

A. WHAT IS MANAGEMENT?

“Management” is one of those words which we all use and which we think we understand until we are asked exactly what it means.

At its most general, management may be viewed as a process which enables organisations to achieve their objectives. The inclusion of the word “process” tells us that something is going on. Thus, the question “what is management?” is, perhaps, best turned into “what do managers do?”.

Towards a Definition

There are almost as many definitions of management as there are writers about the subject – and that is a lot! We shall start here by briefly considering a number which illustrate the range of possible views of the subject.

- **H Fayol**

An early classic definition was put forward by Fayol:

“To manage is to forecast and plan, to organise, to command (we would now term this “to direct”), to coordinate and to control.”

Fayol stresses the authoritative role of management – he does not mention motivation or any special qualities of leadership.

- **Making Resources Productive – Peter Drucker**

Peter Drucker, probably the most widely read present-day writer on general management, in his book “The Practice of Management” wrote:

“Management is the organ of society specifically charged with making resources productive.”

This is a wide-ranging claim, firmly pinning the need for a sense of social responsibility on managers. It is their task, according to this view, to take the resources available to society and make something better from them – to utilise staff and other resources in such a way that more will become available to all. In a real sense, he is claiming that the manager’s *raison d’être* is to make a better life for society.

He also points out an analogy with the animal world (“Management: Tasks, Responsibilities, Practices”). He compares a business operated by an owner-entrepreneur with “helpers”, with an insect which is held together by a tough, hard skin. A business with managers is likened to a vertebrate animal with a skeleton. Land animals supported by a hard skin cannot grow beyond a few inches; to be larger, animals must have a skeleton. So, the need for management is associated with size. But as the skeleton has not evolved from the hard skin of the insect, so management is not a successor to the owner-entrepreneur – it is its replacement.

When considering at which point the size of an organisation demands management, Drucker suggests that the need usually occurs when the number of employees reaches between 300 and 1,000. There are, of course, exceptions to this rule and he quotes the case of a laboratory employing 20 scientists where, by the complexity of operations, the enterprise started to flounder without a management structure.

- **Artistic and Scientific Aspects – John Marsh**

John Marsh, a former director of the British Institute of Management (now the Institute of Management), was claiming much the same thing when he said:

“Management is an art and a science concerned with the proper, systematic and profitable use of resources in all sections of a nation’s economy”.

The use of resources to make a vast profit for an individual would not be a “proper” use.

Marsh raises an interesting point by his use of the words “an art and a science”. Although many management techniques are “scientific” in the sense that they depend on quantification and objectivity, and much of management writing and research is scientific in that it depends on controlled experiments and measurement, there is still much of the art left. There are still many fields, and some might say they are the most important fields, where hunch, flair and intuition play a major part. This is why it is not possible to teach an individual to be a manager; he/she can only be helped to develop – to build on the potential that he/she has. In other words, you can teach people to manage better, but you cannot give them a basic managerial ability if they have not already got it.

- **Deciding and Delegating – R Falk, Rosemary Stewart**

A simpler, perhaps more practical definition, which has been accepted by most practising managers, is given by R Falk in his book “The Business of Management”. He defined management simply as:

“Getting things done through people”.

Here he is stressing the importance of people-management at the same time as stressing the difference between “doing” and “managing”. The technical content of a job is not managerial. For example, when the maintenance manager actually repairs a machine, he is not being a manager.

Rosemary Stewart in “Reality of Management” adds a further dimension to this definition when she says management is:

“Deciding what should be done, and then getting other people to do it”.

As we shall see later, the decision-making facet of managerial life is one of the most important. Indeed, many writers feel that it is the most fundamental part of the manager’s task.

- **Establishing an Environment Conducive to Work – Koontz and O’Donnell**

There is a more sophisticated approach to the question, though, which offers an important insight into the manager’s role. This approach is typified by Koontz and O’Donnell, who say in “Principles of Management” that management is:

“The accomplishment of desired objectives by establishing an environment favourable to performance by people operating in organised groups”.

This is an important idea in that it suggests that management’s main objective is not to give orders and chase people about, but rather to create and maintain a work situation which is conducive to work. They do not, of course, simply mean the physical setting for the work and the provision of good working methods. They are concerned with providing the right motivational climate. In a very real sense, the manager is not only the boss, but also the servant of his employees. A large part of his job is to arrange the work to suit the needs of his employees.

- **Need to Relate to the Environment – Kast and Rosenweig**

The word “environment” is used in another sense by two other writers, Kast and Rosenweig, in their book “The Management of Systems”. They see the firm as a system which exists within larger systems (its environment) and which must adjust to those larger systems in order to survive and grow. Their definition, then, is:

“Management involves the coordination of human and material resources towards objective accomplishment. It is the primary force within organisations which coordinates the activities of the subsystems, and relates them to their environment”.

Again, we see the stress on employment of resources and on objectives, but this definition tends to look outwards as well as inwards. It recognises that part of the management function within an organisation is to ensure that the organisation relates to what the environment demands.

The authors developed their theories of organisations and management practices based on the **general systems theory**, which links the relevant disciplines from science, technology, sociology, etc. for the analysis of complex problems. A holistic rather than reductionist perspective is adopted.

Do Organisations need Management?

Many workers in firms and organisations express doubts as to whether they need managers, or at least whether they need the degree of management to which they are subjected. A frequently heard lament is “too many chiefs and not enough indians”. Certainly, there are examples of “over-management. However, as the management experts Koontz, et al put it:

“Management is essential in all co-operation, as well as at all levels of organisation in an enterprise”.

Only management can create the conditions under which an organisation can achieve its goals – an organisation without management is like a rudderless ship.

However, we must go beyond the need for management and point to the fact that management must be of an appropriate extent and quality for a given organisation. To pursue our ship analogy – it is little use having a captain who steers the ship onto the rocks.

Management Processes

The above statements, being extracted from large works, tend to present a limited definition of management, e.g. “getting things done through people” or “using resources to generate profits”. These may be correct as far as they go, but they are single-dimension and do not explain the full range of functions which managers perform within organisations. We need to develop an understanding of all these.

Perhaps one of the better efforts at providing an all-embracing definition of management is that given by E F L Brech:

“Management is a social process entailing responsibility for effective planning and regulation of the operations of an enterprise in fulfilment of a given purpose”.

Many management theorists have found it useful to group key management processes under four main headings: planning, organising, directing and control. These functions may be seen as interrelated as follows:

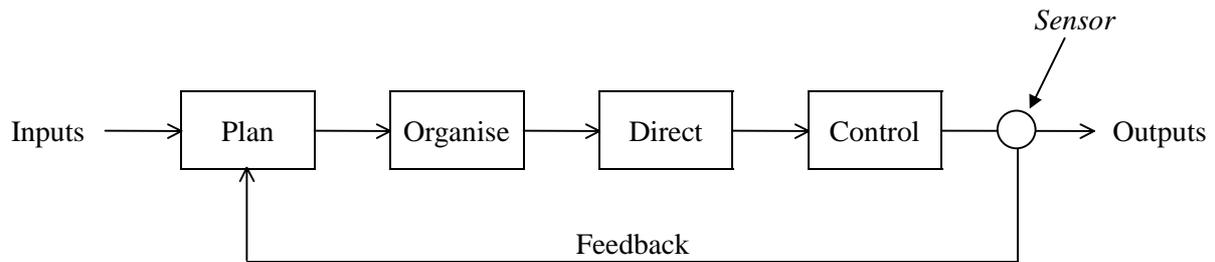


Figure 1.1: The Management Loop

The model shows management activities as a sequence: where plans become implemented and where controls monitor progress and feed back results. However, in a real work situation, a manager may be planning some things while organising, directing and controlling others.

Let us look at these management processes in greater detail.

(a) **Planning**

Planning is the process by which the organisation, or any particular part of it, determines what is to be done. It is the process of systematic thought that precedes action, during which resources in hand, or those likely to be available, are matched against known or predicted conditions in order to achieve organisational goals. It involves a number of related processes:

- **forecasting** - analysing known information (within and external to the organisation) in order to predict future conditions;
- **goal setting** - the determination, in the light of forecasts and other imperatives (including policy), of what the organisation wishes to achieve in the relevant time span;
- **decision making** - making choices between different goals and courses of action, including the identification and resolution of problems, conflicts and priorities.

One of the keys to this process is an understanding of where the organisation is coming from and what the future may be like. This requires information - about how the organisation is performing now (and this in turn derives from the monitoring and review elements of the control process - see below) and what the future holds. We shall see that information and its distribution and availability, in various forms, flows through the whole of the management process.

Another key conditioning element is the scope for decision making in the determination of goals. It is invariably the case that management does not have a free hand in setting goals. There are policy and other organisational imperatives (what can be expected of staff, the available technology or accommodation, competing priorities, etc.) which constrain the process.

(b) **Organising and directing**

Organising is the management process which actually arranges for the work to be done. It is concerned with the allocation of resources - both staff and others (finance, materials, time, etc.) - and their arrangement into working units and relationships, such that the agreed plans may be carried out and achieved.

Directing arises out of organising, being about ensuring that employees are appropriately engaged in working on activities to meet goals and plans. This involves motivating and supervising staff towards the concerted efforts needed for effective performance.

The two elements are grouped together here because they combine in their effect on people. Organising involves both the division of the work into logical tasks and its allocation to staff, and the structural arrangement of staff into groups and organisational relationships. This point about organisational relationships is important. It implies that management is not just about the setting up of structures, but also the way they continue to operate - ensuring harmony in staff relationships, that staff are working appropriately, etc. There is a necessary overlap with the directing process here in respect of influencing relationships and monitoring their effect on performance, and also with the role of the personnel or human resource management function.

Again it is worth noting the importance of the role of information and communication in the organising and directing elements of the management function. These involve not only the establishment of structures, but their on-going operation - working with people and ensuring their continuing understanding and commitment to organisational goals and the activities necessary for their achievement. This must require a level of communication to establish and maintain such conditions, and to ensure appropriate co-ordination of effort, particularly in times of rapid change such as we have experienced over recent years.

(c) **Controlling**

Management control is the process of monitoring and regulating performance to ensure that it conforms to the plans and goals of the organisation. This is not just some element added on to the end of the management process, but an integral part of it - control starts from the moment plans are put into action. It involves continuous monitoring and review of the way in which goals are being met through performance of the designated activities.

A well expressed goal should include measurable targets or standards, together with a timescale for its achievement. These are the indices which, in an ideal world, performance is measured against - are the standards or targets being achieved, how well is progress being made towards the desired end?

Control also involves taking the appropriate corrective action to ensure that what is actually happening is in accordance with the expectations of the planning process. This does not necessarily involve cracking down on staff who are not performing to the expected standards! It may, but it may also mean reviewing the plans and amending them where it can be demonstrated that they were defective in some way or that conditions have changed.

Again, the process is heavily dependent upon information. Management information is crucial to assessing the level of achievement - financial reports, output totals, qualitative progress reports, etc. are the raw material of performance review. The results of this also feed back into the planning process as part of a on-going cycle in determining the next round of goals and plans (or even the review and amendment of the current ones).

Management Roles

One of the classic studies into the work of managers was conducted by the American Henry Mintzberg in 1980. His analysis of the masses of detailed notes on exactly how managers spent their time resulted in his developing a typology of management roles which provides a slightly different overview of what management involves from the functional approach.

Mintzberg identified three general roles:

- **interpersonal** - dealing with the maintenance of relationships with others within and outside the organisation;

- **informational** - dealing with the gathering and provision of information, again within and outside the organisation;
- **decisional** - dealing with organisational and operational problems and difficulties.

Within these three categories, ten more specific roles were set out, as summarised in the Table below.

Role	Description
<i>Interpersonal</i>	
Figurehead	Formal, representational and symbolic duties
Leader	Relationship with subordinates - motivating, communicating, coaching, etc.
Liaison	Contacts with others outside work unit, for assistance, information, etc.
<i>Informational</i>	
Monitor	Ensuring acquisition of information necessary for work
Disseminator	Distributing information throughout organisation and outside
Spokesperson	Formal provision of information on behalf of organisation
<i>Decisional</i>	
Entrepreneur	Initiating, developing and facilitating change and innovation
Disturbance	Trouble shooting problems as and when they arise handler
Resource allocator	Distributing and arranging use of resources (staff, finance, materials, time)
Negotiator	Representing organisation in negotiations within area of responsibility

Whilst this categorisation of roles is different from the functional definitions we have considered above, it does not clash with them. Rather, Mintzberg's roles provide an alternative perspective, emphasising three key elements which spread across the spectrum of management processes - planning, organising and controlling.

Management Activities

Another approach to explaining management is to look at the various activities carried out by managers and attempt to classify them in some way. The traditional approach to this is to break down the main functions into their component parts, and Mullins provides an interesting framework for reviewing this, drawing the activities together and stressing their interdependence.

We can summarise the activities as follows and it is easy to see how these link with the processes of planning, organising, directing and controlling..

(a) Determining objectives

All managerial work involves identification of goals or objectives - deciding what it is one is seeking to achieve. Without this, work can become unfocused and, whilst a particular course of action may deal with the immediate problem, it may create others later because it has not focused on the real purpose. (A good example is in the need to provide information about a particular service. An ill-considered response to a need to supply details about some aspect of, say, housing may obscure what it is one is trying to achieve through the distribution of a well

thought-out information leaflet. There are any number of inappropriate brochures about services which do not adequately tell people what they want to know and raise more questions than they answer.)

(b) Defining the problems that need to be solved to achieve the objectives

Having decided what it is one is seeking to achieve, the next step is to consider what problems must be overcome in doing it. It is easy to see the problems inherent in, say, resolving a problem of heavy traffic through a small rural village - difficulties of road widening, acquiring the land for a new road, dealing with dissenters, coping with the disruption of construction, etc. However, similar problems invariably occur in considering more mundane objectives - for example, just getting the morning's post delivered to desks by 10.30am may raise issues of how the post is handled, the number of messengers employed (and what they will do for the rest of the day), etc. There are rarely issues which do not give rise to some sort of problem in their solution.

(c) Searching for solutions to the problems which have been specified

There is rarely just one solution to a problem, nor should management be about just picking one and living with it. The optimum method should be to generate a number of different ways of resolving the problems - road widening, new road construction, building a tunnel, etc. or decentralising post handling, expanding the work of the central post section, etc. There are obvious limits to how far management can go in searching for alternatives (particularly in terms of the time/cost implications), but having a range to evaluate will certainly help to clarify the "best" solution and probably assist in its acceptance.

(d) Determining the best solutions to the problems

This can be the most difficult activity. On the face of it, it is simply a matter of identifying effective solutions (ones that actually resolve the problems) and then choosing the most efficient one. However, life is rarely that easy! In reality, there will have to be some compromise between effectiveness and efficiency (usually cost efficiency, but other constraints may also apply, such as political imperatives or availability of staff).

(e) Securing agreement on implementation

It may be thought that this is relatively straightforward, given that a systematic appraisal of alternatives has resulted in the "best" available solution being selected. However, others have invariably to be convinced of that as well - committees who have to agree and allocate the necessary funds, staff (and their representatives) who will be involved in the consequent changes, outside interests including government officials and sometimes ministers, dissenting groups and, if the issue is of sufficient importance, public opinion as well (through local and national media).

(f) Preparation and issue of instructions

This should be the easy part, but not necessarily - the activity is relatively simple, it is just that management is usually terrible at carrying it out! This is all about how one communicates decisions and directions about what needs to be done to give effect to them. The scope for misunderstandings, deliberate or misconceived interpretations, errors in distribution, bad timing, etc. is enormous. There is a real premium on the ability to prepare and disseminate clear, unambiguous and relevant information to the right people to the right time.

(g) Execution of agreed solutions

We could summarise the action necessary for this activity as being about organising, allocating resources and directing. Organising is the allocation of responsibilities and authority - the establishment of a structure of functions, roles and relationships. This is very much the difficult interface between the organisation's objectives and its goals - to what extent does the former facilitate or hinder the achievement of the latter, and how easy is it to affect change to ensure compatibility. Allocating resources is about ensuring that the right people are in the right positions at the right time and with the right materials and equipment in order to achieve the desired ends. This must also involve ensuring the appropriate funding is available and that sufficient time has been allocated to enable the work to be done. Finally, directing is the business of appropriately leading, motivating and supervising the work of the members of the organisation. We stress "appropriately" because there is no one simple method of so doing - it will depend on the nature of the work, the nature of the workforce and the nature of the manager him/herself. Inappropriate direction can be counter-productive.

(h) Devising and discharge of an auditing process

The final management activity is the continuous monitoring and assessment of the extent to which the undertaking is successful. Success must be measured in terms of the achievement of the organisation's goals as expressed in the chosen solution (remembering that the solution may have been a compromise that cannot be expected to be 100% effective in meeting the goals). The use of the term "audit" here draws a parallel with the process of checking and ensuring the authenticity of financial accounts - something that is well established and, by and large, done extremely well. More general management audits are less well established and less well done! Nevertheless, there is no substitute for a system of reviewing progress and controlling the implementation process.

There is a certain logic in considering these activities as a list since they tend to follow one after another in the sequencing of a rational process. However, management is an on-going process, and at any one time will involve activities across the range, often in the same project. It is impossible, in reality, to compartmentalise these activities. In addition, it is important to note the way in which they inter-relate and how one depends on another in order to complete the process. We can show this in diagrammatic form as set out in Figure 1.2.

The links shown illustrate some of the key inter-relationships, but by no means all. For example, if the result of the audit process discovers that a correctly implemented solution has not resolved the problem or met the goals, then either a new solution must be found, or the objectives need to be reconsidered and revised. Give some thought to this and come up with some examples of your own about the links and inter-relationships, both as they are shown here and those that are not.

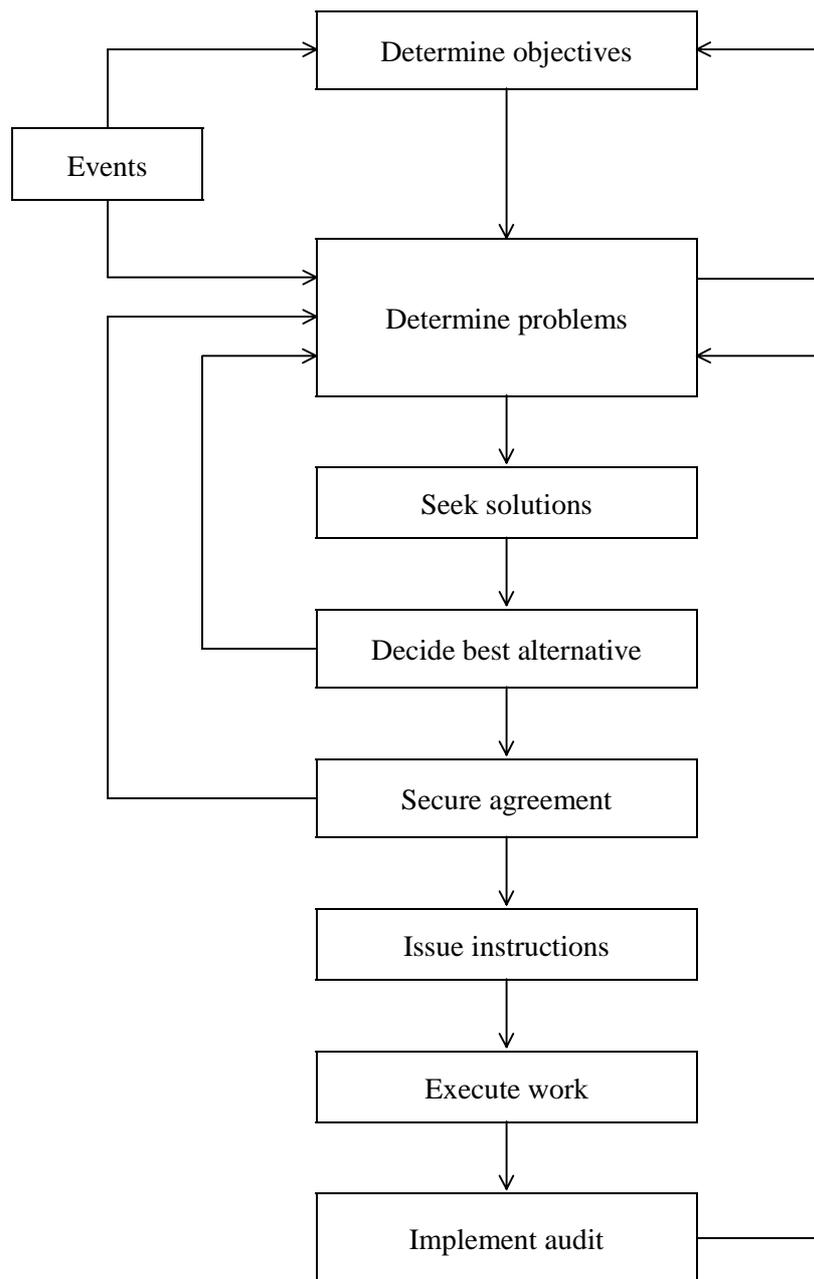


Figure 1.2: The inter-relationship of management activities

B. LEADERSHIP IN THE CONTEXT OF MANAGEMENT

Many business people would contend that “management” and “leadership” are the same thing, as many of the roles associated with a manager are similar to those expected of a leader. There is certainly considerable overlap, and textbooks often use the words “manager” and “leader” as if they are interchangeable.

Writing in the 1980s, **Warren Bennis** perhaps captured the difference between management and leadership with his statement that “*American businesses are over-managed but under-led*”, suggesting that a more inspirational attitude should be adopted by modern entrepreneurs. **Tom Peters** and **Robert Waterman** built on this shortly afterwards, suggesting that managers needed to be “facilitators” and “creators” rather than “controllers” or, in their words, “traffic cops”.

What is a Leader?

An organisation needs people who can direct staff towards the achievement of certain objectives. These people we call “leaders”, and it is their responsibility to complete tasks with the assistance of the group of staff at their disposal.

All managers and supervisors are leaders, because they need to motivate their team to achieve agreed objectives. The task may vary from planning and carrying out a major restructuring of the company’s organisation, to ensuring that the day’s work in a high-street outlet is processed and balanced.

There is no one correct way of effective leadership. It cannot be guaranteed that, because an individual has certain characteristics, he will be a good leader. Charismatic leaders, who have the ability to drive people willingly through difficult times (e.g. Churchill in World War II) have innate natural talents. Of course, it is not sufficient just to possess these abilities - they must be used effectively and developed over time. Most leaders need to work at their skills and, by training and experience, build up the necessary qualities.

Formal and Informal Leaders

Managers in industry and commerce are appointed by the organisation to have authority over groups of workers. The workers have no say in who the leader is but they have to work under him or her. Such a leader will be the formal leader of the group - the leader chosen and appointed by the management as part of the formal organisation. This does not mean, though, that this formal leader is also the informal leader of the group. Often, a group throws up informal leaders who are different from the formal leaders.

Moreover, a group may change its leader according to the situation. For example, if there are few problems and all is going well, a likeable and easy-going leader who is technically expert at the “non-management” part of his job may be acceptable. However, if times change and management tries to enforce the rules to the letter and to change the technical nature of the work performed by the group, then a different type of leader may be appointed by the group. This informal leader may be a much stronger personality, perhaps less competent technically, but who is not afraid to offend people and will resist the management’s demands for the sake of the group.

A group can thus have two leaders - the formal leader and the informal leader; it is to the benefit of the management if these two types of leader are combined in one person. This depends, of course, on the management’s being aware that there are informal leaders, and being able to do something about it. In the army, for example, non-commissioned officers are selected from men who are and seem likely to be informal leaders.

The formal position of a leader does not therefore mean that he necessarily does lead. Successful leadership is a combination of the:

- **Position** of leader
- **Personality** of the leader
- **Situation** at the time

Recognising, then, that a group may have more than one leader at a time, and that the formal leader may not lead in all things at all times, let's define the (formal) leader as:

The person who is responsible for motivating a group of individuals to perform the tasks required by the organisation within the constraints laid down.

Power and Leadership

Power is most simply defined as the ability of a person to influence the beliefs, attitudes, actions or behaviour of others. It is a critical concept related to our study of leadership.

The nature of power in societies in general, and in organisations in particular, has been considered by writers for many years. Three key early approaches were those of Max Weber, Emile Durkheim and Vilfredo Pareto:

- **Weber** undertook empirical studies of institutions as diverse as the military, the Church, governments and businesses. He concluded that social organisations were founded on hierarchy, authority and bureaucracy. Weber suggested that the core bases of institutions were clear rules, unambiguous tasks and discipline.
- **Durkheim** believed that the establishment of values and norms in groups was crucial in controlling the conduct of people in organisations.
- **Pareto** saw society as a series of related systems and subsystems which would be affected by internal and external influences. Central to his theory was that it was the task of the ruling classes to maintain social systems by providing the appropriate leadership. This idea is closely allied to the belief which still exists among some modern commentators that leaders are born, not made. This is a theme which we will explore further later.

In the study of management we are mainly concerned with **legitimate power**. It is most usually observed in those who occupy certain positions in organisations and society as a whole. The position of the person defines his or her power to others.

Power can be observed at many levels. To an owner-proprietor, power evolves from the ownership of resources; in public service, power may be laid down by statute, which is in turn based on the rights of those who make the laws to use the power vested in them by the electorate.

Power may be rooted in the **knowledge or skills** of an individual. The clearest example of this is a barrister representing a client, or a college lecturer teaching students.

Referent power is that which arises from the personal characteristics or even charisma of an individual. You can see this in many historic examples, such as the ability of Martin Luther to accelerate the Reformation, or fanatical cult leaders who can bring about mass suicides. The power here is based on the belief of people in the person. Note that in both these examples neither would have much legitimate power. Referent power manifests itself today, for better or worse, in individuals as diverse as rock stars, sporting heroes, some politicians (such as Nelson Mandela) and some businessmen. This perhaps partially explains the enormous modern preoccupation with entrepreneurs such as Richard Branson of "Virgin" and Anita Roddick of "The Body Shop".

Power can arise from the ability of individuals to confer **rewards**. These might be financial rewards or less quantifiable ones, such as the power to enhance or disrupt a production process. Your examiner for this course has such power!

Finally, **coercive power** is that which is based on the ability to not only reward, but also to punish. When a worker fears dismissal due to failure to meet standards or from having committed a misdemeanour, this is based on the perception of coercive power.

Power in organisations, demonstrated by the right to take decisions and exercise discretion, is most often determined by legitimate power, which is in turn based on the position of the individual. At the same time, referent power can be observed vividly in both project groups and informal groups when certain individuals come to the fore.

Leadership Qualities

There have been many attempts to define the qualities which are necessary in an effective leader. The **traits (or qualities) approach** to defining leadership looks at good and bad leaders and lists their characteristics. The trouble is that these lists tend to include every attribute known to man, and it is clear that many (indeed, most) effective leaders do not possess many of them! Such lists also reflect the views, experience and prejudices of whoever is compiling them.

This “personality” approach to leadership is now seen to be relatively fruitless. Leadership is an **on-going** process which is difficult to link with static qualities of individuals. Different situations produce different styles of leadership, and the person who can respond effectively to changing demands is not one who is born with certain innate characteristics which enable him to be right every time.

We shall therefore go no further down the road of the “qualities approach” other than to mention two people - one a famous war-time military leader and the other a sociologist and writer of repute.

First, the soldier-leader, **Lord Montgomery**, defined a leader as:

“One who can be looked up to, whose personal judgment is trusted, who can inspire and warm the hearts of those he leads, gaining their trust and confidence and explaining what is needed in language which can be understood”.

This is fine sounding language - but of little practical help to the manager on the shopfloor or in the office. Just **how** does he accomplish these things?

The sociologist **Chester Barnard** states that a leader should have:

- Skill
- Technology
- Perception
- Knowledge
- Physique
- Memory
- Imagination
- Determination
- Endurance
- Courage

Again, however, two things are clear. First, we all know leaders who do not have all of these attributes. Second, what do you do to get them if they are not already there?

The traits approach is therefore unrewarding and, even bringing it up to date, all we can say is that leaders tend to be easy social mixers, above average in “intelligence”, have sound judgment, be good communicators (giving and receiving information), psychologically stable and good at assessing situations.

The difficulties of the traits approach led to attempts to define leadership in terms of what leaders **do** rather than what they **are**, and it is these approaches which we shall consider in the rest of this unit.

C. ACTION-CENTRED LEADERSHIP

Action-centred leadership has its roots in the 1950s and 1960s in the work of **Professor John Adair**, who later went on to become the first Professor of Leadership appointed in the United Kingdom. Predominantly interested in military history, Adair used his research to formulate a theory which would also have valuable spin-offs as a training vehicle. Adair’s ideas were adopted first by the Sandhurst Military Academy for training officer cadets and later by the Industrial Society Training and Consultancy Organisation, which has offered thousands of courses for managers and supervisors since the 1960s.

Adair’s theory is badged as **action-centred leadership**, but is more correctly referred to as the **functional leadership model**. This title perhaps more correctly describes the nature of the model - it focuses on what a leader **does** (in other words, his functions) rather than what a leader has to **be**.

Adair considered the age-old problem of whether leaders are born or made. There is certainly a strong opinion held by many commentators that leaders often possess a range of personal attributes that are inherent in their character. These attributes are either present at birth or developed at a very early age. Whether credible or not, this idea is implicitly accepted by those who appoint or elect leaders by focusing on upbringing and early educational experiences. For example, for many years the British Army drew mainly from the upper classes and those who had followed a particular educational path for their officers and commissioned ranks.

Adair concluded that it is almost certain that **some** leaders are naturally born with the necessary attributes and that **some** people could never become leaders. It is equally possible, however, to develop leadership skills in those less fortuitously endowed but possessed of managerial potential. He pointed to instances from his empirical studies of famous characters in the past where leaders had emerged solely from the actions in a variety of circumstances.

According to Adair, the three responsibilities of a leader are:

- To define and achieve the **task**
- To build up and maintain the **team**
- To satisfy and develop the **individuals** within the team

Thus, there are task needs, team needs and individual needs - all of which have to be met.

Central to Adair’s theory is that the three crucial leadership functions have to be considered in balance. A leader who concentrates all his actions on achieving the **task**, to the detriment of attention to **group** and **individual needs** will not be effective - he will simply be regarded as a “slave driver”. Likewise, a leader who focuses mainly on **maintaining and developing the team or group** may not be able to pursue the **task** or pay attention to **individual needs**. Such a leader becomes “one of the lads” and may not be able to keep a professional distance from emotional issues when difficult and unpopular decisions have to be made. Lastly, a leader who focuses too much on the **individual** at the

expense of the other two areas will be labelled as one who has favourites and simply wants to create proteges.

Adair's former mentor at the Industrial Society, **John Garnett**, points out that the simplicity of the theory can mask the fact that it can be extremely difficult to put into practice and requires constant attention. Every day the leader has to ask:

- What have I done to achieve the **task**?
- What have I done to maintain and develop the **team**?
- What have I done to develop the **individuals** in the team?

In Garnett's words, leadership is not about a popularity contest. The action-centred approach requires sensitivity and willingness to involve people - a hands-on and consultative approach. Quite often, the leader will take all appropriate actions in respect of the three areas and then take an honest decision which is intensely unpopular, but "*you cannot take the salary and expect a round of applause*".

(a) **Task Needs**

As we know, if objectives are to be achieved, tasks need to be carried out by individuals or by groups of people. The leader has to produce certain results in achieving the task.

This means that the leader will need to:

- Identify the task and the constraints
- Establish the priorities, check the resources available, and
- decide on action
- Brief the team and check the members' understanding
- Report progress, monitor standards and maintain discipline
- Review the objectives and their attainment, and replan if
- necessary

(b) **Team Needs**

If the results are to be attained and the task achieved, then the group of people who are expected to do this has to be built up, motivated and held together as a team. It is the leader's job to ensure that the group operates at maximum efficiency, and this involves resolving conflict within the group and coordinating and controlling it.

This means that the leader will need to:

- Involve the team and share commitment with the members
- Consult and agree the standards and the structure of the team
- Answer queries from the team, encourage feedback and ideas,
- and their translation into action
- Coordinate, reconcile conflict and develop suggestions
- Recognise success and learn from failure

(c) Individual Needs

Each individual within the group has their own individual needs, which must be satisfied if they are to be effective members of the group. Individuals need to know what their job is, what their responsibilities are and how well they are doing.

This means that the leader will need to:

- Clarify the aims with each person and gain acceptance of them
- Assess each person's skills, set targets and delegate
- Advise, listen and enthuse
- Assist, reassure, recognise effort and counsel
- Assess performance, appraise, guide and train

The job of the leader is to **reconcile these three sets of needs**. Over-emphasis on one will mean falling short on the others, and this will lead to subsequent ineffectiveness.

The nature of the task and the situation will affect the emphasis which is given to each of the three areas. For example, in a military situation the task is all-important and the individual is expected to put personal needs subordinate to those of the group and to those of the task. However, in the situation where you have a group of research scientists working together on a project, the emphasis could be more individual-orientated. This would ensure that each individual member of the team is allowed time and opportunity to think and to bring ideas to the group for discussion.

There is no set formula which will tell a leader what to do in any situation. What is done will depend on how the conflicting interests of the task, the team and the individual are reconciled. Also, it will depend on the background and character of the leader and on how the situation is interpreted.

The interrelationship between the three areas of need - achieving the task, building the team and developing individuals - can be shown as three circles. Each circle intersects with the other two, and failure in one will affect the others.

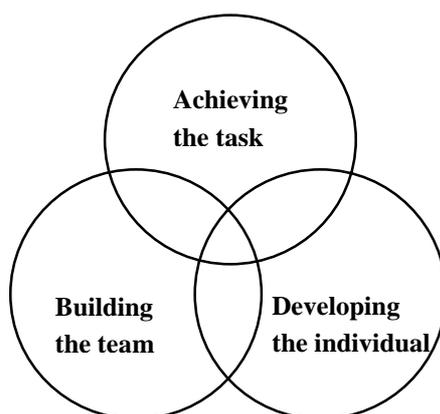


Figure 1.3

Ideally the three circles should overlap, so that the needs of achieving the task coincide with those of meeting the needs of the team and with those of meeting the needs of the individual - but, of course, this never happens! There is always conflict of some sort between the needs of the task, the team and the individual. The leader must reconcile these needs - remembering that, as a member of the management team, it is his primary job to get the task done.

Of course, the task is more likely to be successfully completed on time if the members of the team work together as a team and are also individually happy at work. A tall order but one which the manager/supervisor has to attempt!

D. LEADERSHIP STYLES

No matter **what** you decide to do in terms of an action-centred leadership approach, the **way** in which you go about it will probably have a great effect on the outcome. In other words, your management style is extremely important.

There is no one management style which is right in all situations - indeed, it is an important management skill to select the appropriate style for each situation - although it is probably true to say that, in Britain today, a style which is on the democratic end of the scale is more acceptable than a style at the authoritarian end. It is important, however, to beware of value judgments in this area, and we are not here talking about “right” or “wrong” styles!

A Continuum of Leadership Styles

A manager’s style can be seen as going from an extreme authoritarian style along a line to an extreme democratic style - as illustrated in Figure 1.4 (based on the work of **Tannenbaum and Schmidt**).

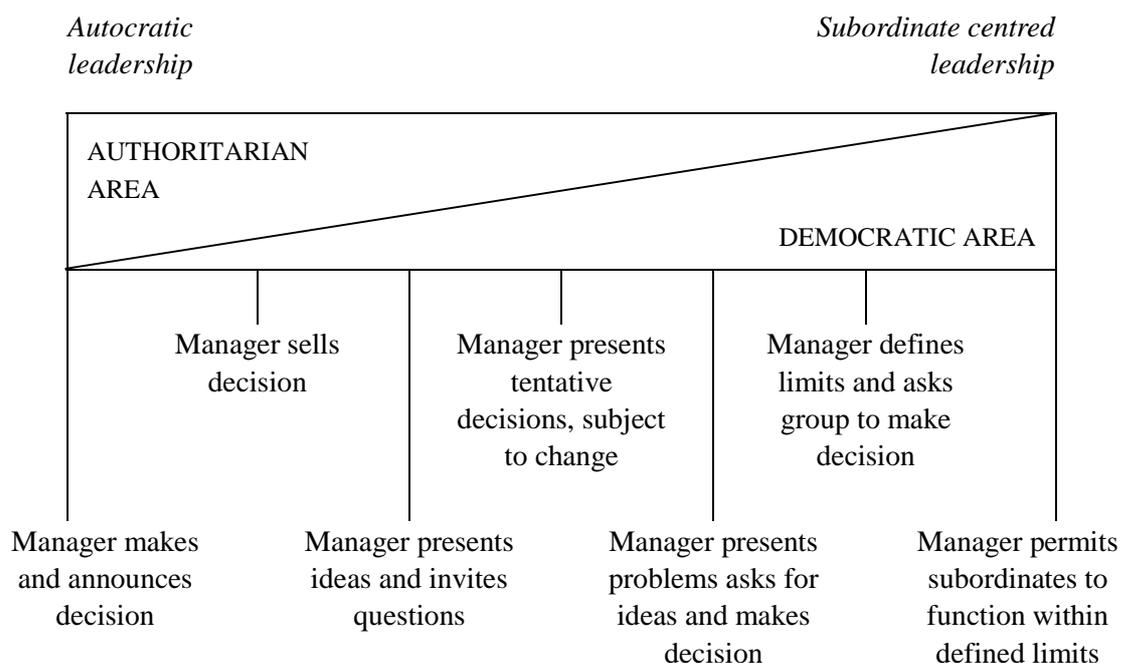


Figure 1.4: Continuum of Leadership Styles

On the left-hand side of the diagram there is a large portion of the manager’s authority and only a small portion of the left-hand vertical line represents subordinates’ freedom. On the right-hand side, however, most of the vertical line represents subordinates’ freedom and only a small portion is the manager’s authority. So, you can see that the diagram suggests a manager can operate at any place along the bottom line, from total and utter control himself to none at all! Let’s look at the possibilities in more detail.

- The most authoritarian style is on the extreme left, where the boss decides and announces his/her decision to the employees.

- Next the boss goes beyond just announcing and tries to “sell” (and explain) the decision.
- In the next style the boss invites questions after he/she has explained the decision.
- Here the boss puts forward a tentative (or possible) decision and asks employees for their ideas on it.
- The next style sees the manager presenting the problem, rather than his decision, and asking for ideas from the group on how to solve it.
- This style is even more democratic; here the manager just sets limits (e.g. the amount of resources available) and asks the group to make the decision.
- Finally, the most democratic style sees the group taking over the whole decision-making process.

Finally, another reminder that no one of these styles is “right” - the supervisor/manager has to find the appropriate one for each situation and each person. The chart should be seen as a help in the analysis of behaviour, in just the same way as the three circles of ACL.

People v Production Orientation

The Blake and Mouton managerial grid is a well-established training and development model in the USA and Europe. The concept was developed in 1969 to look at leadership styles determined by:

- Concern for people – staff morale and job security emphasised
- Concern for production – emphasis on output and efficiency

Figure 1.5 demonstrates five points where the grid indicates varying degrees of emphasis on the two factors above.

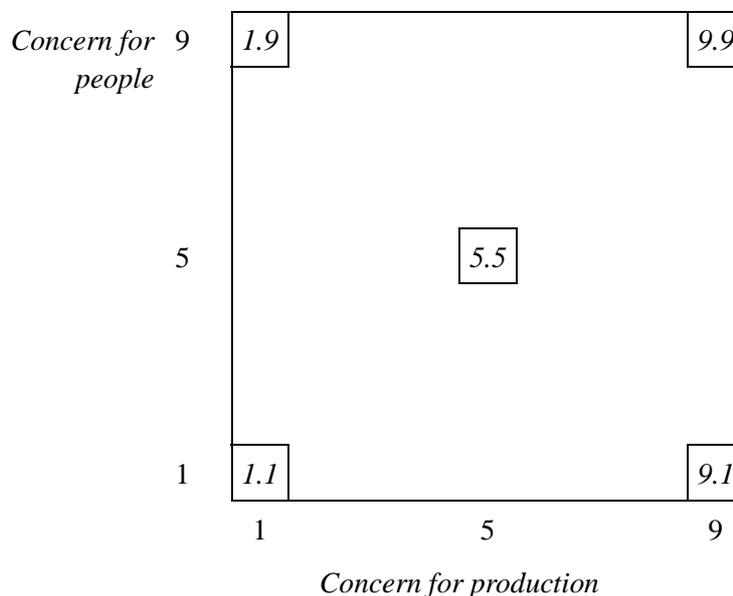


Figure 1.5: Moulton and Blake Managerial Grid

Reference **9.1** will indicate:

- An aim to maximise productivity
- A situation where staff antagonism can exist

- A situation where “anti-organisational creativity” is evident, illustrated by worker resentment and antagonism

Reference **1.9** will indicate:

- A high concern for people
- No concern about production as a priority since it is assumed that a happy workforce will reach the necessary level of production
- Introduction of the “country club” concept, i.e. having a good social time with little need for production
- An employee will feel obliged to the manager and is in some respects dependent upon him

Reference **1.1** suggests:

- Least concern for people or production

Reference **5.5** indicates:

- A “middle of the road” situation
- A push for production is evident, but not at all costs
- Managers are seen as considerate to their staff but not “soft”
- A manager will play safe, being motivated by status; will do what is expected and abide by the rule book

Reference **9.9** will indicate:

- “Team management”
- A manager will gain the involvement of people in production and obtain a higher level of participation and contribution from staff

According to Blake and Moulton, the aim is for a manager to achieve and maintain a **9.9** situation, although managers may misjudge and need to be appraised by a third party to be seen in their true colours!

Reddin’s 3D Theory

Task orientation and relationships orientation are specified as the two basic components of leadership.

Under this model it is argued that there are four basic leadership situations:

- Strong emphasis on task orientation, weak emphasis on relationships
- Strong emphasis on relationship orientation, weak emphasis on task
- Strong emphasis on both task and relationship orientation
- Weak emphasis on both task and relationship orientation

Each of these combinations may be used effectively or ineffectively, depending on the situation to which they are applied. Managers must possess two qualities in order to choose the right combination in any given scenario in order to be effective. Firstly, a **diagnostic skill**, which is the ability to evaluate the situation. Secondly, **style adaptability**, which is the ability to select the style to fit the situation.

Likert's Employee-Centred Supervision

Renis Likert was one of the most important contributors to the Human Relations School of Management theory. He identified four basic management styles:

- Exploitative/authoritative
- Benevolent/authoritative
- Consultative/authoritative
- Participative group management

He argued that managers will achieve the best performance if they devote most of their attention and resources to the human aspect of their staff's problems and on building an effective working team. He identified five conditions necessary for **effective supervisory behaviour**:

- (a) The **principle of supportive relations** - where each member of an organisation perceives their relationship and interaction with the "leaders/managers" as supportive, and as one that builds and maintains individual self-esteem.
- (b) **Group methods of supervision** - a manager can only maximise the capabilities of staff if each of them is part of an effective working group. This unit must exhibit a high level of group loyalty and expect high performance levels to be achieved by each team member.
- (c) **High performance goals** - for this to be achieved, a manager must be employee-centred, expect high performance levels, and enthusiastically project commitment for achieving those goals to subordinates.
- (d) **Technical knowledge** - a manager must be able to maintain credibility, either by possessing adequate knowledge or knowing where to find it quickly.
- (e) **Coordinating, scheduling, planning** - the manager's role here is to communicate the views, goals and values of the group to other groups where appropriate, thereby becoming the link with the rest of the organisation.

E. CONTINGENCY THEORIES OF LEADERSHIP

The behaviourist approach of identifying leadership styles suffers from the problem that what constitutes an effective style in one situation may not necessarily be so in another. A different approach has, therefore, developed which sees effective leadership as constituting the most appropriate style for the circumstances. Thus, leadership behaviour is contingent upon the characteristics of the situation.

Clearly, there are a wide variety of situational characteristics which could be identified as being conditioning factors on leadership behaviour, and a number of different approaches have, therefore, been developed.

Fiedler's Contingency Model

Fiedler accepted the concept that leaders differ in the extent of their orientation to the task in relation to their orientation to people, and put forward the view that any such orientation will be effective given the right circumstances. The model aims to identify those situations in which each kind of leader will be effective.

Fiedler proposed three factors which, to the extent that they each exist in any situation, affect the "degree of favourability" for a leader. The factors are:

(a) Position power

This is the power which arises from the position of the leader in the organisation as distinct from his or her personality, knowledge or skill. Based on the position as leader, power can be exerted to comply with instructions and carry out tasks. Fiedler simply states that a leader with clearly defined position power can influence a group to a greater extent than one who does not enjoy position power.

(b) Task structure

Fiedler describes this as the ability to define tasks and the responsibility of individuals and groups to fulfil task requirements. If the task is clear, the leader can control the work process to a greater degree, as group members are deemed to be more clearly accountable.

(c) Leader-member relations

Whilst the business itself defines position power and task structure, the leader-member relationship is determined by the trust and belief of subordinates in the leader, and even the extent to which the leader is liked and respected.

Leader-member relations is seen as the most important factor, with strong group support for a leader increasing the favourability of the situation. High task structure and strong positional power are also seen as producing favourability.

The model proposes eight positions with different mixes of these factors along a continuum of situational favourability and matches them against leadership style characterised as either relationship or task orientated. At each end of the continuum – in those situations which are most favourable or least favourable to the leader – the task-orientated leader will be effective, whereas in situations which are only moderately favourable, the relationship-orientated leader will be most successful.

Fiedler argued that leaders cannot easily change their orientation and, hence, their leadership style. They need, therefore, to analyse the degree of favourability in the situation and, where it does not match their style, make adjustments – for example, by increasing task structure.

Hersey and Blanchard’s Situational Leadership Model

This approach is based on the theory that leadership behaviour is contingent upon one major situational factor – that of the readiness of followers to act.

- Leadership style is again postulated as being conditioned by the degree of task or relationship orientation, giving four possible styles (in a similar way to that shown previously in respect of Reddin's grid).
- **Follower readiness** is a product of the ability and willingness of followers to accomplish the particular task – ability being described as “**job readiness**” and including the knowledge, skills, experience and aptitudes appropriate for the task, and willingness (or “**psychological readiness**”) is the confidence, commitment and motivation needed. These factors give us four levels of follower readiness:

High ←—————→ Low

R4	R3	R2	R1
Able and willing	Able but unwilling	Unable but willing	Unable and unwilling

The appropriate leadership style for each level of readiness is as follows:

- R1: “**telling**” – providing specific direction on what to do it and how to do it;
- R2: “**selling**” – giving direction, but also supportive of willingness and enthusiasm;
- R3 “**participating**” – a supportive style emphasising two-way communication and collaboration to enhance motivation;
- R4 “**delegating**” – where little direction or support is needed.

For example, if we consider a group of new employees, we might judge them to be in category R2 and the appropriate style for working with them in the first few days of their employment would be “selling”.

Handy’s Contingency Model

Charles Handy postulates four key elements in any management situation which influence the effectiveness of leadership:

- The manager
- The work group
- The task (the objective to be achieved)
- The organisational context or environment, which is the culture and style of the organisation in which the work group operates

Managers have a natural preference towards a certain management style or range of (related) styles, so to some extent, this element is fixed. As we have discussed above, the work group itself will also have a range of styles which its members find most acceptable.

The task will suggest certain management styles. Tasks which require team members to contribute skills and knowledge will lend themselves to a more participative style. Those in which the team members are not expected to do anything other than carry out predetermined work in the most efficient way tend to require a more authoritarian style.

The final element, that of context, depends on organisational culture. Some organisations have very rigid and hierarchical cultures. They may find it difficult to tolerate work groups which adopt a participative style. Other organisations, with a culture which places great emphasis on participation, may not be willing to allow work groups to be operated on authoritarian lines. (We shall look at culture in more detail in a later study unit.)

You will recall that Tannenbaum and Schmidt defined management style as a continuum. In other words, none of these factors will impose a **single** management style on the situation. Instead, each factor will define a **range** of styles which are acceptable. The manager should adopt a style which **overlaps** with the range of styles which are acceptable to others. The situation is best shown diagrammatically as in Figure 1.6.

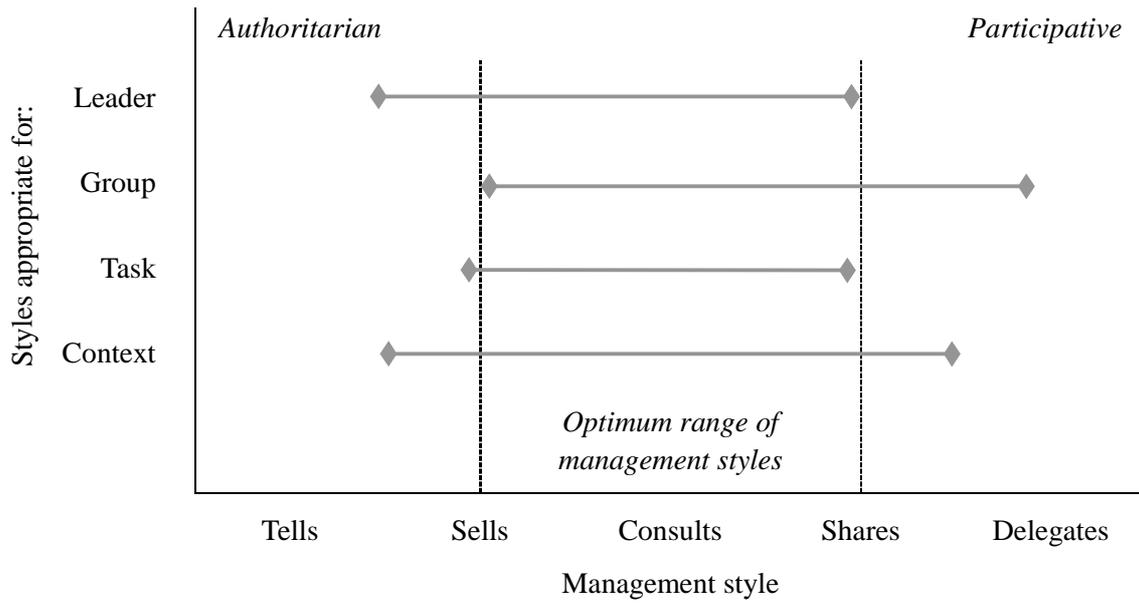


Figure 1.6: Handy's Contingency Theory of Management