability for the enemy to interdict it, will determine the need, or otherwise, for intermediate bases and the extent to which non-military sources may be used.

Demand: Demand is not simply the gross mathematical consumption or usage of materiel, but also its pattern; its rate of change and variability. Demand stems directly from the commander's intent. It is the sum of 3 components and is shown below schematically

DEMAND PATTERNS
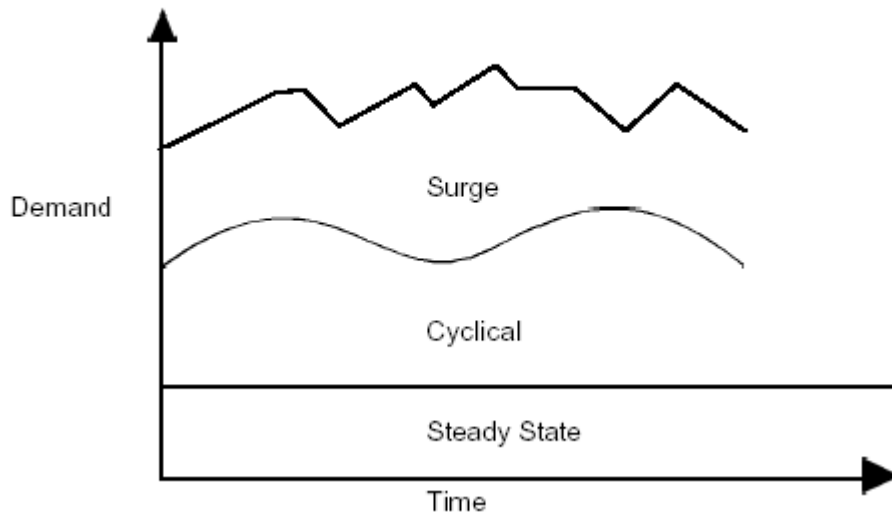
- **Steady State**. The steady state component represents daily maintenance needs that have little variation, for example the consumption of rations. It can be determined easily and accurately from historic rates of consumption and presents the logistician with the least problems.

- **Cyclical**. Cyclical demand represents additional demand over and above the steady state, caused for example by training activities, or seasonal conditions. It tends to be predictable and the profile can be smoothed by good management to enable the logistician to economise on the use of assets.

- **Surge**. Surge demand is driven by the pattern of operations. It creates the greatest logistical problems because it is least easy to predict and most susceptible to variation, for example in response to enemy action. There will be peaks and troughs, and differing rates of demand will occur with often little warning time. It is surge demand that will stretch the logistic organization. It will demand a system that has ready reserves and can provide a rapid response with the ability to switch priorities quickly. But by its nature surge conditions cannot be maintained indefinitely and time for recuperation will be needed.

- **Distance:** Distance requires consideration not only of the strategic LOC, but also of that within the theatre, both before, during and after the operation. The length, capacity and topography of the LOC will determine the size, shape, structure and balance of logistic resources committed to it. It will also determine the volume of resources committed to operating stock within the regeneration loop, the time in transit and the requirement for forward bases or intermediary staging posts

- **Duration:** The length of operations and rate of demand will determine the overall volume of materiel necessary or the size of the logistic problem. In the Figure above the overall volume of materiel required is the area under the graph, in mathematical terms Volume = Rate (Demand) x Time (Duration). It will specify the endurance requirements and the need to rotate or replace equipment and men. The commander will need to assess the risks involved in a short, sharp, lightly supported operation, against those of a fully resourced, more deliberate, and possibly better prepared, operation that takes longer to mount. A consideration of Duration should also account for the time available for preparation and how long the force may be required to act independently.

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- Logistic Estimate

The Logistic Estimate is an iterative and consultative process and cannot be undertaken in isolation. It must involve staffs at the military strategic, strategic and operational levels. At each level the estimate will be refined, implications assessed and detail added according to specific needs. The estimate and assessment of courses open will lead to the formulation of the logistic plan, which will become part of the Operational Directive. The estimate must be conducted so that:

The operational commander has time to assess and decide whether or not he has to alter his plan. Sufficient time for preparatory action is allowed.

The Estimate Process

Mission Analysis: The mission intent and the subsequent analysis of the required and implied tasks should derive the logistic **main effort**. At any given point in time, this may not necessarily be coincident with the operational main effort, although it will be directed towards achieving the desired mission result. For example, an initial combat arm effort might be directed towards training whilst logistic effort could be concentrated on in-loading and preparation for the war fighting task ahead. Implied tasks and the need to prepare or pre-position logistic resources may demand the majority of logistic executive action. To maintain operational balance and tempo, foresight is key. Logistic effort must be synchronised with combat and combat support effort such that the right effect is produced at the right time. It will be usual for logistic planning to be split into 2 groups: that concerned with present operations; and that looking to the future.

Critical Factors: At the strategic level, analysis of the critical factors must be conducted within the framework and discipline of the **Four Ds**. Three factors must be borne in mind:

Enemy: The commander must consider the effect and risk of enemy deep operations on logistics and the LOC. Own operations should be examined from an adversary's viewpoint. Enemy plans will influence the degree of robustness and reserves required, the degree of additional protection required the ability to move logistic stocks and units, and identify the level of risk that can be taken. Interference to our own rear operations by non-hostile, but potentially disruptive elements, for example refugees, should also be considered. A Rear Area security plan should be made to cover all contingencies and is the responsibility of the Rear Operation commander.

The Operational Environment; The characteristics of the intended operations, the commanders intent, concepts and outline plans critically influence the pattern of demand. It is essential that the operation is examined as an overall system including the integration of deep, close and rear operations, and the related CIS, LOC, maritime and air operations. The demand generated by each phase of the campaign must be analysed, the implications for logistic support identified and matched against the resources available. Decisions arising from the estimate process must be integrated into tactical planning so that the tempo of support matches that for battle. The security and protection of logistics should be integrated into the force OPSEC plan, and the deception plan if used.

Reconnaissance and Intelligence: Assessments of the available resources should not be limited to Army assets, but include an analysis of all joint, allied, national and theatre capabilities potentially available. Analysis must be based on the logistic intelligence available. The gathering of logistic intelligence and reconnaissance should be

conducted in parallel with that for operational intelligence and be given equal priority in the commander's allocation of resources. The assessment will include an analysis of factors such as: topography; climate; entry points; infrastructure; indigenous economic and industrial capacity; sources of materiel, transport, fuel and utilities; medical standards and facilities; storage facilities; endemic diseases; demography, including the skills of the indigenous workforce; cultural, ethnic or religious restrictions; and possible psychological features arising from the operation. Good logistic reconnaissance will identify major shortfalls and influence planning. Readiness will be improved if maximum preparation time is achieved.

The result of these, with the accompanying detailed staff checks and assessment of courses open, will result in the formulation of a logistic support concept and plan.

BENCH MARKING

Introduction

The term benchmarking was first used by cobblers to measure people's feet for shoes. They would place someone's foot on a "bench" and mark it out to make the pattern for the shoes.

Benchmarking was first used as a formal process by Rank Xerox. It is usually carried out by individual companies or groups of companies (e.g. subsidiaries of a multinational in different countries). One example is the Dutch municipally-owned water supply companies, which have carried out a voluntary collaborative benchmarking process since 1997 through their industry association. Another example is the UK construction industry which has carried out benchmarking since the late 1990s again through its industry association and with financial support from the UK Government.

Benchmarking is most used to measure performance using a specific indicator (cost per unit of measure, productivity per unit of measure, cycle time of x per unit etc) resulting in a metric of performance that is then compared to others.

What is Benchmarking?

Benchmarking is all about "Improving ourselves by learning from others".

"Benchmarking is a continuous, systematic process for evaluating the products, services, and work processes of organizations that are recognized as representing best practices for the purpose of organizational improvement."

Benchmarking is a continuous improvement strategy and a change management process. "Benchmarking is simply about making comparisons with leading organizations, learning the lessons from these comparisons and adapting the same". Benchmarking is about::
- Comparisons
- Target setting
- Paradigm shift/ thinking new
- Killing complacency
- Get external perspectives
- Learning from others
- Getting new knowledge
- *Extracting & predicting future*

Benchmark is the value which gives us the opportunity to identify the areas where benchmarking process is to be adopted for identification of areas for improvement.
Note: "If you know the enemy & know yourself, your victory will not stand in doubt"

Benchmarking Process

Is a continues structured process for comparing the business practises, products, services, work processes, operations and functions of that organisations that recognised as best-in-class, world-class, representing best practises for the purpose of organisational improvement, meeting/surpassing industry best practises, establishing priorities, targets goals etc.

Types of Benchmarking
- Internal

- Competitive
- Functional Generic process

Internal: Similar activities in different locations, departments, operating units
Advantages: Data collection easy, good results for diversified "excellent companies"
Disadvantages: Limited focus, internal bias.

Competitive: Direct competitors selling to same customer base
Advantages: Information relevant to business results comparable practices/ technologies, history of information gathering
Disadvantages: Data collection difficulties, ethical issues, antagonistic attitudes.

Functional Generic: Organizations recognized as having state -of-the-art products or services/processes.
Advantages: High potential for discovering innovative practice, readily transferable technology/practices access to relevant database, stimulating results.
Disadvantages: Difficulty transferring practices into different environment, time – consuming.

Phases of Benchmarking

(i)   People don't want, don't ask - Happy with statusquo.
(ii)   Don't want but ask - Involved just because it is popular but don't listen.
(iii)   Want and ask - Uncomfortable & defensive.
(iv)   Seek, desire, listen and use - Progressive, seek opportunities.

Why use Benchmarking?

- Functional best practises – world class
- Functional best practises (Country)
- Industry best practises
- Competitors best practises
- Internal best practises (Thinking out of the box)

A view of Best Practices

"We don't claim to be the global fountainhead of management thought,
but we may be the world's thirstiest pursuer of big ideas from whatever source." (Jack Welch CEO, General Electric).

Where do we want to be?

Goal 1 – Current performance (Process documentation)
Goal 2 – Meet requirement (Problem solving)
Goal 3 – Industry Best (Streaming)
Goal 4 – World Class (Benchmarking)
Note: This can be done by leap frog.
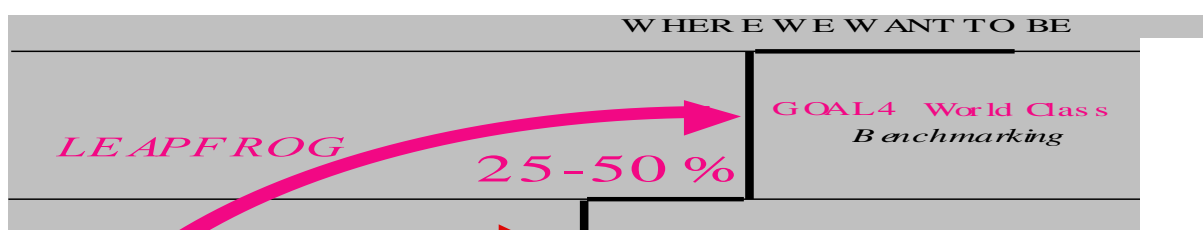
Steps of Benchmarking

- Determine what to benchmark
- Form a benchmarking team
- Identify benchmark partners
- Collect and analyse information and
- Take action

Summary

Benchmarking is most used to measure performance using a specific indicator.

Objectives are:

- To improve effectiveness of organizational processes.
- To enhance product quality & performance.

Benchmarking is about: Comparisons, Target setting, Paradigm shift/ thinking new, Killing complacency, get external perspectives, learning from others, getting new knowledge, extracting & predicting future

ACTION PLANNING

QUOTE: "In preparing for battle I have always found that plans are useless, but planning is indispensable" President Eisenhower (overlord of D-Day landings)

Introduction

Action planning is a process which will help you to focus your ideas and to decide what steps you need to take to achieve particular goals that you may have.
It is a statement of what you want to achieve over a given period of time.
Preparing an action plan is a good way to help you to reach your objectives in life: don't worry about the future, start planning for it! An effective action plan should give you a concrete timetable and set of clearly defined steps to help you to reach your objective, rather than aimlessly wondering what to do next. It helps you to focus your ideas and provides you with an answer to the question ''what do I do to achieve my objective?''.
It's OK to have several objectives, but you will need to make a separate action plan for each, otherwise things get confused. Although here we shall be applying the techniques to careers, it can be used effectively to help you to reach your goals in many other aspects of your life.

Elements of an Action Plan

Action Plan involves:

- Identifying your objectives
- Setting objectives which are achievable & measurable.
- Prioritising your tasks effectively.
- Identifying the steps needed to achieve your goals.
- Using lists.
- Being able to work effectively under pressure.
- Completing work to a deadline.
- Having a contingency plan

Goals of an Action Plan

The following are all valid goals for an action plan:
- To get more involved in a student society to get to know more people.

- Deciding what skills I need to improve and deciding how I will improve them.
- When careers action plans are to be undertaken, there are likely to be three main areas for action plans. These are:
  - Choosing a career you wish to enter
  - Working out a strategy to help you enter this career e.g. application and interviews.
- Developing skills that you need to acquire to allow you to enter the career of your choice and to be successful in it.

Action Planning Model

There are many different models of action planning, but a good starting point is shown here. Action planning is a cyclical process, and once you have been through one cycle, you can start again at the beginning. Of course, in real life it's not quite as simple as this. The process is more organic and stages will overlap, or you may change your goals as you progress, and you must be prepared to revise your plan as circumstances dictate. The stages are as follows:

- WHERE AM I NOW? This is where you review your achievements and progress, and undertake self-assessment.
- WHERE DO I WANT TO BE? This is where you decide your goals.
- HOW DO I GET THERE? This is where you define the strategy you will use to achieve your goals, and to break down your goal into the smaller discreet steps you will need to take to achieve your target.
- TAKING ACTION. This is the nitty gritty where you implement your plan!

Steps in preparing an Action Plan

- Have a clear objective. ("Where do I want to be?"). To be motivating a goal needs to be challenging enough to stimulate us, but not too difficult enough to be demoralising. It should be just outside your comfort zone: stretching but not highly stressful.
- List the benefits you would gain by achieving your goal.
- Start with what you will do NOW. There is no point in having an action plan that will start in six months time.

  - Define clearly the steps you will take. ("How do I get there?") Think of all the possible things you could do to take you closer to achieving your goal, no matter how small. Break down any large steps into smaller components, so it doesn't seem so difficult to achieve. What is the biggest obstacle? What could go wrong?
  - Identify the end point for each step and give yourself a small reward for achieving it! This could be sweets, clothes, a gadget, book or CD or meal out with friends
  - Review your progress. Keep a diary or blog of your daily activities and record your progress as things happen: this keeps your plan as concrete as possible. A good time to start your review is about two weeks after you have begun. Review how far you have got towards your objective, identify any mistakes you made and what you can learn from them, look at any new ideas or opportunities that may have presented themselves and then revise your plan to incorporate these.
  - Mix with positive people who will encourage you to keep going! Tell your friends or relatives about your goals. They will provide support when going gets tough and will also give you an incentive to keep going as you'll feel embarrassed if you have to tell them you've given up!

Example of an Action Plan

My Objectives: Choose Future Career TO ACHIEVE THIS I NEED TO:	Date expected to complete STEP	Reward for completing STEP
I will tell my plan to: my three best friends, my parents!		
I will start my action plan on (date):	3rd March	
Step 1. I will use the Prospects Planner computer guidance system to help me identify jobs of interest.	4th March	Some nice chocolate!
Step 2. I will use the "What can I do with my degree in ..." pages to find out what jobs graduates from my subject can enter	6th March	More nice chocolate!
Step 3. I will pick up booklets from the Career Service on some of the careers suggested and browse through these.	9th March	Time in gym to burn off chocolate!

Critical Reflection

A study of 327 Job Seekers by Prof. Daniel Turban, University of Missouri College of Business found that writing a plan at the start of your job search, has a big impact on success.

QUOTES & PRACTICAL INFORMATION

- 'The price of greatness is responsibility' - Churchill
- 'Nothing astonishes men so much as common sense and plain dealing' - Ralph Waldo Emerson
- 'There is no wisdom like frankness' – Benjamin Disraeli
- 'Make the most of yourself, for that is all there is of you' – Ralph Waldo Emerson
- 'The world hates change, yet it is the only thing that has brought progress' – Charles F. Kettering
- 'You must look into people, as well as at them' – Lord Chesterfield
- 'One of the secrets of life is to keep our intellectual curiosity acute' – William Lyon Phelps
- 'A man is not old as long as he is seeking something' – Jean Rostand
- 'Have confidence that if you have done little things well, you can do a bigger thing well too' – Storey
- 'Human rights rests on human dignity. The dignity of man is an ideal worth fighting for and worth dying for' – Robert Maynard
- 'He that has learned how to obey will know how to command' – Solon
- 'The only thing necessary for the triumph of evil is for good men to do nothing' – Edmund Burke
- 'Hard on the training ground, easy on the battlefield.' – Marshal Suvorov 1796
- 'The best form of welfare for troops is first class training' – Field Marshal Rommel

LIST OF ORDERS, DECORATIONS, MEDALS AND AWARDS

Full Title	Abbreviation	Rank	Circumstances
VALOUR + GALLANTRY			
Sierra Leone Medal for Valour	MV	All Ranks	For Valour on Operations.
Sierra Leone Medal for Gallantry	GM	All Ranks	For Gallantry, not necessarily on Operations.
ORDER OF THE ROKEL (OOR)			
Commander of the Order of the Rokel	COR	Col & Brig	For Distinguished Service, not necessarily on Operations.
Officer of the Order of the Rokel	OOR	Col & Lt Col	
Member of the Order of the Rokel	MOR	WO2 to Maj	
Order of the Rokel Member	ORM	Pte to SSgt	
OPERATIONAL			
Distinguished Service Cross	DSC	Officers	For Distinguished Service in an Operational Theatre.
Distinguished Service Medal	DSM	Other Ranks	For Distinguished Service in an Operational Theatre, but not necessarily on Operations.
Sierra Leone General Service Medal	GSM	All Ranks	For Service in an Operational Theatre with Bars awarded for specific operational awards.
CITATIONS			
President's Citation			For an Act of Bravery or Distinguished Service, not necessarily on Operations.
Chief of Defence Staff's Commendation			For an Act of Bravery or Distinguished Service, not necessarily on Operations.
LONG SERVICE AND EFFICIENCY			
Long Service and Good Conduct Medal	LS&GC	All Ranks	16 Years Service

GENERIC STAFF BRANCHES

Staff Division	Principal Functions	Remarks
J1	Personnel, Staff, Welfare and Medical Services. Discipline. Casualty Procedure. Administration. Military Secretary (MS) – Career Management.	
J2	Intelligence and Security.	
J3	Maritime, Land and Air Operations. Co-ordination of Combat Support. Organisations and Deployments (O&D). Public Information (P Info). C2W including OPSEC, Deception and PYSOPS. Watch-keeping.	J3 is responsible for Co-ordinating all staff work less MS matters.
J4	Logistic Support and Equipment Support functions of Combat Service Support.	
J5	Plans.	
J6	Command and Information Systems. Advice on Control of Electromagnetic Spectrum.	
J7	Doctrine and Exercises. Training and Recruitment.	
J8	Finance.	
J9	Civil and Political (includes Legal and Affairs Media)	

MOD STRUCTURE

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                        │  The President) │········
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                                 │                ·
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            │   DG    │                               │      CDS        │
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│   DS    ││   DS    ││  Audit  │    │  ACDS   │        │    ACDS     │    │    ACDS     │
│Fin/Admin││Pol/Proc │└─────────┘    │   Ops   │        │   Pers/Trg  │    │   Sp/Log    │
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                                     │ MOD Ops  │        │    AFPC     │    │  Hospital   │
                                     │  Room    │        │    AFEC     │    │             │
                                     │    +     │        │   Horton    │    │    Med      │
                                     │ Crisis   │        │  Academy    │    │  Services   │
                                     │Management│        │   Band      │    └─────────────┘
                                     │ Centre   │        └─────────────┘
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JFC STRUCTURE

JFC —— Adv to JFC

—— **SO2 MA**

COS (Col)   **DCOS (Col)**

Chief Ops   **Chief Plans/CIS**   **Chief J4**   **Chief Pers/Manning**

J2   **J3**   **J5**   **J6**   **J7**   **Ops/Plans**   **Log Sp**   **ES**   **Infra**   **J1**   **J8/HLB**   **J9**   **Med**

Force Tps   **3 Bde**   **4 Bde**   **5 Bde**   **Air Wing**   **Maritime Wing**   **JLU**   **JPU**

FRU   **FISU**   **H Tp**   **AD Pl**   **JCU**   **Engr Regt**
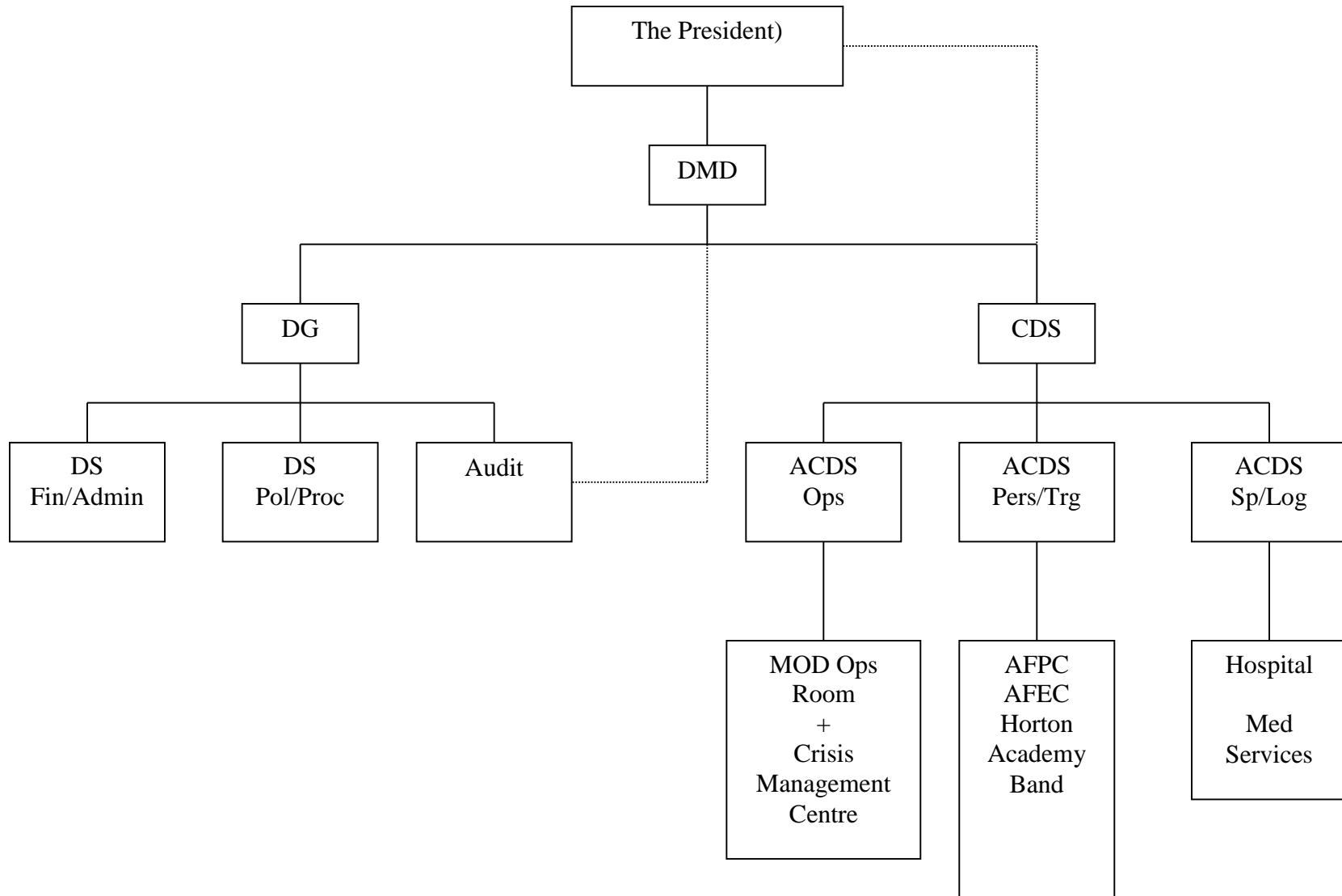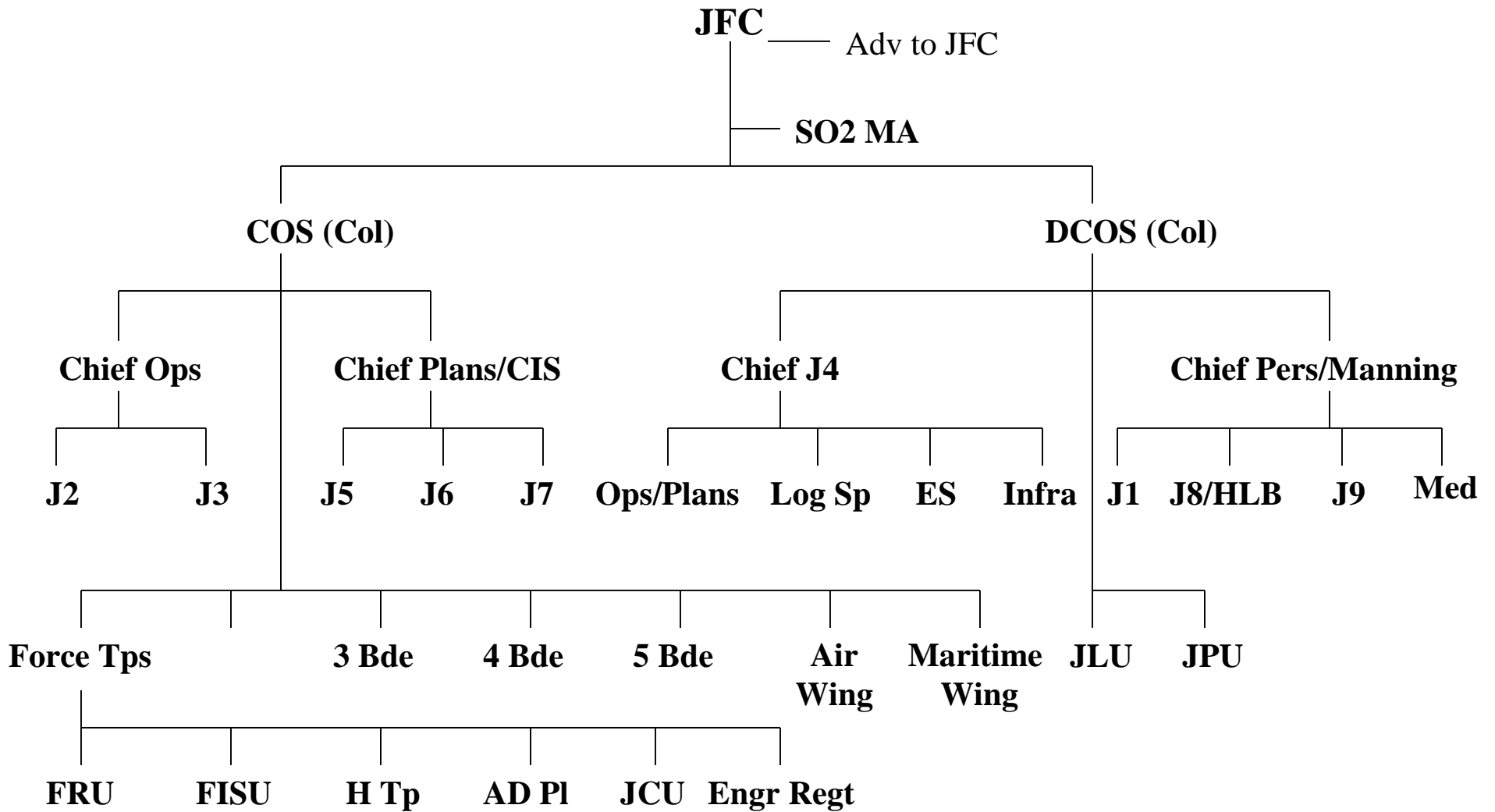
HEADQUARTERS STAFF FUNCTIONS

COMMAND

STAFF

G1

Personnel and Administration

- Pers management
- Manpower admin
- Welfare
- Chaplaincy
- Casualty procedures
- Discipline
- Legal (incl ROE)
- Provost
- PW (track / welfare)

G2

Intelligence and Security

- Direction, collection, processing and dissemination of info and intelligence
- Targeting support
- Battle Damage Assessment
- Security assessment and advice

G3

Operations

- Coordination and integration of current ops
- Info Ops
- Ops Support
- Reconnaissance
- Targeting
- Offensive Support
- Battlespace Management
- Deployment and Recovery
- Reports and Returns
- Operational Recording

G4

Logistics

- Eqpt and Materiel
- Health Service Support (Med)
- Log HNS coordination
- Mov and tpt coordination
- Contracting
- Infrastructure engineering
- Defence Estate
- Fire and environmental safety
- Support service
- Procurement

G5

Plans and Policy

- Defence Policy
- Strategic planning
- Campaign planning and estimate
- Forward planning and coordination
- Contingency planning
- Info Ops planning
- Combat assessment
- Organisations (role and history)

G6

CIS

- Comms and Info systems planning and management
- Info policy and services
- Frequency management
- Cryptography

G7

Doctrine and Training

- Force Development
- Doctrine Management
- Exercise Planning
- Operational Analysis
- Training and Education
- Research, Science and Technology

G8

Resources and Finance

- Civil Secretariat
- Finance
- Civilian personnel management
- Budget planning
- Contract authority
- Exports, disposals and sales

G9

CIMIC

- Coordination and Support arrangements
- Coordination of civil military support
- Civil contingencies

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STAFF OFFICERS' GUIDANCE

This guidance is a compilation by Lieutenant General ASH Irwin of 39 Inf Bde in 1993. The notes are applicable to almost any situation a staff officer will face. The guidance is pitched at Brigade level but is also suitable for any staff appointment.

"**How to be a Staff Officer in a Brigade Headquarters**

Introduction - It strikes me that not enough is made of the skills and requirements associated with the business of the staff officer *relating* to his commander and to others with whom he must deal.

This brief note is intended to give some guidance on this subject. It is of course a personal view; others may not agree with what follows. It assumes that the commander for whom you work is possessed of at least a small dose of humanity! For those working for the few whose behaviour is malignantly dictatorial there can be no guidance other than never to make a mistake and to keep the helmet on!

Relationships with –

Commander - Nothing is more important than the relationship between the commander and his principal staff officers. This is the goal:

- In age there is probably 12 years between the two. In that 12 years the commander will have acquired, by whatever devious means, higher rank and more experience than his staff. But otherwise there is no difference between the two. It follows that the staff officer must, by convention, observe protocol and must pay due consideration to the wisdom that experience should have conferred on the commander.

- But it also follows that in every other way there should be a free interplay of ideas between the two. This interplay can only take place in a relaxed and informal atmosphere. The knocking at doors, parade ground drill and the excessive use of the word 'sir' all tend to interfere with the interactions of minds. It is of importance to note that others judge the competence and standing of the staff officer at least in part by the self-confident way in which he relates with his chief.

- Between the two there should develop a profound sense of trust. This cannot be manufactured but can be helped by following some of the tenets suggested below.

- There should be few secrets between the two; the commander is allowed to keep more than the staff officer!

- And best of all, the two should be friends. But if this is not possible (and why should it always be so?) there must at least be no antagonism. If there is, guess who goes!

- **Staff** - There is no doubt at all that the very best headquarters are not only professionally competent but also **happy**. There is equally no doubt that if there has to be a choice between the two, professional competence **must** come first. Principal staff officers must insist on the highest standards, while recognising that SO3s generally have to learn their staff techniques on the job. For this they need advice and help. This advice and help is much better received if people are

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cheerful. If the commander is an ogre, the principal staff officer has to work hard to brighten the horizon for the junior staff: if the commander is a jolly old card, the principal staff officer may have to work equally hard to ensure that the general air of levity does not deteriorate into inefficiency.

- **Others** - The staff officer must also develop good working relationships outside the brigade:

    (i).   **With Brigade Units** - If one remembers that the job of a brigade headquarters is not only to command but also to *serve*, the nature of the relationship between the principal staff officer and commander officers, seconds-in-command, adjutants and quartermasters becomes clear. Units must not feel reluctant to speak to brigade headquarters; they must **never** feel that it is useless to do so. If principal staff officers are any good they will be used by commanding officers to sound out ideas, to test the water; this is greatly to be encouraged, provided that the staff officer knows his commander's mind.

    (ii)   **With Higher Formation** - Higher formation is almost always an ass. But it does have its uses and it is a good plan to co-operate. Higher headquarters tend to be less asinine towards those brigades that produce timely and accurate information. Brigade staff officers should get to know their counterparts upstairs at an early date. Charm them with smiles and expressions of undying admiration; stroke the ass's ear.

    (iii)   **With Civilians** - When dealing with civilians, whether or not associated with the MOD, pay them the common courtesy of speaking and writing to them in English. The military language is intimidating and incomprehensible to the average mortal. Even we soldiers can be defeated by this language, particularly the MOD dialect that is especially associated with budgets. Stop the rot.

The Skills

The ideal staff officer will never make a mistake but that is impossible. But he should strive to achieve the following:

- **Professional Competence** - Perhaps it goes without staying, but the staff officer must know what he is doing. Sometimes he will be appointed to a job for which he has no previous experience. In this case he will have to spend much time and effort finding out about it. Do not be arrogant; you do not know all the answers.

- **A Good Memory** - Some are blessed with an amazing ability to remember detail with instant recall. Most are less lucky and must rely on the taking of notes (see below). Either way the staff officer must be able to focus quickly onto the subject raised; otherwise he will waste a lot of his own and other people's time while he searches for the relevant detail.

- **Accuracy and Honesty** - It is terribly important that the information and written work given to the commander is completely accurate. You should feel bad all day if your commander returns work to you with minor SD corrections. If you do not know the answer **never** guess; always declare your hand and find out the accurate answer as soon as you can. The phrases "I imagine", "I suspect", "I think", are unacceptable. "I don't think so but I will check" is fine. There will be times when you discover that despite your best efforts the answer you have given is incorrect. **Always** own up at the earliest opportunity. This is where honesty comes in. It will

be a very silly commander indeed who discourages you from taking this line; he will be ill-served and will make the wrong decision based on incorrect information. But the distress that you will cause to the commander if he discovers that you are both imprecise **and** less than honest will be hard to imagine. In short, do not bluff your commander.

- **Good Filtering** - This is one of the most difficult skills for the staff officer to acquire. "What do I tell the commander?" "What does he need to see/read?" "Can I make a decision without reference to him?" Only experience will provide answers to these questions. To begin with it will be better to refer more to the commander than less. Get him to say whether or not it is an appropriate subject for him. But the aim is to protect the commander from unnecessary detail. The briefing process should include the aim of reducing the amount of reading that the commander has to do. It saves his ageing eyes and allows him more time to do what he should be doing.

- **Firmness** - Almost all staff work can be done by friendly persuasion. But there will be times when a difficult decision has to be forced through. The staff officer must not flinch from this and should particularly avoid blaming a decision on his commander, implying that he himself does not agree with it.

- **Laughter** - He should be dissatisfied with himself if he does not make his commander laugh at least once a day. Remember that the commander, great being though he might be, has but limited reserves of cheeriness. This he passes onto the men in the brigade with selfless extravagance. His reserve must be topped up. Often those he is visiting will cheer him up more than he does them; but he may need priming before he goes out and this is the job of the staff officer. The obverse of the coin is also true; try very hard not to be boring, particularly when briefing. It is quite extraordinary how much less important a vital subject appears to be if it is described in a manner and tone so dull that even Nigel Mansell seems hilarious.

Methods/Techniques

The following spring to mind:
- **Visits -** The staff officer cannot do his job unless he gets out and about. His should be a familiar face in all the units of the brigade. [I once served in a brigade where the commander forbade his COS from visiting – ludicrous!] The visits should have the aim of finding out and of helping.

- **Briefing the Commander** - Develop the technique of storing up subjects for the commander. Do not go into him immediately a new matter arises for his attention unless it is genuinely urgent; even commanders sometimes have work to do and continuous interruption is not good for the blood pressure! It is important as well to avoid the temptation to demonstrate your undoubtedly detailed grip on a problem by reciting at length the entire history of the case. State the situation now and only expand on the past in response to a question. Do not waste time telling the commander things he knows already.

- **Reacting to the Commander's Instructions** - Sometimes you will receive instructions that need to be passed on immediately as orders. At other times you will be given instructions that require staff action. You will quickly learn which is which. But in the latter case always take some time to think through what has to

be done and how to achieve the required result. It is usually a mistake to rush bull-nosed into a problem; never force a lock!

- **Feedback -** Ensure that you always report back to the commander any results of work that he has asked you to do. If you have reached no conclusion give him a progress report. Regard it as a failure if he has to ask how things are getting on.

- **Follow-up Action** - Do not assume that a written or verbal instruction from you to the units in the brigade constitutes an end to the matter. Most of the time the relevant action will be taken. But earn yourself a reputation for checking and then the relevant action will **always** be taken.

- **Value-Added Staff Work** - Much of your work will originate in your own headquarters. But a great deal will also filter down from above. **Never** make the mistake of merely acting as a post office. Always *add value* to the material received by passing it down in precis or extracted form, or by adding helpful explanation, perhaps drawing units' attention to particular parts of a lengthy document.

- **Dealing with the Commander's Bright Ideas** - Nowadays you are unlikely to find a commander who is content to leave things as they are. You may not want to believe it but he will have too much brain-power to be content with a dormant existence. All the ideas put forward by commanders are of course brilliant but some are more brilliant than others. As a staff officer it is your duty to point out the pitfalls of the less good ideas. But for the good ones, and the less good ones that the commander insists on seeing through, there is an overriding important requirement; you must tackle the job wholeheartedly as if the idea were your own. It is never good enough to parade a succession of reasons why something cannot be done. A positive and enthusiastic approach is required. The best defence against a stream of brigadorial notions is to go active yourself; match the commander idea for idea and earn yourself a reputation as a dynamic thinker, a mover, a forger of events.

- **Note Taking** - Everyone has his own method, but method there must be. Any will do provided that it does not rely on loose bits of paper; this never seems to work. It gives the commander enormous confidence if he sees his staff officers consulting well ordered note books.

- **The Orderly Room** - It astonishes me always that an Army orderly room is usually anything but orderly. It is just as much a part of the headquarters for which you are responsible as every other department. Make sure that it is smart, efficient and effective.

- **Relax**!

Conclusion
Whatever appointment comes your way after your staff's training you face the prospect of a rewarding and thoroughly enjoyable tour. You will certainly make good friends; you will be privileged to have the chance to influence significantly the way that things are done; and with luck you will form a bond with your commander that will long outlast your time in the Army. In any event you will learn much and you will be a better person for the experience. "