Commonwealth Youth Programme

Diploma in Youth Development Work

Module 7

Management Skills

Commonwealth Secretariat
Marlborough House
London SW1Y 5HX
UNITED KINGDOM

Copies of this publication may be obtained from:
Commonwealth Youth Programme
Commonwealth Secretariat
Marlborough House
Pall Mall
London SW1Y 5HX
UNITED KINGDOM
Tel: +44 20 7747 6462/6456
Fax: +44 20 7747 6549
E-mail: cyp@commonwealth.int
Web site: http//www.thecommonwealth.org/cyp

CYP Africa Regional Centre
University of Zambia
Great East Road
P O Box 30190
Lusaka
ZAMBIA
Tel: +260-1-252733/252153/294102
Fax: +260-1-253698
E-mail: admin@cypafrica.org.zm

CYP Asia Regional Centre
Sector 12 (PEC Campus)
Chandigarh - 160012
INDIA
Tel: +91 172 2744482/2744463/274182
Fax: +91 172 2745426/2744902
E-mail: admin@cypasia.org

CYP Caribbean Regional Centre
Homestretch Avenue
D'Urban Park
P O Box 101063
Georgetown
GUYANA
Tel: +592-2-268565
Fax: +592-2-268371
E-mail: cypcc@cypcaribbean.org

CYP Pacific Centre
Lower Panatina Campus
P O Box 1681
Honiara
SOLOMON ISLANDS
Tel: +677-38374/5/6
Fax: +677-38377
E-mail: regionaldirector@cypsp.org.sb

The Commonwealth Youth Programme's Mission

CYP works to engage and empower young people (aged 15–29) to enhance their contribution to development. We do this in partnership with young people, governments and other key stakeholders.

Our mission is grounded within a rights-based approach, guided by the realities facing young people in the Commonwealth, and anchored in the belief that young people are:

- a force for peace, democracy, equality and good governance,
- a catalyst for global consensus building, and
- an essential resource for poverty eradication and sustainable development.

Acknowledgments

The Module Writers

Module 1	Dr G Gunawardena – Sri Lanka	**Module 8**	R K Mani – India
Module 2	Lincoln Williams – Jamaica	**Module 9**	Teorongonui Keelan – Aotearoa/New Zealand
Module 3	Louise King – Australia	**Module 10**	Dr P Kumar – India
Module 4	Peta-Anne Baker – Jamaica	**Module 11**	Steven Cordeiro – Australia
Module 5	Dr Mable Milimo – Zambia	**Module 12**	Dr M Macwan'gi – Zambia
Module 6	Morag Humble – Canada	**Module 13**	Paulette Bynoe – Guyana
Module 7	Anso Kellerman – South Africa		

The CYP Instructional Design Team

	Original version	2007 revision
Project manager		Sid Verber – UK
Senior ID	Melanie Guile and Candi Westney – Australia	Catherine Atthill – UK
Module 1	Hilmah Mollomb – Solomon Is	Catherine Atthill – UK
Module 2	Ermina Osoba/RMIT – Antigua	Catherine Atthill – UK
Module 3	Candi Westney – Australia	Rosario Passos – Canada
Module 4	Rosaline Corbin – Barbados	Julie Hamilton – Canada
Module 5	Judith Kamau – Botswana	Catherine Atthill – UK
Module 6	Dr Turiman Suandi – Malaysia	Chris Joynes – UK
Module 7	Evelyn Nonyongo – South Africa	Evelyn Nonyongo – South Africa
Module 8	Melanie Guile – Australia	Chris Joynes – UK
Module 9	Irene Paulsen – Solomon Is	Rosario Passos – Canada
Module 10	Prof Prabha Chawla – India, and Suzi Hewlett – Australia	Rosario Passos – Canada
Module 11	Melanie Guile – Australia	Rosario Passos – Canada
Module 12	Dr R Siaciwena – Zambia	Dr R Siaciwena – Zambia
Module 13	Lynette Anderson – Guyana	Chris Joynes – UK
Tutor manual	Martin Notley / Lew Owen / Thomas Abraham / David Maunders	Catherine Atthill – UK
Typesetters	Klara Coco – Australia	Decent Typesetting – UK
Editors	Lew Owen / Paulette Bynoe	Lyn Ward – UK Tina Johnson - USA
Proofreader	RMIT	Andrew Robertson

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Graphic Art – Decent Typesetting.

Final Module review – Magna Aidoo, Lew Owen, Paulette Bynoe.

Guy Forster for the module cover designs.

The CYP Youth Work Education and Training (YWET) Team

PCO Adviser: Youth Development
Cristal de Saldanha Stainbank

YWET Pan-Commonwealth Office
Jane Foster
Tina Ho
Omowumi Ovie-Afabor
Fatiha Serour
Andrew Simmons
Nancy Spence
Eleni Stamiris
Ignatius Takawira

YWET AFRICA
Yinka Aganga-Williams
Gilbert Kamanga
Richard Mkandawire
Valencia Mogegeh
James Odit

YWET ASIA
Seela Ebert
Raj Mishra
Bagbhan Prakash
Saraswathy Rajagopal
Raka Rashid
Rajan Welukar

YWET CARIBBEAN
Armstrong Alexis
Heather Anderson
Henry Charles
Kala Dowlath
Ivan Henry
Glenyss James

YWET PACIFIC
Afu Billy
Sushil Ram

YWET PACIFIC
Jeff Bost
Tony Coghlan
Sharlene Gardiner
Suzi Hewlett
Irene Paulsen

Pan-Commonwealth Quality Assurance Team (PCQAT)
Africa
Joseph Ayee
Linda Cornwell
Clara Fayorsey
Ann Harris
Helen Jones
Fred Mutesa
Asia
Thomas Chirayil Abraham
Shamsuddin Ahmed
Vinayak Dalvie
Bhuddi Weerasinghe
Caribbean
Mark Kirton
Stella Odie-Ali
Carolyn Rolle
Pacific
Robyn Broadbent
Ron Crocombe
David Maunders
Sina Va'ai

YWET Evaluators and Consultants
Chandu Christian
Dennis Irvine
Oscar Musandu-Nyamayaro
Richard Wah

Module contents

Module overview

Introduction

Welcome to Module 7 *Management Skills*.

This module focuses on the full range of management roles and tasks that you, as a youth development worker, may need to perform and about which you will need to know. The module begins by exploring the concept of management and the theories informing the practices of management. It then focuses on showing you how you can manage both the resources and the staff you are responsible for in order to complete the tasks you need to manage, and it also guides you through the management of organisational development and change. Key management processes are covered in detail, including managing time, managing yourself, managing resources, staff development, budgeting and monitoring expenditure, and managing communication and information technology.

Note that you will be asked to keep a learning journal for the duration of the module. This is an important part of your study programme and you will use it continually as you work through each unit. So make sure you have your journal handy – the notes and comments you record in it will form part of your formal assessment in this module. Your learning institution will inform you when to submit the learning journal for assessment.

Module learning outcomes

Learning outcomes are statements that tell you what knowledge and skills you will have when you have worked successfully through a module.

Knowledge

When you have worked through this module you should be able to:

- demonstrate awareness and commitment to the management tasks that are important in the delivery of youth development work

- identify and discuss the key theories, approaches and styles that inform the practice of contemporary management, particularly in the not-for-profit sector

- outline key areas and processes of management, such as organisational change, staff development, monitoring of expenditure and budgetary control, project management, critical path analysis and management of information and communication technology

- relate theories and approaches of management to the principles and practice of youth development work, in order to ensure that your management style is appropriate

- distinguish the roles and organisational characteristics of non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and non-NGOs.

Skills

When you have worked through this module you should be able to:

- manage a discrete project from inception to completion within an agreed time-scale

- supervise and support a team of volunteer and/or paid staff

- work within the principles of financial accountability, including budgeting and financial management

- contribute effectively to job, organisational and personal development

- work collaboratively with other agencies

- produce basic business written communication products such as reports, letters of complaint and memoranda.

About this module

Module 7 *Management Skills* is divided into seven units:

Unit 1: Management – an overview

This unit examines the key principles of management, some of the key management theories and different management styles. You will look at management processes and the various roles that managers play, and put these in a youth work context. Special emphasis is placed on 'participation'.

Unit 2: Managing in the not-for-profit sector

This unit discusses development and the role of the not-for-profit sector, its characteristics and the concept of voluntarism. The unit ends by looking at the particular characteristics of NGOs, relating these to management issues and then exploring issues around the monitoring and control of NGOs.

Unit 3: Managing work

In Unit 3 you will examine skills-oriented aspects of management. The unit discusses the nine critical management skills and how you can manage your time, yourself and your own work.

Unit 4: Managing youth development work

Unit 4 explores the management tasks and roles of a typical youth development worker and provides guidelines on how to carry out these tasks and roles in your work. This unit also focuses on the practical skills you will use in day-to-day management, including project management systems, critical path analysis and budgeting.

Unit 5: Managing human resources

Unit 5 explores issues related to the management of staff. It also examines the critical management tools that will help both manager and staff to work effectively.

Unit 6: Managing organisational change

This unit discusses the need for organisational change and examines types and dimensions of change, as well as the process. It also highlights two main approaches to change and explores problems that youth work organisations experience – both in the developing and the developed world – and suggests strategies you can use for tackling those problems, including action learning.

Unit 7: Managing communication and ICT

Unit 7 examines the basic principles of good communication and applies them to the management context. Skills covered include effective communication guidelines, listening skills and practical business writing. This unit also provides an overview of information and communications technology (ICT) as a tool for change within organisations.

This table shows which units cover the different module learning outcomes.

Module 7 Learning outcomes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Knowledge							
1 Demonstrate awareness and commitment to the management tasks that are important in the delivery of youth development work.	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
2 Identify and discuss the key theories, approaches, skills and styles that inform the practice of contemporary management, particularly in the not-for-profit sector.	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
3 Outline key areas and processes of management such as organisational change, staff development, monitoring of expenditure and budgetary control, project management, critical path analysis and management of information and communication technology.				x	x	x	x
4 Relate theories and approaches of management to the principles and practice of youth development work, in order to ensure that your management style is appropriate.	x	x		x			
5 Distinguish the roles and organisational characteristics of NGOs and non-NGOs.		x					

Skills							
6	Manage a discrete project from inception to completion within an agreed time-scale.				x		
7	Supervise and support a team of volunteer and/or paid staff.					x	
8	Work within the principles of financial accountability, including budgeting and financial management.				x		
9	Contribute effectively to job, organisational and personal development.			x			
10	Work collaboratively with other agencies.	x					
11	Produce basic business written communication products such as reports, letters of complaint and memoranda.						x

Assessment

Each module is divided into a number of units. Each unit addresses some of the learning outcomes. You will be asked to complete various tasks so that you can demonstrate your competence in the learning outcomes. This study guide will help you to succeed in your final assessment tasks.

Methods

Your work in this module will be assessed in the following three ways:

1   Completion of the unit assessment tasks that you will carry out throughout this module (30 per cent). There are four assignments – at the end of Units 2, 4, 6 and 7. All these assignments will add up to 30 per cent of the unit assessment. Your learning institution will indicate when and which of these tasks should be submitted for marking by your tutor.

2   The learning journal that you will keep for recording your responses to the different learning activities in each of the units (20 per cent). Your learning institution will inform you when to submit the learning journal for assessment.

3   A report of about 1,750 words. You will find full details at the end of the Module Summary (50 per cent).

The institution in which you are enrolled for this Diploma programme may decide to replace part of these assignments with a written examination (worth 30 per cent of the final mark.)

Note: We recommend that you discuss the study and assessment requirements with your tutor before you begin work on the module. You may want to discuss such topics as:

● the learning activities you will undertake on your own

● the learning activities you will undertake as part of a group

● whether it is practical for you to do all of the activities

● the evidence you will produce to prove that you have met the learning outcomes for the module – for example, learning journal entries, or activities that prepare for the final assignment

● relating assignment topics to your own context

● when to submit learning journal entries and assignments and when you will get feedback.

Learning journal

Educational research has shown that keeping a learning journal is a valuable strategy to help your learning development. It makes use of the important faculty of reflecting on your learning, which supports you in developing a critical understanding of it. The journal is where you will record your thoughts and feelings as you are learning and where you will write your responses to the study guide activities. The journal is worth 20 per cent of the final assessment. Your responses to the self-help questions can also be recorded here if you wish, though you may use a separate notebook if that seems more useful.

Self-test

Take a few minutes to try this self-test. If you think you already have some of the knowledge or skills covered by this module and answer 'Yes' to most of these questions, you may be able to apply for credits from your learning institution. Talk to your tutor about this.

Note: This is not the full challenge test to be held by your learning institution for 'Recognition of Prior Learning'.

Put a tick in the appropriate box in answer to the following questions:

	Yes	No	More or less
Are you aware of the management tasks that are important in the delivery of youth development work, and are you committed to performing them?			
Do you understand the theory and practice of management, particularly in relation to the not-for-profit sector?			
Do you have an understanding of the following key areas of management: organisational change, staff development, monitoring of expenditure and budgetary control, project management and critical path analysis?			
Can you relate approaches of management to the principles and practice of youth development work, to ensure that your management style is appropriate?			
Are you aware of the distinct roles and organisational characteristics of NGOs and non-NGOs?			
Can you manage a project from inception to completion within an agreed time-scale?			
Can you supervise and support a team of volunteers and/or paid staff?			

	Yes	No	More or less
Are you able to work within the principles of financial accountability, including budgeting and financial management?			
Are you able to contribute effectively to job, organisational and personal development?			
Can you work collaboratively with other agencies?			
Can you explain the role of information and communication technology (ICT) in management?			

Learning tips

You may not have studied by distance education before. Here are some guidelines to help you.

How long will it take?

It will probably take you a minimum of 70 hours to work through this study guide. The time should be spent on studying the module and the readings, doing the activities and self-help questions and completing the assessment tasks.

Note that units are not all the same length, so make sure you plan and pace your work to give yourself time to complete all of them. For example, Unit 3 has a heavy reading schedule.

About the study guide

This study guide gives you a unit-by-unit guide to the module you are studying. Each unit includes information, case studies, activities, self-help questions and readings for you to complete. These are all designed to help you achieve the learning outcomes that are stated at the beginning of the module.

Activities, self-help questions and case studies

The activities, self-help questions and case studies are part of a planned distance education programme. They will help you make your learning more active and effective, as you process and apply what you read. They will help you to engage with ideas and check

your own understanding. It is vital that you take the time to complete them in the order that they occur in the study guide. Make sure you write full answers to the activities, or take notes of any discussions.

We recommend you write your answers in your learning journal and keep it with your study materials as a record of your work. You can refer to it whenever you need to remind yourself of what you have done. The activities may be reflective exercises designed to get you thinking about aspects of the subject matter, or they may be practical tasks to undertake on your own or with fellow students. Answers are not given for activities. A time is suggested for each activity (for example, 'about 20 minutes'). This is just a guide. It does not include the time you will need to spend on any discussions or research involved.

The self-help questions are usually more specific and require a brief written response. Answers to them are given at the end of each unit. If you wish, you may also record your answers to the self-help questions in your learning journal, or you may use a separate notebook.

The case studies give examples, often drawn from real life, to apply the concepts in the study guide. Often the case studies are used as the basis for an activity or self-help question.

Readings

There is a section of Readings at the end of the study guide. These provide additional information or other viewpoints, and relate to topics in the units. You are expected to read them.

There is a list of references at the end of each unit. This gives details about books that are referred to in the unit. It may give you ideas for further reading. You are not expected to read all the books on this list.

Please note: In a few cases full details of publications referred to in the module have not been provided, as we have been unable to confirm the details with the original authors.

There is a list of Further Reading at the end of each module. This includes books and articles referred to in the module and are suggestions for those who wish to explore topics further. You are encouraged to read as widely as possible during and after the course, but you are not expected to read all the books on this list.

Although there is no set requirement, you should aim to do some follow-up reading to get alternative viewpoints and approaches. We suggest you discuss this with your tutor. What is available to you in libraries? Are there other books of particular interest to you or your region? Can you use alternative resources, such as newspapers and the internet?

Unit summary

At the end of each unit there is a list of the main points. Use it to help you review your learning. Go back if you think you have not covered something properly.

Icons

In the margins of the *Study Guide,* you will find these icons that tell you what to do:

Self-help question

Answer the question. Suggested answers are provided at the end of each unit.

Activity

Complete the activity. Activities are often used to encourage reflective learning and may involve a practical task. Answers are not provided.

Reading

Read as suggested.

Case study

Read these examples and complete any related self-help question or activity.

Studying at a distance

There are many advantages to studying by distance education – a full set of learning materials is provided, and you study close to home in your own community. You can also plan some of your study time to fit in with other commitments like work or family.

However, there are also challenges. Learning at a distance from your learning institution requires discipline and motivation. Here are some tips for studying at a distance.

1 **Plan** – Give priority to study sessions with your tutor and make sure you allow enough travel time to your meeting place. Make a study schedule and try to stick to it. Set specific days and times each week for study and keep them free of other activities. Make a note of the dates that your assessment pieces are due and plan for extra study time around those dates.

2   **Manage your time** – Set aside a reasonable amount of time each week for your study programme – but don't be too ambitious or you won't be able to keep up the pace. Work in productive blocks of time and include regular rests.

3   **Be organised** – Have your study materials organised in one place and keep your notes clearly labelled and sorted. Work through the topics in your study guide systematically and seek help for difficulties straight away. Never leave this until later.

4   **Find a good place to study** – Most people need order and quiet to study effectively, so try to find a suitable place to do your work – preferably somewhere where you can leave your study materials ready until next time.

5   **Ask for help if you need it** – This is the most vital part of studying at a distance. No matter what the difficulty is, seek help from your tutor or fellow students straight away.

6   **Don't give up** – If you miss deadlines for assessment pieces, speak to your tutor – together you can work out what to do. Talking to other students can also make a difference to your study progress. Seeking help when you need it is a key way of making sure you complete your studies – so don't give up!

If you need help

If you have any difficulties with your studies, contact your local learning centre or your tutor, who will be able to help you.

Note: You will find more detailed information about learner support from your learning institution.

We wish you all the best with your studies.

Unit 1: Management – an overview

Unit introduction

Welcome to Unit 1 *Management – an overview*. The role of the youth development worker is becoming increasingly a managerial one: managing young people and resources in order to achieve development objectives. This unit aims to help you better understand what the managerial aspects of that role are about.

There is now a significant body of theory about and research into the practice of management, attempting to outline what the elements of effective management are. First, we look at the concept of management, its aims and some associated theories and principles. Then we differentiate the terms 'management' and 'administration'. The unit then explores the 'management process' and 'management functions'. In addition, we introduce you to two components of management – the 'mechanical' and 'dynamic' components – and ask you to consider how to apply them in practice. The various roles a manager plays are discussed and the different management styles are identified. You will be asked to research and discuss these styles with colleagues. The unit ends by emphasising the importance of participation.

The purpose of Unit 1 is to help you, as a youth worker, to analyse and categorise the nature of your work practices.

In this unit, you will need to begin work on your learning journal, so make sure you have appropriate writing material on hand (e.g. an exercise book).

Unit learning outcomes

When you have worked through this unit, you should be able to:

● outline the theory and practice of management

● compare key groups of management theories

● differentiate the terms 'management' and 'administration'

● identify different management styles

● discuss the importance of participation in the management process.

What is management?

You may already have some direct or indirect experience of management. Before you go on with this unit, reflect on your personal experience and complete Activity 1.1.

Activity 1.1

(15 minutes)

Answer the following questions:

1   What do you understand by the term 'management'?

2   What do you think is the difference between management and administration?

3   Consider for example the management functions in the role of the mother in a family: what financial, technical and human resources does she manage? What management objectives is she likely to have, even if she doesn't define them?

4   Compare these with the probable management functions of the head of a school or university.

Write down your ideas in your learning journal. You will compare your answers later with other views presented in this unit.

The term 'management', though readily understood, is not easily defined, partly because it is used to describe behaviour in very diverse situations. Charles Handy (1985) says this problem is related to the difficulty of defining a manager's role. He says that definitions of management tend to be "*so broad that they are meaningless or so stereotyped that they become part of the background*". Nevertheless, there are clearly identifiable management functions in an enormous variety of roles. The important issue is whether analysing and evaluating these management functions helps those in the roles to perform them more effectively.

In very simple terms, Armstrong (1999, p. 3) defines management as a process of deciding what to do and then getting it done through the effective use of resources, including people. He explains that people are the most critical resource available to managers, since it is through this resource that all other resources – knowledge, finance, materials, equipment, etc. – will be managed.

Therefore management is best described as an interactive and dynamic people process in which the manager is personally very active (Armstrong, 1990). Because management is an interactive, engaged process, while the manager benefits from delegating work,

s/he cannot really delegate core duties and functions away from the team, and so teamwork becomes extremely important. In sum, management can be described as more an art than a science since managers are continually required to use their ongoing judgement and expertise in a dynamic, interactive, team environment. Clearly administration has a part to play in this, but how does it fit into this definition do you think? We will return to this question later in the unit.

Management for youth

The aims and general objectives of youth work are set by the contemporary social context. All over the world, governments and human rights bills emphasise young people and highlight their importance as the leaders of the future. This means that investing in managing young people is an investment in managing the future of a country. Investing in youth work is also an investment in development, because youth are the decision-makers and potential work force of the near future.

Unfortunately these aims are so broad they are almost meaningless in terms of managerial objectives. A mother may well know that this is the ideological context in which she brings up her family, but it's not much help in getting her children into good schools and good jobs if there are no good schools or she hasn't the money. And this is the same for youth workers. You need a clearly specified context for your work and precise things you can target.

The aim of management

Management aims to get results by making the best use of the available human, financial and material resources within the identified context and targets. It is very much concerned with adding value to these resources, and this added value depends on the expertise and commitment of yourself and the people who are responsible for managing your organisation (Armstrong, 1999). 'Adding value' is a slippery concept, but, roughly speaking, it means that the young people you work with have more confidence, increased skills and can contribute more at the end of a project than was true at the start of the project. It also means that your resources are better organised and more useful as a result of the work done on the project. You will have used up at least some financial resources, but what you've done ought to be good value for the money spent.

Activity 1.2

(about 5 minutes)

1   Compare your response to question 1 in Activity 1.1 with the discussion on management presented above.

2   Note any points you may have initially omitted in your learning journal and improve your definition of management accordingly.

Management theories

Being a manager of human and other resources is a very practical role. Nevertheless, you can learn something useful about that practice from the various attempts to create a satisfactory management theory.

Management theories can be categorised broadly as 'classical', 'behavioural' and 'current'.

Turn to the Readings section at the end of this Module and read Reading 1: 'Management theories'. As you read, pay attention to the features of each theory and the similarities and differences among these.

Now that you have finished your reading, complete Activity 1.3.

Activity 1.3

(about 30 minutes)

In this activity you are going to make notes in the form of a table on the main features of the three categories of management theories that you have just studied. Your notes will cover the main features of the theories and similarities and differences among them.

In your learning journal:

1   Draw a table with four columns and four rows. Each row should have enough space for your notes (except for Row 1, which will only cover headings).

2   In the first row, write these headings at the top of each column: Column 1= Theories; 2 = Features; 3 = Similarities and 4 = Differences.

3   Under the first column (headed 'Theories'), write the names of the three theories in each of the next three rows, namely Classical theories, Behavioural and human relations theories and Current theories.

4   Review Reading 1, paying particular attention to the main features of these theories and the similarities and differences among them. Write notes on the features, similarities and differences under the relevant columns of your table.

You may discuss your summary with your tutor and colleagues. The completed table will provide a useful reference when studying other aspects of management in this module. It is, therefore, important that you revise your table where necessary after comments from your tutor, so that your final table captures all the crucial points about the different theories.

For some guidance on drawing the table, here is how it should look in your learning journal. This table has only been partially completed. Our notes will not be same as we each have different ways of summarising information. You may write full sentences or just key words. What is important is that your notes should help you understand the matter you are studying and enable you to explain it orally and in writing.

Note that it will be easier to complete the similarities and difference when you have understood the main features of each of the three theories. Therefore, complete your notes on the features of each theory first.

Summary of Management Theories

Theories	Features	Similarities	Differences
Classical theories	Time period: 1900 to 1920. There are 3 sub-groups: ● bureaucratic ● scientific ● administrative **Bureaucratic** (Max Weber) – focus on organisational structures based on rational guidelines: rules, procedures and work hierarchy – suitable for large organisations and organising complex processes. **Scientific** (FW Taylor) focus on scientific investigation: observation and statistical analysis managers responsible for scientific analysis of work, and workers expected to carry out managers' analysis-based specifications. **Adminstrative** (Henri Fayol) focus on flow of activity throughout the organisations' operations manager plans and organises activities, then coordinates and controls performance 14 principles of management: specialisation of labour, unity of command, etc.		
Behavioural and human relations theories			
Current theories			

The last part of Reading 1 is the section on principles of management. The section on administrative management had mentioned only the ones that Fayol felt were the most important. Review the fourteen principles before you continue with the rest of this unit.

Unit 1

Management and administration

What's the difference between management and administration?

Management is concerned primarily with results and taking calculated risks. This means that managers do certain things in order to get results for themselves and others. We will discuss in the units that follow a variety of management activities. Managers also evaluate various things in order to try to minimise risks and improve output.

On the other hand, administration is concerned with procedures, accountability and risk avoidance. This means that in proper administration, actions are carried out according to the correct procedures. If part of the procedure is not followed, people will be held accountable.

The key difference is this: management aims at taking calculated risks, whereas administration aims at avoiding risk completely, in order to ensure a proper and effective administration process.

To gain a fuller understanding of the difference between management and administration, turn to the Readings at the end of this module and read Reading 2: 'Management and Administration in the Private and Public Sectors' by W. David Rees. Pay particular attention to the introductory paragraph, the section covering the differences between management and administration and the table at the end of the article, which summarises the differences between the two terms.

Now that you have read what other people say about the two terms – management and administration – complete Activity 1.4.

Activity 1.4

(about 10 minutes)

Look back at your answers to Activity 1.1 in your learning journal. Spend 10 minutes now to:

1   Compare your answers with the views presented in the unit so far.

2   Write down the differences between these views and your answers.

In general, it is safe to say that it is part of every person's job to do administration, but not a lot of people are managers. So administration is a process regularly done by those lower than management in the organisational hierarchy. Management requires administrative knowledge but also more complex skills and processes.

The management process

Management does not just happen. It is a decision-making process that can be subdivided into four individual processes, described by Armstrong (1999) as methods of operation that assist the achievement of objectives. These are:

- planning

- organising

- influencing

- controlling (Mondy and Premeaux, 1995, pp. 7–11*)*.

These are more or less the methods specified by Fayol, except that the term 'influencing' takes the place of commanding and coordinating activities. This indicates a shift from an authoritarian to a more interactive central role, under the influence of human relations research and theory.

Below you will find a diagram showing this process.
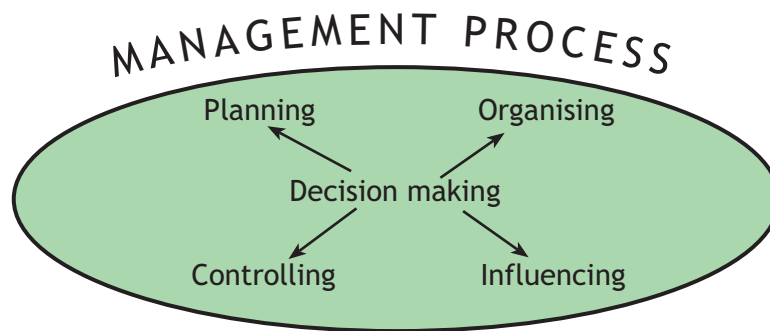
Let's look at each of these parts of the management process in turn.

Planning

This is the process of deciding on a course of action to achieve a desired result. Plans should be specific and provide clear guidance to both managers and workers.

They should indicate:

- the nature and purpose of all activities

- the role-takers and their roles

- lines of accountability: who is responsible to whom

- time frames

- resources

- location

- quantity and quality of activities.

For example, if you are planning an AIDS awareness campaign among young people, you should spell out clearly the level of awareness you want to create, as well as who does what in preparing and implementing the campaign. You should also clearly set down the activities to be done before, during and after the campaign, and identify which individuals are accountable for specific tasks.

Incremental planning is short-term planning, and normally takes place in phases within a longer-term plan. Within the longer-term plan, the situational context might well change suddenly – for example, some of the role-takers might change. Goals and activities should therefore be revised and reshaped in order to keep up with the changing situation. The following case study illustrates this.

Case study 1.1

Incremental planning

Mrs Seka is a volunteer at a programme in an informal housing district. She is a very good organiser and keen to be involved in an AIDS awareness campaign for the youth from the local area. Because she has contacts with the education authority, the youth worker has appointed her to book venues at schools for the campaign. The success of this project depends on these venues being available. But Mrs Seka becomes pregnant and is not able to do the task she has been allocated. Furthermore, the youth leader responsible for organising transport for youth to the AIDS awareness sessions moves away from the district. Fortunately, the youth worker is a good manager. He is aware of the importance of incremental planning and has allowed for such unexpected changes. He goes back and draws up a new plan for these changed aspects of the campaign.

Note that planning is a complex and important part of youth development work. Here we have given you a very brief overview. In Module 8 *Project Planning, Monitoring and Evaluation* we cover this topic in detail.

Organising

Organising has been defined as "*the process of prescribing formal relationships among people and resources to accomplish goals*" (Mondy and Premeaux, 1995, p. 9).

Organising means knowing the capabilities of your staff and choosing and persuading the right person with the appropriate skills for each job – not an easy thing to do. It also means finding and arranging the right resources to complete the job and achieve your goals.

Sometimes an organisational chart is necessary to control this process. It's always useful to develop one. The chart below is for a

formal and complex organisation. It indicates managers' responsibilities and degrees of authority and allocates jobs to different parts of the organisation. It shows the degree of centralisation – who is in charge of what – and the type of department that will be used. The organisational chart can also include the processes of administration and management as discussed above.

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                    │ Chief Executive  │
                    │  Officer (CEO)   │
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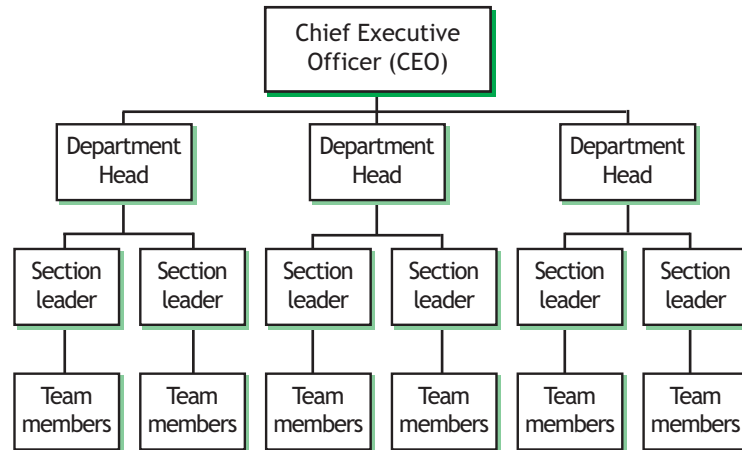
Your own management activities may well not require a chart quite like this, but nevertheless a chart of this sort can be helpful as soon as more than a handful of people are involved. It soon becomes easy to work out such a chart from considering the actual activities that take place. It is important to keep in mind that the chart should be aimed at providing information relevant to a specific time and place.

Note that we discuss organising of staff in detail in Unit 3.

Influencing

This is the process of affecting the behaviour of others. Influencing includes motivating people, providing leadership for them, establishing good communication, developing their potential, dealing with conflict, encouraging their creativity, handling group dynamics skilfully, dealing sensitively with issues of power and managing group politics and group and corporate culture. It involves the power to sway people to one's will or views (Plunkett et al, 2005, p. 725) and includes empowering people by giving them the things that they need to grow, change and cope with change (ibid, p. 461). Unit 6 will discuss managing organisational change and action-learning as a tool that facilitates organisations and people to effectively manage change.

Controlling

Controlling means ensuring that the performance of the plan is in line with the plan's objectives or goals and with the standards of the organisation. It is the process through which standards for the performance of people and processes are set, communicated and applied (Plunkett et al, 2005, p. 722). This involves monitoring the progress of work in relation to the plan and agreed processes and taking corrective action whenever necessary. For instance, if a youth worker sets out to reach four youth groups per week but only reaches

four groups per month, corrective measures need to be taken because the performance of the individual is far below the goal.

These are the four functions in the management process. In the section that follows, we will explore the different types or components of management work.

Two sides of management work

Management work can be put into two overall categories: mechanical and dynamic.

The mechanical component includes:

- formulating objectives

- developing plans of action and projections

- dividing and allocating tasks

- acquiring resources.

The dynamic component involves the human element. This includes:

- having discussions with subordinates and others

- participating in meetings

- communicating

- motivating.

Activity 1.5

(about 10 minutes)

Think about a typical day in your routine. In your learning journal write a classification of your activities according to these two components:

1 mechanical

2 dynamic.

In Activity 1.5, you might have found that you primarily work within the mechanical component – for instance, if in your youth work you are mainly involved in developing goals and planning activities. On the other hand, you might be primarily involved in the dynamic component – for example doing lots of fieldwork with young people.
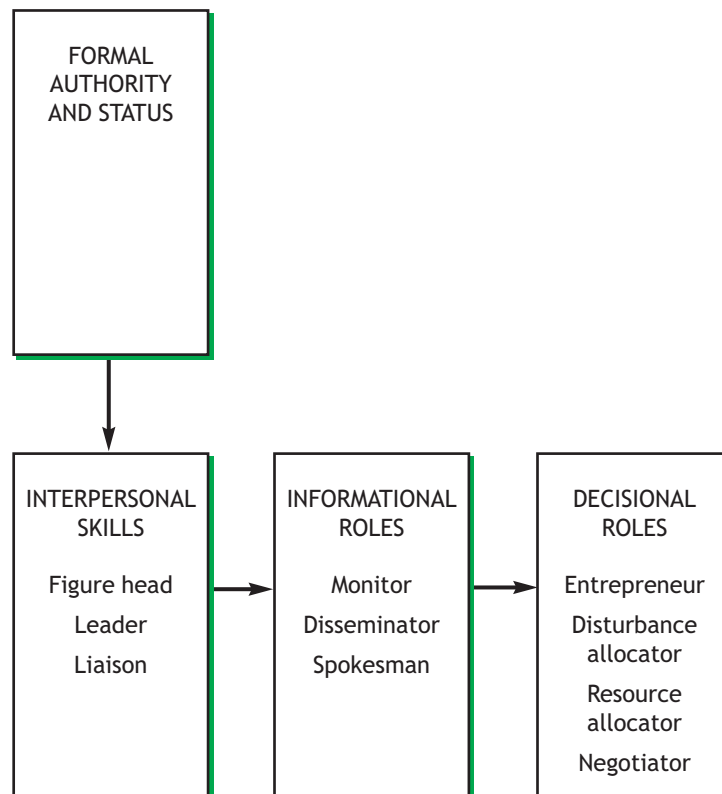
Each of these components has its own set of skills. It's important to realise that, even though you might not work primarily in one of the fields, you will find knowledge about both components useful.

The manager's roles

As part of their formal authority and status 'as the boss', managers play various roles simultaneously. These roles can be broadly classified under the following categories:

- interpersonal roles

- informational roles

- decisional (decision-making) roles.

The following diagram explains this in a nutshell (Blunt and Jones, 1992, p. 23).

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        │   AND STATUS    │
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┌──────────────┐   ┌──────────────┐   ┌──────────────┐
│ INTERPERSONAL│   │ INFORMATIONAL│   │  DECISIONAL  │
│    SKILLS    │   │    ROLES     │   │    ROLES     │
│              │   │              │   │              │
│  Figure head │──▶│   Monitor    │──▶│ Entrepreneur │
│    Leader    │   │ Disseminator │   │ Disturbance  │
│   Liaison    │   │  Spokesman   │   │  allocator   │
│              │   │              │   │   Resource   │
│              │   │              │   │   allocator  │
│              │   │              │   │  Negotiator  │
└──────────────┘   └──────────────┘   └──────────────┘
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Let's take these managerial roles one by one and examine them.

Interpersonal roles

The interpersonal roles a manager takes on may include the following:

Figurehead

A figurehead is a person who stands as a symbol of authority or power. This role usually includes activities associated with the manager's position as head of a unit or organisation (Blunt and Jones, 1992, p. 22).

The role of figurehead might include:

- networking outside the organisation
- hosting guests and clients
- inducting clients into the local social and business environment.

Leader or motivator

One of the best-known authors on management, Mintzberg (1973), originally termed this role as the 'leader'. Recent authors (Bennis, 1989; Kotter, 1990; Krantz, 1990) prefer the term 'motivator'. We will use the term motivator here because it emphasises the manager's responsibility for the performance of others in addition to him/ herself. (The two issues of motivation and leadership will be discussed further in Units 2 and 3.) This role may include personnel issues such as:

- hiring and firing
- goal setting
- performance appraisal and reward.

In these processes, the manager plays a key role in balancing the interests of the individual and the organisation. You will be learning about these processes in detail in later units.

Liaison

Managers spend a lot of time with their peers and people outside their units as well as their subordinates. In this role, the manager is a source of information, and this is linked to the informational roles s/he performs. You can see this by the arrow in the diagram above that links interpersonal skills with the informational role.

Informational roles

A manager carries out the following informational roles (adapted from Blunt and Jones, 1992: pp. 23–25):

Monitor – scanning the environment for information, including formal and informal networks.

Disseminator – sharing and distributing information.

Spokesperson – supplying information to people outside the manager's unit.

Decisional roles

Decision-making is one of the key roles of managers. The decisional roles managers carry out include the following:

Entrepreneur – the manager takes the initiative to improve the effectiveness and competitiveness of her or his own unit.

Disturbance handler – this is self-explanatory; it involves dealing with disturbances and conflicts that impact on the performance of the manager's work or that of his/her unit.

Resource allocator – allocating resources, including time, finance and people.

Negotiator – the most time-consuming of all the activities; it reflects the manager's role as a peace-keeper or problem solver.

You have been introduced to a number of definitions. The following self-help question is designed to help you revise your understanding of some of these terms.

Self-help question 1.1

(about 10 minutes)

Answer the following questions in your learning journal:

1   Name the four main functions of the management process:

    (a)

    (b)

    (c)

    (d)

2   What are the two components of the management process?

    (a)

    (b)

3   Name the interpersonal roles of a manager:

    (a)

    (b)

    (c)

4   List the three categories of management theories discussed in this unit. Include the sub-groups found in some of these theories.

    (a)

    (b)

    (c)

Compare your answers with those provided at the end of the unit.

So far in this unit we have examined the concept of management and explored the various roles and responsibilities of the manager.

In your job as a youth worker, your management activities are related largely to development and often to voluntarism as well. So it's important to understand the meaning of these two concepts.

Management styles

The style of management can be described as the typical pattern of behaviour of managers in performing their functions and in their dealings with employees. A manager's style reflects a typical response to a number of variables in the external and internal environments. Contingency theories of management would suggest that the management style should be varied to meet the requirements of each situation precisely, for example:

- manager's personality and value system: e.g. education, experience

- nature of the workforce: e.g. skills, needs, attitudes

- nature of the internal environment: e.g. structure, stability, physical site

- immediate situation: e.g. nature of problem, time and cost constraints.

Management styles range from fully authoritative to fully participatory and can be classified as:

- autocratic

- democratic

- collegial

- laissez-faire.

Activity 1.6

(about 15 minutes)

1 Research the four styles of management mentioned above and make short notes in your learning journal.

2 Make a note on the relevance of each style of management within given situations. You may want to review the notes on leadership in Modules 3 and 5.

Write your responses in your learning journal and discuss them with your colleagues.

The importance of participation

As you would have discovered from your research on management styles, maximising participation and involving group members are key elements of democratic management. Participation is a cross cutting theme in the Diploma in Youth Development Work and its importance cannot be over-emphasised. It follows that as a manager you should create opportunities for your staff or members of your group to

(i) make an input in decision-making regarding the functioning of your organisation or project

(ii) carry out specific functions to achieve the goals and objectives of your organisation / project; and

(iii) participate in the review and modification of the functions, goals and objectives carried out in (ii).

The Commonwealth Secretariat papers presented at the 5th Commonwealth Youth Ministers Meeting, Gaborone 2003, include a paper on youth participation by Steve Mokwena. Mokwena argues, inter alia, that despite strong arguments made in support of young people's participation, there is still considerable resistance. He mentions eight impediments to youth participation:

● adults fear of losing power or diluting control

● absence of democratic / participatory models and practices within an organisation and/or society

● perceptions about young people as being incapable of participating

● perceptions about young people as being deficient

● professional resistance to intrusion, and a belief in the merit of doing things in traditional ways among programme administrators

● lack of experience with involving youth in leadership

● youth participation is costly and time consuming

● disingenuous use of youth participation rhetoric to secure donor funds.

This publication is available from the Commonwealth Secretariat, and your learning institutions may have copies. We recommend it as further reading if possible.

Unit summary

In this unit you have covered the following main points:

- definitions of the terms 'management' and 'administration'

- three categories of management theories including management principles

- the management process and its functions

- the two components of management

- various managerial roles and styles.

The aim has been to develop a common understanding of these concepts and management theories and to emphasise the crucial role of participation in management.

But how does this unit help you? The practical benefit is that you will be able to understand the nature of your work better and identify your administration and management duties. We hope you will also understand the roles you have to play, including the processes and procedures related to these roles.

To check how you have got on, look back at the learning outcomes for this unit and see if you can now do them. When you have done this, look through your learning journal to remind yourself of what you have learned and the ideas you have generated.

As management activities take place within a certain context, Unit 2 will look at not-for-profit organisations / non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and voluntarism, where we address the issues facing organisations in which many of you are located as youth workers.

Answers to self-help questions

Self-help question 1.1

1 (a) planning

    (b) organising

    (c) controlling

    (d) influencing.

2 (a) mechanical

    (b) dynamic.

3 (a) figurehead

    (b) leader / motivator

    (c) liaison.

4 (a) Classical theories

       – bureaucratic management

       – scientific management

       – administrative management

    (b) Behavioural and human relations theories

    (c) Current theories

       – systems theory

       – contingency theory

       – chaos theory.

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Unit 2: Managing in the not-for-profit sector

Unit introduction

Welcome to Unit 2 *Managing in the not-for-profit sector*. Because most of the activities carried out by youth development workers are related to the process of 'development' and because of the place of 'voluntarism' in development, these two issues are explored first. In the final part of this unit, we examine the roles, organisational characteristics and management activities of non-governmental organisations (NGOs), because these organisations provide good examples of management practices in this area.

At the end, you will find your first written assignment, which will cover the work done in the first two units of this module.

Unit 2

Unit learning outcomes

When you have worked through this unit, you should be able to:

● relate the theory and practice of management to the not-for-profit sector, particularly the work of NGOs

● explain the distinct roles and organisational characteristics of NGOs and how they work collaboratively with other agencies.

Development

In Module 3 *Principles and Practice of Youth Development Work* you were introduced to the conceptual basis of the term 'development'. In this unit we are going to concentrate on the place of management-related issues in development. But before we begin this discussion, it will help if you refresh your memory of what was said in Module 3 by doing Activity 2.1.

Activity 2.1

(about 10 minutes)

1   In your learning journal write down your understanding of what development means. If you wish, refer to Module 3 *Principles and Practice of Youth Development Work* to consolidate your answer.

2   Ask people around you – your colleagues or peers – how they view the relationship between development and management. To what extent do they see themselves as involved in the process of development? Write your and your colleagues' ideas in your learning journal.

You will have an opportunity to review your answers after reading the next section of the unit.

Development – past and present

In the past, development was regarded mainly as a problem of transforming the economic structures of poor countries, so that agriculture's share in production and employment declined relative to that of industry. It was believed that this would lead to rapid gains in overall and per capita gross national product (GNP), so that wealth would grow faster than the population would increase (Todaro, 1997). The 'stages of growth' theory of development assumed that developing countries needed to go though the same stages of development that rich countries had gone through in their histories, and that this process could be accelerated through the transfer of resources in the form of capital, technical and management expertise and knowledge. The role of expert local individuals in this process was not given much importance. Young people in particular were often sidelined in activities, and decisions were taken on their behalf.

While a number of less developed countries did manage to achieve these development targets, they did so without improving levels of poverty, equality or employment, and disastrous inequalities arose as a result of uneven development. This, and the financial and energy crises of the 1980s and 1990s, have led to a new economic view of the purpose and nature of development, one in which three goals stand out. These are:

1   **Sustenance** – which means increasing the availability and widening the distribution of basic, life-sustaining goods, such as food, shelter, health and protection.

2   **Self-esteem** – which involves raising levels of living including higher incomes, more jobs, better education and greater attention to cultural and humanistic values.

3   **The ability to choose** – which is made possible through expanding the range of choices available to people by freeing them from dependence on other countries and on ignorance and ignominy. (Todaro, 1997, pp. 16–18)

This view of development entails a great deal of local participation, especially the participation of young people, who need to take control of their own situations and futures. This influences managerial styles – the key aim being to nurture local leadership and popular organisations in order to make them self-sufficient and self-developing. The main activities in development should be:

- identifying and matching needs and opportunities

- assessing the comparative advantage of producing key commodities locally or buying them cheaply from elsewhere (to facilitate the optimal use of resources)

- learning and adapting through action

- having a wider impact.

An important thing to remember about development is that it varies from one setting to another, so it is difficult to define in precise, general terms.

In the above section of the unit, we have presented our views on development. Activity 2.2 enables you to compare our views and those that you wrote in your learning journal for Activity 2.1.

Activity 2.2

(about 5 minute)

1   Compare our views on development with those you wrote in your learning journal for Activity 2.1.

2   If necessary, improve your original ideas accordingly and explain in your learning journal why you feel these changes are necessary.

Benefits of development

As we have seen earlier, youth development work now plays an important role in official national development efforts. It has helped young people to understand various aspects of society, the economy and politics, and in many instances has encouraged young people to

play an active role in their societies. Examples are the work done by National Youth Leagues and Youth Advocacy Groups.

In many cases, youth development work rests on the principle of voluntarism. In the next section, we discuss first the role of the not-for-profit sector and then what voluntarism is.

Role of the not-for-profit sector

The 'not-for-profit' sector is also referred to as 'non-profit' or 'non-governmental'. These names distinguish this sector from both government and the business / private sector.

The not-for-profit sector contains religious organisations, trade unions, agricultural cooperatives, political parties, and other organisations with specialised roles and purposes. It plays a crucial role in the development of young people throughout the developed as well as less developed world: not only do these organisations provide social and humanitarian services and welfare, but they also address critical issues affecting young people. These include education, health, democracy, human rights, problems of self-esteem and respect, participation, sustainable development and poverty (in particular, unemployment). The principal mode of operation of the not-for-profit sector is through voluntarism.

A voluntary action is one "*performed or done of one's own free will, impulse or choice; not constrained, prompted or suggested by another*" (the Shorter Oxford English Dictionary). So voluntarism means the principle of committing yourself to functions and activities that you are interested in, in order to achieve goals identified by people who have a shared vision with you.

Volunteers play a vital role in youth development work. You may well find yourself working for a voluntary organisation either in your main post or in work sub-contracted by the voluntary organisation to you and/or your employer. In that case the decision-making power lies primarily with the voluntary organisation rather than with you or your employers. The members of the voluntary organisation usually choose their own activities and work together as a team to achieve the goals they have agreed together. Because the volunteers control the voluntary organisation, they have the right to close down their activities at almost any time. If you work for them as a manager, all your managerial activities have to be constrained by their decisions.

Within the framework of development and voluntarism, non-governmental organisations (NGOs) play a vital role in delivering services to the community. They primarily perform development activities, and in some instances provide guidance and structure to many voluntary organisations. We will explore NGOs further in the next section because many youth workers are either employed by or are volunteers in NGOs.

Non-governmental organisations (NGOs)

NGOs are organisations mainly doing development-related activities. They are funded primarily by donors, who may be state or private sector agencies or private individuals. In most instances, they have direct links with grassroots organisations, which gives them excellent insight into the types of programmes needed and requested by target groups. Examples of NGOs are BRAC – Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee, set up after the war of independence with Pakistan but now a highly sophisticated organisation with international links, and CRY – Child Relief and You.

Liebenberg has defined NGOs as "*autonomous, privately set up, non-profit-making institutions that support, manage or facilitate development action*".

As their name suggests, NGOs are not government organisations; nor are they businesses in the conventional sense, in that they are not profit-making, though they may have significant business interests to support their development work. Their focus is generally aid for development, and their activities are geared to improving the quality of life in various aspects of civil society. NGOs tend mainly to promote development through active participation by the poor and related sectors of society (what Liebenberg describes as the popular sector). In this way, the work of NGOs can aid governments significantly, though often governments try to limit their work – especially in instances where their work is seen as anti-government – because large NGOs can accrue a lot of social power.

This view will become clearer when you read the article on South African NGOs by Allwood in Reading 4 at the end of this unit. This shows how an NGO's associations with government can be problematic.

Besides active engagement with the popular sector, NGOs also work closely with other institutions and agents of change in developing and implementing programmes / projects. From the resources they receive from donors and other sources, NGOs develop programmes to aid particular target groups with whom they work in close cooperation. Because of this close relationship, NGOs are dependent on and become part of the societies where they operate. They thus have to be accepted by the communities they serve, but at the same time they should not lose their independence. Liebenberg argues that, as catalysts of development, each NGO should *"maintain substantial independence in defining and interpreting its own mission so that it does not fall captive to power holders and their agenda"* (cited in Brown and Korten, 1989, p. 12). He also notes that the catalyst function of NGOs should be temporary, because an NGO should aim primarily to facilitate active participation in problem-solving by its target group, in order eventually to empower its members to develop and sustain their own strategies for addressing their needs and problems.

Unit 2

Turn to the Readings section at the end of this Module and read Reading 3: 'Non-governmental organisations as agents of development' by Sybert Liebenberg.

When you have finished reading, complete the following activity.

Activity 2.3

(about 10 minutes)

In your learning journal, write answers on the following aspects of NGOs as described in the Liebenberg article.

1   What makes it difficult to define an NGO?

2   Name the three criteria used to define NGOs.

3   List the strengths and weaknesses of NGOs – according to Liebenberg. How far do you agree with his analysis?

The answers to these questions are adequately provided in Reading 3. You should also compare your answer to question 3 in the above activity with the section that follows on strengths and weaknesses of NGOs.

Strengths and weaknesses of NGOs

The strengths of NGOs come from the special nature of their role and function in society – as we have already seen. These strengths include:

- community participation

- functioning at community level

- having advanced, non-bureaucratic structures

- capacity to utilise management principles from post-modern systems such as contingency theory, therefore very flexible and adaptable to local conditions. For this reason, they are able to respond to community needs much faster than governments.

The weaknesses of NGOs present major challenges for their management. You may have noticed when you read the article that these weaknesses are related to the functions of management that we discussed earlier in this module: planning, controlling, organising and influencing.

Other weaknesses include the difficulty for their management of building leadership capacity, as well as that of developing other staff capacity in all aspects of programme development and implementation.

NGOs also find it difficult – because there is a degree of rivalry with the other institutions and agents of change they associate with, including governments – to ensure collectively that their programmes will be sustained. Working cooperatively together they could achieve more than they sometimes do. This cooperative approach would ensure larger scale delivery of programmes, a capacity that NGOs alone, because of their small size, generally do not have.

Turn to the Readings section and read Reading 4: 'The development role of non-governmental organisations: the South African paradigm' by John E. Allwood.

When you have finished reading, complete the following self-help question.

Self-help question 2.1

(about 10 minutes)

Review the article by Allwood and then write answers to the following questions in your learning journal. You may find it useful to discuss the article and your responses with colleagues or fellow-students – or use them as the basis of a tutorial discussion.

1   In what kind of environment were South African NGOs functioning?

2   Why did the old South African Government place restrictions on the registration and activities of NGOs?

3   How did the apartheid-dominated political climate of South Africa affect the nature and functioning of NGOs?

4   Does the author foresee immediate change in the lives of the poor people now?

Compare your answers with those provided at the end of the unit.

The single most important feature of NGOs is that they promote development through active participation by the poor. They can achieve this because they are allowed a degree of freedom to create their own vision of what a development programme should look like and they can take decisions in order to achieve this vision. Some of the key development and management issues in NGOs are:

- resources

- effectiveness / evaluation

- research

- networking

● development education and advocacy. (Adapted from Drabek. 1987)

The ethical principle by which NGOs are guided is that all those involved in the development process should be partners: no organisation should dictate a country's development agenda. This enables them to have a degree of freedom because they work at the process of partnership and creates a change in attitude by the other agents involved.

NGO management trends and processes

Trends

Wikipedia, the free encyclopaedia available on the internet, identifies two management trends that are particularly relevant to NGOs: diversity and participatory management. You can read more about this, including NGO monitoring and controlling, at http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Non-governmental_organisation.

Diversity management recognises the different cultures of people working within organisations. It seeks to minimise cultural problems and aims to harness diversity for the benefit of the organisation and its stakeholders.

Participatory management allows individuals to contribute to decision-making. It is said to be typical of NGO management. You have already seen in the section on strengths of NGOs above that participation and non-bureaucratic structures are some of the strengths of NGOs, hence the view that it is typical management style of NGOs. Participation, as we have already argued in Unit 1, is very important and is a cross-cutting theme of this diploma.

Processes

NGOs require a specific type of management process and strategy. In their article, 'The Strategic Management Process in Non-profit Organisations with Dynamic Environments', Hoffman et al (1991, p. 359) cover the various issues involved. The most important issue they raise is the *"identification of important outside stakeholders and their role during the management process"*. Proper communication and feedback processes between managers of the non-profit organisation and the outside stakeholders are important building blocks in the management process.

The following diagram gives you a visual idea of the interactions between the NGO or not-for-profit organisation and outside stakeholders.
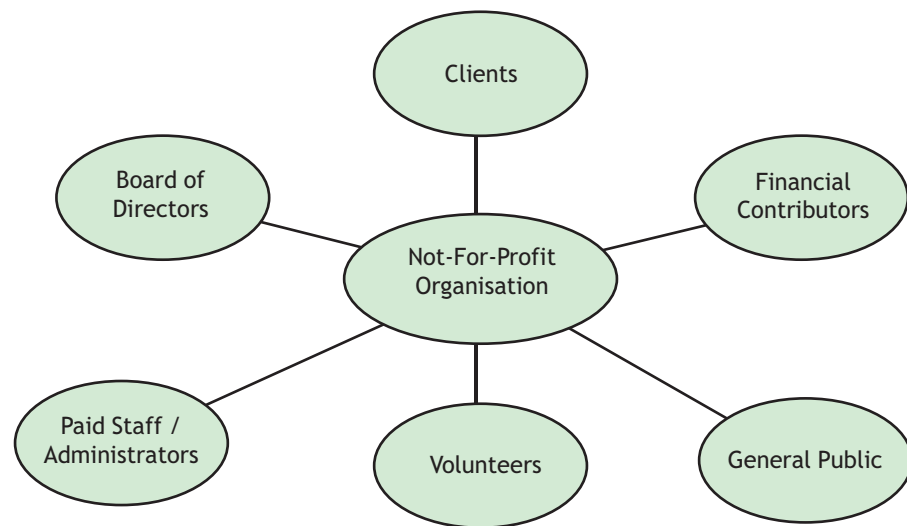
You should keep the following three important issues in mind in terms of management processes in NGOs:

- Greater emphasis is placed on the important role that principal stakeholders play in the strategic management process. The stakeholders that influence the process directly should be the main focus of management.

- There should be a strong emphasis on 'implementation' and 'control'.

- The environment in which the non-profit organisation operates influences the management process. This is again related to authority and control.

Activity 2.4

(about 15 minutes)

Reflect on the feedback and communication processes between your agency and others. In your learning journal answer the following questions:

1   How effective are the management processes in your organisation in taking into account outside stakeholders?

2   Describe one project or cooperative activity that your organisation has successfully undertaken with another agency.

3   What do you believe were the key elements in the success of this collaboration?

4   Identify any barriers to effective collaboration between agencies.

Discuss your answers with colleagues.

Monitoring and controlling NGOs

Monitoring and control of NGOs are sensitive national and international issues. Governments in some countries – for example, in South Africa during the apartheid years, as you have read in Reading 4 – have introduced legislation to restrict, monitor and control the activities and funding of NGOs. The extract below from Wikipedia gives examples of NGO monitoring organisations and some of the issues relating to monitoring and control of NGOs.

Examples from Wikipedia on monitoring and controlling NGOs:

NGO Monitor is a conservative pro-Israel site that aims to promote "critical debate and accountability of human rights in NGOs in the Arab-Israeli conflict". The organisation has successfully conducted campaigns against Oxfam and the Ford Foundation – leading to formal apologies and changes in practice – on the grounds that the organisations are too anti-Israeli.

NGOWatch (http://www.ngowatch.org) is a project of the American Enterprise Institute that monitors NGOs. The project is primarily a negative analysis of NGOs that are generally considered to be on the progressive side of the political spectrum.

Indian NGOs (http://www.indianngos.com/about.ht) is a portal of over 20,000 NGOs that work with the corporate sector in India. This portal offers insights into how the corporate sector is using NGOs to benefit their programs.

In recent years many large corporations have beefed up their corporate social responsibility (http://www.csrwire.com/) departments in an attempt to pre-empt NGO campaigns against certain corporate practices. The logic behind this is that if corporations work with NGOs, NGOs will not work against corporations.

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http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Non-governmental_organisation

Activity 2.5

(about 5 minutes)

In your learning journal answer the following questions:

1   Do you think monitoring and control of NGO should be encouraged? Provide reasons for your answer.

2   What are your views on each of the four examples in the above extract?

Discuss your answers with your colleagues.

Unit summary

In this unit, you have covered the following main points:

- the role of the not-for-profit sector

- the concepts of 'development' and 'voluntarism'

- the roles and organisational characteristics of NGOs

- NGO management trends and processes and attempts to control and monitor NGOs.

To check how you have got on, look back at the learning outcomes for this unit and see if you can now do them. When you have done this, look through your learning journal to remind yourself of what you have learned and the ideas you have generated.

Management always takes place within a certain context, so we have focused this unit on NGOs and have addressed the issues facing organisations in which many of you as youth workers are located. Now you know what NGOs are, how they function, attempts to monitor and control them and how their management processes vary from non-NGOs – so you are aware of the organisational framework within which management takes place.

The other units of this module will explore some of these issues further, but will also cover the crucial skills necessary for effective management in NGOs. In Unit 3 we will introduce you to nine critical management skills and see how you can apply them in practice. We will also explore what managerial skills a typical youth development worker should have.

Answers to self-help questions

Self-help question 2.1

1   They were functioning in an environment dominated by the injustices of apartheid.

2   Because the Government found the political activities of NGOs threatening and wanted to stop their advocacy activities.

3   The South African NGOs became very politicised and tended to attack the causes of poverty rather than providing band-aid assistance for the symptoms of poverty.

4   No – he says that the rise in poverty will continue and there will be "*little real change in the short and intermediate terms in the lives of the poorest people of our land*".

References

Brown, L.D. and Korten, D.C. (1989) *Understanding voluntary organisations: guidelines for donors*, World Bank, Washington.

Drabek, A. G. (1987) 'Development Alternatives: The Challenge for NGOs–An Overview of the Issues', *World Development,* Vol. 15, Supplement, pp. ix-xv. Pergamon Journals Ltd, Great Britain.

Hoffman, J.J., Digman I.A. and Crittenden W.F. (1991) 'The Strategic Management Process in Non-profit Organisations with Dynamic Environments', *Journal of Managerial Issues*, Vol. III, No.3, pp. 357–371.

Todaro, M.P. (1997) *Economic Development*, 6th ed., Addison Wesley Longman Ltd., Harlow, UK.

Unit 2

Assignment

First, a reminder that your work in this module will be assessed in the following ways:

1   Completion of the unit assessment tasks that you will carry out throughout this module (30 per cent). There are four assignments – at the end of Units 2 (i.e., the one below), 4, 6 and 7. All these assignments will add up to 30 per cent of the unit assessment. Your learning institution will indicate when and which of these tasks should be submitted for marking by your tutor.

2   The learning journal that you will keep for recording your responses to the different learning activities in each of the units (20 per cent). Your learning institution will inform you when to submit the learning journal for assessment.

3   A report of about 1,750 words. You will find full details at the end of the Module Summary (50 per cent).

Note: make sure you discuss the assessment requirements with your tutor so that you are clear about what you are expected to do and when, and any particular requirements in your institution.

Assignment 1

This task counts towards your final assessment on this module. This task and those at the end of Units 4, 6 and 7 together add up to 30 per cent of your final mark.

Length: 500 words maximum.

Write answers to the following questions:

1   What distinct roles and organisational characteristics distinguish NGOs?

2   What particular management processes lend themselves to these characteristics?

3   In your view, what approaches to management best facilitate collaboration between stakeholders in a development project?

Unit 3: Managing work

Unit introduction

Welcome to Unit 3 *Managing work*. In Unit 1 you were introduced to a brief overview of the nature of management. Now you should be in a position to move on to the skills-oriented aspects of management. We begin this unit with a discussion of the nine critical management skills: what they consist of and how to apply them in practice. To be an effective manager, you also need to be able to manage yourself and your time, so in this unit we give you some practical guidelines on time management and self-management. We end the unit by asking you to identify the key self-management skills that you need to develop further and then brainstorm strategies for self-development.

Unit learning outcomes

When you have worked through this unit, you should be able to:

- describe and demonstrate commitment to the management tasks that are important in the delivery of youth development work

- identify and explain the nine critical skills for effective management

- evaluate your management skills and seek ways of addressing identified weaknesses.

Unit 3

Nine critical management skills

Whether we know it or not, we all manage constantly – even if it is just our own lives or those of family members. So learning the skills of management can improve the quality of our private lives as well as our professional ones.

The following nine skills have been identified as those most critical to successful management (Whetten and Cameron, 1984, p. 6):

1 developing self-awareness

2 managing personal stress

3 solving problems creatively

4 establishing supportive communication

5 gaining power and influence

6 improving employee performance through enhancing motivation

7 delegating and making decisions

8 managing conflict

9 conducting effective group meetings.

As a manager, your job is to:

● manage your own work

and

● manage other people.

Both of these dimensions of your role are equally important, so in this unit we will discuss the nine critical skills needed by managers from both of these perspectives. Let's begin with the first – the skill of gaining self-awareness.

Skill 1: Developing self-awareness

Developing self-awareness means knowing yourself – being aware of your typical responses to people and situations and managing these skilfully. You need this skill simply because of the manager's need to interact continually with other people in challenging situations. Productive personal and interpersonal functioning, which is the basis of professional ability in a manager, requires knowledge of the self, including:

● self-awareness

● self-insight – requires a degree of analysis of what drives you

● self-understanding.

Self-awareness is important because it forms the basis of how you behave. It also forms the building block for personal adjustment,

interpersonal relationships and life success. It could be regarded as the starting point of professional insight.

> **Maslow's theory**
>
> Maslow, the best-known author in this field, was an expert on child and adolescent development. You have already met his ideas in earlier modules, so this is just to remind you of someone whose insights have influenced management theory and practice considerably. He developed various theories on how the individual views him/herself at different stages of life, and how this impacts on his/her behaviour. Maslow viewed the development of the individual in the context of needs. He asked the question: what essential needs must be met for an individual to grow and develop? He devised a hierarchy of needs – from the most basic upwards. For the purpose of this unit, it's not necessary to cover these ideas in detail again (if you want to review this, refer to Unit 2 of Module 4 *Principles and Practice of Youth Development Work*, which discusses both Maslow's and Max-Neef's contribution to the discussion on self-awareness.). We will simply give you the following brief overview.
>
> Maslow's hierarchy of needs is based on three assumptions:
>
> 1   People's needs influence their behaviour. Needs that have not been satisfied act as motivators. An example is the need for food. If this need is not fulfilled, it dominates the individual's interests, and energy is directed towards satisfying the unfulfilled need.
>
> 2   Needs have a hierarchy of importance from the most basic ones (food and shelter) to more complex psychological needs (the need for self-esteem and the need to fulfil creative potential).
>
> 3   Only when lower level needs have been satisfied (at least minimally) are upper level needs activated. In comparison with basic needs like food and shelter, self-awareness falls within the higher levels of the hierarchy.

To begin to develop self-awareness it's important to focus on the following three areas:

- personal values
- cognitive style
- interpersonal orientation.

Let's examine these one by one.

Personal values

Every person operates from her/his own context or framework, which is made up of values. This influences all other attitudes, orientations and behaviours. Indicators of these are the standards that you use to evaluate experiences as 'good' and 'bad', 'worthwhile' and 'worthless', 'desirable' and 'undesirable', 'true' and 'false', 'moral' and 'immoral'.

Activity 3.1

(about 15 minutes)

Take a few minutes to reflect on what your personal values are.

Now think about an incident in your home, community or workplace that challenged your personal values. For example, it could be a secret you discovered about someone you trusted, or behaviour you could not accept in someone you were close to – or perhaps a new experience that made you challenge and alter some aspects of your personal values.

Write brief notes in your learning journal on how the incident affected your personal values and how this has influenced your attitudes and behaviour.

If possible, use these notes as the basis of a discussion with family members, peers or colleagues – or you could discuss them in a tutorial with a group of fellow students.

Cognitive style

Cognitive style refers to the particular way in which each person processes information. It's closely linked to individual learning style, which you studied in Module 1 *Learning Processes.* It's important to realise that two or more people are likely to process the same information somewhat differently – and sometimes very differently.

Different ways in which people receive and process information may include, for example:

- **audial** – primarily by listening. Such people process information best if they hear it, e.g. lectures, meetings, discussions, audiotapes.

- **visual** – primarily by seeing. Such people respond best to visual inputs, e.g., charts, diagrams, graphs, pictures.

- **tactile / kinesthetic** – primarily by physical awareness, for example, touching (we sometimes talk about 'touchy-feely' people) or experiencing something first hand.

People also have different preferred patterns of thinking that affect the way they react to and deal with information. The two main general categories are:

- **analytical thinkers** – those who take a rational, logical approach. They like to analyse and synthesise information in an objective way. They take a systematic approach and tend to focus on the detail, not the wider implications. In Module 1, the Structure of Intellect (SI) theory of intelligence calls this 'convergent production of ideas'.

- **imaginative thinkers** – often associated with lateral thinking. These people take a flexible and inventive approach to information. They can be innovative and radical in their thinking and tend to relate ideas to their own experiences. Unlike linear, analytical thinking, the imaginative style of thinking tends to take a global or holistic view. The SI model of intelligence calls this 'divergent production of ideas'.

As you can see, cognitive style determines individual thought processes and perceptions. It determines both what kind of information you receive and how you interpret, judge and respond to it. You should keep this in mind because your cognitive style determines how you manage your own work and the people you are responsible for. Their cognitive styles in turn will strongly influence how they respond to the information they get from the work situation.

It's important to remember that such categories of cognitive style are just rough guidelines. All people use a combination of styles at different times and in different circumstances. If you have time and opportunity, please refresh your knowledge of this material in Module 1.

Interpersonal orientation

Interpersonal orientation is the tendency to interact in certain ways with people. It determines the behaviour patterns that are most likely to occur in interaction with others. Indicators of these are the extent to which a person is 'open' or 'closed', 'assertive' or 'retiring', 'controlling' or 'dependent', 'affectionate' or 'aloof'. This reflects on managerial behaviour and therefore directly on the way in which you manage your own work.

The following case study illustrates what we mean by the differences in personal orientation and how they impact on management.

Case Study 3.1

Differences in personal orientation

Manager A is strict but fair. She likes to know exactly what every member of her staff is doing and tends to monitor their work closely. She is quick to correct any faults but also very ready to reward good work. Her staff know that they must consult her before taking any unscheduled action. She expects them to work hard, as she does. She will always take full responsibility for anything that goes wrong – even if she was not actually involved in the error – and will try to correct the problem straight away.

Manager B has a different interpersonal orientation. He is a team player and likes to discuss issues and problems with his staff. Personally, he prefers to be regarded by his staff as a facilitator and motivator, and allows the people under him a great deal of freedom

Unit 3

and autonomy. When things go wrong, he calls in the person responsible and discusses solutions with her or him – then offers advice on what to do. He monitors the corrective action but does not interfere.

Activity 3.2

(about 5 minutes)

Look again at the explanation of interpersonal orientation and take special note of the indicators.

In your learning journal, write down a description of your own interpersonal orientation. (Are you open or closed, assertive or retiring, etc.?)

Write a brief explanation of how your interpersonal orientation might impact on your management style.

Consider the two managers in case study 3.1. Which of them would you most like to work with? Why? Write your answers in your learning journal.

Understanding and managing these three areas of self-awareness – personal values, cognitive style and interpersonal orientation – are the keys to developing successful management. Finally, it's important to keep in mind that these three core aspects interact constantly and dynamically with one another.

Now let's go on to the second of the nine critical management skills.

Skill 2: Managing personal stress

To manage stress, you have to understand it.

The interactive environment of your work and the broader social context will result in personal stress. As we said earlier, people experience the same things differently. In the dynamic of the work situation, no other person is likely to understand what you are feeling and why you feel it, so it's important that you learn how to take action to manage your stress yourself.

Personal stress management is related to time management and its key processes. These are aspects that we will discuss later in this unit, but it's important to realise that if you use your time more productively, you will do your job more effectively. You will be less stressed as a result of not having heaps of work and no time to do it in.

It's also important to identify the major stressors in your daily life. We are human beings, not robots. We go to work with our own set of personal problems that impact on the way we manage our work.

Everyday examples are when one of your children becomes sick, or there is a death in the family or marital conflict. Even having a small confrontation in traffic on the way to work can cause great stress. Unfortunately, there are hundreds of examples like these, and all of them tend to impact negatively on the way we manage our own work.

We all need a certain amount of stress to get us going, and often impose this on ourselves by, for example, delaying starting on an important piece of work until almost the last minute. That can focus our attention usefully, but it's a potentially dangerous game to play unless you have good control over it – so be careful. Here are some ideas for reducing stress at work:

- Identify and tackle problems as they arise. Deal with them promptly and don't allow them to escalate.

- Practise conflict resolution strategies effectively at work.

- Discuss problems with trusted colleagues, friends or family members – don't bottle things up. Having someone you can telephone, who knows how to listen, is valuable.

- Plan well to allow time to resolve crisis situations.

- Devise relaxation techniques. Practise them regularly at home.

- Recognise your limitations – have realistic expectations of yourself.

- Nurture interests and activities outside work. These can help keep work stress in perspective.

Some of these ideas are aimed at avoiding stressful situations and others are aimed at developing effective coping mechanisms for stress. Remember that we all come from different environments and work cultures, so you may find some of these tips more useful than others.

Activity 3.3

(about 5 minutes)

Review the list on how to cope with stress.

Identify the main sources of stress at your work.

What other tips would you add to the list to solve stress problems at work?

Write the answers in your learning journal.

This activity has given you the opportunity to look at things that cause stress in your work environment and find ways to avoid it. Remember that for lasting results you need to constantly review your solutions to stress problems – and make sure you apply them.

Skill 3: Solving problems creatively

The job of a manager involves a lot of problem solving. In fact, if there were no problems, we would not need managers. Solving problems creatively is not always easy. In brief, it involves:

- taking time to reflect on the problem

- defining the problem clearly

- generating a number of possible solutions

- evaluating these solutions

- selecting the best one

- implementing the chosen solution

- following up on its success.

If you can do this, you should be able to solve problems occurring in every aspect of your life.

These problem-solving steps are set out and expanded in the following table (Whetten and Cameron, 1984, p.145).

Step	Characteristics
Define the problem	- Differentiate fact from opinion. - Identify underlying causes. - Ask all involved individuals for information. - State the problem clearly. - Identify what standards have been violated. - Determine whose problem it is. - Don't think about solutions yet.
Generate alternative solutions	- Don't evaluate alternatives yet. - Be sure all involved individuals generate alternatives. - Specify alternatives that are consistent with goals. - Specify both short-term and long-term alternatives. - Build on previous ideas. - Identify alternatives that solve the problem.
Evaluate and select an alternative	- Evaluate systematically. - Set high standards when you evaluate – expect the best solutions. - Evaluate the alternatives in relation to goals. - Evaluate the main effects and side-effects. - State the selected alternative clearly.
Implement and follow up on the solution	- Establish the solution at the proper time and in the right sequence. - Provide opportunities for feedback. - Gain the acceptance of others who are affected. - Establish an ongoing monitoring system. - Evaluate the implementation – check whether the problem is solved.

You will have noticed from the above table that implementation and follow-up are important steps in the problem-solving process. Monitoring and evaluation are included in this last part of the process to ensure that the solution is in fact the right one. If it's not, you will need to make adjustments. This suggests a spiral process for problem solving, where the quality of the solution is constantly reviewed and improved as new situations arise.

Skill 4: Establishing supportive communication

Establishing supportive communication means that you should become an active listener, develop empathy and use the appropriate responses. This has even been developed in UK prisons as a way of relieving the intense stress that prisoners feel. Fellow prisoners with insight and education and of an appropriate temperament are trained to be 'listeners'. We will not spend time on communication right now, because it's discussed in detail in Unit 7 of this module.

Skill 5: Gaining power and influence

This involves three things:

- establishing a strong power base

- converting power into influence

and (most importantly)

- avoiding abuses of power.

Managing your own work is primarily linked to the way in which you 'rule'. In the first place, you should rule your own work conduct very firmly, to ensure that you are an example to others. Leading by example is always a good idea.

Personal qualities can also foster power. Here are some examples:

Expertise – received both from formal training and education and on-the-job experience – indicates that the manager is skilful and knowledgeable.

Personal attraction (charismatic power) – the way in which other people view you – can be another source of power. The two main qualities here are agreeable behaviour and attractive physical appearance. We often hear expressions such as 'dynamic speaker', 'magnetic personality' and 'the look of a strong leader'.

Effort – should also be part of power. If you commit yourself to focused effort, you can rely more on the efforts of others.

? Self-help question 3.1

(about 5 minutes)

Of the five critical management skills covered so far, which are the most relevant to management in youth work?

Compare your answers with those suggested at the end of the unit.

Skill 6: Improving employee performance through motivation

Motivating your team is a key management skill because it improves the members' performance. It helps if you can distinguish clearly between problems of ability and of motivation. For example, if a member of the team is not performing well, you need to know whether they can do the job and just lack motivation, or whether they are not capable of doing it.

Techniques for motivating staff include:

- know your staff

- give frequent constructive feedback to them – individually as well as in meetings

- be honest and clear in the feedback you give

- be even more ready to praise good work than you are to criticise

- tackle problems with staff straight away – don't let them fester

- support your staff – and offer help to individuals in difficulties

- share information, goals and aspirations with staff – keep them informed

- make your staff feel they are an important part of the organisation.

You also need to be self-motivated in order to be able to continue energetically and enthusiastically with your job. Motivation represents desire and commitment to achieve goals and is usually shown by the quality of the effort you put in. If you motivate yourself properly, you can complete tasks without being distracted and discouraged.

Skill 7: Delegating responsibility and making decisions

This is an essential part of managing your own work. By delegating aspects of your managerial role to others in your team, you improve your own performance by freeing yourself up for tasks that only you

can do. You also build the competence of others by assigning tasks to them that develop their skills and experience.

For example, if you are working with a youth group and you are discussing reading skills, you could assign members of the group the task of finding a suitable textbook to use. This will enable them to participate in the decision-making process and make them feel that they are doing something worthwhile. Meanwhile you have more time to manage your own work more effectively. If the group selects a suitable book, you will have fostered the skill of completing this task in others.

Part of managing your own work is also determining when to involve others in decision-making. If you don't do it enough, your staff might feel neglected and ignored. If you do it too often, the people you work with might feel that you are not doing your job and you could be made to feel redundant.

Skill 8: Managing conflict

This topic is discussed in detail in Module 10 *Conflict Resolution Strategies and Skills*. We will deal with it only briefly here.

In terms of managing conflict you should balance assertiveness and sensitivity. Personal criticisms, when they occur, should be handled and dealt with in a professional and mature manner. Complaints should be dealt with promptly and effectively. To save a lot of further problems, you should make sure that all complaints are handled according to the agreed procedures. Sometimes you need to mediate conflicts among members of a youth group or among your staff. This is a vital part of management because neither you nor your subordinates or clients can work effectively if there is unresolved conflict. This aspect also impacts on the management of your own work because conflict resolution takes a lot of time and energy.

Skill 9: Conducting effective group meetings

Conducting effective meetings involves good preparation. This takes time. Sometimes, you will need to make presentations, which will again involve proper work management beforehand. You also need to be in control of both the task and process aspects of meetings.

Evaluating your management skills

Now that you have learned about the nine critical management skills, here is an activity to help you reflect on them in relation to your own performance and skill needs.

Activity 3.4

(about 15 minutes)

Use the following table to evaluate the nine critical management skills in relation to your own work performance. Show which skills you use and don't use, and which ones you would like to improve and which don't need improvement. Give reasons for your answers.

Draw up the completed table and write your comments in your learning journal.

If you can, discuss your findings with work colleagues, friends, peers or fellow students.

	Skill	Use	Don't use	Improvement needed	No improvement needed
1	Developing self-awareness				
2	Managing personal stress				
3	Solving problems creatively				
4	Establishing supportive communication				
5	Gaining power and influence				
6	Improving employee performance				
7	Delegating and making decisions				
8	Managing conflict				
9	Conducting effective meetings				

This activity has given you the opportunity to apply the skills practically by relating them to your own job. You should find the time to work on the skills that you feel need improvement. Remember that improvement means following the steps that we discussed in creative problem solving above.

All of the nine critical management skills can be classified into one of three categories (Mondy and Premeaux, 1995, pp.14–15):

- **conceptual skills** – abstract or general ideas that need to be properly understood and then applied in specific situations

- **technical skills** – appropriate techniques that require specific trained knowledge and methods for performing particular tasks

- **human skills** – the ability to understand, motivate and work with other people.

? Self-help question 3.2

(about 5 minutes)

Use the table below to classify the nine management skills according to the three groups (some of them will fall into more than one category).

Technical skills	Conceptual skills	Human skills

Compare your answers with those suggested at the end of the unit.

As you saw from this classification activity, some of the skills fall into more than one category. For example, although conducting effective group meetings can be said to fall mainly within the human skills category, the procedures for conducting meetings are technical. You need to know, for instance, how to open meetings, how to ensure that everyone is given a fair hearing and how and when to conclude the proceedings. Documents that are presented at meetings also require good conceptual skills. So it's not always possible in real life to put things in neat compartments.

Notice how many management skills are 'people (human) skills'. This aspect of management is often overlooked and its importance under-

estimated. You would do well to reflect on these skills throughout your study and consider how you can improve them to enhance your work as a youth practitioner. Later on in this module, we will also examine the specific communication skills you need for effective management.

Now that you understand what the nine critical management skills are, and have reflected on them and applied them to your own experience, you are ready to look at the more specific and practical skills involved in management. In the section that follows we explore the twin issues of time management and self-management, and offer you practical guidelines to help you manage more effectively.

Effective management

As an effective manager you should be able to manage both your time and yourself. The sections that follow provide some principles and guidelines. We trust that you will use them to improve the quality of your own work and that of your staff.

Time management

> "Dost thou love life? Then do not squander time, for that's the stuff life is made of"

> Benjamin Franklin

Time is the most important resource you have. In order to achieve your goals you need to plan activities and use your time effectively. On a daily basis you should try to eliminate the most common time-wasting activities and spend adequate time – but not too much – on the key areas of your job.

Time management involves rules and systems.

Hannaway and Hunt (1992, p. 9) identity the following six rules for effective time management.

1   Use – and stick to – a time management system. (We will discuss time management systems shortly.)

2   Distinguish between effectiveness – doing the right thing – and efficiency – doing things the right way. You should be both effective and efficient.

3   Distinguish between urgent and important tasks. An urgent task is not necessarily important, but it should be done to get it out of the way so that you can give the important tasks the attention they deserve.

4   Spend half your time on tasks that you have planned for (proactive tasks). This will ensure that you spend less time

reacting to situations. You should not be too busy to plan and prioritise – if you are, you have fallen into the 'activity trap'.

5   Develop plans for getting rid of time-wasters.

6   Review progress regularly.

Time management systems

The first rule of effective time management mentioned above is to develop a system for managing your time. There are many ways to do this. Ideally a time management system should involve a combination of annual, twice-yearly, monthly, weekly and daily planning activities.

The following table summarises the kinds of activities that could be included in various types of time management systems (adapted from Hannaway and Hunt, 1992, pp. 10–13).

	Activities
Annually	• Agree performance requirements with your boss • Complete a project activities calendar • Complete a job analysis exercise at least once a year • Agree job requirements with your subordinates • Schedule dates when progress against job requirements can be reviewed
Twice-yearly	• Review progress with boss and subordinates • Revise key result areas and goals as necessary • Update project activities calendar
Monthly	• Decide on key result areas for the month • Set goals for that month • Schedule activities to achieve goals
Weekly	• Carry forward items not completed during the previous week • Review tasks list to prioritise activities • Schedule activities, placing the ones for that week early in the week • Leave enough time unscheduled
Daily	• Check diary for appointments • Prepare a To Do list • Prioritise tasks in order to ensure immediate attention to the most important ones • Schedule a small amount of time to attend to urgent, but less important, tasks • Schedule informal activities like 'walkabout' management

Activity 3.5

(about 45 minutes)

In this activity, we ask you to develop a simple time management system for your own work.

Think about your commitments in the next month, including appointments, tasks to be completed, etc. Make a list of them. Don't forget to include your study of this module.

1   Now, drawing on the suggestions in the table above, develop a time management system, including a monthly, a weekly and a daily plan of activities.

2   Make use of your time management system in the month to come and monitor its effectiveness. If you can, discuss it with your co-workers, fellow students or peers. Make a diary date to review it in a month's time.

Remember that there is no instant recipe for a time management system – you should develop one according to your own needs.

Here are some practical guidelines to help in planning your time:

Time planning guidelines

● Keep a task list within your time management system. When a new task comes up, write it and the proposed finish date down on the time management sheet.

● Routine is a way of making life easier. A task like opening the mail could be handled first thing in the morning – this could be part of your daily routine.

● Develop routines for your daily and weekly planning. For example, you could do the next day's planning in the last fifteen minutes before you go home, or the next week's planning last thing on a Friday.

● Include unscheduled time as part of time management. This will allow time to cope with emergencies, attend to colleagues – and also give you some opportunity to think.

Adapted from Hannaway and Hunt (1992, p. 10).

Everyone wastes time to some extent. Your aim should be to minimise time-wasting – both for yourself and your staff. Here is a list of common time-wasters and suggestions on how to solve some time-wasting problems.

Time-wasters	Possible solutions
Not devoting the greatest amount of your time to your key result areas. You can waste a lot of time on activities that are not productive or efficient.	Use an effective time management system to eliminate this problem.
Telephone calls during your most productive time. These break your concentration and train of thought.	Tell the secretary (if you have one) when you do not want to take calls, and delegate routine enquiries. Or use your answering machine.
The uninvited visitor	Be polite, respond to questions that require a short answer, but do not offer a seat or sit down yourself. Suggest a more suitable time for a meeting.
Disorganised paperwork	Handle each piece of paper only once and file regularly.
Over-commitment	Do not take on too many tasks. Learn to say 'No'.
Travel and waiting time	Use the time for reading and catching up with paperwork.
Meetings	Attend only essential meetings, be well-prepared for them, conduct them in a business-like way and end them politely.
Poor communication	Make sure you know the When, Where, What and How of the task.
Bad timekeeping	Late starts, early finishes and prolonged breaks should be strictly controlled.
Lack of energy	You should determine the time of day or week when your energy levels (and those of staff) are high, and schedule demanding tasks for this time.
Poor health and lack of fitness	Do physically and mentally stimulating exercises to keep in shape. Include sufficient time for family, friends and other interests.

Adapted from Hannaway and Hunt (1992, pp. 16–17).

Finally, here are some further imaginative suggestions for managing time better. They are from Whetten and Cameron (1984, p. 107). You might like to give them a try.

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Time management tips

- Hold routine meetings at the end of the day.

- Hold all short meetings standing up.

- Set a time limit at the outset of each meeting.

- Cancel meetings once in a while.

- Have a written agenda for every meeting.

- Stick to the agenda.

- Assign someone to take minutes and watch the time in every meeting.

- Start all meetings on time.

- Prepare minutes promptly, and follow up promptly.

- Insist that subordinates suggest solutions for every problem they raise.

- Meet visitors to your office outside or in the doorway.

- Go to the subordinate's office when possible.

- Come early rather than staying late.

- If you have a secretary, have him or her answer all calls.

- Have one place where, if necessary, you can work uninterrupted.

- Do something permanent with every piece of paper you handle.

- Make a worry list.

As you can see, there are many practical ways for managing your time more effectively. Don't forget to try them out in your work and study. The next section looks at a related issue – self-management – and takes you through the whole self-management process.

Managing yourself

In order to manage other people, you must first be able to manage yourself. This is why self-management is so important. This aspect of management involves self-development and undertaking activities to improve your skills as a manager.

The complete process of self-management involves the following key areas:

1 self-development

2 managing your time

3 managing information

4 effective writing

5 effective reading

6   effective public speaking

7   managing your health and coping with stress

8   career planning.

Let's examine these one by one.

1 Self-development

Self-development is concerned with you, the manager, as a person. It includes (Stewart, 1992, p. 5):

- your growth as a person

- your development for future promotion or transfer

- improving your current performance or increasing your contribution as a manager

- helping you make the transition from specialist to managerial role

- developing your skills in specific areas.

2 Managing your time

Managing your time is an essential component of self-management. We have already discussed this in detail.

3 Managing information

Managing the information that crosses your desk and goes out of your office is another component of self-management. Your office should be managed as a well organised 'factory', the input into which is information, which is processed, absorbed and 'manufactured' into a 'product' that is output to several 'markets'. These 'markets' are both within and outside the organisation you work for.

4 Effective writing

Good writing skills are an essential part of managing your own work. We will cover these in detail in Unit 7, in the section on communication skills.

5 Effective reading

As a manager, you spend a lot of time reading documents. It is important that you use this time effectively. Below are some tips for reading effectively – useful for studying on this diploma too (Hannaway and Hunt, 1992, pp. 21–22):

- Distinguish between two objectives: reading for total understanding and reading merely to obtain an overall impression of what you read. Learn to judge when each is appropriate.

- Decide on the time you need and want to spend reading. Learn how to stop when that time is up in order to put a boundary on your reading. Learn how to be in control of the reading process.

- Review what you already know about a topic before starting to read on that topic.

- Read with a purpose by asking yourself: 'Why am I reading this material?'

- Skim through the contents list, the index, headings, illustrations, italics, underlines, lists and the opening of paragraphs in order to get an overall picture of what's in the reading material, and learn where you can locate particular information fast.

- Read summaries if available and, when reading articles, read the beginning and the end first.

- Read critically.

- Make notes in the margin (or use the 'mind map' or visual diagram method of taking notes).

- Read sitting straight up, in good light, and relax your eyes occasionally.

6 Effective public speaking

Speaking to groups is one of your key tasks as a manager. To be able to communicate clearly and confidently is an important management skill. Hannaway and Hunt (1992, p. 218) have the following suggestions:

- To ease tension before you begin, breathe slowly and deeply.

- Don't be in a hurry to begin – this indicates nervousness.

- Stand upright and relaxed, with your body weight balanced on both feet.

- Maintain full eye contact with the audience while delivering the introduction and conclusion.

- Let your hands naturally express themselves.

- Avoid a monotonous delivery. Pause occasionally, stress key words and vary your rate of speaking and tone of voice.

- Don't bury your head in your notes: maintain maximum eye contact with the audience.

- Look at individual members of the audience.

It's important in public speaking of any kind that you address the audience as if you are in a kind of conversation with them, otherwise you may not get through to them. Use notes if you need to but make them brief – headings rather than sentences. Have just a few key ideas in your speech and have them very clear in your mind, as ideas rather than as strings of words, and concentrate on getting those ideas across. Be relaxed if you can. A very famous public speaker said that he always made just two points, and used three jokes to sandwich and slice the points.

7 Managing your health and coping with stress

In order to ensure that you stay healthy and cope with stress, you should develop an action plan suited to your personality. Hannaway and Hunt (1992, pp. 27–28) have the following suggestions:

- take work breaks every two hours

- practise relaxation techniques daily

- undergo a full medical check-up annually

- get enough sleep

- watch your diet

- exercise regularly

- discuss priorities for your life with your partner or family

- develop out-of-work hobbies

- pace yourself and manage time effectively in order to avoid pressure

- seek job feedback from your boss, and have a formal review annually.

A great deal of stress occurs because we tend to identify our self-esteem with our social roles. This is dangerous for those of us in a managerial position because the manager is always open to criticism as her/his work is transparent and vulnerable. You have to be able to see your social role as something like an actor's costume that you can put on and take off but that can always be improved. Like an actor in rehearsal, you should seek criticism from other actors or directors in order to make the role more effective. That way you will never feel damaged by criticism.

8 Career planning

The following tips may assist you in managing your career and helping others (Hannaway and Hunt 1992, pp. 33–34):

- Know what you want to achieve and choose what you are prepared to sacrifice to achieve it.

- If you have a spouse or partner, plan together.

- Find a good mentor who will guide you through your choices.

- Be an outstanding performer at every stage of your career.

- Only leave a job if this forms part of your career path, not because of dissatisfaction.

- Develop a relationship with your own manager that allows you to discuss career options together. Ensure that your manager does not see this as criticism of her/him but rather as a compliment.

- Avoid dead-end positions that may have only immediate benefits; leave a job in good order and with your human relationships intact.

- Let your superiors know of your interests in job positions – use self-nomination to accomplish this.

- Prepare in advance for your next career move. For example, undertake a relevant course, such as learning a new language.

- Make sure that others know anything successful you have done, but without boasting.

- Keep an up-to-date, high quality curriculum vitae with full qualifications, experience and achievements, but always adapt it to the specific requirements of any new job.

- Continually develop and expand the scope of your job at each level.

- Don't stay in one job too long.

- Avoid being promoted to a level for which you are not competent (the Peter Principle).

Activity 3.6

(about 15 minutes)

Read over the key areas to be developed in the process of self-management. In which areas do you feel you need to develop further?

Which area needs the most attention?

Brainstorm ideas and strategies for self-development in the area you identified as the most important for you, and write them down in your learning journal.

Unit summary

In this unit, you have covered the following ideas:

- the nine critical management skills and how to apply them, including

  o the management skill of self-awareness

  o means of reducing work stress

  o the steps involved in the process of creative problem solving

  o how to evaluate your own job within the framework of the nine critical management skills

  o to what extent you use the nine management skills and which ones need improvement

- classifying these skills into three categories

- the issue of time management

- the key areas of development involved in self-management.

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You have had time to evaluate your management skills and brainstorm strategies for addressing identified weaknesses. You should discuss these strategies with colleagues and your tutor. We trust that these theoretical aspects of management skills will guide your practice and help to improve the quality of your youth development work.

To check how you have got on, look back at the learning outcomes for this unit and see if you can now do them. When you have done this, look through your learning journal to remind yourself of what you have learned and the ideas you have generated.

In the next unit we will put these management skills and issues of time management and self-management in context as we discuss the roles and tasks of youth development workers. This will orientate you towards managing your own job within the broad field of management.

Answers to self-help questions

Self-help question 3.1

All of the five critical management skills covered so far – developing self-awareness, managing personal stress, solving problems creatively, establishing supportive communication and gaining power and influence – are equally important to management in youth work.

Self-help question 3.2

Technical skills	Conceptual skills	Human skills
• Solving problems creatively • Delegating and decision-making • Conducting effective group meetings • Establishing supportive communication	• Solving problems creatively • Delegating and decision-making • Conducting effective group meetings • Establishing supportive communication	• Developing self-awareness • Managing personal stress • Establishing supportive communication • Gaining power and influence • Improving employee performance through motivation • Delegating and decision-making • Managing conflict • Conducting effective group meetings

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Unit 3

Unit 4: Managing youth development work

Unit introduction

Welcome to Unit 4 *Managing youth development work.*

In this unit we will explore the typical tasks and roles of managing youth development work, provide some guidelines on how to carry out these roles, and give you a chance to apply management skills through a practical case study. Project management takes up a considerable portion of youth development work. We therefore use the second half of the unit to describe what project management is, explain what proper project management systems look like, discuss the meaning and use of critical path analysis, and set out the stages involved in preparing a budget. We also give you guidelines on reducing budgeting problems and monitoring expenditure.

At the end of this unit, you will find your second written assignment.

Unit learning outcomes

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- improve your personal development and contribute effectively to your job and organisation

- explain key areas for management, such as monitoring of expenditure, budgetary control, project management and critical path analysis

- manage a discrete project from inception to completion within an agreed time-scale

- work within the principles of financial accountability, including budgeting and financial management.

Tasks and roles

Before you begin to work through this section, complete the following activity. It will help you focus on your own management tasks and roles.

Activity 4.1

(about 5 minutes)

In your learning journal make a list of the management activities you do in your daily job.

Keep the list handy, because we will use it again at the end of this section.

Here are some of the most important management tasks of youth development workers. You:

- mobilise scarce human, physical and financial resources
- co-ordinate activities
- take part in various operations
- seek to generate change.

These activities all have a management component to them. You also have to make sure that you:

- constantly reassess your purpose and direction
- review available resources
- monitor your efficiency and effectiveness.

A youth development worker has many roles. In many organisations there is only one youth development worker. Sometimes youth workers are volunteers or part-time staff. In all these cases, the youth development worker plays the role of both management and support staff – that is, s/he is both the manager and implementer of programmes.

Youth development workers include (Cattermole et al, 1987):

- those who work directly with young people
- those who work in communities
- those who work with other staff
- those involved in administration and finance
- those who are concerned with policy implementation and resources.

In small organisations all the work related to these sub-sections falls squarely on the shoulders of one person.

The critical management skills that we discussed in Unit 3 are essential for carrying out all the tasks and roles of youth development workers. The guidelines that follow are additional practical suggestions for improving the quality of your managerial youth development work.

Guidelines

This section (adapted from Cattermole et al, 1987) provides some useful guidelines on how to perform your management role as a youth development worker. They should be useful to you whether you work in a small or big organisation.

● Clearly define the tasks that you have to do. You should devise your activities and goals by using objective criteria, not merely a feeling of what should be done.

● You must carefully identity the parameters of your own agency – that is, its area of operations. You should know which activities should be done by the agency you operate in and which are best done by other agencies. You need to be honest about this. It is also necessary for staying on track with the activities and goals at hand. In some organisations the parameters are already clearly defined. In others – especially new organisations – it's important to do this so that duplication of activities is avoided.

Once the tasks appropriate to the organisation have been identified, they should be examined against the background of:

● the agency's overall strategy

● its aims and purpose

● resource constraints

● potential threats to efficiency and effectiveness.

This will help you prioritise and organise these tasks.

Once you are clear about priorities, you have the task of convincing your colleagues (on the same, higher and lower levels) of the overall strategy and its component activities. Clarity of priorities will enhance your critical management skill of gaining power and influence among your colleagues.

The next step is to quantify the resources needed for your programme. Resources are scarce. One of your most important tasks as a manager in development work is to use resources to achieve the best possible results with the lowest cost and human resource input. Budgeting and expenditure monitoring will be discussed later in this unit.

You need to be satisfied that the project is progressing well, and this goes hand in hand with appropriate training, support and supervision

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of staff. You will have noticed from Unit 3 that the skill of solving problems creatively includes the steps of evaluation and implementation of solutions collectively with staff, and that these also provide opportunities for feedback and gaining acceptance of the project and its activities by all stakeholders.

As the manager, you are also responsible for monitoring and evaluating the programme. You should make sure that policy makers and staff are aware of the importance of project evaluation. It's also your job to ensure that the evaluation is carried out effectively and the results implemented in order to improve the quality of the programme. This will enable you to make informed decisions on the future of the project, because the evaluation helps to answer the following questions about the programme:

● Should it be maintained without change?

● Should it be maintained with adjustments?

● Should it be transferred to another agency?

● Should it be terminated?

Note that the conclusions of the evaluation may not be accepted by everyone, but it is your role as the manager to negotiate the implementation of the results of the evaluation and to constantly review and improve the situation as emphasised in the spiral problem-solving model we discussed earlier.

These tasks are not easy. This is one of the reasons why effective communication skills and time management and critical path analysis (which is discussed later in this unit) are so important. In thinking about and discussing these issues, you should always keep in mind that the question of skills is just one of several major issues in youth development work. According to Smith (1988, p. 78) the issues of 'identity' and 'orientation' need to receive attention as well. This boils down to the extent to which you, as a youth development worker, identify yourself as a manager and orientate yourself in that direction. Usually the face-to-face workers know that they have a responsibility to manage their own interventions with youth so some of the questions they will ask will be about 'purpose' and 'process'. The person managing the administration is also a youth development worker, but someone with those responsibilities will be more interested in 'procedures' than 'process'. For this reason, depending on your precise location, some of the units of this module will be more interesting and relevant to you than others. However, since you may change managerial roles, all units need to be available to you.

The following case study and the activity based on it give you the opportunity to apply the theory of management skills in a practical example.

Case Study 4.1

Applying management theory

Monica Modiga was excited and also a bit frightened. She worked at the NGO Youth is Our Future and had just become the supervisor of the youth development workers. Monica had ten years experience in youth facilitation, five of them at another NGO. She had no experience as a supervisor, but she had recently completed a supervision course at the Open University and was eager to use the skills she had learned.

Monica came to work early that morning. Sitting alone in the tearoom, she thought about her new job. Many special cases often arise that require the supervisor's attention. For example, facilitators change projects and these records must be updated. She was worried that the facilitators might change details on project files and the auditors might ask questions as a result.

When she was a facilitator, she kept the information on her own projects up to date, but now she would be responsible for what others did.

Monica also knew that she had been promoted over Roshan Reddy, who had worked in the NGO office for ten years. Roshan was disappointed, Monica knew, because he felt he deserved the promotion. She also knew it would be hard for her to gain the acceptance of the other workers. Before, she had been just one of the gang, but now she was the boss. It was a thrilling feeling, but a little scary.

As Monica was finishing her tea, Roshan came in. 'Mind if I sit down?' he asked. 'Of course not. Nice to see you, Roshan,' said Monica.

Roshan placed his tea on the table. Smiling, he said: 'Monica, I want to congratulate you on the promotion. You sure deserve it. If you hadn't been here, I think I would have got the job. But management apparently felt you would make a better supervisor. I certainly can't question your knowledge of the job, and you seem to have a lot of patience. Anyway, what's done is done, and I'm going to try to do the best job I can.'

'Thank you, Roshan,' Monica said. 'I was worried about how you would feel. I should have known we could work together.'

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Activity 4.2

(about 10 minutes)

Answer the following questions in your learning journal.

1   If you were Monica, how do you think the anxiety about Roshan would impact on your ability to manage your own work? Explain. What steps could Monica take to control this stress?

2   Do you think the anxiety she was experiencing is typical of many who enter management? Explain.

3   What management skills is Monica likely to have already? What new skills is she going to need in her supervisory position? Explain.

4   Discuss how Monica could utilise Roshan's commitment to working effectively with her – e.g. in terms of allowing herself space for better management of her own work and the work of her staff.

Discuss your answers with work colleagues, fellow students, friends or peers.

Save your answers to these questions to use in the assessment task that follows at the end of this unit.

Project management

Managing projects can take up a significant proportion of your time, so the skills involved are very important. In Module 8 *Project Planning, Monitoring and Evaluation* you will study project planning in detail, so we'll discuss this area of management only briefly here.

Firstly, let's briefly define project management. *"Project management has evolved in order to plan, coordinate and control the complex and diverse activities of modern industrial and commercial projects"* (Lock, 1996, p. 3).

You can view project management as creating the recipe (the project plan) for the project of baking a cake (e.g. building a youth hall). Development projects mainly involve local people taking the responsibility for their own improvement: these projects also need to be managed.

Project management has two purposes:

1   to see in advance (predict) as many potential problems or dangers as possible

2   to 'plan', then to 'organise' and 'control' activities in such a way as to complete a project as successfully as possible despite all the problems, dangers and risks.

Project management in developing countries

Blackburn and Holland (1998, pp. 129–130) contend that project management in developing countries requires careful consideration of the issues specific to the particular development situation. This concern is shared by many development agencies. For example, according to the UK Department for International Development (DFID) (2004), Zambia has become one of the poorest and most unequal countries in the world due in part to public sector management problems. These problems have resulted in inappropriate spending decisions, and this has hindered progress on the reforms needed to improve the environment or context for economic growth.

One of the overarching public sector management issues is: Whose project is it? Who 'owns' it? Donors and/or development agents usually want full control of projects, but this doesn't allow the supposed beneficiaries (the local people who benefit from the project) to grow in understanding, skills and ownership. 'Targets' and 'accountability' are usually determined by donors and development managers. But in fact, "*development is an ongoing process with uncertain outcomes…, which has to be owned and controlled locally*" (Blackburn and Holland, 1998, p. 130).

So, although the management process should assist in setting the project up, resourcing it and monitoring its progress and effects, nevertheless the fluid nature of evolving, community-led situations like development projects means you can't control them fully. Nor should you try. These are key issues and raise important questions about project outcomes and long-term effects, which we'll explore in depth in Module 8.

Project management systems

Proper project management systems should (Stewart, 1992, p. 447):

- ensure that the organisation of the project reacts to environmental / contextual pressures and changes in a rational manner

- accurately estimate the resources required to complete the project successfully and ensure that no resource needs are hidden or forgotten

- make a cost-benefit analysis in advance of the project; in other words fully assess the likely total expenditure of resources (the costs) in terms of the proposed economic and organisational benefits to be brought about by the project

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- develop a coordinated plan to implement the project: ensure the time scale allows for the availability of resources and the likely organisational needs

- develop the organisation's current systems and resources to be able to cope with the changes that the project will bring.

?

Self-help question 4.1

(about 2 minutes)

Answer the following questions:

1   What are the two purposes of project management?

2   Why are you advised not to try and fully control community-led development projects located in developing countries?

Compare your answers with those suggested at the end of the unit.

Critical path analysis

Project management systems require tools to help you plan and monitor the desired outcomes. One tool commonly used is critical path analysis. This is a systematic, diagrammatic way of setting out all the tasks and activities that must be done in a project.

The main aim of critical path analysis is to show what route ('critical path') the project should follow in order to achieve success and what the possibility is of taking alternative routes where necessary. The diagram shows all the tasks in their logical sequence and the interdependence among different tasks. It includes various activities and resources. Tasks can be ranked according to their level of importance and the critical tasks can be attended to first. Critical path analysis is not the same as resource scheduling, but it can help you plan what resources you need, and when.

There are a number of different ways of indicating the activities and tasks on the diagram and each method has its own terms and jargon. We will not go into the details of each method of notation here, but

we will give you some of the more frequently-used terms so you can follow them up if they become relevant to you in your project management work.

Using the arrow diagram method (ADM)

Arrow diagrams give a visual representation of the direction of work related to the tasks in a project so that you can see them at a glance. The diagrams are set out in a specific way. Here are the details (adapted from Lock, 1996, pp. 143–150).

The diagrams are not drawn to scale, but they are carefully constructed to show accurately the logical relationship and interdependence of each activity. This is the reason why they are sometimes called logic diagrams.

An arrow represents each of the activities in a project, which are named under each one. The tail is the start and the point is the end of the activity.

By connecting the arrows in order of the activities to be done, a network is formed. Circles are inserted in the diagram to indicate the start or finish of the activities. Time taken for each activity is indicated on the arrow.

Here is an arrow diagram showing a simple project: planting a tree.
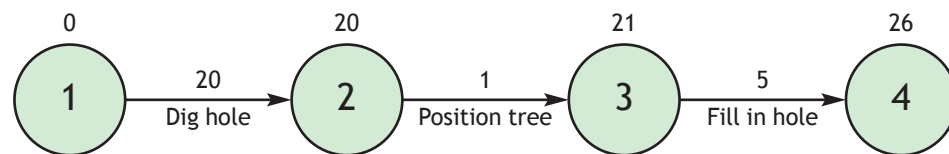
The numbers written above the arrows in the diagram (or network) show the estimated duration of the task – in this case in minutes. Of course, for larger projects, these numbers would represent days or weeks because those projects are more difficult and complex. The numbers (reflecting the minutes) placed above the event circles are calculated by adding all the estimated minutes from left to right.

For example, it takes 20 minutes to dig the hole, 1 minute to position the tree and 5 minutes to fill in the hole – so the total time estimated to plant the tree is 26 minutes. You'll see this figure on top of the last activity circle. It represents the shortest total time the activities are likely to take (the estimated minimum duration of the project).

Here it is in table form:

Activity	Description	Estimated duration
1-2	Dig hole	20 minutes
2-3	Position tree	1 minute
3-4	Fill in hole	5 minutes

The tree planting project is the simplest example we could find to help you grasp the concepts in the diagram. But if you are planning a

much more complex project than tree planting, your critical path analysis will also be much more complex. You will need a diagram like the following:
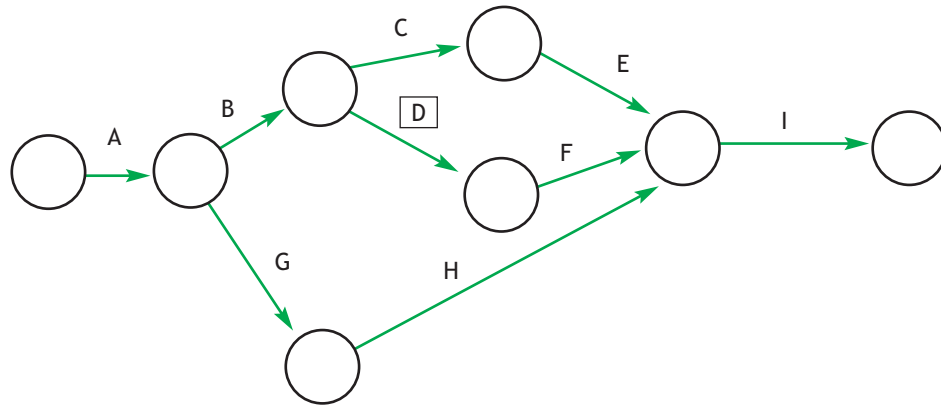
A diagram of this kind can be used to plan any project. For example:

- a more complex tree planting operation involving composting and monitoring

- a computer project

- or even just cooking a meal where some tasks must be completed before others.

Practical hints

Here are some practical tips to guide you in developing a critical path analysis (adapted from Hannaway and Hunt, 1992, pp. 66–67).

- Draw up a table listing all the activities with their earliest start dates and their expected duration.

- Show the type of activities – whether they can be done in parallel (i.e., at the same time) or if they must be sequential (i.e., done one after another).

- Show the activity that each other activity depends on (for example, if activity 3 must happen before activity 4).

- Use the following headings for your table of activities:

Activity	Possible start	Time taken (days or hours)	Type (parallel or sequential)	Dependent on

- Mark the hours / days / weeks through to the completion of the project.

- The critical path is the series of activities that require the longest time for completion.

- These are the activities that must be completed on schedule for the project to finish on time.

- Schedule parallel activities in a way that gives the critical path activities more scope.

- Identify who has lead responsibility for each activity

- Allow time for unforeseen hold-ups.

- Circulate the critical path analysis documents to everyone involved so that they understand the importance of completing activities on time.

- Monitor progress against the schedule in order to control the process. If critical activities are neglected, take immediate action to speed up another activity on the critical path, otherwise the plan will not be implemented on time.

Activity 4.3

(about 20 minutes)

Identify a small project that you are chiefly responsible for. It can be a new project, a current one or a project you have recently completed. For the purposes of this activity, choose a project that is not too complicated.

In your learning journal, draw up the table of activities / tasks involved using the suggested headings: Activity, Possible start, Time taken, Type, Dependent on.

Using an arrow diagram and the techniques of critical path analysis, draw in your learning journal a logic diagram showing the key activities or tasks and their sequence and interrelationships. Estimate the expected duration of each task and put it on the diagram.

Save your notes from this activity – you may want to use them again for the assessment task at the end of this unit.

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It is important that you understand critical path analysis. In this unit we have only provided a simple introduction, but if you are planning a complex project you may need more guidance. There are a number of useful websites (for example, see http://www.mindtools.com/critpath.html for a detailed example of planning a custom-written computer project) or ask your tutor for advice.

Budgeting and monitoring expenditure

As the discussions on project management and critical path analysis indicate, planning properly is vital to the success of a project. A key part of this process is managing the money to be spent – that is, budgeting.

Budgets are aimed at showing the cost implications of plans. They set out what types and amounts of resources are needed. Budgets also provide a yardstick to allow you to monitor, control and evaluate the results against what you originally set out to achieve in your plan. You can see what you planned to spend in terms of time, money and human resources and compare it with what you actually spent.

All not-for-profit organisations are functioning on tight budgets and all aim at improving standards at the lowest cost, so it's important that you budget wisely.

A budget is defined by Anderson and Nix (1994, pp. 119–122) as:

● a formal plan of business objectives

● a systematic yardstick for measuring performance

● a quantitative statement, usually expressed in financial terms

● an organisation's structure represented as a map, with financial budgets for each sub-unit and also for the organisation as a whole.

Why budget? You need to budget and monitor expenditure for projects for the following reasons:

● planning – the organisation is forced to budget in order to plan ahead

● control – the organisation's performance is measured against the objectives you set out to achieve

● coordination – ensuring that the parts of the organisation work together to maximise productivity and efficiency

● communication – budgeting ensures that managers and staff communicate in order to air their needs and decide where money should be spent

● motivation – it gives you financial targets to aim at

● performance evaluation – performance can easily be seen if you compare a department's or organisation's results against its budget.

Elements in a budget

In preparing a budget for an organisation or a project, you must calculate the income you expect to require over a period of time, against the expenditure you anticipate.

Income:	Expenditure:
Sources of income might be: ● government grants ● donations ● interest on bank accounts ● surplus money brought forward from previous work.	Items of expenditure might include: ● salaries ● purchase of materials for managing the project ● purchase of consumables – e.g. paper, pens ● equipment costs – e.g. tools, office equipment, furniture ● maintenance ● all running costs – including rates, rent, water, power, travel costs ● interest on loans ● deficits brought forward.

Sample budget

Here is a sample form for a projected budget suitable for very small-scale projects or organisations.

Projected Budget	
Income Items:	$
Total income:	$
Expenditure Items:	$
Total expenditure:	$
Balance:	$

Note that for a projected budget, the balance should be in surplus or at least break even.

Activity 4.4

(about 15 minutes)

Use the blank form above to prepare a proposed budget for either a project or a small organisation (you can use your own if it's appropriate and not too large).

Refer to the list of elements in a budget to help you calculate the income and anticipated expenditure.

Write up your proposed budget in your learning journal.

If possible you should discuss your budget with your tutor so that s/he can guide on all the items to include.

Reducing budgeting problems and monitoring expenditure

How do you reduce problems in budgeting? You need to prepare the budget carefully and then monitor the expenditure closely. Here are some guidelines (Armstrong, 1990, p. 31):

- Budget guidelines should set out policies on direction (where you want to go) as well as actions (how you want to get there).

- Seek expert advice to encourage personnel to prepare and understand budgets. In the end the organisation will benefit from it because personnel will understand where the money goes.

- Personnel should be forced to think long and hard about where they want money to be spent. They should make sure that they prioritise so that maximum benefit will be drawn from what they spend and where they spend it. Because we don't have unlimited resources, almost all of us know as adults how to budget with our salaries in order to prioritise our needs. The same applies in principle to organisations.

- Increases and decreases in budget from the previous year / month / project should be justified in order to ensure financial accountability.

- Budgets should be realistic. Don't over- or under-budget for items or services.

- Budgets should be updated regularly in order to ensure that you keep track of where money is spent – and on what.

You will learn more about monitoring projects, including making project bids and monitoring expenditure, in Module 8 *Project Planning, Monitoring and Evaluation.*

Money is a scarce resource, particularly in youth work. You need to know where it is spent and why, and what the outcomes are.

Unit summary

In this unit you have covered the following main points:

- the tasks and roles of managing youth development work

- project management, its purpose and systems and overarching public sector management issues

- critical path analysis as a tool for planning and monitoring projects

- budgets and what is involved in preparing them, with an exercise to complete a budget for a project or small organisation.

You have explored the tasks and roles of managing youth development work within the framework of the critical skills required for management. Some practical ways of applying the knowledge you have gained have also been provided. We hope you continue to build on these skills and find ways of practising them in your daily routine. The key management tasks covered in this unit represent a significant aspect of your job.

To check how you have got on, look back at the learning outcomes for this unit and see if you can now do them. When you have done this, look through your learning journal to remind yourself of what you have learned and the ideas you have generated.

Now you need to put these skills into practice. The assignment at the end of this unit gives you an opportunity to demonstrate your managing abilities in a practical context.

In the next unit, we will look at what is involved in managing human resources / staff.

Unit 4

Answers to self-help questions

Self-help question 4.1

1   The two purposes of project management are:

- To predict potential problems or dangers

- To successfully plan, organise and control project activities.

2   The advice is based on the fact that situations in community-led development projects are fluid, and donors and beneficiaries also demand some control of these projects.

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Unit 4

Assignment

First, a reminder that your work in this module will be assessed in the following ways:

1   Completion of the unit assessment tasks that you will carry out throughout this module (30 per cent). There are four assignments – at the end of Units 2, 4 (i.e., the one below), 6 and 7. All these assignments will add up to 30 per cent of the unit assessment. Your learning institution will indicate when and which of these tasks should be submitted for marking by your tutor.

2   The learning journal that you will keep for recording your responses to the different learning activities in each of the units (20 per cent). Your learning institution will inform you when to submit the learning journal for assessment.

3   A report of about 1,750 words. You will find full details at the end of the Module Summary (50 per cent).

Note: make sure you discuss the assessment requirements with your tutor so that you are clear about what you are expected to do and when, and any particular requirements in your institution.

Assignment 2

This task counts towards your final assessment on this module. This and the tasks at the end of Units 2, 6 and 7 together add up to 30 per cent of your final mark.

Length: About 750 words.

This is a practical task that you will complete then produce a report on.

Identify a project for which you are mainly responsible. The project should be discrete, small scale and short term.

Develop a project management system and draw up a logic diagram for the key activities to be achieved. (You can draw on the work you did for Activity 4.3 for this part of your assessment piece.)

Include a budget for the project.

Use the system you have devised to manage the project. Note its successes and failures.

Write up a detailed report on your management strategies and tasks – those that were effective and those that needed improvement.

Evaluate your own success at applying the skills of project management, including planning (critical path analysis) and budgeting.

Unit 5: Managing human resources

Unit introduction

Welcome to Unit 5 *Managing human resources*.

In this unit, you will learn about human resources management – what it is and its main functions. Next, you will explore what managers do for others, including guiding, directing and enabling others to do their work effectively. We end the unit by examining aspects of teamwork and job satisfaction, and we discuss your role as a manager in promoting these aspects.

Unit learning outcomes

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- outline several key areas of managing human resources, including staff development and performance management

- explain the tasks that managers perform for other people and the managerial qualities required to perform these tasks

- supervise and support a team of volunteers and/or paid staff.

Unit 5

The key functions

Human resources are the people you work with. Human resource management means helping to guide, support and organise these people.

You may be involved in formal human resource management (i.e., managing your staff), or informal human resource management (e.g., managing youth groups), or both. Managing staff is regarded as formal because it is usually a part of the formal study of human resource management theory. But whether formal or informal, the basic functions are the same.

Before you begin to work through this section, complete the following self-help question. It will help you to determine how much you know about human resource management.

?

Self-help question 5.1

(about 2 minutes)

Write down what you think are the main functions of human resource management:

Compare your answers with those suggested at the end of the unit.

The key functions of human resource management (Mondy and Primeaux, 1995, pp. 269–273) are:

- staffing

- training and development

- salaries and other benefits

- health and safety

- employee and labour relations

- human resource research.

Staffing

This is the formal process of ensuring that your organisation has qualified and capable workers at all levels. Staffing can be broken up into a number of separate areas:

- job analysis

- human resource planning

- recruitment and selection

- internal staffing administration.

Let's examine each of these in turn.

Job analysis

Job analysis is the process of determining what skills and knowledge are required to do a specific job in an organisation. Job analysis leads to the development of job descriptions.

Job descriptions

A job description should include the following details:

- major duties

- the percentage of time to be devoted to each duty

- performance standards

- working conditions

- possible hazards

- number of people working on each job

- relationships with other jobs

- machines and equipment used.

A job description should include everything you expect your employee to do. Here is an example of the things that should be included in a job description for a youth worker.

> ## Duties of a youth worker
> - providing appropriate information, advice and counselling
> - enabling and encouraging young people to be involved in the community
> - assisting young people to make the transition from school to work
> - meeting the needs of young people who belong to minority groups or communities
> - meeting the needs of young people who have special needs
> - promoting international visits and understanding.

It is always necessary to ensure that the specific skills required for the job are mentioned. If the person is to be responsible for liaising between voluntary organisations and local authorities, for example, you should include that in the job description.

Activity 5.1

(about 15 minutes)

Study the above list of the duties of a youth worker.

Are there any duties you do that have been left out? Add them to the list.

Now use your list as the basis of a simple job description for the work you do. Write it in your learning journal.

If possible, discuss it with your work colleagues and your supervisor.

Write up your job description in your learning journal.

Clarifying responsibility

It is part of a job analysis to determine who is responsible for what. However, this is not always as clear as it should be.

In youth development work, the management function is sometimes divided by the professional line manager among a group of voluntary workers. This can lead to management difficulties, including confusion over who has responsibility for what management areas and tasks. The solution is to draw lines of responsibility and accountability to define clearly the roles of those involved in management (Cattermole et al, 1987, p. 69).

However, this is easier said than done. If you were asked to address management problems like this, how would you go about it? Let's explore this question by reading the following case study and tackling Activity 5.2.

Case Study 5.1

Clarifying responsibilities

A youth club has recently asked you to assist in a team-building exercise. The club has a full-time leader, five paid part-time staff and a dozen volunteers.

Part of the exercise involves asking each person what s/he thinks the others do in the club and what s/he expects of them. The underlying tensions soon become apparent.

Through a series of staff meetings, small group work and sessions with the club leader, the process of clarifying roles begins. While the term 'job description' is never mentioned, each of the voluntary and paid staff begins to define and negotiate her/his role and recognise how each individual's role fits with the others.

The people involved are able to say what they like and/or don't like about their roles, what they would like to be doing and what they would like others to do. From this information, they are able to negotiate mutually agreed roles and responsibilities and to identify how the various roles interlink and differ.

This apparently simple exercise allows the club to begin to discuss what its goals really are, what resources its staff embody, and their different responsibilities. The process of staff and organisation development has begun to occur.

Activity 5.2

(about 10 minutes)

Choose either section A or section B according to your experience and write answers to the questions in your learning journal. You should also use the answers as the basis of a discussion with your work colleagues or fellow students.

Section A – for those with some experience of team building:

1   Describe briefly your experience of a team-building activity and indicate what your role was – for example, team leader or ordinary member of the group.

2   Do you think it worked successfully in determining what people's job descriptions should be? Why or why not?

3   What lessons did you learn from the team-building exercise?

Section B – for those without any experience of a team-building exercise:

1   Think about your current job and evaluate whether this type of exercise could be used to determine people's job descriptions. In your opinion, would it be a worthwhile exercise?

2   What might you hope to achieve from such an exercise in your workplace?

3   What lessons do you think can be learned from this exercise on how the varied skills and knowledge of a team can be accommodated?

Whether you completed Section A or B, we hope that this activity has helped you to reflect on how a team-building exercise like this one could be used in your current job and the benefits it could bring.

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We have spent some time on the topic of job analysis as one part of the staffing function of human resources management. We will look more briefly at the other aspects of staffing – human resource planning, recruitment, selection and internal staffing administration – because they are generally well understood.
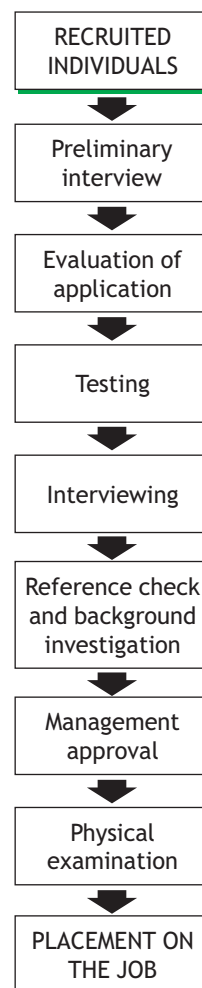
Human resource planning

The area of human resource planning comes under the heading of staffing. This is the process by which you work out how many people you need with the correct skills and qualifications to make sure the job is done.

Recruitment and selection

Recruiting is the process of attracting qualified and skilled individuals to apply for a specific job.

Selection, on the other hand, is the process of choosing from a group of applicants the one best suited for a specific job. This is explained by the next diagram (Mondy and Premeaux, 1995, p. 283), which shows some of the steps involved in recruiting.

```
┌─────────────────┐
│   RECRUITED     │
│   INDIVIDUALS   │
└─────────────────┘
         ▼
┌─────────────────┐
│   Preliminary   │
│    interview    │
└─────────────────┘
         ▼
┌─────────────────┐
│  Evaluation of  │
│   application   │
└─────────────────┘
         ▼
┌─────────────────┐
│     Testing     │
└─────────────────┘
         ▼
┌─────────────────┐
│   Interviewing  │
└─────────────────┘
         ▼
┌─────────────────┐
│ Reference check │
│  and background │
│  investigation  │
└─────────────────┘
         ▼
┌─────────────────┐
│   Management    │
│    approval     │
└─────────────────┘
         ▼
┌─────────────────┐
│    Physical     │
│   examination   │
└─────────────────┘
         ▼
┌─────────────────┐
│  PLACEMENT ON   │
│    THE JOB      │
└─────────────────┘
```

You will notice in the diagram that preliminary interviewing comes before evaluation of the application. This might seem unusual, but in

many organisations now the tendency is for the human resource manager to interview applicants on the basis of assumed general competence in order to see whether the heads of departments or sections should take time to interview the applicants for specific jobs. In this initial interview, the human resource manager usually tries to determine the psychological and human attributes of the applicants.

Internal staffing administration

This is the process of looking after the employees after they have been appointed. It includes the following areas (Mondy and Premeaux, 1995, pp. 290–291):

Employee orientation or induction

This is a formal process of helping new staff to adjust to the organisation. It has three main purposes:

- to provide specific, job-related information for recruits

- to ease the adjustment process in order to avoid recruit loneliness and anxiety (usually handled by a sympathetic and knowledgeable senior staff member)

- to enhance new employees' impressions of the organisation by continuing the process of 'selling the job' that started with recruitment, when applicants were introduced to the organisation.

Employee assistance programmes

These are aimed at dealing with special problems and needs of staff members. Programmes may include health and disease prevention and allow for treatment of problems that could influence productivity. Examples are severe stress leading to 'burnout', alcohol and drug abuse, depression and HIV/AIDS.

Performance appraisal

This is the formal evaluation of someone's job performance. Performance appraisal helps to create work environments in which managers and staff set objectives, monitor results and measure success against predetermined and mutually agreed standards.

Employee status changes

These include promotions, transfers, demotions, resignations, discharges, out-placements, layoffs and retirements.

These are the elements of internal staffing administration. As you can see, staffing is a very large area of human resources management. It takes a great deal of an organisation's time and effort to ensure it has the right people with the right skills for the job, and that those staff know exactly what is expected of them and are looked after properly.

Unit 5

Next, we look at staff training and development – another key element of human resources management.

Training and development

What is staff development? It's a process that enhances the operational capacity of individual staff members and of the staff team. It does this through selecting from among a range of training and educational programmes, including personal development training, job skills training and organisational development. It includes programmes to strengthen staff relationships and to build motivation and commitment to the organisation. It usually attempts to harmonise individual, group and organisational goals (adapted from Cattermole et al, 1987, p. 7).

Training and development aim to help staff:

- learn new skills

- improve existing skills

- improve their performance within the organisation.

Staff development is important because organisations and their operational contexts are constantly changing, so people's tasks change and they need new or improved skills. To determine what these needs are, a training needs analysis has to be done. This whole process is an essential part of organisational development and change, which we will discuss in the next unit.

The management task is dynamic and continually changing. As you go about your day-to-day management tasks, you are also busy with staff development – so the boundaries between the different fields are never clear. Staff development occurs continually because as each stage of the management process develops, new opportunities are created that require improved skills.

Look at the diagram below. It shows the dynamic nature of management activities and the various stages in the management cycle. You can see how opportunities for staff development and training may arise at any stage in the continuing cycle.

In summary: it is important to continually develop the potential of staff in youth development work in order to ensure continual improvement of their performance. This is essential in an under-funded service that cannot afford to recruit people with the requisite new skills very often. Therefore, training and development should be an essential feature of the management strategy. Without it, youth development work simply cannot be delivered effectively.

So far, in this unit we have discussed two of the main functions of resource management – staffing and staff development. The four remaining functions to explore are salaries, health and safety, labour relations and human resource research.

Salaries and other benefits

Compensation is the reward people receive for doing a job. It includes:

pay – the money a person receives for performing a job

benefits – economic rewards other than pay, including paid holidays, medical insurance and pension funds

non-financial rewards – these are not economic in nature and include job satisfaction and a pleasant working environment.

Staff should receive a combination of pay, benefits and non-financial rewards to keep them motivated and performance oriented. For example, if a youth development worker's salary is not increased over a number of years, even if s/he receives a lot of benefits and has the best working environment possible, it is likely that s/he will either compromise job performance or look for another job, given the fact that we all work in a market system that psychologically depends on judging one's compensation for work in terms of what is happening elsewhere in the market. Moreover, capitalist systems work by expansion, and that entails ever-increasing costs of living. A free market system also entails the individual's personal, deeply felt responsibility to support her or his family and maintain a reasonably good standard of living.

Health and safety

Health relates to the physical and emotional wellbeing of people, which enables them to do their jobs properly. Safety is about working in a situation that is free from danger to one's physical and emotional wellbeing.

Each country's Health and Safety At Work Act is concerned with reducing accidents and improving health and safety arrangements at work for the benefit of all employees and clients.

Here is a health and safety checklist. It's the sort of checklist that you will find in most highly organised and developed work environments, though clearly it may not apply to environments where there is specialised chemical or structural dangers, for example. You may

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yourself be working in very informal and undeveloped environments, but it's crucial that you keep on top of health and safety issues. You can analyse the way the writers of the checklist have worked out what to include and can adapt their approach to your own situation.

Health and safety checklist *(adapted from Cattermole et al, 1987, pp. 95-96.)*	Yes	No
Have the workers received and understood the policies, arrangements and requirements in regard to health and safety at work?	☐	☐
Have the workers been given appropriate training?	☐	☐
Are fire precautions in place?	☐	☐
● adequate and operational fire extinguishers	☐	☐
● clear access through escape routes and exits	☐	☐
● staff familiarity with the location of escape routes and fire extinguishers	☐	☐
● a maintenance and inspection contract	☐	☐
● a secondary lighting system	☐	☐
● clear notices stating action to be taken in the event of fire	☐	☐
● fire drills	☐	☐
● insulation properties in material used for furniture, curtains and other furnishings	☐	☐
● the use of fire retardant materials on staircases.	☐	☐
Are safety guards provided on machinery in workshop and craft areas?	☐	☐
Are first-aid boxes kept replenished, and do they include a list of contents?	☐	☐
Have any building alterations been inspected and approved by expert personnel?	☐	☐
Have any unauthorised alterations to electrical wiring been undertaken?	☐	☐
Are there any trailing cables, damaged switches or faulty connections?	☐	☐
Are there any hazards as a result of slippery floors, badly lit passages, uneven or broken surfaces?	☐	☐
Are there any fire or health hazards likely as a result of storing inflammable materials or other substances?	☐	☐

Health and safety checklist	Yes	No
(adapted from Cattermole et al, 1987, pp. 95-96.)		
Are there any potential dangers like glass surfaces, projections or sharp edges in the workplace?	☐	☐
Are handrails, banisters, cooking appliances safe?	☐	☐

Not all of these will apply in your workplace, but the list may be a useful guide to health and safety standards in your working environment. The following activity invites you to find out how your workplace measures up on health and safety issues.

Activity 5.3

(about 15 minutes)

Use the health and safety checklist to evaluate the safety or otherwise of your work environment.

Add any health and safety risk factors you discover to the list. Identify areas for improvement.

Devise ways to increase the health and safety standards in your workplace and make notes on them in your learning journal.

If possible, raise the issue with your superiors.

Discuss your findings with your colleagues, peers or fellow students.

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Employee and labour relations

In general, this refers to trade unions and the bargaining power they have, but on a smaller scale it could include the resolution of conflict between two of your own employees. It refers to the employer / employee relationship and the legal protection that each enjoys. Employment protection legislation sets out rules and regulations governing employment (Cattermole et al, 1987, p. 89). Such legislation will vary in different countries, but it is generally accepted that the following basic procedures should be followed.

When a person first joins an organisation, that employee should be given a written statement that:

- identifies the parties to the employment contract (the employer and the employee) and the date the person commences work

- states the rate of pay, times of payment, title of the job and terms and conditions relating to hours, holidays, sickness, pensions and period of notice

- specifies disciplinary procedures and any appeal arrangements.

Youth development work relies heavily on part-time paid and also voluntary staff. In most cases, these staff do not have agreed conditions of work and salary scales. It is important for youth development workers to correct this situation and make sure that all staff – including part-time and voluntary workers – have written conditions of service.

Human resource research

Research provides useful information on various aspects of human resource management and helps to identify what needs to be improved. Examples of human resource research are studies of 'recruitment', 'job analyses' or 'training needs analyses'. Aspects of these have already been discussed in the section on training and development.

To sum up

The different functions of human resource management are distinct, but also interrelated – and they influence one another. For example, if an organisation spends effort and money on recruitment but does not pay employees well, this will undermine the recruitment effort, because a good candidate may not accept the job or may not stay long in it. In order to ensure that employees are motivated and perform well, managers need to constantly assess and update what they do – and ensure continual development in themselves, their staff and the organisation.

In Unit 3, you spent some time considering the important issue of self-management. As we pointed out there, managing yourself and your workload effectively is a vital prerequisite for being able to manage other people. In the next section we switch the focus onto your staff and examine in detail the tasks that you, as a manager, do for other people.

What managers do for others

As a manager, you perform key tasks for other people. These are (Dale, 1993, pp. 231–237):

- guiding
- directing
- enabling.

?

Self-help question 5.2

(about 5 minutes)

Before you go on, spend five minutes now reflecting on these aspects of your management role.

In the space provided, write down the duties and tasks you do under each of these three headings:

Guiding

Directing

Enabling

Compare your answers with those suggested at the end of the unit.

Let's examine each of the three management roles in more detail.

Guiding

Guiding may involve:

- **Keeping people on track**. Here you guide processes by reminding people of the organisation's direction. You should indicate the cause of ineffective working and help the staff members work more effectively towards the organisation's goals.

- **Developing and sharing goals and ideas**. This fosters a sense of common ground among the staff. Sharing and participation are known to be prerequisites for commitment.

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- **Monitoring progress**. You need to find out how well individuals and the group are progressing towards the goals and ideas you have set out to achieve.

- **Taking responsibility**. Some tasks and decisions can only be executed by the manager. You should be firm and decisive in order to avoid people losing trust in you.

- **Setting an example**. Leading by example is difficult, but necessary.

- **Mentoring**. This involves a professional but friendly relationship with individuals that work with you. You should 'guide' the performance, commitment and productivity of the individuals in the organisation.

- **Collaborating.** You should collaborate with co-workers and ensure that they collaborate with one another.

Guiding means helping, monitoring, managing the flow of staff and their work. Directing is different – it requires you to take a strong leadership role.

Directing

Directing may include:

- **Motivating staff**. In brief this means encouraging them, responding by giving them feedback and rewarding them where appropriate.

- **Leading staff**. When you do community work and 'project facilitation', leading may well mean leading from behind! Sometimes people need 'pushing' allied with 'guidance' – just as sheep need a sheep dog to keep them on track.

- **Instructing, training and coaching**. This involves showing staff tasks, procedures and processes and making sure that they become expert. People also need to be informed about the vision and goals of the organisation so that they can focus on the main purpose of the work.

- **Delegating.** When you delegate tasks and responsibilities, you give your staff an opportunity to get involved in new activities and to challenge themselves.

- **Providing discipline**. This is aimed at maintaining high standards and is not meant as punishment. Sometimes people need help to discipline themselves to keep on track. If you do not discipline the defaulting individual, s/he and the organisation may suffer.

- **Giving feedback**. As we will discuss during the communication section (in Unit 7), feedback is a vital part of managing. Among other purposes, it forms part of discipline and positively guides the disciplined person to remedial action.

- **Managing conflict**. Conflict should be managed and resolved as soon as possible to ensure cooperation. Conflict resolution is discussed in detail in Module 10 *Conflict Resolution Strategies and Skills*.

- **Initiating change**. One of the best ways to initiate change is by enabling and encouraging staff, perhaps in focus groups, to air their ideas about possible changes that could improve individual and organisational performance.

Directing requires leadership strength, but enabling requires a more subtle way of managing other people: it entails supporting your staff in a broad, responsive and holistic way.

Enabling

Enabling may include:

- **Trusting.** If you don't trust staff to make decisions and carry them out on their own, you are not allowing them to learn.

- **Recognising and developing potential**. Helping your staff develop more of their potential is good sense – both for the person's professional growth and for your organisation.

- **Setting challenging tasks**. This allows people to grow in skills and management potential, but it is still your duty to ensure that a task is not too challenging for an individual. If it is, the staff member will become discouraged.

- **Facilitating learning**. The process of learning should be made as effective and accessible as possible. You should focus on clear content to be learned and offer encouragement and motivation. Make use of what is known about how adults learn best (see Module 1 *Learning Processes*).

- **Counselling**. The aim of counselling is that the process guides people to recognise and solve their own problems. You need to decide when counselling is needed and what the most appropriate intervention might be.

- **Giving positive encouragement**. This involves most of the tasks we have discussed – for example, monitoring, feedback, praise and rewards.

- **Nurturing.** This is linked to compassion and empathy. Staff need to be fully supported in order to help them to develop their potential.

In many ways, enabling is the most challenging area of managing other people. It involves personal qualities and skills that you may have to develop.

In fact, in all the activities we have examined, your personality and experience are vital elements for success. It is important that you are aware of this, and make informed use of these to improve your

management capacity. Before we leave this topic of managing others, let's examine the roles that experience and personality play in management.

Managerial qualities

Pedlar, Burgoyne and Boydell in Armstrong (1990, p. 18) say that, according to their extensive research, a successful manager possesses eleven qualities or attributes.

These qualities of a good manager are:

- command of basic facts
- relevant professional knowledge
- continuing sensitivity to events
- analytical, problem-solving and decision-making / judgement skills
- social skills and abilities
- emotional resilience
- proactivity
- creativity
- mental agility
- balanced learning habits and skills
- self-knowledge.

It is possible that you could acquire all these qualities through experience, but that's very costly and time-consuming. It's better to use all the available methods to acquire them – including talking to other effective managers, asking their advice, reading books, learning from others' experience and undergoing management training.

Activity 5.4

(about 15 minutes)

Check your managerial qualities:

Use the list of managerial qualities as a checklist to measure your own skills and qualities in this area. Add any qualities you think are relevant to you and your work.

Which are your strengths? Which areas need improvement?

Suggest strategies for developing your least developed qualities. Write up your findings and strategies in your learning journal.

This activity will be of most benefit if you complete and discuss it with friends, colleagues or fellow students – or use it as the basis of a tutorial session.

Personal characteristics

Personality affects management as well. It determines the way you manage and your effectiveness. Common characteristics of an effective manager are (Stewart in Armstrong 1990, p. 19):

- a willingness to work hard

- perseverance and determination

- a willingness to take risks

- an ability to inspire enthusiasm

- toughness.

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Activity 5.5

(about 10 minutes)

Answer number 1 or 2 – or both, depending on your experience.

1   Reflect on the managers you have known and worked under.

- Which of these characteristics did s/he display?

- How important were they in her/his effectiveness as a manager?

- What other personal characteristics would you add to the list?

- Which of these personal characteristics do you think are most important for a manager to have?

2   Reflect on your own management style.

- Which of the above characteristics are you strong in?

- Which need further improvement?

- Add any you think are missing, based on your experience.

Write your reflection in your learning journal.

Discuss this activity with colleagues or fellow students and share your views on the personal characteristics of effective managers.

We have raised these issues to foster awareness of what is needed in an effective manager. We hope you nurture these talents and strive towards acquiring them.

So far, we have spent some time examining your responsibilities as a manager and the skills, qualities and attributes you need for the job. The test of your skills in this area is how effective your team is in the organisation, and how well you meet their needs for job satisfaction. We'll examine these interrelated aspects of management – teamwork and job satisfaction – in the final part of this unit.

Teamwork

At the beginning of this unit, we looked at how to manage the most important resource: the human resource. However, to be effective, human resources must be managed as working teams, with shared goals and a shared focus. Staff members must pull together, and it's your job as a manager to make sure that they do so, by promoting teamwork.

We'll discuss three main issues here (Armstrong, 1990, pp. 312–315):

● what effective teams look like

● team-building methods

● how best to work in a team.

Activity 5.6

(about 5 minutes)

Think about a team you have been part of that was particularly effective. Reflect on what made the team work so well.

List the characteristics that, in your view, made the team effective.

Write notes on your reflections in your learning journal. Save these notes to use in the next activity in this unit.

Unit 5

What do effective teams look like? How are they different from others? Here is a list of their characteristics.

Characteristics of effective teams

- The atmosphere tends to be informal, comfortable, relaxed.

- There is a lot of discussion in which everyone participates – but all remain focused on the group task.

- The task of the team is well understood and accepted by the members. The team is instrumental in defining the nature of the task and is committed to it – i.e., the team has ownership of it.

- The members listen to each other. Every idea is given a hearing. Team members are not afraid of looking foolish by putting forward a creative or unusual thought.

- There is disagreement. Disagreements are not suppressed or overridden by premature group action. The reasons are carefully examined, and the group seeks to resolve them rather than to dominate the dissenter.

- Most decisions are reached by consensus in which it is clear that everybody is in general agreement.

- Criticism is frequent, frank and relatively comfortable. There is little evidence of personal attack – either open or hidden.

- People are free in expressing their feelings as well as their ideas both on problems and on the team's operation.

- When action is taken, clear commitments are made and accepted.

- The leader of the team does not dominate it, nor do team members defer too much to him or her.

Activity 5.7

(about 15 minutes)

Look again at the characteristics of effective teams that you identified in Activity 5.6.

Did you include any that are on the checklist above? Add any to this checklist that you think are missing.

Which characteristics do you think are the most important for effective teamwork? Which does your team have at the moment? Which do they need to develop?

Make notes on this issue in your learning journal. If possible, discuss them with your work colleagues or fellow students.

So these are the characteristics to aim for in your team. But how can you make them happen?

Team-building methods

To build an effective team you must exercise your leadership skills.

Building the basics is particularly important. It's important for you to show your team that:

- you know where you want them to go

- you know how they are going to get there

- you know what you expect each member of the team to achieve

- you know what you are doing.

If you are confident of the team's direction and how it is going to achieve its objectives, the team will have a clear focus. This approach to leadership provides a firm base on which the team can build.

Here are some strategies that you can use to make your team function at its best:

- encourage everyone in the team to participate in setting objectives and targets

- cluster related tasks together, to encourage team members to cooperate with others

- rotate jobs in the team so that group members identify with the team as a whole rather than with their own jobs

- ensure that communications flow freely within and between groups.

Activity 5.8

(about 15 minutes)

Read over the list of strategies for team building.

In your learning journal:

- Add any others you can think of.

Use the list as a checklist for your own team.

- Identify which strategies are in place.

- Identify any other strategies that would be useful in building your own team.

- How might you go about implementing them?

It would be very beneficial to discuss these issues with work colleagues and other members of your team – or use your notes as the basis of a tutorial discussion with your fellow students.

How best to work in a team

To work effectively in a team you need to:

- understand the purpose of the team

- know what you are expected to contribute

- be sure of each team member's role – especially that of the leader

- analyse your own skills and competences to establish how you might best contribute to the team (do this by matching your skills to the roles you have identified)

- understand and analyse the team (observe the behaviour of the team to identity group norms so that you can conform or consciously deviate from them if necessary)

- prepare yourself well before meetings – have the facts and arguments at your fingertips

- stop yourself from talking too much: the art of being a good team member is to know when and how to intervene

- assess your own performance as a team member: ask yourself what you are good at and what you are not so good at, and take appropriate action.

As a manager, you are both a member of a team and a team leader. You have a key role to play in making sure the members of your team work together effectively. This will give the group a strong sense of identification with each other and the organisation. Another element that will achieve this is job satisfaction for the group members – and we take a look at that in the next section.

Job satisfaction

It's part of a manager's role to assess and respond to the needs of staff. Ivancevich, Szilagyi and Wallace in Blunt and Jones (1992, p. 283) have built on Maslow's hierarchy of needs (discussed in Unit 2) to develop a tool for analysing both individual and organisational needs. You may like to refresh your memory of the basics of Maslow's theory before you go on.

Needs

In order to understand the needs of people in your organisation better, you can use the following table. It explains the different kinds of needs people have and how they might apply in a person's job. If these various needs are met, the staff member will achieve job satisfaction.

The table is designed to be read from the bottom up. In the middle column you'll see Maslow's famous hierarchy of needs, and in the left-hand column, examples of these needs – from the most basic physical ones at the bottom (physiological – the need for air, food, shelter, sex) through the next level of needs (safety and security – competence and stability in the job) and so on up the ladder.

The right-hand column explains the aspects of a person's job that relate to having their needs satisfied at each level. For example, at the most basic level, a staff member's physical needs (for food and shelter) centre around things at work like the heating / cooling in the building, the food in the canteen and the general condition of the office or workplace. The right-hand column shows what the employee needs and wants from the organisation in order to stay happy and committed to his/her job. Now take some time to study the table. Remember to read it from the bottom.

Need hierarchy based on Maslow

General factors associated with each level of need	Maslow's levels in the need hierarchy	Organisational factors associated with each level of needs
1 Growth 2 Achievement 3 Advancement	*Self-actualisation*	1 Challenging job 2 Creative opportunities 3 Advancement in the organisation
1 Recognition 2 Status 3 Self-esteem 4 Self-respect	*Ego, status and esteem*	1 Job title 2 Pay increases based on merit 3 Peer / supervisory recognition 4 Work itself 5 Responsibility 6 Interaction with supervisors and peers
1 Companionship 2 Affection 3 Friendship	*Social*	1 Quality of supervision 2 Compatible work group 3 Professional friendships
1 Safety 2 Security 3 Competence 4 Stability	*Safety and security*	1 General salary 2 Job security 3 Fringe benefits 4 Safe working conditions
1 Air 2 Food 3 Shelter 4 Sex	*Physiological*	1 Base salary 2 Heat and cold 3 Canteen facilities 4 Working conditions

Unit 5

Activity 5.9

(about 10 minutes)

Answer the following questions in your learning journal:

Which level of the hierarchy do you operate on at work?

Look at the factors associated with job satisfaction in the right-hand column. Note those that are generally present in your organisation and contribute to general job satisfaction.

Identify factors that are not present but should be present to promote job satisfaction among staff. List those factors that you can do something about.

Suggest strategies for bringing about those changes.

Managers' needs

A similar model for identifying needs was used in a study of managers' needs in Malawi, according to Jones in Blunt and Jones (1992, p. 289). The following table shows what aspects of their jobs (at the different levels of need) the managers felt were good and bad. Responses are indicated by the numbers in the 'Good and bad aspects of job' column.

Aspects of managerial jobs in Malawi

Needs	Good (+) and bad (-) aspects of job
Self-actualisation	• Feeling of achievement (16+) • Opportunities for self-expression and fulfilment (12+)
Autonomy	• Power and authority (20+) • Making decisions (11+) • Making unpleasant decisions (4-) • Being in a position to have broad understanding (2+)
Esteem	• Respect from others (13+) • Privileged position (4+)
Social	• Unpopularity (4-) • Disciplining subordinates (2-)
Security	• Financial rewards (3+) • Accepting blame for others' failures (27-) • Accepting responsibility for decisions (14-) + • Insecurity and risk (6-) • Public scrutiny of actions (2-)

Self-help question 5.3

(about 5 minutes)

To check your understanding of the above table, answer the following questions by marking them as true or false.

1   Power and authority are the sources of greatest satisfaction for the managers in the study.

2   Financial rewards are at the top of the needs hierarchy and lead to self-actualisation.

3   The majority of managers in the study feel that being publicly accountable for their actions is a bad aspect of their jobs.

4   The worst aspect of a manager's job in this study is to accept blame for other people's mistakes.

5   The privilege associated with a manager's job is very important in meeting Maslow's need for self-esteem.

Compare your answers with those suggested at the end of the unit.

Motivation

Staff may be reliable and contented, but without motivation they will not perform at their best. Your role as manager is to promote and maintain motivation. This is not always easy, particularly in the dynamic and challenging environment of most youth work organisations. Understanding the factors that motivate staff – and those that do not – will help you get the best from your team.

Herzberg is an author who writes about needs. He has developed a 'two factor theory' (Blunt and Jones, 1992, p. 294) that explains which aspects of a job lead to motivation in staff and which do not. Here is his model.

Herzberg's 'two factor theory'

Factor 1: motivation (the satisfiers)

Individuals are motivated at work by the following factors; he calls them 'satisfiers':

- achievement of goals

- being accorded recognition

- the nature of the work itself

- having responsibility

- advancement

- personal development.

Factor 2: preventing dissatisfaction

The following are examples of factors that can prevent dissatisfaction but they do not motivate:

- having a satisfactory salary

- job security

- good working conditions

- having time for one's personal life

- good relationship with supervisor(s)

- good relationships with fellow workmates and subordinates

- company policies

- fringe benefits.

Zambian study of motivation

According to a study done amongst Zambian workers, the following are motivating and demotivating factors (Machungwa and Schmitt in Blunt and Jones 1992, p. 295):

Demotivating and motivating factors of Zambian workers

Demotivating factors or bad aspects of working	Motivating factors or good aspects of working
● Tribalism, favouritism, racialism, discrimination ● Bad interpersonal relations with supervisors, co-workers, subordinates ● Low pay, lack of bonuses or merit raises ● Supervisors who do not care to listen to problems of employees ● Death / sickness in family ● Lack of fringe benefits (transportation, housing) ● Poorly defined work duties ● Domestic quarrels ● Too much work ● Lack of chance to learn more about job and/or further training	● A lot of work available ● Interesting work ● Work that has an urgent deadline ● Recognition for work done ● Chances to learn more about the job and/or further training ● Chance for promotion ● Achievement (work that allows achievement and proving oneself) ● Responsibility ● Good interpersonal relations with co-workers ● Trust and confidence shown by superiors and co-workers

You might find it interesting here to return to the various accounts of management theory in Unit 1, and check the results of the Zambian study against the different models in those theories. Also, to what extent do you think that the Zambian study echoes Herzberg's theories of 'work satisfiers' and 'dissatisfiers'?

Activity 5.10

(about 1 hour)

Look over the factors that lead to job motivation in the section you have just studied. Use them as a checklist to evaluate the levels of need and satisfaction in your team.

Survey your staff as to their needs and how far they are being met at work. (You could use the information in this section of this study guide as the basis of a questionnaire for them to fill in.)

Identify areas for improvement.

Together with your staff, devise strategies for improving job satisfaction and motivation.

In your learning journal write a brief report on the survey, identified areas of improvement and the strategies devised.

Unit 5

We have given you a lot of information about what factors at work lead to job satisfaction and motivation. You can make significant improvements to the enjoyment of work and resultant motivation and performance if you remain sensitive to the needs and feelings of the staff you manage.

In the next section we discuss performance management. This is much broader than performance appraisal, which we touched on under the section on internal staffing administration.

Performance management

The different aspects of human resource management that we have explored in this unit are all essential for effective management and for improving the performance of your organisation / project and the people involved. We have noted that human resources management entails helping to guide, direct and enable people. The quality of the performance of these people is, therefore, crucial for the success of your organisation / project. Rees and McBain (2004, pp. 77) provide this useful definition of performance management: *A process for establishing a shared understanding about what is to be achieved, and how it is to be achieved; an approach to managing people which increases the probability of achieving job-related success (Weiss and Hartle, 1977).*

Performance management thus aims to increase job-related success based on a shared understanding of goals and objectives. It is concerned with measuring outputs that have concrete targets and the ways in which these targets are to be delivered.

A performance management system consists of three stages. Rees and McBain (2004, pp. 77–78) have summarised these stages as follows:

Planning, which includes

- definition of job responsibilities
- setting performance expectations
- goal or objective setting at the beginning of the period.

Managing, which involves:

- monitoring performance and achievement towards objectives
- feedback and coaching
- competency review
- development planning.

Reviewing, which embraces:

- formal performance appraisal, resulting in a rating

- links to reward, if deployed within the organisation

- feedback about competencies or other aspects of performance.

The involvement of staff in all stages of performance management nurtures ownership of individual and organisational goals and minimises the anxieties associated with the (often negative) perceptions about the last stage. Motivation plays a central role in each of these stages. The skills you studied in Unit 3 on solving problems creatively, establishing supportive communication, gaining power and influence and improving employee performance through enhancing motivation, among others, are essential for managing the performance of your staff.

Unit 5

Unit summary

In this unit, you have covered the following main points:

- the main functions of human resource management:
    - o staffing
    - o training and development
    - o compensation (salaries and other benefits)
    - o health and safety
    - o employee and labour relations
    - o human resource research
- what managers do for others, including the managerial roles of guiding, directing and enabling
- managerial qualities and personal characteristics
- teamwork, including effective teams, strategies for building the team and how best to work in a team
- job satisfaction and motivation, including Maslow's hierarchy of needs and Herzberg's 'two factor theory'
- performance management.

The unit began by discussing the main functions of human resource management. In addition, we stressed the need to be aware of the fact that managerial qualities, experience and personality all play a role in the management process. These issues were raised in order to emphasise the importance of their impact on your work. We also explored the twin issues of teamwork and job satisfaction, with the aim of helping you promote both in your management activities. In the last section of the unit we briefly discussed performance management.

To check how you have got on, look back at the learning outcomes for this unit and see if you can now do them. When you have done this, look through your learning journal to remind yourself of what you have learned and the ideas you have generated.

In Unit 6 we will look at the issue of managing organisational change.

Answers to self-help questions

Self-help question 5.1

Broadly, the main functions of human resource management are:

- preparing job descriptions and analyses
- recruiting and selecting staff
- induction
- staff training and development
- staff planning
- staff health and safety
- employee and labour relations.

You may have included other functions, too.

Self-help question 5.2

Obviously, everyone's list of tasks will be different. Here we offer some suggestions about the kinds of things you might do under each of the three headings.

Guiding

- looking after new staff and volunteers
- guiding and advising the staff you are responsible for
- communicating the organisation's goals and ideas
- running staff meetings
- setting a good example to other staff
- team building
- trouble-shooting
- overseeing projects
- training
- conflict resolution
- counselling individuals.

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Directing

- making decisions
- setting goals and priorities
- trouble-shooting
- running staff meetings
- carrying out decisions
- giving feedback on staff performance
- training
- allocating responsibilities
- disciplining
- conflict resolution
- initiating change.

Enabling

- communicating the organisation's goals and ideas
- team building
- motivating staff
- training
- building personal relationships
- supporting staff
- staff development
- counselling individuals.

These are just a few of the tasks you might have thought of.

Note that some of these tasks appear under more than one heading. That's because all tasks are interrelated – there are no clear boundaries.

Self-help question 5.3

1 True

2 False

3 False – only 2 respondents indicated this.

4 True

5 False – 13 respondents indicated that respect from others was important to them for self-esteem, compared with only 4 who named privilege.

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Unit 5

Unit 6: Managing organisational change

Unit introduction

Welcome to Unit 6 *Managing organisational change*.

Managing would be easier if all organisations were the same and never needed to change – but of course no work situation is static or perfect. On the contrary, each organisation is unique and youth development work is particularly dynamic. In fact, there is always opportunity for improvement in the way organisations are structured and managed. So management must rise to the challenge of bringing about changes that will benefit the organisation and its stakeholders.

In this unit, we'll discuss the need for organisational change and examine the types and the process of change. In addition, we'll discuss the various dimensions of change. We'll then go on to explore organisational issues in developing countries. The unit ends by discussing how action-learning is particularly suitable to youth work and looking at 'action-learning' as a strategy for tackling problems that youth organisations experience.

At the end of this unit, you'll find your third written assignment.

Unit learning outcomes

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- discuss the need for and the types and dimensions of organisational change
- outline the two main approaches to change management
- explain the process of change
- explore key areas for management in organisational change
- relate the management of organisational change to the principles and practice of youth development work.

Unit 6

Why change?

Rapid and constant change – social, economic and technological – has become an unavoidable aspect of modern life. Growing global competition puts pressure on all organisations to reduce costs, improve quality, find new growth opportunities and increase productivity. As a result, there is an increasing need for organisations to embrace continual change. Yet those of us who are involved in managing change know that it is a very difficult task. According to Machiavelli's *The Prince*:

> "There is nothing more difficult to plan, more doubtful of success, nor more dangerous to manage than the creation of a new system. For the initiator has the enmity of all who would profit by the preservation of the old institutions and merely the lukewarm defenders in those who should gain the new ones."

> Bourne and Bourne, 2002, p. 4

Change may be traumatic and may be unsuccessful, but attempts to manage change can reduce its negative effects on any organisation and its members (Armstrong, 1999, p. 20). An effective organisation thus takes deliberate steps to manage change smoothly. Since it's the people who implement change, the manager's behaviour and the support of the staff are extremely important.

In order for change management to be successful, we need to be able to understand:

● the major types of change

● the process of change

● dimensions of change

● approaches to change management.

This list is by no means exhaustive.

Strategic and operational change

Basically, there are two types of change: strategic and operational (Armstrong, 1999, p. 21):

Strategic change

This is deep level change in the strategy of the organisation. This type of change is concerned with large, long-term and organisation-wide issues. It involves moving to a future state in which the organisation has been re-defined in terms of its strategic vision. Strategic change covers the mission of the organisation, its policies on matters such as growth, quality, innovation and people values, its market and the technologies it employs. Strategic change includes the organisation's internal resources, capabilities, culture, structure and systems. It occurs within the context of a fiercely competitive environment. It

seems particularly relevant in the context of globalisation and the global market, and is one of the dimensions of the organisation that chaos theory addresses. You may wish to refer back to Reading 1 from Unit 1 to see the relationship between strategic change and chaos theory.

Implementation of strategic change requires thorough analysis and understanding of all these factors during the stages of formulation and planning.

Operational change

Operational change relates to new systems, procedures, structures and technology that have an immediate effect on working arrangements within a part of the organisation. Operational change impacts more immediately on the workforce than broader strategic change, and therefore this type of change must be handled very carefully.

The process of change

Change entails analysing the past to see what actions are required now for the future. It involves moving from a present state, through a transitional state, to a future desired state (Armstrong, 1999). The change process requires the commitment of those who manage the organisation and those affected by the change.

The process of change within an organisation begins with an awareness of the need to change. This is followed by an analysis of the state of the organisation and the factors that have created the need for change. Once this diagnosis of the situation has been made, you will have an indication of the direction in which action needs to be taken. At this point, you may identify several possible courses of action; therefore you must evaluate each before making a choice of the preferred action.

The next step is crucial, as you now have to decide how to move from one stage to the next. Managing the change process in this transitional state is extremely important. In the words of Armstrong (1999, p. 22), it is here that the problems of introducing change emerge and have to be managed.

Common problems encountered are 'resistance to change', 'low centre of gravity', 'high levels of stress', 'misdirected energy', 'conflict' and 'losing momentum'.

To revise what we have discussed thus far, complete the activity below.

Activity 6.1

(about 5 minutes)

Answer the following questions in your learning journal.

1   Why is strategic change described as deep level change?

2   How does it differ from operational change?

3   What are the three stages of the process of change?

Discuss your answers with your colleagues.

Dimensions of change

Bourne and Bourne (2002) outline for us three dimensions of change:

- 'incremental change'

- 'continuous improvements'

- 'participative' or 'directed' change.

Incremental change involves a number of steps. While the steps are small and can be achieved easily, over time the change is cumulative and may be significant. On the contrary, radical change is very noticeable and usually involves a single significant step.

Continuous improvement is used in many industries to develop the business. It is defined as a low risk strategy. Its strength is making change a significant process, while not having the disruptive elements associated with larger changes. It makes change habitual.

Participative change involves the participation of those directly affected by the change. It depends on the goodwill of those involved in the change to work through the change process. More often than not, however, change is directed. Directive change depends on those making the change having the power to order others to effect the change.

From a youth perspective, participative change is best as it reinforces democratic values and emphasises and builds on the members' commitment and loyalty to the organisation.

Now read Case study 6.1 and complete the exercise in Activity 6.2.

Case Study 6.1

A Real Service Organisation

Staff had been recruited for their organisational and administrative skills and not for their ability to handle clients. The structure was hierarchical; each person had a rigid job description and a supervisor to ensure that things were done properly; generally work was conducted to a high standard. Everyone arrived promptly at 9 a.m. and finished promptly at 5 p.m. with an hour for lunch between 1 p.m. and 2 p.m. The organisation had a paternalistic approach, almost protecting the staff from commercial realities. While this created a very loyal staff team and minimised staff turnover, it led to complacency and a lack of new ideas that would normally come in through new staff. Over several years, revenues began to decline but this had been offset by cutting costs. After a period, nonetheless, the senior management team found more cost cutting just too painful. It was also found that customers were leaving. It was then decided that changes would have to be made for the organisation to survive.

(Bourne and Bourne, 2002, pp. 64–66)

Activity 6.2

(about 10 minutes)

Answer the following questions in your learning journal:

1   At what stage of the process of change is this organisation?

2   What changes do you think are necessary to ensure the survival of the organisation? Why?

3   Describe how you would make these changes (the process).

4   Identify what you think would be the greatest challenges for managing these changes.

Discuss your ideas with your colleagues.

Unit 6

Models of change management

Basically, there are two approaches to managing change: the planned approach and the emergent approach. The planned approach involves change that is consciously embarked upon and planned by an organisation as contrasted to the type of emergent change that might come about through accident, by impulse or that is forced on the organisation (Burnes, 2000).

The planned approach

The two main planned approaches to change management discussed in this unit are Lewin's three stages model (Burnes, 2000) and Bullock and Batten's four-phase model.

Lewin's three stages model

The three stages of this model are:

Unfreezing

Unfreezing is the first phase of the model. Rubin (1967) in Burnes (2000) states that unfreezing requires some form of confrontational meeting or re-education process for those involved. This approach can be achieved through a team-building process or some other form of management development in which the organisational problem to be solved is analysed.

Moving

In this phase of the model new behaviours are developed. Burnes (2000) contends that changed values and attitudes must be developed and implemented, suitable for the process of changing the organisational structures and processes. The implementation of the new behaviours, values and attitudes should be viewed as a continuous organisational process and managed in such a way as to stop the people involved from reverting to the old ways of doing business.

Refreezing

Burnes (2000) defines the refreezing stage as the use of strategies to stabilise the organisation at the new stage following change, in order to ensure that the new ways of working are relatively safe from regression.

One of the major weaknesses of the planned change approach is that it is based on the assumption that a common agreement can be reached among all the parties involved in a change process because they all have an interest and willingness in doing so. Burnes (2000) argues that the premise for such an assumption is unrealistic. He

posits that it ignores the differences and tensions that can be brought to bear by organisational politics, power and vested interests.

Bullock and Batten's four-phase model

Bullock and Batten developed an integrated four-phase model of managing organisational change after reviewing over thirty different models of change management. Change in this model is viewed from two dimensions: the 'change process' dimension and the 'change phases' dimension.

The 'change process' dimension is a method employed primarily for reacting to the process of moving on from one state to another, whereas the 'change phases' dimension is the proactive method of identifying the distinctive states or phases an organisation goes through to undertake planned change (Burnes, 2000). We may pursue such planned change only in a relatively stable environment, while reacting to change will be better suited to a more turbulent environment. The four phases of this model are:

Exploration phase

In the exploration stage an organisation has to explore and decide whether it wants to make specific changes in its operations and, if so, to commit resources to planning the changes.

Planning phase

At this stage consultants are involved in the collection of information in order to determine the nature of the problem and actions to be taken.

Action phase

This is where the organisation implements the change that it decides is needed.

Integration phase

Once the change process is implemented successfully, the focus is now on the reinforcement of new behaviours through feedback and reward systems. The organisation must ensure that the successes of the change process are spread to all levels.

The emergent approach

Supporters of the emergent approach believe that, rather than a series of linear events in a given period of time, change is a continuous process.

They describe emergent change as change that unfolds in an apparently spontaneous and unplanned way. Dawson (1996) describes two ways in which change can be regarded as emergent rather than planned:

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1   Managers make a number of decisions apparently unrelated to the change that emerges. The change is therefore not planned. However, these decisions may be based on unspoken, and sometimes unconscious, assumptions about the organisation, its environment and its future (Mintzberg, 1989) and are, therefore, not as unrelated as they first seem. Such implicit assumptions dictate the direction of the seemingly disparate and unrelated decisions, thereby shaping the change process by 'drift' rather than by design.

2   External factors (such as the economy, competitors' behaviour and political climate) or internal features (such as the relative power of different interest groups, distribution of knowledge and uncertainty) influence the change in directions outside the control of managers. Even the most planned and executed change programme will have some emergent impacts.

Dawson (1996) further notes that the above highlights two important aspects of managing change:

- the need to identify, explore and if necessary challenge the assumptions that underlie managerial decisions

- understanding that organisational change is a process that can be facilitated by perceptive and insightful planning and analysis and well crafted sensitive implementation phases, while acknowledging that it can never be fully isolated from the effects of serendipity, uncertainty and change.

(This explanation of 'emergent change' is based on http://www.jiscinfonet.ac.uk/infokits/change-management/types-of-change)

Common management problems

Let's now look at a few of the most common management problems and give hints on how to improve them. The following table (adapted from Armstrong, 1990, pp. 151–153) provides a useful framework. It offers practical examples and suggests some solutions.

Common management problems

Problem	Solution
Inability to learn from mistakes	Analyse mistakes thoroughly and be honest, though not over-critical, about what went wrong, in order to avoid the same kind of mistake in future.
Incompetence	This can be minimised through improvement in selection procedures, monitoring performance standards and eliminating and correcting weaknesses. Staff development and training programmes should also play a role here.
Over-confidence	Over-confident people usually have tunnel vision. They only see where they themselves are headed, but what is happening during the process is lost. Regular exposure of these people to other people's views might be a useful strategy.
Under-confidence	An under-confident person needs reassurance constantly. Mentors can help in the process of building confidence by giving the under-confident person tasks within his/her competence at first and gradually making tasks more difficult.
Carelessness	This is usually a result of over-confidence. To eliminate this, you should encourage staff always to check everything they produce – and make sure you do this yourself, too. Develop systematic, efficient checking procedures.
Laziness	Motivational strategies and individual counselling can help. As a last resort, implement punishment measures, because laziness costs the organisation.
Lack of foresight	Anticipate, plan and make contingency plans to cope with the unexpected. Make sure your staff do this too.

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Self-help question 6.1

(about 10 minutes)

Here are two thumbnail sketches of workers in an organisation who display some of the problems outlined in the table above.

Diagnose what each problem is, and suggest a solution.

Case 1:

Fayed is a new recruit who shows great enthusiasm for fieldwork, but when you ask him to present a brief report on aspects of a community project, he procrastinates. The morning of the deadline you have set for him to deliver the report, he stays away from work, though you are pretty sure he is not ill.

Problem/s:

Solutions:

Case 2:

Susan is a strong performer in the organisation and can be relied on to see projects through. However, other staff find her difficult to get along with. She is a poor listener and tends to overwhelm and dominate her colleagues. Although she is good at managing big issues, she often forgets the details. When her colleagues point them out to her, she dismisses their criticisms and blames others. Her subordinates are getting tired of fixing up the details that she has omitted.

Problem/s:

Solutions:

Compare your answers with those suggested at the end of the unit.

Issues in developing countries

Organisations in developing countries face a number of special problems. It has been argued (Blunt and Jones, 1992) that they all tend to share some characteristic features and have similar management issues. In addition, their managers face a particular set of challenges.

Management issues

Here is a summary of the sorts of things that can go wrong in these organisations at the three levels of management.

Top management problems

Problems for the top management level may include:

- overworked staff

- authoritarian or paternalistic management styles

- centralised control and decision-making

- unclear mission – no sense of direction

- extensive activities outside the organisation

- politicised management

- weak executive support systems.

Middle management problems

Problems experienced at middle management level may include:

- weak management systems and controls

- inadequate management and administrative skills

- lack of specific industry knowledge and experience

- under-staffing

- being risk averse: staff unwilling to take independent action or initiative

- close supervision, little delegation

- low levels of motivation.

Operating level problems

Problems may also exist at the operating or functional level of an organisation. These may include:

- inefficient, high-cost operations

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- low levels of activity or productiveness

- over-staffing

- staff under-utilised

- low pay

- poor morale

- weak boundaries of responsibility

- vital technical core staff and functions under-protected or neglected.

Activity 6.3

(about 10 minutes)

Study the above lists of common problems in developing country organisations.

Use them as a checklist to assess organisational problems in your workplace by answering the following questions:

1   Which problems at each of the three levels apply in your organisation? Add any problems not mentioned.

2   What strengths does your organisation have at each of the three levels? (For example, Blunt and Jones (1992) found that top management in developing countries tended to be educated, articulate and well-travelled.)

Write up your answers and reflections in your learning journal.

It will be useful if you discuss these issues with your fellow students or peers – but be very careful to be tactful, maintain confidentiality and respect the privacy of the staff in your organisation.

Naturally, many of the problems may apply to organisations around the world – developing and developed. But as a youth development worker you need to be aware of any weaknesses that do exist in your organisation. As a manager, it's your job to work hard to minimise these problems and change your organisation for the better.

Problems faced by managers

Some of the problems and challenges faced by managers in the developing world include the following:

The impact of governments

In some developing countries, there is a general perception that public resources are being mismanaged – for example, if a government spends money earmarked for development on political election campaigns. An improvement in the effectiveness of public management is an important condition of sustainable development (Howell in Blunt et al, 1993, p. 88).

Inappropriate management styles

In many cases, Western management styles have been adopted as appropriate for management in Africa and Asia, but the special circumstances and conditions of organisations in developing countries have sometimes not been considered. For example, in African organisations, the views of local grassroots organisations and communities are dominant and should always be kept in mind. This is not necessarily part of Western management style.

Favouritism

Goran Hyden (in Blunt et al, 1993, p. 88) sees the fundamental problems of African management as lying in: *"the economy of affection which means that the network of support, communications and interaction among structurally-defined groups connected by blood, kin, community or other affinities, (for example religion)"* that determines who will get government-funded jobs. So employment in and for government, for example, does not rest on the employee's skills and abilities but on whom in the government s/he is related to.

Elitism

The elite may manage the system in their own interests, together with aid organisations and donor governments.

Excessive bureaucracy

This derives from over emphasis on classical management practices. The focus tends to be on management procedures as ends in themselves rather than on using procedures to tackle the practical problems faced by management and make organisations more effective. Governments may use long and often irrelevant processes in order to ensure that the correct procedure is in place, but this is at the expense of the people affected by these processes.

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Activity 6.4

(about 10 minutes)

Whether you work in a developing or a developed country, your organisation will undoubtedly have its own problems.

1   What problems for management does your organisation face?

2   Which ones do you perceive to be beyond your organisation's control?

3   Which ones can you and your colleagues do something about?

Make notes on your answers in your learning journal.

Use them as a basis for discussion of these issues with your co-workers or your fellow students.

Finding solutions

What can be done about these problems? Some of them are beyond the scope and influence of any organisation. Others can be remedied with determination and a focused approach.

Here are three suggestions:

1   Contingency management theory argues that management should focus on an organisation-to-organisation scale of operation. This means that, instead of looking for universally applicable management procedures, each organisation should concentrate on how it performs itself, and what solutions are particularly suited to its own situation. Sometimes relevant ideas can be derived from another organisation in a very similar situation.

2   A comprehensive understanding of the activities and performance of an organisation from the inside is necessary.

3   In order to improve organisations, the action-learning cycle can be used to learn more about the organisation and what should be done to improve it.

How can action-learning help improve the management of organisations and change them for the better? In the section that follows, we will look at the action-learning cycle as a useful strategy in change management.

The action-learning cycle

Youth work organisations – particularly in developing countries – must be very flexible and responsive to change because they often function in turbulent and changing political, economic and social environments. In addition, they must cope with these in a context of severe resource and infrastructural constraints – for example, little money, few resources and limited local services like power and transport. So youth work organisations need to be able to develop and grow – and they need empowering and authentic processes to do it. One such process is action-learning (Taylor et al, 1997, pp. 2–3, pp. 49–58).

Action-learning is a dynamic way of bringing about change for the better. It is a process that encourages members of an organisation to understand their own problems – and find their own solutions to them.

Action-learning is different from action research. Action research is generally used to gather information about other people's communities or organisations, and make recommendations to them, whereas action-learning is aimed at finding solutions to your own organisation's problems.

The process of action-learning consists of a cycle that has four elements:

● action

● reflection

● learning

● planning.

Let's look at each of these elements in turn.

Action

During the action stage you identify the problem. Some of the questions to ask during this stage are (Cattermole et al, 1987, p. 83):

● Is the problem significant?

● Which people need to work on it?

● How can they best be brought together?

● What are their preferred learning styles?

● Who might be the best person to act as facilitator?

These questions aim to highlight the problem/s that the organisation is facing.

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Reflection

In the reflection stage you look again at the identified problem to clarify it and ensure that it is the real one faced by the organisation. Questions to ask are (Cattermole et al, 1987, p. 83):

- How do we, as a group, experience the problem?

- Is this the real problem or do we need to reinterpret?

- What questions do we need to ask? Of whom?

- Are we committed to tackling it?

Learning

The third stage is the learning stage. During this stage you determine whether you and your colleagues have similar or different problems and work out how you are going to address them – individually and collectively. Questions to ask are (Cattermole et al, 1987, p. 83):

- How do you understand the problem?

- Is it similar to others' problems?

- What are the alternative solutions?

- What might be the consequences of each?

- Do any of the solutions seem worth pursuing?

- What action would that entail? By whom? When?

- What help is needed?

Planning

Next, in the planning stage, you consider plans for solving the identified problems. The implications and consequences of these plans are the major focus here. Questions to ask are (Cattermole et al, 1987, p. 83):

- If I try out the solutions discussed, what would the consequences be? For others? For me?

- What have I learned? About the problem? About others? About me?

These four stages in the action-learning cycle form a repeating round of activity in the form of a spiral that could either be upward, leading to greater effectiveness, or (rarely, we hope) downward, leading to frustration and demoralisation. An action-learning process never takes place in neat, separate steps but it does provide a tool for learning and problem solving.

Here is a diagram showing how the cycle works.
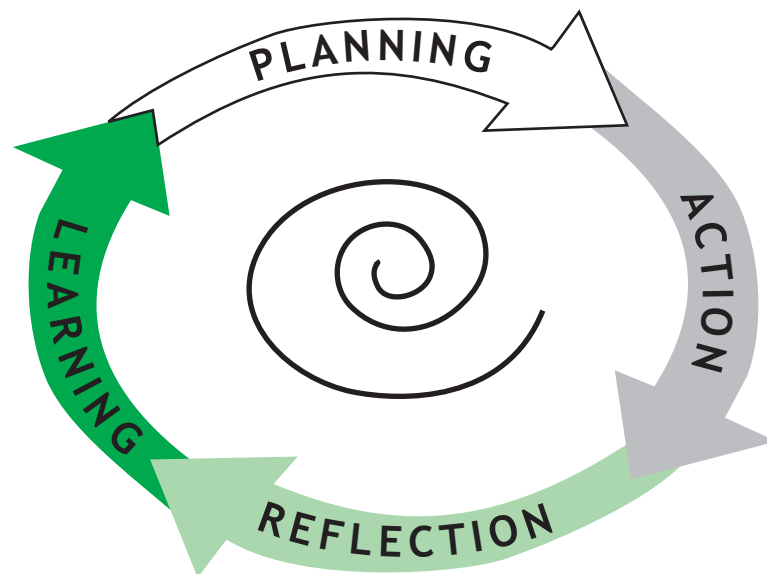
The action-learning cycle

? Self-help question 6.2

(about 5 minutes)

In Unit 3, you were introduced to a problem-solving model.

You might like to revisit this section now. You'll find it under the sub-heading 'Skill 3: Solving problems creatively'.

Compare that model with the action-learning cycle described above and answer the question below.

In what way is the problem-solving model similar to the action-learning cycle?

Compare your answers with those suggested at the end of the unit.

Characteristics of action-learning

The process of action-learning assumes certain values that are vital to maintain the nature of the action-learning process.

These values are:

● respect for people's experience and knowledge and recognition of them as valid: the values of action-learning are democratic

● encouragement of learning from one another: this reduces hierarchical differences

- enabling people to challenge the status quo, to change themselves, and the organisation

- encouragement of personal growth and recognition of its value in changing and improving systems, institutions and organisations.

Activity 6.5

(about 15 minutes)

In your opinion, how far do these values match the principles and practice of youth development work? Write your opinion and answers to the following questions in your learning journal:

1 Do you feel these values are appropriate in the management and operation of youth work organisations? Why or why not?

2 Which of these values is your organisation currently practising?

3 Which of them are not present in your organisation? Explain why.

These are important issues. We strongly recommend that you discuss them with your work colleagues, peers or fellow students. They would also form an excellent basis for a tutorial discussion.

Action-learning can only take place in the right environment. The organisation and all its members should be committed to the process.

Here are the characteristics of an organisation in a position to implement action-learning successfully (Taylor et al, 1997, pp. 54–57). They are:

- leadership that enables everyone in the organisation to understand and own the organisation's vision and its strategies

- trust that affirms the value of all members and their roles and functions

- clear plans, criteria and standards that allow progress and achievement to be measured

- members and management that view mistakes and failures as learning opportunities while striving for excellence

- recognition of and commitment to communication and information as the keys to effective learning

- members who are open to learning and to new ideas and methods

- structures, systems, procedures, resources, methods and communication that are aimed at supporting the learning process

- enough time spent on action, reflection, learning and planning in order to ensure a creative balance between them.

Action-learning is useful for your organisation because:

- it helps you to structure organisational evaluation and planning sessions annually or biannually

- it helps in project management and monitoring

- it is a useful evaluation tool at the end of meetings, projects, programmes and tasks

- it helps the organisation to learn from particular failures or successes in a programme, project or task

- it is useful for solving conflict.

Now that we have discussed the values, characteristics and reasons for using action-learning to improve organisations, it's time to reflect on its practical application in a case study.

Case Study 6.2

A story of risk

Picture yourself in the boardroom of an office block in central Johannesburg. The windows are grimy. The cheap table is scratched and worn. The chairs are uncomfortable. But this is no ordinary NGO. It is an organisation with tens of thousands of members throughout the country. It employs 160 people in 16 regional offices. Its leadership is elected by the membership. In its own field, it has been the leading NGO in South Africa for the past fifteen years.

But now it is floundering. Relationships between membership and the staff are at an all-time low. The context is changing and the leadership has lost touch. Internal conflicts are rampant, and the members are being neglected. Clearly something needs to be done. Two consultants had been contracted to help them sort things out but had failed. Now yet another consultant has been called in.

In the boardroom the consultant faces a powerful grouping of the leadership, headed by the General Secretary and his assistant. The General Secretary is sharp, intelligent and in control. He speaks directly to the point. *'We're in trouble here. Over the last couple of years two highly respected consultants have proposed changes to the way this organisation functions. All these proposals make sense, but none of them have worked, and we continue to flounder. What do you offer that can make a difference?'*

The consultant is clearly on the line. '*I offer you nothing in the way of specialised advice,*' he says. '*But then specialised advice hasn't got you anywhere so far. What I can do is facilitate a process for you that will enable you to reflect on your organisation and the context in which you find yourselves. The aim is that you learn from your own experience and arrive at your own solutions. I can't change your organisation, only you can do that. You know far more about this organisation than you think you do, and certainly more than I do. What you need is a process to draw that out, and a process that will help you to believe in your own abilities to find solutions that work for you.*'

The room is quiet. All eyes are on the General Secretary. Finally he responds. '*On the face of it you seem to offer us even less than the other consultants, yet you still want to charge a fee. On the other hand we remain in more trouble than ever. The process you talk about is not going to happen overnight, I'm sure. Why should we trust you to take us through such a process when even you don't know where it will end up?*'

'*I can't convince you to trust me,*' the consultant answers. '*But I suspect that the real issue is that you don't trust yourselves. Outsiders can't solve your problems for you. Only you can do that. You, yourselves are causing the problems. You have to turn that around, and become the instruments of your own success.*'

Silence. Everyone is looking slightly vague and confused. The consultant holds his breath and wonders whether he has gone too far. The General Secretary stares at him. The others around the table look to their neighbours to take the lead. Finally the Assistant General Secretary smiles wryly, and speaks. '*I think you are being honest, and I also think you are right. I think you have already recognised the main problem here, which is our belief that the problems and the solutions lie outside of this room and outside of ourselves. Let's carry on. Tell us more about this process of yours.*'

Activity 6.6

(about 10 minutes)

Answer the following questions in your learning journal:

1   Why do you think the previous consultants have failed in their efforts to help this organisation?

2   What specifically does this consultant offer that the others did not?

3   Do you agree with the decision of the Assistant General Secretary to carry on with the process of action-learning? Why?

4   Do you think that, in general, outsiders cannot solve an organisation's problems? Why or why not?

Keep your notes from this activity to use in the assessment task at the end of this unit.

Action learning in youth development work

Action-learning is particularly useful in youth development work because:

●   all organisations learn as they operate and grow, and youth development work organisations are especially dynamic

●   it is important for youth development workers to constantly improve the quality and effectiveness of their work; action-learning offers an effective tool to bring this about; it will give youth workers a sense of pride in forming part of a dynamic and worthwhile organisation

●   action-learning improves employees' skills and abilities; the most effective learning occurs when people are assisted to use their own experience and skills to solve issues and problems; this helps them to solve bigger problems in future and leads to self-reliance and empowerment

●   people are encouraged to co-operate and learn from one another, and to use their skills and experience to develop the organisation's potential.

Finally, the values and principles behind action-learning – ownership of problems and solutions, creative thinking, collaboration, co-operation and empowerment – match very well with the values of youth development work. So as a tool for management and an agent of change in youth work organisations, it is particularly relevant and appropriate.

Unit 6

Do it yourself: improve your organisation

Action-learning has much to offer your organisation because it aims to solve work problems, recognise and use opportunities, and improve the organisation by using its most important resource – its employees. It enables you and your colleagues to learn through your own mistakes and collectively to find solutions to problems.

How can you achieve this? By following the eight action-learning steps. These are designed to help you and your colleagues to make strategic choices about leading your organisation and planning for the future.

Let's examine each of the eight steps in detail.

Step 1: Facilitating the process

Basic principles

The fundamental principles behind the facilitation of action-learning involve:

- helping the participants collect and share information that describes an experience

- reflecting on that experience through discussion prompted by asking the right questions

- drawing out the learning from the reflection

- ensuring that the learning will be applied, through planning, to inform and improve future practice.

How to facilitate

- Prepare questions carefully so that they have the best chance of eliciting a relevant response, which will allow the learning to take place.

- Aim to include as many of the members of the organisation as possible. The numbers will be limited, however, by how many can realistically engage in and feel a part of the process. From experience, the ideal group size is not more than 16, although a very experienced and competent facilitator can deal with groups of more than 30. In larger organisations it's necessary to select a representative group to undertake the process.

- Think carefully before selecting participants. Ideally all those who will be affected or play a part in managing the learning process should participate. If this isn't possible, choose representatives from all interested parties. Make sure you have clear plans at the end as to how the process will be fed back to those who couldn't participate.

- During the questioning sessions, divide the participants into smaller groups of not more than five – fewer if the group is not too large. The smaller the group, the greater the participation of all involved, but remember that more groups will take longer to report back. Each group should elect a reporting secretary and someone to report back to the larger group.

- Report the small group findings to the full group. There are numerous ways of reporting back. One method is to get the small groups to report back orally, with the facilitator or an assistant writing the responses on a flipchart or board. Whichever method you use, it's important to capture the responses in writing so that they can be referred to later.

- Direct the full-group discussion. Once the responses of the small groups have been fed back, it's the task of the facilitator to direct the full group discussion in such a way that the common themes, conclusions or learning can be extracted. Much of the art of the facilitator lies in managing this process. A few questions to initiate the discussion will help in drawing out the learning. The quality of the discussion and the subsequent learning is dependent on the quality and relevance of the questions asked. Do not hesitate to refine questions to meet specific needs.

- The process we have described here may well be familiar to you. It forms the overall framework in which action-learning takes place. In Step 2 we look at how to draw out information about the group's experiences of the organisation.

Step 2: the vision and the values

- Make a list of what your clients (or yourselves) consider your greatest achievements over the past two years (or any selected time span).

  Do the same for failures.

- List the events over the past five years that have had an impact on the life of the organisation. Indicate in each case whether the impact was positive or negative.

- Imagine that you are attending a major international banquet to honour the contributions made by organisations in your field of operation. Your organisation receives the highest honour for the service it provides. You are presented with a citation in the form of a scroll, which lists the reasons you have been chosen as an example of excellence in the field. What do you think will be included in this citation?

Drawing out the learning

Once all this information has been listed and is fresh in the memory of the participants, draw out the central issues raised by asking:

- What specific and unique role does your organisation play in society?

- What are the guiding principles, values and beliefs that underlie all that your organisation does?

Step 3 Defining the service

- Whom do you serve? Build a profile as complete as possible of your clients. Include as many characteristics as you can. For example, include where they live, age, income, employment, specific needs.

- Why do you serve?

- What are your clients asking of you?

- How may your clients and their needs change in the future?

Drawing out the learning

- Do you need to change your services to meet the changing needs of your clients?

- Should you increase the number of services you provide or provide fewer?

- Should you target a wider clientele or be more selective?

- Should you improve the quality of your service?

Step 4: Assessing human resources

- What are the distinctive skills and competencies that you have in your organisation?

- Who in particular has these skills and competencies?

Drawing out the learning

- In light of the services that you need to provide in the future and the organisational structures necessary to support this work, what skills and competencies are lacking?

- Should you increase the range of your competencies or concentrate on a smaller number?

- Should you employ more people, fewer people, or retrain those you have?

Step 5 Assessing material resources

- What are the key material resources that you depend on to provide your service?

- Who provides you with these resources?

Drawing out the learning

- Are you dependent on too few providers, or are you wasting energy by having too many?

- Could you be getting your resources from other sources more efficiently?

- Are there new resources that you will need to implement new strategies?

- Where will you get these new resources from?

Step 6: Identifying the necessary changes

- How do the previous four steps in the process fit together? Is there any conflict among the different parts?

- What are you suggesting in the four steps above that is different from the situation in the past?

Drawing out the learning

- What specific new directions are being suggested here?

Step 7: Planning the changes

- What are the changes we hope to see in our organisation?

- Who will take responsibility for managing the process?

- What steps need to be taken to implement them?

- When do we hope to see them happen?

- How will we measure that they have been achieved?

- How often will progress be monitored and by whom?

Step 8: Implementing action-learning

- Make participants aware of the action-learning process that's been used to reach this point. Ask them if they can identify the method used by the facilitator.

- Share the principles of action-learning and the action-learning cycle with the group. Suggest that it be used to monitor the implementation of the strategic changes.

Now you've read through the eight steps involved in the action-learning process, it's time to reflect on this.

Unit 6

Activity 6.7

(about 20 minutes)

In your learning journal, answer the following questions:

● What do you think are the strengths of the action-learning process?

● What are its weaknesses?

● Have you any prior experience of the process? If so, how effective was it in solving problems and finding strategies for change?

● How important do you think it is that organisations change by themselves and learn through this process? Why?

● Are there any problems in your organisation that you believe could be tackled using this process? List them.

● Which steps in the process are most applicable to your organisation?

● What specific changes would you like to see in your organisation?

Do you think the action-learning process could help the organisation make these changes? Give reasons for your answer.

Unit summary

In this unit you have covered the following main points:

- the inevitability of change

- the dimensions of change and the main types of change: 'strategic' and 'operational'

- organisational issues and challenges at the three levels of management

- common management problems and suggestions on how to solve them, and specific management problems in some developing countries

- action-learning and its four phases – action, reflection, learning, planning; the action-learning cycle and its continuing patterns; the values and principles behind action-learning

- how the action-learning cycle could improve organisations; how the action-learning process works (the eight steps).

We have looked at the management problems faced by organisations. We have also discussed how the action-learning cycle can be used to improve organisations. We have seen that the strength of action-learning lies in organisations' recognition of the fact that solutions to problems are to be found within and not outside organisations. Facilitators merely help to identify problems and solutions that staff generate themselves. The last section of the unit presented a 'do it yourself' set of guidelines on how to improve your organisation through the action-learning strategy.

To check how you have got on, look back at the learning outcomes for this unit and see if you can now do them. When you have done this, look through your learning journal to remind yourself of what you have learned and the ideas you have generated.

In the next unit we will discuss the management of communication and of ICT (information and communication technology) both of which are vital to the process of change management.

Unit 6

Answers to self-help questions

Self-help question 6.1

Case 1 – Fayed:

Problem/s

- Fayed may be under-confident as a new recruit.

- He may also be unsure of his report writing skills or be inexperienced in this area – or he may know he is not up to the task (incompetence).

- He may be lazy – though given his enthusiasm in other work areas, this is unlikely.

Suggested solutions

Fayed may need more support from you and his colleagues. You could suggest training for him in report and other writing skills. Also he might benefit from having an experienced staff member guide him through his first few weeks in your organisation. This should help to build his confidence.

Case 2 – Susan:

Problem/s

Susan is a valuable staff member, but she is also over-confident. This leads her to be unable to accept critical comments or learn from them. It also means she makes careless mistakes, which put an added burden on other staff.

Suggested solutions

Susan may need some personal staff development to improve her listening skills and help her accept others' views and constructive criticisms. You could arrange for some personal mentoring to develop her skills in these areas. It might also be useful to discuss with her strategies for ensuring she gives more attention to checking the important but smaller details of her daily work. Meetings where staff are given the opportunity to discuss these issues with Susan might also be beneficial.

Self-help question 6.2

The problem-solving model in Unit 3 is very similar to the spiral of action-learning. They both have four stages. Though the problem-solving model does not use identical terms for each stage, the object of each stage is similar. In both cases, the actions are continuous and repetitive.

The reason for these similarities is that both these models are aimed at solving problems collectively and collaboratively.

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Unit 6

Assignment

First, a reminder that your work in this module will be assessed in the following ways:

1   Completion of the unit assessment tasks that you will carry out throughout this module (30 per cent). There are four assignments – at the end of Units 2, 4, 6 (i.e., the one below) and 7. All these assignments will add up to 30 per cent of the unit assessment. Your learning institution will indicate when and which of these tasks should be submitted for marking by your tutor.

2   The learning journal that you will keep for recording your responses to the different learning activities in each of the units (20 per cent). Your learning institution will inform you when to submit the learning journal for assessment.

3   A report of about 1,750 words. You will find full details at the end of the Module Summary (50 per cent).

Note: make sure you discuss the assessment requirements with your tutor so that you are clear about what you are expected to do and when, and any particular requirements in your institution.

Assignment 3

This task counts towards your final assessment on this module. This task and the tasks at the end of Units 2, 4 and 7 together add up to 30 per cent of your final mark.

Length: About 750 words.

For this assessment task, draw on the work you did for Activity 6.7 in this unit.

Apply your reflections about the eight-step action learning approach to improving an organisation to the situation described in Case study 6.2.

What are the strengths and weakness of the action learning approach in the situation described?

How effective do you think it would be in this situation in solving problems and finding strategies for change?

Add any other comments on action-learning you feel are relevant to your own organisation.

Submit your written answers to your tutor.

Unit 7: Managing youth development work

Unit introduction

Welcome to Unit 7 *Managing communication and ICT* – the final unit in this module.

Every aspect of management involves communication skills and information technology. In this unit we examine the basic principles of good communication and the special communication skills that you need as a youth development manager. We give you tips on effective communication, including the important area of listening skills, and alert you to common communication barriers. We offer you some practical advice on writing skills for a variety of purposes so that your message is understood.

This unit ends by providing an overview of information and communication technology (ICT) as a tool for change within organisations.

Unit learning outcomes

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- outline the importance and elements of communication
- describe barriers to communication and ways of minimising them
- explain the role of ICT in management and the need to manage its use
- describe the elements of a simple management information system.

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What is communication?

Communication involves conveying a message: orally, verbally, in writing or through the use of signs. The essential element in communication is the delivery of information and the essential process is sharing. Communication is also about the quality of the content that we communicate.

Here are four basic principles of communication:

- Communication is fundamental to all human behaviour, though not all communication is human communication.

- Communication is not always intentional; nor is it always verbal. It includes body actions, tone of voice, use of space, gestures and touch.

- The context of communication influences its meaning. The formality and informality of the communication style will influence what is communicated.

- Communication requires effort. The communicator should be willing to explain and elaborate, but also to listen.

Communication is the blood in the body of an organisation. If the communication process breaks down, like a body with blood that has clotted, the organisation does not function properly. So communication is an essential aspect of managing your staff. Communication is also the process through which management gets things done.

Management needs communication to (Koontz et al in Scammel, 1990, p. 11):

- establish and disseminate the goals of an enterprise

- develop plans for the achievement of goals

- organise human and other resources in the most effective and efficient way

- select, develop and appraise members of the organisation

- lead, direct and motivate members of the organisation

- control performance.

Communication skills

As a manager, you get much of your work done through talking and listening – mostly face-to-face (Stewart, 1992, p. 277). Because you communicate with different people, you need a variety of communication skills.

In the course of your work, you might need to communicate with any of the following people:

- senior management

- superiors and supervisors

- work peers

- other colleagues

- staff – subordinates and juniors

- dignitaries

- visitors and guests

- the general public.

To communicate effectively with such a variety of people, you need to be:

- able to express yourself clearly

- a good listener

- aware of what is going on

- supportive

- persuasive

- fair and open

- ready to communicate with anyone in your complex network.

The way you communicate depends to a large extent on the person you want to communicate with. According to Stewart (1992, p. 278–279) this process can be guided by asking the following questions:

- Who are they? You will communicate on a different level with a cabinet minister compared with one of the young people in your youth group.

- What cultural differences might there be? You will communicate more effectively if you are aware of their cultural assumptions and signals.

- What is their role? This will determine the content of your communication.

- Are they from your own organisation? This will mean that they use the same jargon that you are used to.

- How many different people are you communicating with simultaneously? This is a valid question to ask yourself in a meeting or when writing a report.

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Managing your communication

The five Ws apply here. These are:

Who .... am I communicating with?

Why .... am I communicating this?

Where .... am I communicating?

When .... am I communicating?

What .... do I intend to communicate?

Sensitivity is the key. These questions apply quite widely and will enable you as a manager to convey a clear and appropriate message and become a more effective listener.

According to Stewart (1992, p. 278) there is a sixth question, which is 'How?' How should I communicate? For example, do I write a memo or do I phone this message?

This is vital because how we say something is as important as what we say. This is the golden rule in community work, and you should keep it constantly in mind. Also keep in mind that actions speak louder than words.

Key elements

As we have seen, communicating means more than just talking. Here are some key elements of communication (Stewart, 1992, pp. 288–289):

Listening is communicating. Listening is one of the most important but most neglected communication tools. This is an important lesson for all managers. Simply by listening attentively to someone, you will give them a sense of self-worth and indicate that you think they are important. This will also help them clarify their own ideas. You might also find that by listening to another person, you have filled out and extended your own ideas.

Questioning is a sign of genuine listening and key to communicating well. Questioning should be aimed at opening up opportunities for developing the relationship. These could include reflection, analysis and the sending of positive messages.

Silence is communicating – it communicates the need for reflection. You and your staff need time and space to think. This will allow you the opportunity to reflect creatively and positively. It may also result in your staff renewing their energy and commitment to work. As a result, managerial intervention may become unnecessary – which reduces the pressure on you.

Talking establishes rapport. In what is sometimes termed a managerial 'walkabout', managers interact with personnel to get to know them as people, not only as employees. The aim is to see what they value and how they think and feel about aspects of everyday life – not just work. This is part of creating a culture of communication. It also allows for effective upward communication, where staff see that their views count. They are allowed to communicate what they know and air their problems. This also enables you to manage the grapevine effectively. When you give and receive information first-hand at various levels, it helps eliminate rumour and speculation caused by lack of communication or by miscommunication.

Body language and tone of voice also communicate. These can be positive, showing your interest and involvement, or can be negative, giving away what you really feel or think when you wish to disguise this. If you avoid the most offensive of these signals, you will improve your communication and manage more effectively.

Examples of body language that show you are listening include:

- eye contact (or a particular direction for where your eyes look that is appropriate to the culture of the person you are talking with)

- a nod of the head

- supportive noises

- not looking at your watch

- not shuffling with paper or doodling.

Language and words. Sometimes the words we use do not convey the message that we want to send. Language can trap us because of jargon and abbreviations, and sometimes we use too many words. This problem is worse when communicating across language barriers. If you are communicating across languages, be all the more careful, clear and precise. In the words of Confucius:

> "If language is not correct, then what is said is not what is meant."

> "If what is said is not what is meant, then what ought to be done remains undone."

Feedback is part of communication. It is as important in the communication process as words, language and non-verbal communication. It involves giving the other person the opportunity to respond, and showing that you have understood what they have said. The role of feedback is especially important when you communicate across language and cultural barriers. It is important to make sure the receiver of the communication gets the message you intend him or her to get.

Cultural differences affect communication. A person's cultural background impacts on the way they communicate. Cultural

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assumptions and verbal and non-verbal signals differ across cultures. For example, in Westernised societies maintaining eye contact is usually recommended as part of good communication, but in the culture of Australian Aboriginal people it is regarded as a sign of disrespect. This is also the case between men and women in some Islamic cultures. If you are not aware of the different cultural signals, a situation of misinterpretation and miscommunication may arise. You will learn more about culture and its role in communication in Module 10 *Conflict Resolution Strategies and Skills.*

These are some of the key elements of communication. The following activity gives you the opportunity to explore how they work in practice.

Activity 7.1

(about 1 hour)

In your workplace, observe three brief examples of communication in the course of one or two days. These should be communications you participate in.

Make brief notes in your learning journal on each of these exchanges, using the list of key elements above as a checklist as to how effective they were.

Evaluate each exchange in the following terms:

- Which of the elements in the checklist were evident?

- Which were lacking?

- How good were your communication skills and what might you do to improve them?

- How good were those of your fellow communicator?

- How effective was the communication? Why?

Share your findings with work colleagues (if appropriate), friends or fellow students in a tutorial session.

Important note: Remember to preserve confidentiality. Do not use the name of the person in your journal and do not include any sensitive material. You should also explain to each person the nature of this course and this activity and ask their permission before you use them as the focus of your observations.

Unfortunately, communication is not always a smooth and successful process. You may have discovered this in Activity 7.1! There are many barriers to communication. Let's look at some of them now.

Barriers

Barriers to communication affect everyone differently. The list we offer here aims to be inclusive. You will not find all of these things a problem – but others may. We suggest you work through the barriers, reflect on whether they affect you, and think about tactics to avoid each one. We have included activities to help you do this.

Language

You should convey your message in words the receiver will understand. For example, patients may not be able to understand the complex language of medical specialists because of the language they use (sometimes called the language 'register' or jargon). When a doctor communicates with her or his patient, the language should be understandable to the patient. Plain language is always worth striving for – it removes one of the most common communication barriers.

Activity 7.2

(about 5 minutes)

Think of one recent incident where this barrier occurred – either with you or in your presence – and write notes in your learning journal.

1   Describe the incident in two or three sentences.

2   Write down what practical steps could be taken to avoid this happening again.

Noise

Noise in the form of overwhelming sounds can make communication strained or impossible – if, for example, you are trying to facilitate a group of young people but construction workers are repairing the floor above you with noisy equipment.

Distractions

Distractions include any form of interference, such as a sound, that interferes with or detracts from the communication process. For example, if you communicate through a memo in your organisation but everyone receives lots of memos per day, this will interfere with the effectiveness of your communication. People may come to ignore memos altogether to try and get some work done. A fairly new medium, electronic mail or e-mail, is prone to have the same effect because people receive so many messages that are not important and waste their time.

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? **Self-help question 7.1**

(about 5 minutes)

What other distractions can create barriers to communication?

Compare your answers with those suggested at the end of the unit.

Whatever the distractions are, don't just put up with them. Take steps to improve the communication environment by reducing the distractions – or if you can't, reschedule your communication for another time or place. Also, if you find your colleagues are suffering from communication fatigue – too much information – choose to speak to them face to face, and find a relaxed, quiet time and place to do it in.

Too many steps

Do not form long chains in the communication process. This may result in the right message being sent but the wrong one being received. You can illustrate this by playing the 'telephone game'. With a group sitting in a circle, whisper a short message to the person on your left. S/he should whisper the message to the person on her or his left, and so on until it reaches the person on your right, who says it out aloud. Then the group can compare the two messages – the original and the final one – and draw their own conclusions about the risk of too many steps in the process.

? **Self-help question 7.2**

(about 2 minutes)

Suggest three strategies you could use to reduce the risk of too many steps in the communication chain.

1

2

3

Compare your answers with those suggested at the end of the unit.

Listening difficulties

Listening is a very special skill – and one that is under-used. Listening skills include:

- being attentive

- looking attentive

- feeding back what the other person says – through repetition or perhaps a question – to show you have heard and understood

- processing what the other person has communicated

- including the other person's views and ideas in your feedback.

Listening difficulties can also arise if the people you are communicating with have a lot on their minds. They may have too much work or information overload, or they may have had trouble at home, or be thinking about a sick child. These can all cause listening difficulties.

Activity 7.3

(about 15 minutes)

1   Ask a trusted friend, family member, work colleague or fellow student to evaluate your listening skills as you discuss a matter with them or someone else.

2   Get them to use the above checklist to assess your success at avoiding listening difficulties.

Discuss the results with them and note your discussion in your learning journal.

Lack of feedback

This is linked to listening. Communication is a two-way process and all parties must share an understanding of what is communicated. You can make sure of this by giving clear, consistent and regular feedback. If you don't, people will act on their own assumptions and understandings, with no common ground. Giving feedback will avoid this problem.

Distrust

If the receiver or the sender distrusts the credibility or sincerity of the other person, this could result in suspicion, which will undermine the communication process. The message will be heard but may be discounted or discredited.

Emotions

An emotionally charged situation usually distorts communication. What is communicated may get buried under strong but irrelevant feelings. This is why it so important a part of professionalism to

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restrain your emotions in work situations and remain calm, rational and polite at all times. Indifference, apathy, lack of concern and insensitivity are also emotions that impede the communication process. On the positive side, of course, if communications touch emotions such as enthusiasm, friendliness, concern and sympathy, excellent work may result.

Activity 7.4

(about 10 minutes)

In your workplace, identify an incident in which strong emotions or distrust obstructed the communication process.

Briefly describe it in your learning journal (remember to preserve confidentiality).

Suggest ways the incident could have been better handled to avoid the communication problems.

Culture

Everyone comes from a specific cultural and work background, with their own language, view of the world and set of experiences. The receiver of a communication might not have the same culture, language or work background as the sender. Communication between sender and receiver will be difficult unless each is sensitive to the other's culture.

Overcoming barriers

Here are some quick suggestions to overcome barriers to communication:

- Adjust to the world of the receiver. Fit your message to the receiver's vocabulary, interests and values.

- Give feedback. Check how much of the message the receiver has understood.

- Use face-to-face communication – you can better adapt the message to the receiver's reactions.

- Use reinforcement. Send the message in a number of different ways (oral and written) to get it across.

- Re-emphasise important points – and follow up.

- Use direct, simple language.

- Suit the actions to the word. Do what you say you are going to do.

- Streamline communication channels.

Communication barriers can create major problems for managers. The following case study gives you some idea of what can go wrong when communication channels are impeded – or dry up altogether.

Case Study 7.1

Frank Sanders and the Egyptian project

Frank Sanders was appointed the manager of Champion Construction's new project in Egypt. As a proven manager of many successful projects, he looked forward to his first assignment overseas. He called on the President of the company just before leaving for Cairo.

After ten minutes of personal chit-chat, the President said, 'We hope your project will be the first of many for us in Egypt and other countries in the Middle East. We need to develop a new set of policies and procedures, and we hope your experience will be a major asset. I have no doubt about your skill as a manager; we're pleased with how you have run your projects here. And I know you realise that you will have to adapt to this new situation. It won't take you long to discover cultural, legal and political differences. You know the old saying, "When in Rome..." Well, that's why I think we should consider that we are going into Egypt as a guest. They need our knowledge at this time, but none of us knows what the future will be.

'Frank, it will be up to you to develop rapport with the various political factions that might gain power in the future. You will be the only American on this project, so it will be important for you to learn as much as you can about how your employees think. I'm sure you can do this, but you will be in for many surprises. They may have a different view of "right and wrong". Your employees might expect you to be an all-knowing, paternalistic leader, or they might want to participate fully in decisions. You'll need to find out some answers for us. Can we promote the most capable workers regardless of their affiliations? Will they work for money, or do they value other things more? What about risk-taking? Do they expect things to be done by "custom and tradition", or will they welcome change that promises material rewards? Which of your actions will be well received by your employees, your suppliers and government officials? You are going to have to sort through all of this for us.'

Frank remembers leaving the President's office wondering where to turn. Earlier, he had bought a guidebook on Egypt and a phrase book, *The Traveller's Door to Arabic*. After talking with the President, Frank only had a week to make preparations for the trip to Cairo, but he continued to devote as much time as possible to learning Arabic phrases. On the trip he continued his studying.

Frank soon found that living and working in Egypt were very different from anything he had ever done. Just getting a place to live and setting up his office brought up one problem after another. Most

of the Egyptians working on the project spoke good to excellent English; but except when they were talking to Frank, they rarely used it. While Frank's few Arabic phrases were satisfactory for shopping, they were of little help in his work.

Frank could pick out a few words that his employees spoke in Arabic, but he was never sure of the meaning. Sometimes they would look over at him and smile. Frank began to think they were making fun of him. Frank's displeasure must have shown on his face, for on several occasions the conversation would stop. In fact, the smiles were just attempts to be friendly, but the employees did become uncomfortable as a result of the displeasure they sensed in Frank's reactions.

One month after arriving in Cairo, Frank Sanders was largely isolated from his employees. His contact was limited to formal discussions. He was unhappy and apprehensive. He had no idea how he was going to carry out the directives the President had given him just before he left for Egypt.

Adapted from Knapper and McAfee, 1982, pp. 254–256.

Activity 7.5

(about 30 minutes)

Read over the case study carefully and write answers to the following questions in your learning journal.

1   Which of the barriers to communication are illustrated by this case study? Make a list of them and explain each one.

2   Discuss how cultural differences hindered effective communication in Frank's case.

3   What steps could Frank's boss – the President – have taken to reduce the risk of these communication barriers arising for Frank in Egypt?

4   What steps could Frank himself have taken to reduce the barriers and improve communication

   a)   before he got to Egypt?

   b)   once he got to Egypt?

5   What managerial skills should Frank use to improve the situation?

This activity will be most useful to you if you use it as part of a discussion – either at a tutorial session, at your workplace or among your peers and fellow students.

Practical writing skills

So far in this section on communication we have discussed general guidelines and principles. Now it's time to examine the specific writing skills involved in effective communicating at work, some of the Do's and Don'ts for better writing.

Good writing guidelines

DO's	DON'Ts
DO explain technical terms you use.	DON'T use a long word where a short word will do.
DO use the person's name and the magic word: 'you'.	DON'T write in the third person if you can avoid it.
DO use charts, graphs and illustrations.	DON'T write long complicated sentences.
DO use the journalists' approach: ● Tell them what you are going to say ● Say it ● Tell them what you have said.	DON'T clutter up text with unnecessary information.
DO use short sentences and paragraphs.	DON'T produce lengthy documents or bulky reports that will not be read by busy colleagues.
DO try to keep letters and memos to a single page.	DON'T be over detailed and elaborate.

(Hannaway and Hunt, 1992.)

Types of written communication

Report writing

Report writing is an important way of recording or documenting the progress of the organisation, its staff and its projects. It's also used for accounting to stakeholders. A useful framework for report writing uses the following headings:

Terms of reference

This is the authority on which you are acting and the guidelines for the report.

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Procedure/s adopted

These could include interviews with various people, analysis of existing records, comparison with other organisations, etc.

Findings

These will form the main substance of the report – what you found out, what you make of this information and the explanation for it.

Conclusions

In this part of the report you summarise the information and round it up.

Recommendations

Your recommendations should be firm, and linked to the Conclusions. You could include a statement like this:

Based on the conclusions set out above, my recommendations are:

1   That . . . .

2   That . . . .

3   That . . . .

Business letters

Business letters must be accurately expressed, brief and to the point. No-one wants to waste time unscrambling long, confused written messages.

Here are brief guidelines for writing business letters:

- Write with your audience in mind and adjust your language to that audience.

- Keep your writing clear, simple and natural.

- Use short words, sentences and paragraphs.

- Keep the letter short – if possible, stick to one page.

- Space your writing for eye appeal – use attention-getting devices such as capitalisation, indenting, icons, etc.

- Avoid jargon and technical terms that may not be clear to your reader.

- Tell your reader the time frame for any action required.

- Remember the ABC of writing – Always Be Courteous.

Letters of complaint

- Make the complaint specific.

- Make sure your facts are correct.

- Mention the good as well as the bad points – show tact and balance.

- Express regret at having to complain. Explain that the complaint is too serious to be overlooked.

- Be specific about the action you expect.

- Ask for a speedy response to your complaint.

Replying to complaints

- Begin the letter with an expression of regret.

- Avoid the temptation to win an argument.

- Explain the circumstances that caused the trouble or difficulty, but avoid being overly defensive.

- Say that you hope the person complaining has not been unduly inconvenienced.

- Say exactly what you are going to do to set matters right.

- Say that every effort will be made to prevent a recurrence.

- End the letter with an expression of good will.

The following sample letter of complaint was taken from the internet at www.liverpool.gov.uk/Images/tcm 21-32176.pdf.

The owner   Mr A. Jones
A.N. Other Furniture   1 Every Road
Any Road   Anytown
Anytown

21 November 2006

Dear Sir/Madam

On 25 October, I bought a three-piece suite from you for £750 that is faulty. The problems are:

1   One of the arms of the settee is loose.

2   There are a number of nails sticking out of the chairs and the settee.

3   One of the cushions on the settee has flattened.

I complained about this to you the day after delivery and was told someone would call out. I have heard nothing since.

I wish to reject the goods and claim a replacement/ refund.

Please respond to my complaint within seven days.

Yours faithfully,

A. Jones

Activity 7.6

(about 10 minutes)

After reading the letter, assess its quality in terms of the six guidelines on letters of complaint. Answer the following questions in your learning journal.

1   Is the complaint specific?

2   Are the facts correct?

3   Have both good and bad points been mentioned?

4   Is the action expected specific?

5   Has a speedy response been requested?

Discuss your views with colleagues.

The next activity will help you to identify your writing skills strengths and weaknesses.

Activity 7.7

(about 10 minutes)

Answer the following questions in your learning journal:

1   Which of the practical writing skills covered in this unit (report writing, routine business letters, written complaints) are you especially good at?

2   Which skills need further development? (If you are not sure, discuss it with your work colleagues or supervisor.)

3   Are there any other writing skills you think you need to develop?

4   Choose the type of writing you believe you are weakest at and use the guidelines on effective writing to complete a brief sample report, business letter, letter of complaint or other business writing task.

Keep your notes from this activity. You may wish to use them in the assessment piece for this unit.

In a nutshell

To wind up this section on communication, we offer you the following quick guide to good communicating.

● Use face-to-face communication as often as possible, particularly if the message is difficult.

● If possible, reinforce oral with written communication.

● Ensure the message has been clearly understood. Ask for feedback. Consider the receiver's level of understanding and personality.

● Tailor the style of the message to suit him or her.

● Keep your message clear, brief and simple.

In this final section of Unit 7, we will look at how information and communications technology (ICT) needs to be managed in order to be applied as an important tool for change within an organisation. You will recall that change is inevitable, and therefore as a manager of a youth organisation you must equip yourself with all the tools for change management that we discussed in Unit 5. This part of the unit will also introduce you to the elements of a simple management information system.

Managing ICT

Information and communications technology (ICT) is a fast-changing field that requires constant updates. Access to ICT is one of the central issues often raised because of the unevenness of access between developing and developed countries. But even within individual countries, access to ICT is generally not even. In developing countries, for example, ICT access in major cities and towns may be as advanced as in the developed world, while the remote and rural areas of these countries often have very limited access. Decisions on the use of ICT by organisations always need to take stakeholders' access into consideration. ICT is an area with which we recommend you should keep yourself up to date through regular reading of recent articles from both print and electronic media, where possible.

In this section of the module we only provide a brief introduction to the subject as a reminder of the importance of ICT. We also aim to encourage you to consider applying the kinds of management thinking and skills that we have been discussing in this module to the use and management of ICT in organisations.

Keep in mind ICT's implications and benefits to managing change and ensuring participation in decision-making.

Unit 7

Definitions

ICT

ICT can be described as the range of technologies required for information processing and includes the use of electronic computers and computer software to convert, store, process, transmit and retrieve information from anywhere, anytime.

ICT increases the speed of communication, and at the same time allows us to access, retrieve and store information that is vital to the effective functioning of youth organisations or businesses. Communication through electronic mail (e-mail) and fax, for example, is much faster – often instantaneous – than sending letters by post. In essence, access to information helps us learn from other peoples' mistakes, gives us new ideas and insights that help us to effect changes in organisations, and enables us to organise information in a systematic way.

Additionally, ICT allows us to spend less on communication costs in the long term and enhances networking (for example, information-sharing) between and among organisations, regardless of their geographic locations. In this way, we can optimise the use of resources by learning what other organisations are doing, and in so doing avoid duplication and waste of resources.

ICT is crucial in supporting the voluntary sector's fundamental role in economic and social development. It is a necessary and integral aspect of various kinds of community and voluntary support, training, welfare, counselling, advice, in a wide range of fields: from education to planning, from arts to small business development, from health promotion to crime prevention.

Database management

A database is a collection of records or data that is stored in a computer and can be consulted to answer queries. A database management system (DBMS) is a software program (or programs) that enables you to store, modify and extract information from the database in several ways. Some examples of a DBMS are Oracle, Microsoft SQL Server and FileMaker.

A DBMS enables an organisation to change its information systems more easily as information requirements change.

Telecommunications

A telecommunications network is a system arranged to facilitate the movement of messages from one part of the network to another at a distance and via many links. This enables people to establish and maintain contact to support one another in their activities and to exchange information and share resources. Some examples of telecommunications networks that you are probably familiar with are:

- Computer networks

- The internet (and e-mail)

- Telephone networks (public and mobile)

- Telex networks

These networks can include voice (telephone) and data communications (including text and image), and can even include the active images of the people communicating. An important benefit of these networks is the opportunity they provide for people all over the world to communicate at a distance, share resources and ideas and collaborate. For example, they have made it easier and faster for us to get involved in international issue networks (such as Amnesty International or Greenpeace) without leaving our offices or homes. For those of us who are studying, the internet has made it easier and faster to do research.

Planning ICT use

Like all other resources of an organisation discussed in this module (for example, staff, finance and time), ICT resources require management: that is they require planning, directing and controlling. Data management through a management information system (MIS) helps us to protect data that is invaluable to the life of an organisation (for example, account balances, recorded history, and former and present membership records). This process has also been proven to be cost effective, because data can be re-used as often as necessary without incurring any additional costs.
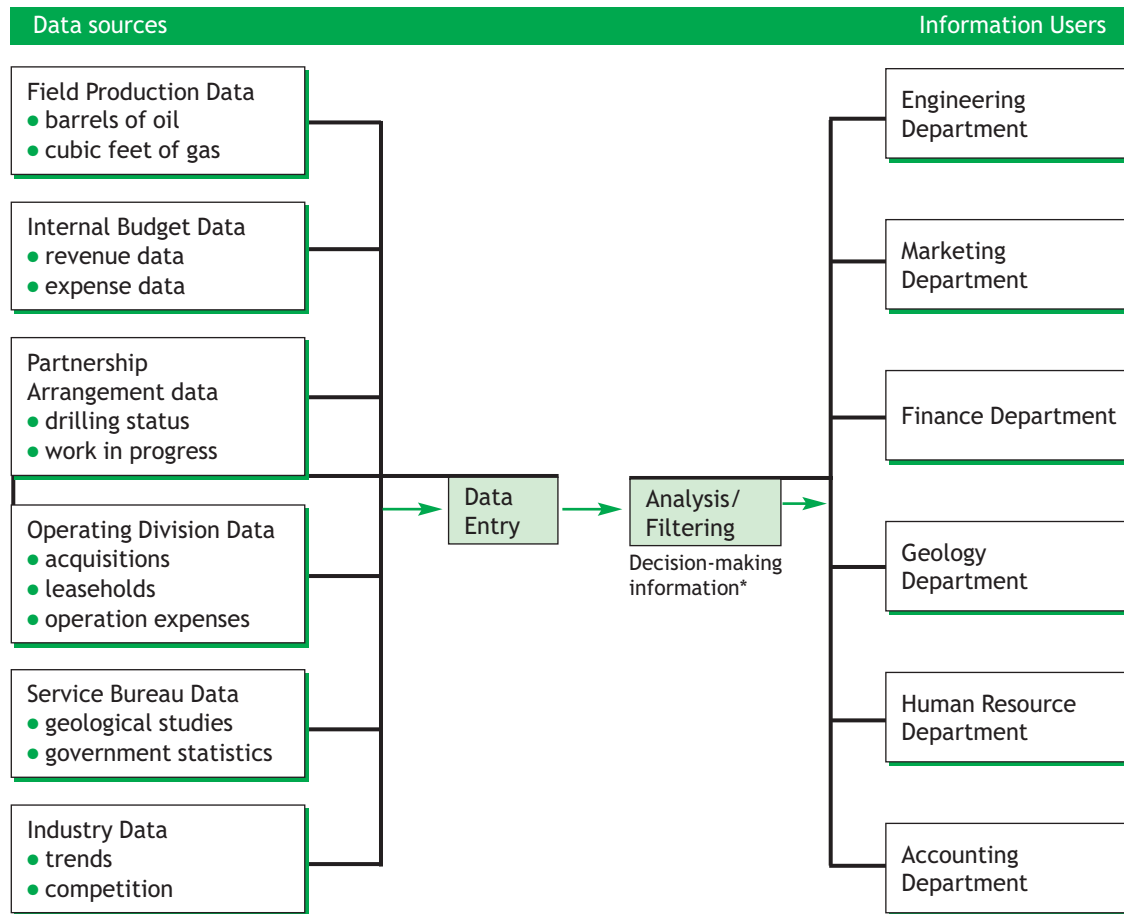
Below is Plunkett et al's (2005) definition of an MIS:

> "It is a formal collection of processes that provides managers with the quality of information they need to make decisions, solve problems, implement change and create effective and efficient working environments."

The quality information that managers require to make decisions comes from a variety of sources. An example of a source of information in an educational institution offering programmes like the Diploma in Youth Development Work is the students' registrations forms, which contain personal data such as gender, age and address; educational background data such as qualifications; and latest interest in improving these qualifications, that is, courses applying to register for. Technology is used to capture, store and process this data to produce information for decision-making on aspects like learner support that require knowledge of students' distribution, registered courses and other learner profile details. It is possible to produce such management reports manually but it takes time, while technology processes and produces different types of reports in record time.

A simplified diagram of an MIS provided below shows the different sources and users of information in an oil company.

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Domino Oil Company Management Information System

Data sources		Information Users

Field Production Data
- barrels of oil
- cubic feet of gas

Internal Budget Data
- revenue data
- expense data

Partnership Arrangement data
- drilling status
- work in progress

Operating Division Data
- acquisitions
- leaseholds
- operation expenses

Service Bureau Data
- geological studies
- government statistics

Industry Data
- trends
- competition

Data Entry → Analysis/ Filtering →

Decision-making information*

Engineering Department

Marketing Department

Finance Department

Geology Department

Human Resource Department

Accounting Department

Wainwright Martin et al (2004) emphasise that developing an MIS will depend on the role of information in the particular organisation. Obviously, it will be influenced by the organisational culture. Though specific to an oil company, the MIS above can be adapted to suit the needs of a youth development organisation. Activity 7.8 asks you to look at how this could be done.

Activity 7.8

(about 15 minutes)

In your learning journal:

1   Review the simplified MIS of an oil company provided above.

2   Change the data sources and information users of this MIS to suit youth development work, taking into consideration the culture and MIS use of your organisation or programme.

3   Give reasons for the changes you have made.

4   Identify the types of information that will be required by the different users in your organisation.

Discuss your MIS with colleagues or your tutor.

Important steps to follow in developing a MIS include:

1   Assessing the current use and management of your organisation's information resources

2   Establishing a plan for the future use of your organisation's information resources. This will include determining which data are required, and where and how they are to be used in your organisation, and making decisions about the most timely and highest quality source for each data element that is needed.

3   Managing the data resource. This includes:

- acquiring and maintaining data

- defining and describing each data entry and ensuring clarity and consistency

- organising data and ensuring that data can be retrieved easily

- protecting and securing the data

- accounting for the use of data – this is vital and avoids any possible abuse of data within an organisation

- recovering / restoring or upgrading data whenever necessary

- determining data to be retained by your organisation and disposing of any inactive databases

- ensuring that training and consultation are part of the management process to ensure effective use of data.

The activity below rounds off this section by asking you to examine which telecommunications networks you use and for what purposes in your organisation.

Unit 7

Activity 7.9

(about 15 minutes)

For each of the telecommunications networks listed below, describe in your learning journal:

1   the nature and status of your organisation's access – for example, whether your organisation makes use of the network and whether all staff have access

2   ways in which your organisation uses each network

3   the benefits your organisation has derived from using the networks, including how each has reduced barriers to communication within your organisation

4   if there is a kind of network you are not using, state the reason.

computer networks

the internet (and e-mail)

telephone networks (public and mobile)

telex networks.

Unit summary

Unit 7 has concentrated on two vital areas of management – communication and ICT. In the first part of this unit, you covered the following main points:

- the basic principles of communication

- the vital role that communication plays in managing an organisation

- the key communication skills a manager needs

- how to adapt your communication when dealing with different people

- key elements of communicating, including common barriers and practical writing skills.

In the second part of the unit, you covered:

- the management of ICT

- approaches to planning ICT use.

We have seen that communication can take many forms. This means you have to be flexible in the ways you communicate. You must also be sensitive to others' views and preferred communication styles – so there is much skill involved. We have also given you a brief overview of ICT and its use in organisations, and have provided some guidance that will help you manage ICT more effectively and efficiently.

To check how you have got on, look back at the learning outcomes for this unit and see if you can now do them. When you have done this, look through your learning journal to remind yourself of what you have learned and the ideas you have generated. The area many people find most challenging is written communication – so we include an assessment task that allows you to receive feedback on your writing skills. You will find it at the end of this unit.

This brings you to the end of Module 7 *Management Skills*. We hope you have found your study of this module useful and relevant to your work. Now turn to the Module Summary. There you will find details of the module assignment. This is a major assessment piece that you are required to complete and submit for assessment.

Unit 7

Answers to self-help questions

Self-help question 7.1

Obviously there are dozens of possible answers to this question. These suggestions will get you started.

Distractions that can cause barriers to communication include:

- interruptions
- visual distractions – such as a television being on in the room
- background music
- other people's conversations
- sudden or repeated movements – especially by people nearby
- the telephone.

Self-help question 7.2

1   Communicate important messages in person.

2   Use organisational communication channels like newsletters, routine meetings, internal mail or messenger systems that reach everyone directly.

3   Seek regular feedback on your communications to check whether the messages get through accurately.

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Unit 7

Assignment

First, a reminder that your work in this module will be assessed in the following ways:

1   Completion of the unit assessment tasks that you will carry out throughout this module (30 per cent). There are four assignments – at the end of Units 2, 4, 6 and 7 (i.e., the one below). All these assignments will add up to 30 per cent of the unit assessment. Your learning institution will indicate when and which of these tasks should be submitted for marking by your tutor.

2   The learning journal that you will keep for recording your responses to the different learning activities in each of the units (20 per cent). Your learning institution will inform you when to submit the learning journal for assessment.

3   A report of about 1,750 words. You will find full details at the end of the Module Summary (50 per cent).

Note: make sure you discuss the assessment requirements with your tutor so that you are clear about what you are expected to do and when, and any particular requirements in your institution.

Assignment 4

This task counts towards your final assessment on this module. This task and the tasks at the end of Units 2, 4 and 6 together add up to 30 per cent of your final mark.

Length: No more than 500 words.

Turn to the writing task you completed for Activity 7.7 in this unit. If you wish, you may use this piece of writing as the basis of this assessment task.

Your assessment task is to complete a short piece of business writing and submit it for assessment. It could be a brief report, a business letter, a memorandum, etc. You need to consult with your tutor who will decide on the specific form of the assignment.

Summary

Module summary

We are now at the end of this module. You should, as a result of working through the units, have developed certain knowledge, insight and skills that relate to the work of a youth development worker. All this should be a valuable knowledge and skills base to help you to perform competently in the neighbourhoods and localities in which you will be working with that very special community of people: young women and men.

This module has focused on the roles and tasks that you need to perform as a manager in a youth work organisation. It has shown you how to manage both your own work and the staff you are responsible for, and also given you guidelines on how to handle organisational development and change. Human resource management has been examined and you have also been introduced to some of the key management processes, including project planning, critical path analysis, budgeting and monitoring expenditure. Since good communication underpins all of good management, we have devoted a whole unit to helping you further develop those skills. This last unit has also covered ICT management.

Now that you have completed this module, you should be able to:

- demonstrate awareness and commitment to the management tasks that are important in the delivery of youth development work

- discuss key theories, approaches, styles and practices of management, in particular relating to the not-for-profit sector

- explore key areas for management, such as organisational change, staff development, monitoring of expenditure and budgetary control, project management and critical path analysis

- relate approaches to management to the principles and practice of youth development work to ensure that management styles are appropriate

- be aware of the distinct roles and organisational characteristics of NGOs and non-NGOs

- manage a discrete project from inception to completion within an agreed time-scale

- supervise and support a team of volunteer and/or paid staff

- work within the principles of financial accountability, including budgeting and financial management

- contribute effectively to job, organisational and personal development

- work collaboratively with other agencies.

Summary

We wish you success in your various assignments and in your work as a youth and community development worker. Best wishes also as you complete the other modules in this course.

Glossary

action-learning	A method of bringing about change that draws on the experiences and ideas of the people affected and helps them to diagnose their problems and find their own solutions.
administration	Procedures carried out on behalf of an organisation according to predetermined guidelines.
audial	By ear; listening.
cognitive style	The particular way an individual processes information.
communication	Conveying a message, orally, non-verbally, in writing or through the use of signs.
data base management system	Support software that we use to create, manage and protect our organisational data.
delegating	Giving responsibility to others.
effectiveness	Doing the right thing – i.e., setting the right goals and objectives and then making sure they are accomplished.
efficiency	Doing things the right way – i.e. getting the most from your resources.
figurehead	A person who stands as a symbol of authority.
formal authority	The power and authority invested in the head or boss of an organisation.
hardware	The physical pieces of a computer or telecommunications system, such as the central processing unit.
human resources	The people or staff in an organisation.
incremental planning	Short-term planning that is constantly revised and reshaped to take changing situations into account.
induction	A formal process of helping new staff to adjust to the organisation.
interpersonal orientation	The tendency to interact in certain ways with people; social behaviour.

information technology	The technology required for information processing; includes the use of electronic computers and computer software to convert, store, process, transmit and retrieve information.
job analysis	The process of determining the skills and knowledge required to do a specific job in an organisation.
management	The process of controlling money, people and physical resources in an organisation.
MIS	Management information system: a formal collection of processes that provides managers with the quality of information they need to make decisions, solve problems, implement change and create effective and efficient working environments.
Maslow	Abraham Maslow, an expert on child development, whose theory of the hierarchy of needs set out the essential needs that must be met at each stage of a person's life if an individual is to grow and develop.
NGOs	Non-governmental autonomous, private, non-profit organisations that organise development-related activities.
organising	The process of prescribing formal relationships among people and resources to accomplish goals.
performance appraisal	The formal evaluation of job performance.
recruitment	The process of attracting qualified and skilled individuals to apply for a specific job.
risk-averse	Unwilling to take independent action or take risks.
selection	The process of choosing from a group of applicants the one best suited for a specific job.
self-development	A process of personal growth.
software	The set of programs that control the operations of the computer system.
tactile	By touching; also referred to as kinaesthetic.
visual	By eye; seeing.
voluntarism	The practice of committing oneself to activities and functions without expecting monetary reward.

Further reading

The following list of books and texts is meant to support your learning throughout this module. We suggest you discuss with your tutor how and where to find some of these publications so that you can read widely from this list to enrich your understanding of the subject matter.

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Todaro, M.P (1997) *Economic Development,* 6th edition, Addison Wesley Longman Ltd., Harlow, UK.

Whetten, D.A. and Cameron, K.S. (1984) *Developing Management Skills*, Scott, Foresman and Company, Glenview, IL.

Assignments

A final reminder about the assessment requirements for this module. Your work in this module will be assessed in the following three ways:

1   Completion of the unit assessment tasks that you will carry out throughout this module (30 per cent). There are four assignments in this module; at the end of Units 2, 4, 6 and 7. All these assignments will add up to 30 per cent of the unit assessment. Your learning institution will indicate when and which of these tasks should be submitted for marking by your tutor.

2   The learning journal that you will keep for recording your responses to the different learning activities in each of the units (20 per cent). Your learning institution will inform you when to submit the learning journal for assessment.

3   A report of about 1,750 words. You will find full details below (50 per cent).

The institution in which you are enrolled for this Diploma programme may decide to replace part of these assignments with a written examination (worth 30 per cent of the final mark.)

Note: make sure you discuss the assessment requirements with your tutor so that you are clear about what you are expected to do and when, and any particular requirements in your institution.

Report

This assignment counts towards your final assessment in this module and is worth 50 per cent of the final mark. You should discuss with your tutor the exact requirement for your institution.

Length: 1,750 words.

For this assignment you need to choose a work situation in your organisation or one you are familiar with that demonstrates successful management strategies.

Prepare a report on this work situation explaining the different management strategies that are used to achieve success. Your report should include a plan of activities and a proposed budget.

The aim of your report should be to demonstrate your understanding of the management strategies that contribute to success in the organisation.

Note: If you are not familiar with a suitable work situation, you can use a case study as the basis of your report. Discuss this with your tutor.

Note: If you are not familiar with a suitable work situation, you can use a case study as the basis of your report. Discuss this with your tutor.

Readings

The readings in this section will help you develop your understanding of Module 7 Management Skills. The reading numbers, their titles and author(s) and the unit in which they appear are listed below.

Reading 1: Management theories

By the module authors

Management theories can be categorised broadly as 'classical', 'behavioural' and 'current'.

Classical theories

The classical school of management theory spans the period 1900 to the 1920s. Traditional or classical management theory was mainly directed towards improving the efficiency of organisations. Because money and other resources are usually in short supply in youth work, efficiency will be one of your main concerns. Classical theory included the study of 'bureaucratic', 'scientific' and 'administrative' management.

Bureaucratic management

Bureaucratic management theory describes organisational structures that are based on a rational set of structuring guidelines, with rules and procedures, a work hierarchy and a clear division of labour between managers and hierarchical levels of workers. Max Weber (1864–1920), who was one of the founding fathers of modern sociology, claims that bureaucracy is the most logical and rational structure for large organisations in advanced societies, and an inevitable development as societies industrialise and modernise, because they allow you to organise complex and extensive processes systematically and rationally. He says that bureaucracies should not be dominated by charismatic authority but rather by legal or rational authority– based on law, agreed formal procedures and written rules – which enables checks on all processes to take place. According to Weber, positional authority of a superior over a subordinate should stem from legal and technical competence, whereas charismatic authority tends to stem from the personal qualities of an individual. The problem with the latter is continuity: how are things to be maintained when a charismatic leader dies or moves on, and what happens if the charismatic leader lacks technical competence?

Think here of the differences of style among managers that you have experience of, including the managers in your present organisation. Think of those who run things by force of personality, and compare their effectiveness with those who are technically competent and manage by rules. Consider whether the size of the organisation favours one style over another. How bureaucratic do you think youth work should be? Why?

Readings

Scientific management

Scientific management utilised scientific investigation in the form of close observation and bio-mechanical, statistical analysis of working procedures, to find the 'one best way' to do work tasks. *Scientific Management* (by F.W. Taylor, 1856–1915) dealt with the role of workers in the working procedures in assembly line production. It divided work sharply between managers who could do the scientific analysis of the work tasks and workers who would be expected to do what the managers had specified on the basis of their analysis.

Work on the line was broken down into 'time and motion' patterns, where physical movements were analysed for their efficiency and accuracy. The analysis included rest and refreshment phases as well as work tasks, and these were all allocated norms of time for each movement and ideal amounts of work to be done at each phase. Targets were then set for the time allowed for each stage in the assembly process. The argument is that increased organisational productivity is a function of increased efficiency, and that the latter is concerned with creating jobs that reduce the use of time, human energy and other productive resources. Thus jobs were structured as series of controlled tasks, to be performed according to specific procedures and methods.

This ignored the processes of human interaction that are at the heart of all work organisation, and the method came under enormous criticism because of this. Nevertheless, time-limiting and target-setting are very much part of modern management systems. For example, in the British National Health Service, doctors and nurses in local practices are expected to work to an optimum notional several minutes each to interview a patient who is sick. Funding is given to the practice on that basis. Undoubtedly, as a manager of resources, it will benefit you to look systematically at what is being done in a project and work out the most efficient ways of working, if only to save human effort and avoid frustration.

Administrative management

Administrative management focuses on the flow of activity through an organisation. In particular it emphasises the flow of information in the operation of the organisation. Efficiency derives from rationalising this flow of activity and optimising the flows of information. You can easily see the value of this when you consider the dangers of organisations where managers do not know what is happening in another part of the organisation from their own.

Henri Fayol (1841–1925), a French engineer, created a model of how an organisation should be administratively managed. He saw the manager's role as crucial: the manager plans and organises the activity but then switches to a command position, co-ordinating all the various activities with one another and controlling the performance of the company at key points.

Fayol describes fourteen 'principles of management', by which he means organisational principles. The principles he felt to be most important are: specialisation of labour, which has the value of continually upgrading all skill levels; unity of command, where each employee has only one boss, which simplifies and clarifies roles; scalar chain of authority, which gives the organisation a military-style command structure from top to bottom; and authority and unity of direction, which means that managers have the right to issue orders and must be obeyed, so that the manager's plan always has priority.

Behavioural and human relations theories

The shift away from classical theory to the neoclassical human relations theory took place after almost a chance discovery at the Hawthorne Works in Chicago. During the studies of methods of work organisation designed to improve employee motivation and productivity that were conducted between 1924 and 1933, it was discovered that remarkable and even sustained improvements in motivation and production took place whenever attention was paid to the workforce as human beings. The theories that developed from this basis gradually uncovered an awareness of the extraordinary human potential that everyone has, and the realisation that the right human relationships in an organisation would release this capability. Consider the work situations that you have experience of: ask yourself what sort of relationships within and around the work situation most stimulate and motivate you to work. You can probably see how insight into this area of work organisation could well be of enormous value to your youth work.

By the early 1950s, research into human relations methods had shown that the behavioural approach did not always increase productivity, and that only in certain key areas was it highly effective: techniques based on studies of motivation and leadership now became critical to the management process. This research eventually generated the human resources model of organisational effectiveness, and this became widely recognised as a significant progression from human relations theory.

You will have learned from Module 1 *Commonwealth Values in Youth and Development* that human beings have considerable intellectual potential that is often suppressed by the social and educational system. The same thing has been found to be true in work. The human resources school posits that employees are immensely creative and potentially highly competent, and that much of their talent remains untapped by managers who may not have the insight or the skills to release these abilities. The human resources school discovered that above all employees want meaningful work; they want to contribute creatively and to participate in decision-making and leadership functions. This is obviously especially important to you as a youth leader. These theories have led to major changes of work practices and job enrichment programmes in, for example, the car industry.

Current theories

In many ways, the dynamics of the global market have upset many of what had become widely accepted as effective management practices, particularly in very successful American and Japanese companies. Firms that had been right at the top of their fields were suddenly forced to downsize and restructure. Some failed for no obvious reason. New firms began to spring up based on the internet, and small entrepreneurs suddenly become major players. This has led to radically new ideas in management theory, which may well throw light on ways that you may work with young people.

Basically, the three current theories on management are systems, contingency and chaos theory (this section is based on McNamara 1999).

1 Systems theory

Systems theory starts by looking at an organisation and asking "in what ways is this organisation a system?" A system is a collection of parts organised to accomplish an overall goal. If one part of the system is removed, the nature of the system is changed as well. For example, a functioning car is a system of organised parts. Remove the carburettor and you've no longer got a working car. A system consists of inputs, which go through a series of inter-connected processes or subsystems and are turned into outputs with outcomes.

In the case of the car, the main input is gas energy in the form of fuel; this is fed through a carburation sub-system into an engine sub-system, which converts it into mechanical energy in a propulsion sub-system and the output is movement of the car. Systems are characterised by feedback from each part of the system to the one before. If the feedback process is sensitive enough, the managers can quickly get a sense of where something is going wrong and put that right. Modern cars are particularly good at this with the use of electronic control systems.

Within an organisation, inputs would include resources such as raw materials, money and people. These inputs go through a planned, technical labour process where they are organised and controlled, ultimately to meet the organisation's goals. Outputs could be products or services to a market.

Effective management always has very good feedback systems in place, so that rapid changes can be made to any part of the system that is not functioning properly. Feedback might be via information sources at the level of the human resources carrying out the labour process, from inbuilt technical checking systems or from customers / clients using the output products. Feedback also comes from monitoring the larger environment served by the organisation and providing inputs into the system, such as state policy, the financial system, new technologies or the world market. This overall

conceptual framework can be applied to any organisation and any of its sub-organisations.

Systems theory helps managers to look at the organisation from a broad but precise perspective. Systems theory has created a powerful model by which managers can interpret patterns and events in the workplace. They can use it to analyse the various parts of the organisation, and, in particular, the interrelations of the parts, e.g., the coordination of central administration with its programmes. When you work with government agencies or large NGOs you may well find that thinking about these as systems and subsystems helps you get to grips with how best to work with them.

2 Contingency theory

Because so many favoured management systems have foundered in the new global marketplace (one thinks particularly of the recent collapse of so many internet businesses, for example), contingency theory has developed from behavioural theories to contend that there is no one best way of managing. A management style that is effective in one situation may not be at all effective in another. The manager's ability to manage is contingent or dependent on various situational factors, including her or his preferred management style and the capabilities and attitudes of the people being managed, as well as the context of the process.

Contingency theory posits that when managers make a leadership decision, they must take into account all aspects of the current situation and act on those aspects that are key to the situation at hand. If you are leading a difficult group, then you will have to judge the group atmosphere, how much power you've got and weigh those things against what is required by the project: it's a matter of finely balancing all the variables.

3 Chaos theory

This is the latest idea imported from science and technology into management theory. What chaos theory has discovered in the natural world is that underneath the apparent order and patterned structure of the world are huge, turbulent, chaotic energies. Structure and pattern eventually emerge from this chaos but are themselves always threatened by it.

That's easy to see in a Japanese city that lies on a tectonic plate boundary. But chaos theorists in the management arena also argue that organisations are potentially chaotic and can collapse unless management is prepared to work with the energies in the system. This may be observed in the successful adaptation and dramatic growth of post-modern giant corporations like Microsoft as compared with modernist dinosaurs like IBM. Managers in the old corporate structures have always acted on the basis that organisational events can be tightly controlled, whereas in organisations like Microsoft the emphasis is on adapting to the inevitable changes.

Readings

Chaos theory recognises that events are rarely controlled or controllable. Many chaos theorists (as do systems theorists) refer to biological systems when explaining their theory. They suggest that systems naturally develop towards more complexity, and as they do so, these systems become more unstable and must expend more energy to maintain that complexity. As they expend more energy, they seek new organisational structure to maintain their stability. This trend continues until the system often splits, combines with another complex system or falls apart entirely – what many see as the trend in life, in organisations and the world in general. This means expecting the unexpected and being prepared to adapt to it; planning and designing but not being absolutely tied to your plan; and being sensitive to the energies in the system and working with them.

Principles of management

Classical management theory is still a dominant force in management practice in spite of the advanced thinking of the modern and post-modern eras. It is still widely accepted that effective management ought to be based on Henri Fayol's fourteen principles of management, identified in Armstrong (1999, p. 10) as follows:

- division of work and specialisation

- authority to match responsibility

- discipline

- unity of command (one person, one boss)

- unity of direction

- subordination of individual interest to the general interest

- fair remuneration in relation to effort

- centralisation

- the scalar or hierarchical principle of line of authority

- the principle of order (place for everyone and everyone in his or her place)

- equity

- stability of tenure of personnel

- importance of initiative

- importance of esprit de corps (group harmony and cohesion that makes the members want the group to succeed).

References

Armstrong, M. (1999) *How to be an Even Better Manager: A Complete A-Z of Proven Techniques and Essential Skills*, Kogan Page Limited, London.

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Readings

Reading 2: Management and administration in the private and public sectors

by W. David Rees

A factor which is likely to have a major effect on the structure of an organisation is whether it is in the private or the public sector. The differing objectives of private and public sector organisations and the differing circumstances within which they have to operate necessitate different approaches. There may be ways in which each sector can improve by adopting some of the practices of the other, but there is a sound logic to many of the differences. Public sector bodies are democratically accountable, often have to meet a wide variety of statutory requirements, tend not to have clear quantifiable aims, and are usually very large. The largest employer in western Europe is, for example, the British National Health Service. Private sector organisations are often much smaller, with clearer, usually commercial, goals and often the need to encourage delegation of authority and risk-taking in a way that would be quite inappropriate in the public sector.

The differences between management and administration

One way of viewing the differences in approach in the private and public sectors is by distinguishing between management and administration. This has been done by a British civil servant associated with the Treasury Centre for Administrative Services. These differences are shown in the chart contained as an appendix to this chapter and are likely to apply in other countries as well. The emphasis with 'management' is on results and taking calculated risks, and with 'administration' it is on procedures, accountability and risk avoidance. The differences should not be seen as complete opposites but rather as the two ends of a continuum. There will be some organisations that operate in the middle of the continuum; with some it may even be difficult to classify them accurately as private or public sector – for example, the BBC. With the public sector there is also considerable variety. The nationalised industries were quite deliberately set up in Britain as public corporations with much more autonomy than Civil Service departments, to help them operate on a commercial basis. There is, of course, great variety within the private sector. Factors such as size, product variety and risk factors will influence private sector organisations. Some private sector organisations may have more characteristics in common with some public sector organisations than they do with other private sector organisations at the end of the continuum. Some companies may need to review their balance between a managerial and administrative approach just as much as public sector bodies.

Effectiveness in the public sector

The differences between private and public sector organisations are often necessary; however, there has been growing concern about the effectiveness of many public sector organisations. This had led to a considerable amount of continuing pressure for change. Whilst it is appropriate for managers in the public sector to acknowledge the parameters within which they have to work, it is also necessary for them to identify the likely changes. The Civil Service has often been under scrutiny, and the Conservative Governments, led by Mrs Thatcher, actually reduced its size in a drive to make it more cost-effective. There has also been a persistent attempt to make public sector organisations operate more with a managerial, as opposed to an administrative, approach. This is not an entirely new development. The Maud Report in 1967 was particularly critical of local government in Britain. Amongst the many criticisms were the absence of integrated policies, the rigidity of departmental boundaries and the lack of delegation. Recommendations included the need for clarification of objectives, a greater emphasis on management, assessment of results and the creation of a management board.

These criticisms and recommendations were reinforced by the Bains Report in 1972. In particular there was adverse comment about the myth of policy being a matter for elected members and administration for the officers. The recommendations included the need to have much more effort at identifying and clarifying policy, with councillors in particular being more involved in this and less involved in administrative detail. This in turn necessitated a far more corporate approach, increased delegation, more financial planning, a clearer management structure and performance review.

Although these attempts to change local government have been somewhat of an uphill task, the pressures have continued. Local authorities are being continuously squeezed into trying to make more effective use of their resources by their ever increasing commitments on the one hand, and increasing government control and restriction of their spending on the other hand, including the use of rate-capping. The problems that can be created by the resulting imbalance between the demand for services and the availability of resources are explained later in this chapter. This is in the section showing the similarity between some of the problems experienced in the Health Service and local government. Other pressures include the trend towards competitive tendering, particularly in Conservative-controlled local authorities, and the requirements that direct labour organisations to compete on the open market with private firms for building contracts with their own Council.

Other public sector changes

Elsewhere in the public sector there has also been pressure for greater cost-effectiveness – even if private sector practices haven't always

provided the answers. The Health Service was reorganised following the Griffiths Report of 1983. General managers were introduced into hospitals and decision-making now rests with them instead of the former teams, which were supposed to arrive at a consensus before taking any decisions. Additionally, the whole tier of area level administration in the Health Service was removed, and in local government the Metropolitan Councils and the Greater London Council were abolished. Organisations formerly in the public sector, such as British Telecommunications, British Airways, the gas industry, the British Airports Authority and Rolls-Royce, have been sold off and the pressures on any remaining public corporations to pay their way are going to remain.

The problem Britain and other countries face is one of rising expectations and demands on the public sector combined with slow economic growth. This inevitably causes a search for cost-effectiveness regardless of the political complexion of any particular Government. It also creates more need for the systematic identification of priorities. This became particularly apparent in the Health Service as it became obvious that the 'open-ended commitment' to meeting the medical needs of the nation could not be sustained. Advances in medical knowledge and the 'ageing' of the population meant that there were clearly not the resources to do everything. The consensus model of decision-making, previously explained, tended to preserve the status quo and also led to an uncoordinated, and at times haphazard, response to resource allocation. The Griffiths structure within the hospital service at least gives general managers the authority to take decisions about resource allocation. This structure is also operating within the context of national policies designed to identity medical priorities and redistribute resources on a geographical basis.

Similar problems are evident in local government. Some councils are committed to, or are expected to, provide more in the way of services than they have the resources to provide. If the issue of imbalance is not recognised and dealt with at a policy level by the councillors' policy decisions get pushed down to the officers who have the dilemma of deciding which needs to meet and which not to. The devices that can be used in this situation, as with the Health Service, include rationing, queuing, the temporary or permanent withdrawal of selected services and reductions in quality. Considerable stress can be placed on those having to take and implement these decisions, which may be aggravated by an imperfect understanding of what has caused this stress. This pattern of imbalance between the demands placed on a service and the resources provided to meet it is likely to occur throughout the public sector.

Bureaucracy in the private sector

The attempts to increase the cost-effectiveness of organisations and to reduce any bureaucratic waste are not of course confined to the public sector. Many private sector companies find that this is a

chronic issue they have to deal with. There seems to be an increasing willingness in the private sector to query the value of large head offices.

Successful private companies that have fairly determinedly avoided having large head offices and have opted for a decentralised structure include GEC, Plessey and the Bass Group. Decentralisation is not a panacea, but the point that is continuously emphasised by market competition is that if private companies spawn unproductive bureaucracies their future is at risk even more than public sector organisations. Underlying all this in the public and private sectors in Britain and elsewhere is the fact that limited economic growth is bound to be a continuing pressure for the more effective use of organisational resources.

Conclusion

The basic theme of this chapter has been that there is no one way of designing an organisation. Organisational structures are means to ends and not ends in themselves. The structure that may be ideal in one situation can be disastrous in another. The individual manager needs to examine the fit between what is appropriate in terms of organisational design and operation and what actually exists. He also needs to do what he can to make the fit as close as possible. Hopefully the organisation structure will be in line with the objectives that are being pursued and the manager can go on to the next issue which is whether his own style is appropriate. Just as with organisational structure, there is no one pattern that will always guarantee success.

The different characteristics of administration and management

	Administration	Management
Objectives	Stated in general terms and reviewed or changed infrequently.	Stated as broad strategic aims supported by more detailed short-term goals and targets reviewed.
Success criteria	Mistake-avoiding. Performance rarely measured.	Success-seeking. Performance mostly measured.
Resource use	Secondary task.	Primary task.
Decision-making	Has to make few decisions but affecting many and can take time over it.	Has to take many decisions affecting few and has to make them quickly.
Structures	Roles defined in terms of areas of responsibility.	Roles defined in terms of decision-making, information-handling and formal authority.
Roles	Arbitration.	Protagonist.

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	Administration	Management
Attitudes	Passive: workload determined outside the system. Best people used to solve problems. Time-sensitive. Risk-avoiding. Emphasis on procedure. Doing things right. Conformity. Uniformity.	Active: seeking to influence the environment. Best people used to find and exploit opportunities. Time sensitive. Risk-accepting but also risk-minimising. Emphasis on results. Doing the right things. Local experiments: need conformity to be proved. Independence.
Skills	Legal or quasi-legal. Literacy (reports, notes).	Economic or socio-economic. Numeracy (statistics, figures)

Reading 3: Non-governmental organisations as agents of development

by Sybert Liebenberg

Introduction

It is generally accepted that non-governmental organisations (NGOs) have become very important and permanent institutions in the implementation of development programmes and projects. It is therefore important that every student of the development process should clearly understand the nature of NGOs and the way in which they function. In order to facilitate such an understanding, this unit will focus on the definition, classification and functioning of NGOs, as well as their weaknesses and strengths.

Defining NGOs

Based on the vast expanse of literature that has tried to explain what constitutes non-governmental organisations, Kane (1990:14) argues that the concept may vary from *"charity in the noble and/or religious sense of the term, to political associations, and ... local and popular development initiatives",* which makes a definition extremely difficult. (Also see Clark 1990, Nerfin 1991 and Merrington 1992.)

The problematic nature of NGOs, and therefore the difficulty in finding a definition for them, is illustrated by Salem and Eaves (1989), who declare that *"until 1983, there was no (World) Bank statement which clearly and comprehensively defined NGOs".* Despite their problematic nature, Kane (1990:14–15) identifies three criteria that could assist in their definition.

Kane's three criteria for the definition of an NGO

1   It should be privately set up (as opposed to being set up by the state) and structured and sufficiently autonomous in its activity and financing. This, above all, is what ensures its non-governmental character.

2   It should be a non-profit-making institution to ensure its 'voluntary' or 'benevolent' character.

3   It should support development. This is what ensures its 'public interest' character, even if governments have introduced legislation to limit the areas in which 'public interest' can be exercised.

In accordance with the first criterion identified by Kane, Padron (1987:71) argues that one of the central characteristics of NGOs is the fact that they are *"not part of a government and ... have not been established as a result of an agreement between governments."*

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Kane's second criterion, namely the non-profit dimension of NGOs, is also supported by the Development Bank of Southern Africa, which states that NGOs should be *"non-profit seeking"*, in that any surpluses generated during the courses of activities are utilised to further the development aims and objectives of the organisation. (McLachlan 1991 :1). The emphasis on non-profitability is also stressed by Erasmus, who defines NGOs in terms of being non-profitable organisations that seek to *"amass financial and/or technical/scientific resources to meet socially identified needs"* (1992:13).

In essence, then, NGOs can be defined as autonomous, privately set up, non-profit-making institutions that support, manage or facilitate development action.

Classification of NGOs

Another method of understanding the nature of NGOs is to analyse the various categories into which NGOs can be classified. In this regard they can be classified along the following broad lines:

- their evolutionary stage

- their organisational type

- their functional nature

- their geographical classification

- their membership.

Evolutionary classification

In terms of the evolutionary classification of NGOs, Korten (1990:115–24) argues that they must proceed through an evolutionary process that is characterised by four generations or stages. These four generations are: relief and welfare, small-scale, self-reliant, local development, sustainable systems development and public conscientisation (see text box). By stating that NGOs must go through a process of evolution, Korten is arguing that, as organisations, NGOs will have to adapt themselves to their environment and the needs which they are trying to address. In other words, as soon as a particular need that the NGO is addressing is satisfied, the NGO will change its character and function in order to address the new demands that develop out of its environment. In order for NGOs to survive, they must be able to adapt themselves to the way in which the needs of the people they serve change.

In terms of Korten's evolutionary classification, he has identified the following stages of evolution through which NGOs can evolve:

- First generation: Relief and welfare organisations are organisations that tend to be defined in terms of their primary commitment to relief and welfare.

- Second generation: Small-scale self-reliant local development organisations are organisations that satisfy the basic needs of a community by utilising local resources.

- Third generation: Sustainable systems development organisations are organisations that seek to maximise decision-making power and control by the local population of the macro-processes that concern themselves, by focusing on sustainable systems development.

- Fourth generation: Public conscientisation organisations aim to raise public awareness and change policies through development education.

(Korten 1990:115–24.)

By stating that these are evolutionary in nature, Korten is arguing that the specific needs which each of these generations tries to address become void as a result of the nature of evolution. In other words, as the organisation develops, the functions that it performs at the particular state of evolution in which it finds itself become void as it starts to perform the functions that are required of it in the next evolutionary stage. Thomas (1992) states that it is important to realise that, although Korten argues that these generations follow each other, this might not be the case in practice. He argues that it would rather be the programmes of the organisation that could be divided into the various generations, and not the organisational design of a particular NGO. An NGO might be able to implement a combination of all four of the categories at any one time. An NGO might, for example, be busy with a feeding scheme, which can be classified as a first-generation type of activity, while it is simultaneously implementing a public awareness campaign, which could be defined as a fourth-generation development activity.

Organisational classification

In terms of the organisational classification of NGOs, Korten states that NGOs can embrace any one of the following four organisational types:

- voluntary organisations
- public service contractors
- people's organisations
- governmental and non-governmental organisations

(Korten 1990:2)

Voluntary organisations in this regard pursue a social mission in terms of a commitment to shared values, while public service contractors function as non-profit organisations that serve public purposes. People's organisations, in turn, represent the interests of self-reliant social groupings (Jeppe 1992a:2). Within the context of organisational classification, Jeppe also distinguishes what he terms service delivery organisations, which aim at providing a developmental service to a specific community. He also refers to these organisations as 'Non-governmental Development Organisations' (Jeppe 1992a:23).

It could be argued that the organisational traits of each of these categories are not mutually exclusive but representative of all the organisational needs and functions of any development organisation. This is illustrated by the fact that development organisations must pursue a social mission in terms of a commitment to shared values. This is done while serving public purposes which represent the interest of self-reliant social groupings, within the broader context of a national governmental development policy framework. In other words, these categories do not represent separate organisational structures, but essential components of a development organisation's design.

Functional classification

The same arguments can be put forward with regard to the functional classification of NGOs. Cross (1994:10) identifies two main categories, namely political and goal-oriented NGOs. Political NGOs are politically aligned and function according to a political agenda, while goal-oriented NGOs are functionally aligned with the interests of a specific group. This makes them very goal-oriented, in that goals tend to take precedence over other processes and procedures (Cross 1994:10).

Carroll (1992:13) identifies three main functional clusters of NGOs. They are 'productive and income-generating activities, social services, and networking'.

> **Functional categories**
>
> Jeppe (1992b:9 and 10) and Bowden (1990:141) identify the following functional categories:
>
> - Specialised NGOs. These organisations engage in human and physical development activities by focusing on technical training, adult literacy, housing, agriculture, etc.
>
> - Welfare NGOs. These organisations focus on relief and welfare actions.
>
> - Developmental NGOs. The primary focus of these organisations is on human development (capacity building) and the development of physical infrastructure.
>
> - Advocacy NGOs. These NGOs provide communities and individuals with specialised facilitation or consultation services.

As is the case with the organisational categorisation of NGOs, it is apparent that the functional categories are also not mutually exclusive in terms of a holistic development approach. In other words, an NGO must fulfil all the functions that are stated as functional categories within the parameters of its own structure to respond to the multidimensional nature of not only the development process, but also the functioning of NGOs.

Geographical classification

In terms of a geographical classification, NGOs can be divided into the categories shown in the text box.

> **International NGOs.** These organisations are based in the northern hemisphere, although they may have offices in the Third World, and provide development assistance throughout the Third World, through financial and personnel aid.
>
> **Regional NGOs**. The activities of regional NGOs are restricted to a particular region, and provide more or less the same kinds of development assistance as international NGOs.
>
> **National NGOs**. National NGOs restrict their development actions to a particular nation or state.
>
> **Local NGOs.** These NGOs function at community level.

Membership classification

Thomas (1992) argues that NGOs can also be classified according to their membership profile. In this regard, some NGOs may be set up to benefit their own members. Examples of such organisations include co-operatives, savings clubs and unions. Other organisations may be set up for general public benefit. These organisations might include charities and campaigning organisations (Thomas 1992:122). Community-based organisations (CBOs) – which are sometimes also called local or indigenous organisations – are also exponents of this

category of classification. CBOs are NGOs which have arisen autonomously in communities, and which aim to bring about self-reliant development (Meintjies 1994:13).

Functioning of NGOs

Before proceeding to a discussion of the specific aspects regarding the functioning of NGOs, it is necessary to construct a general overview of the backdrop to the dynamics involved in the processes of NGO-related development.

Padron (1987:71) states that the context within which NGOs function, is made up of four interrelated dimensions. They are:

- the popular sector and the historical context

- institutional relationships of the NGO

- the internal dynamics of the NGO, and

- the project itself.

In terms of its functionality, Padron (1987:71–2) argues that the NGO:

> "... exists by establishing a working relationship with the popular sector, which also functions within a historical context. The historical context is of importance as it defines the specific nature of the given social reality within which both the NGO and the popular sector/community function."

It is important to note that, in terms of participation, communities are able to express their own conception of what development entails:

> "... in terms of participation in their own societies and expression of what development means for them, in their understanding of participation, and the way they define their role in the development process"

(Padron 1987:72).

The NGO is not only engaged in a relationship with the popular sector but also with the institutional sector. In terms of this relationship, NGOs engage in a mutually beneficial relationship with other agents of change which are active in the same area (Padron 1987:72). NGOs are not only influenced by the popular and the institutional sectors, but also by their own internal dynamics, institutional development and characteristics. All the abovementioned dynamics determine the way in which NGO projects are to be implemented (Padron 1987:72). The interrelated nature of this process, as illustrated by Padron (1987), is supported by Salem and Eaves' (1989:3) analysis of the project cycle. According to them, a typical NGO project cycle consists of the following phases:

- analysis identification

- project design

- project financing

- project implementation, and

- monitoring and evaluation.

The interrelated nature of the process is illustrated by the fact that none of these phases could take place outside a process of interaction with the four mentioned dimensions. In other words, each aspect of the respective project phases is related in some way to the given four dimensions. This assumption is supported by Merrington (1992). Merrington (1992:10) states that an NGO has as its function the transformation of resources which it receives from society, into programmes, projects, products and services for a particular target group of people. In essence, then, the NGO is dependent on and part of the society at both community and all other levels of abstract society (Merrington 1992:11). Merrington (1992) argues that for an NGO to function efficiently it must possess a well-trained and motivated staff. Secondly, it needs an organisational structure that is appropriate in design to the task that it seeks to accomplish. Finally Merrington (1992:11) argues that the 'vision' of the NGO must be accepted by all the important stakeholders in a given community.

It could be argued that, when all these dimensions are recognised in terms of a holistic view, it leads to a definition of the role of an NGO beyond the mere implementation of concrete development projects (Padron 1987:73). In order to give a more detailed perspective of the NGO as an agent of development, it is necessary to analyse the functions of an NGO in terms of the process of development.

Within the context of a more detailed analysis it has become clear that an NGO serves as a catalyst for the implementation of the development process. This is on account of the fact that the development process seldom begins spontaneously and as a result it has to be initiated by leadership with an external vision (Burkey 1993:60). The primary objective of development is to initiate a process of "awareness building, of education, of people forming their own organisations to define and create a demand for what they need to lead a decent life" (Bhasin 1991 :8).

Erasmus (1992:17–18) argues that there are a number of reasons why most communities are unable to initiate such a development process by themselves. The first is the fact that most of these communities lack the necessary resources that are required for the initiation and maintenance of development efforts. Secondly, most of these communities also do not have organisational structures that are able to cope with initiatives that do emerge from the community and, finally, because of various historical factors, most of these communities are trapped in a dependency relationship which hampers spontaneous development activities.

The fact that the NGO has to function as a catalyst of the development process does not give such an organisation the mandate to control and manipulate this process, especially in terms of the

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primary importance of participation, empowerment and sustainability. It is very important to note that the role of development catalyst that is fulfilled by an NGO is a temporary one (Brown and Korten 1989:11). For an NGO to perform an effective catalyst role, it has to maintain *"substantial independence in defining and interpreting its own mission"* so that it does not fall captive to powerholders and their agenda (Brown and Korten 1989:12). The catalysing functions of an NGO should aim at producing participation, empowerment and sustainability in terms of the development process.

The fact that the catalyst function of an NGO should be temporary and aimed at enhancing participation supports the notion that NGOs are functional in strengthening civil society (Shaw 1990:14). NGOs can also function as expressions of a given civil society's capacity for free organisation that is not controlled by or localised as expressions or mechanisms of political or economic domination (Frantz 1987:122–3). By functioning as instruments that facilitate the creation of civil society, NGOs are enabling communities to 'articulate' their development needs, and develop their own strategies based on these articulated needs (Drabeck 1987). The fact that the functioning of NGOs is instrumental in the creation of civil society and participation, implies that in terms of the interrelated nature of the development process, NGOs should also function as agents of empowerment. In addition to these arguments, Erasmus (1992:15) supports this notion when he states that:

> ".... participation in development through a process of empowerment, and any evaluation of NGOs must revolve around the extent to which NGOs succeed in empowering people at grassroots level."

This position is also supported by Elliot (1987:57) when he argues that empowerment is not something that can be delivered or bought, but that it is a process which depends on people more than physical resources.

Participation thus leads to empowerment and empowerment results in the ability of a social grouping to evaluate its situation and make decisions that could alter that specific situation. Padron states that the use of a model of evaluation which involves the *"measuring of actual performance against preset objectives is of little use by itself. Instead a model of evaluation should include the measurement of overall organisational effectiveness as compared to final programme impact in terms of variables such as morale, participation, leadership, power equations and social values"* (1987:164). It can be argued that one of the main aims of evaluation is to ensure that development actions will result in sustainability. It becomes apparent that all the given components of the development process are interrelated. Any NGO effort aimed at development should keep this situation in mind and formulate an appropriate holistic participatory strategy to address the challenges of the development process.

Weaknesses of NGOs

From what has been discussed thus far, it appears that NGOs are very well suited as instruments that facilitate the process of development. In spite of this apparent endowment it is important to note that there are certain limitations that can inhibit the effective functioning of NGOs.

Merrington (1992:16) summarises the limitations of NGOs as follows:

- inadequate planning, organisation and management

- inadequate staff training

- inability to replicate projects and ensure sustainability

- inability to effectively collaborate at appropriate levels with government services

- a lack of coordination of the efforts of individual NGOs to ensure an effective macro level spread of development.

In addition to this, Clark (1990:57) also states that too little attention is given to leadership and management training. This situation is aggravated by the fact that leadership in NGOs tends to be charismatic, and once such a leader disappears from the scene there is nobody to take his/her place, thus creating a leadership vacuum. The lack of leadership and relevant management skills may also have a negative effect on the capacity of the NGO to perform complex projects or tasks. This inability may, in turn, increase the inability of the NGO to be able to 'scale up' successful projects and replicate them on a regional or national scale (Brown and Korten 1989:16). The implication of this is that most NGOs are unable to provide routine services to large populations on a sustainable basis.

Another serious problem is their inability to learn from the mistakes that other NGOs make. This is due to the high level of isolation and rivalry that exists among NGOs, which hampers the process of social learning (Clark 1990:60). One of the advantages of NGOs is that they are very specific in terms of their actions and the needs of communities that they serve. But because they are so specific in their actions, they sometimes tend to ignore the larger context in which they operate, and the other agencies and forces that also function in the same system. This makes it almost impossible to implement truly integrated development actions which would benefit from the economy of scale.

Strengths of NGOs

Some of the strengths of NGOs include the following:

- Because they are able to facilitate a relatively high degree of community participation, they can accurately identity the specific needs of a community (Cernea 1988:17). In other words, NGOs can more effectively identify community needs because they are

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closer to the community than government structures. This is because the members of the NGO may live in the community or even belong to the community which they serve.

- Because they are functioning at community level, or have been created as a result of a community initiative, they tend to enjoy more legitimacy in the communities which they serve. This is because communities might feel that such initiatives are their own, and effectively address their own needs and interests. The project therefore becomes the property of the community, and because the community sees the project as its own, its members are more likely to support it.

- The high degree of community participation creates a conducive environment in which local knowledge and technology can be utilised and adapted to local development needs. This high degree of participation allows communities to apply knowledge and technologies which they have developed themselves to suit their own situation.

- Because of their structure, which is not characterised by the same bureaucratic nature as that of governments, they are very flexible and adaptive to local conditions and changes in the environment (Paulton and Harris 1988:184). This means that they can respond faster to situations and that their running costs are lower because of their smaller organisational size, supported by its voluntary character.

The relationship between NGOs and government

According to Thomas (1992) NGOs are likely to relate to the state in one of three ways, as shown in the text box.

- Complementing the state. This entails that an NGO participates with the state in providing services which the state would otherwise not be able to provide. The NGO therefore becomes an instrument of government policy implementation.

- Opposing the state. An NGO can oppose the state directly or through various pressure groups in an effort to engage government with regard to its policies which the NGO and the community might feel are adversely affecting them (Thomas 1992:140).

- Reforming the state. NGOs can represent interest groups that are working at grassroots level and negotiate with government to improve government policies.

It could be argued that if a government is not able to provide all the services required in the fields of welfare, development, local government and economic growth, it should utilise NGOs to fulfil these functions. NGOs therefore have a very important role to play as partners of government in the development process.

Because NGOs could play such an important role in the government development delivery systems, most governments would like to monitor the functioning of NGOs closely. This creates a conflict between NGOs and the state, since NGOs might interpret such actions as interference on the part of government in their actions. The fact that the NGOs do play a very important role in development does not mean that the government should just abandon its development role, and pour huge amounts of money into the NGO sector and leave the responsibility of development to NGOs. NGOs cannot function like government and government cannot function like NGOs. It is therefore important that they complement and assist each other in the process of development.

Conclusion

In conclusion it could be stated that NGOs can and must play a very important role in the functional implementation of human development. It is also clear that NGOs should try and broaden their scope in terms of their implementing functions, in order to complement the holistic nature of development. It has also become clear that although on the one hand government wants to control the functioning of NGOs, on the other hand it needs NGOs to function as agents of civil society in order to produce effective results. Both government and the NGO sector are therefore locked in a Catch-22 situation, since such a relationship would drastically change the manner in which each perceives its own role and function. It could be argued that for NGOs to remain relevant in the development sector, and especially in terms of functional implementation, they should utilise their unique characteristics (as discussed in this unit) with the context of local development actions. NGOs should evaluate their environments to see which functions government cannot perform as effectively as it should, and serve as an alternative in the provision of these services.

From this it becomes clear that NGOs, as institutions that promote development, consist of a wide spectrum of functional, geographic, membership, evolutionary and organisational groupings, which makes it hard to develop a uniform definition. In spite of this, NGOs still manage to function as relatively effective agents of development in areas where government is not so effective. NGOs in general therefore have a very important role to play in the process of development. But in spite of the importance ascribed to NGOs, it is also apparent that they do have certain functional limitations, which could be addressed by government. There is therefore enough manoeuvring space and a need for both NGOs and government in the field of development.

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Reading 4: The development role of non-governmental organisations: the South African paradigm

By John E. Allwood

Introduction

Any discussion of the past, present or future role of non-governmental organisations (NGOs) within the South African context has to take place against the backdrop of apartheid and the current political and constitutional debates. The environment within which NGOs have been functioning has been one dominated by the society's preoccupation with apartheid. The immediate future environment is one determined by the aftermath of the apartheid dominated order; the longer term will be deeply affected by the way our society repairs past damage caused to our human psyche, attends to our infrastructure, organises our economy and negotiates the distribution of power.

The character, objectives and modus operandi of NGOs functioning in South Africa, particularly during the last two decades, have been determined more by the political conditions prevailing in the country than by basic human needs. Organisations were constantly called to account for their stand on political issues and issues of justice. They were assessed more by their socio-political positioning than by their developmental functionality. Legitimacy was credited or denied by government, progressive or conservative organisations, depending on the organisation's public political positioning. Any suggestion that an organisation may conduct an economic welfare function non-politically was emphatically rejected. Unless the NGO could demonstrate that it was actively involved in the struggle for a new, just and democratic society, its right to survive through funding or popular support was questioned. In fact many NGOs' most lucrative fundraising and promotion occurred off an anti-apartheid base. The determinant for recognition became a matter of how strongly the organisation resisted apartheid, more than how well it served the welfare cause and objectives.

Association with the government of the day is problematic. Most popular NGOs would regard support from the South African government as equivalent to promoting apartheid. The government on the other hand found the political activities of the NGOs threatening and placed a series of restrictions on the registration and activities of NGOs to curtail their advocacy activities. Definitions of welfare through community development, appropriate empowerment and political activism became embroiled in rhetoric and hidden agendas, while the struggle for the control of the politically sensitive aid business continued.

The result of this scenario was that NGOs in South Africa became highly politicised and operationally astute, both to survive and to continue to attack causes of poverty, rather than provide band-aid assistance for the symptoms. Apartheid in all its various forms of structural and racial oppression was regarded as the prime cause of poverty. Poverty therefore could only be effectively dealt with by removing the prime cause.

Anything less was seen to be supporting the status quo and by definition, against the cause of a just revolution towards a new democratic order. It was argued that to achieve successful development required a new political and economic order.

It is clear then that the function of NGOs in South Africa and the role that they have played, is somewhat different to the function and positioning of NGOs in other parts of Africa. In this country, there has been a major focus on changing the political and economic structure through aid. A major emphasis has been on the politicisation and conscientisation of people groups and an a priori assumption was made that, unless the aid and consequent activities were aimed at structural change in society (or at least moved communities in that direction) the NGO would be suspected of enhancing the cause of oppression. Little middle ground was tolerated. An organisation was considered to be *for* or *against*, but never neutral. In the rest of Africa NGOs were more often operating within a protocol negotiated with the government, focused on basic needs in the community, and functioned with little overt political activity.

The political pressures on progressive NGOs in South Africa have resulted in a general paranoia with regard to information gathering, information sharing, accountability and evaluation. Quite rightly so, for in many instances the possession of information about community activities, community leadership and community organisation had life-threatening consequences. Security police activities, civic and other political interest groups exerted their several pressures on organisations, seriously curbing their freedom to act within internationally accepted NGO functions within impoverished societies. This, combined with the motives of funding organisations who were often more interested in the human rights issues than in welfare issues (if these can be separated), resulted in a skewed portfolio of services being offered to communities, rather than services which were chosen objectively, based on primary social and economic needs (Arnove 1982). It was argued that political freedom should come first, that structural inequalities should be addressed before other development activities could be initiated. It was further argued that the role of the NGO was primarily in the motivation and organising of communities towards appropriate mass action, which could pressurise local authorities to supply welfare requirements; that it was a fundamental human right that the state should provide for its poor and that the role of the NGO was to assist the poor in their struggle for their rights, more than assisting them to obtain their

requirements through other means; that the inequalities of the structure should be addressed, on the assumption that poverty was caused more through maldistribution than an intrinsic lack of resources; the maldistribution demonstrating a further manifestation of the oppressive apartheid system.

Often these political pressures resulted in confused objectives for NGOs. An organisation established to care for children found itself in a public advocacy role on behalf of oppressed communities. A technical service organisation, skilled in civil engineering and solid waste disposal, had to devote time and resources to political diplomacy in order to retain an apparently legitimate presence and in order to continue with its basic mission. The provision of primary health care became far more than training village health workers and building clinics with local community effort. And even preschool education became the ideological preparation of children for the new South Africa. It is not the intention of this paper to argue the rights and wrongs of NGO political involvement.

Suffice to state that holistic development to which NGOs should aspire must, by definition and in order to attain sustainability, result in a more just order with attendant equitable access to resources by the poor.

Democratic principles and process became more important than the accomplishment of physical goals; community mandates more important than technical responses to problems. Education within the underprivileged areas, particularly black areas, became the focal point of legitimising protest action. Consequently any NGO involved with education had to take cognisance of this fact and provide their services accordingly. Becoming involved in the struggle became synonymous with being a legitimate educational NGO.

The source of funds for the NGO, and the political affiliation of the funder, has been a fundamental issue in determining the acceptability of the organisation and its service to the community. Based on the assumption that no aid is devoid of political affiliation and motivation, it became crucial to ascertain the likely influences or motives behind philanthropy. Organisations became branded as a result of their funding source, regardless of the conditions pertaining to grants and gifts, which may in fact have left the NGO free to determine its own criteria for operation. Organisations became castigated as sell-outs, collaborators, communist or progressive depending on the assumed source of their funds, rather than on the product they were delivering or the service being rendered. Organisations also capitalised on the political preferences of donors and tailored their promotional pitch to the particular audience. This led to selling on the basis of what the organisation stood for, rather than for what the organisation did.

The scramble for funds and the competition for community acclaim, led many NGOs into unseemly and unproductive competition with one another. Rather than a healthy competition which gives

communities greater choice and an ability to exercise true democratic freedom, even in welfare and development spheres, NGOs built themselves up through the denigration of the apparent competition. This destructive process was legitimised by the assumed political risks. It justified the exclusion from supportive networks of certain organisations. Given the overall secrecy within which NGOs were forced to conduct their business due to political sensitivities and security realities, it was almost impossible to verify allegations, or for organisations to defend their positions or correct erroneous perceptions.

While the difficult and dangerous environment of the past few decades has sharpened and strengthened some NGOs in their service abilities, the shroud of secrecy has enabled others to pass off ineffective programmes and inefficient operations onto the public and donors alike, without objective accountability and evaluation being applied.

The problem of poverty and limited resources

The debate regarding appropriate NGO activity vis-a-vis the enabling and empowering of the poor to change the political and economic structures, to achieve for themselves a sustainable and satisfying lifestyle, will rage on. What will also continue is the rise in poverty, the increase in numbers of people living below acceptable subsistence levels, the number of child deaths, the number of people being born to a destiny of deprivation, hardship and hopelessness.

The heralding of the new South Africa with peace initiatives, political accommodations and new constitutions will mean little real change, in the short and intermediate terms, in the lives of the poorest people of our land. Even the long-term improvement is not assured if we take a hard look at other societies in Africa which have sought to change politically towards a more just dispensation.

What then will be the role of the NGO in this brave new land? A number of crucial questions will have to be dealt with.

- Can the present generation of NGOs make the transition to become what this new society will require of them, rapidly increasing their capacity to assist the poor?

- Can the existing organisations find productive partnership together in assisting one another and the client communities to find solutions to common problems?

- Can there be a productive relationship between the government and NGOs, taking into account the past history, conflicting power bases, different economic perspectives, different accountability and mandating procedures that governments need for co-ordinated function in society in contrast to NGOs' need for entrepreneurial independent identify?

- How will the suspicions of the past be resolved?

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- How will NGOs institute accountability and evaluation procedures which will enable open declaration and sharing of information and activities, to enable objective scrutiny by interested parties?

- What social instruments will be used to determine how best the limited South African resource base will be used for the greatest good for the nation?

- Do the South African NGO community and the various government bodies have the capacity, expertise, foresight and strategies to remove those barriers which disempower communities, and provide the appropriate resources and support which will enable them to become sustainable and attain interdependent sufficiency?

- Is there a national will, which may supersede organisational differences and enable synergistic activity that will expand the capacity for service, provide composite participative planning and appropriate supportive action?

- The debate of these questions may create a forum which could suggest appropriate roles for NGOs in the future South Africa. It is necessary then, to look at the functions and roles of NGOs within the new social, political and economic environment that is anticipated in South Africa.

The role of NGOs in the new South Africa

It is, indeed, dangerous to make assumptions regarding the new political and economic climate in South Africa. Yet, in order to be prepared, some scenario planning is essential, indicating perhaps a spectrum of possibilities. For the purpose of this discussion we suggest the following environmental determinants:

- that sporadic violence within communities will continue for the foreseeable future; political settlements leading to democracy will be problematic; economic growth will not keep pace with population growth

- there will be more poor South Africans a decade from now than there are at present.

If the work of NGOs in alleviating poverty is valid, and if they can adapt to new circumstances, becoming more effective, then we may assume an increasingly important role for them to play.

In their interesting book *Does Aid Work?,* Robert Cassen and his co-authors (1988) argue that, overall, aid given in the correct forms and through the right agencies has decreased the growth of poverty within specified areas. However, there are many identifiable, repeated causes for failure on the side of the donor, that of the target people and of the intermediary agency (often an NGO). In the case of the agency, causes for failure are often the result of an inadequate analysis of past strategies and a failure to learn from previous mistakes. Agencies do

not commonly share their failures and thus render themselves less capable of learning from one another. A further inadequacy is that NGOs tend to be focused on specific aspects of human need and fail to take into account the macroeconomic environment or to work together to determine policy debates which represent the interests of the poorest and least in society, to the powerful and seemingly significant.

The need for a clear focus for NGOs is raised by Larry Minear. He asserts that it is "imperative for PVOs (NGOs) to give careful thought to the activities through which they can make a distinctive contribution ... they are partners in the aid process" (in Gorman 1984:25). It is implied that NGOs should not think of themselves as singly responsible for all aspects of development in a community, even though they may fully subscribe to a multidimensional approach to development. NGOs should recognise their abilities and offer services according to their strengths, rather than attempting to be all things to all people. They should rely on networking with other agencies to provide a holistic service. Each should work from a basic human need perspective and evaluate strategies according to their effectiveness, as determined by the community.

In analysing the effectiveness of NGOs, Brian H. Smith submits the following observations. NGOs are generally cost-effective, they bypass government bureaucracies and deal directly with the poor, they support private indigenous institutions and thus promote local self-reliance (in Gorman 1984:116). Yet the author argues that there is a necessity for proof of effectiveness of NGOs before it be assumed that they provide an effective aid delivery system (p.144). Dr Judith Tendler in a thought-provoking evaluation of seventy-five NGOs, done in 1982, concluded that the evaluation techniques measuring the effectiveness of NGOs were not adequate to allow real evaluation of their value and function to the communities they served (Tendler 1982). Measuring them by standards agreed upon by donor agencies or other Western technical evaluators could result in misleading conclusions.

The effectiveness of NGOs is enhanced by the space created for them by good administrative and government structures, in which they can thrive (Michael Calavan, quoted in Gorman 1985:215). However, behavioural and perceptual changes are required by both NGOs and government. For example, central officials must cease to regard instances of local initiative and assertion of autonomy (lobbying, demonstration, non-cooperation in central projects) as administrative failures. They must learn to deal with people in a frankly 'political' manner.

Furthermore, external donor officials must question their own bureaucratic values and learn to better understand the role of democratic institutions. NGO workers must learn to balance their paradoxical responsibilities as benevolent patrons and temporary activists in local politics. Local leaders must acquire sufficient confidence to be subtly (not excessively) self-assertive. Researchers

and consultants must overcome conceptual, methodological and professional limitations in order to provide other actors with a clearer notion of the problems they face.

Bureaucratic culture teaches officials to resist autonomous behaviour through the recourse to professional standards and myths. All these attitudes need modification to provide the space within which effective aid can be provided through NGOs.

In regard to the need for greater democracy in development, John Clark, in his book Democratizing Development (1991), suggests that voluntary organisations will only achieve their full potential if they develop a more strategic, coordinated way of working. Their projects are important and will remain so, but in themselves they do no more than create islands of relative prosperity within an increasingly hostile sea. The projects should be seen as demonstrations, catalysts, and vantage points. Using them as their base of experience and knowledge, voluntary organisations should help to challenge governments, official aid agencies, international companies and others to change their ways. They should strive for changes in local government policy and practice that the poor require. They should do what they can to promote the evolution of people's organisations and grassroots democracy.

The challenge facing NGOs is to redefine the principles of development, democracy and sovereignty in the light of mounting poverty, growing inequalities, looming environmental threats and the ever clearer interdependence of nations.

This demands of NGOs a new pragmatism. A world-view that is restricted to flagging ideas of neo-imperialism and conspiracy theory is no longer adequate if it is to catalyse change in the thinking of governments. The suggestions and ideas must be well grounded in economic reality and on the experience, both negative and positive, within on-the-ground programmes. NGOs should challenge official development thinking and advocate a new order based on human values and environmental sustainability.

These sentiments are affirmed by David Korten (1984). It is an approach to development that looks to the creative initiative of people as the primary development resource and to their material and spiritual well-being as the end that the development process serves. Recognition of the dehumanising, inequitable, and environmentally unsustainable consequences of conventional development models has stimulated a serious search for alternatives. The role that NGOs will have to perform is to develop such models within the community, which will contribute to the redefinition of the development problem.

The role of the NGOs in South Africa must needs be diverse in order to be of true service to our communities. The delivery of appropriate welfare will be required, as much if not more, in the future as it is now. Innovative work seeking for a redefinition of development together with its pragmatic demonstration in community is urgently required. Social empowerment, brokerage between resource givers,

agents of community transformation, facilitators, advocates, consultants, and advocates of a new sustainable order are all roles and functions that will be required of NGOs.

However, what will be essential is for each to define a specific role or roles and become really proficient within that defined function. It will be necessary to create systems of networking so that together several organisations may serve the multidimensional requirements of community needs if an impact is to be made on the profile of poverty in this country (Van der Kooy 1990).

A new working relationship will have to be established between NGOs and government agencies in South Africa, which will enable NGOs to function with their own character, with community participation and mandate. At the same time they must be enabled to participate in the broader parameters of national development, which are the state's responsibilities. Given the limited resources available and the urgent problems facing our country, this new functional relationship must be tackled with courage and honesty in order to enhance the service base. NGOs need to be able to operate with freedom, given certain overall restrictions defined by common problem identification, to mobilise community action and link community needs to state resources.

A creative tension must remain between the public and private sectors of development, in order to maintain checks and balances which ensure efficient service, determined by the people and responsive to their needs. This can be held within a healthy relationship, through an unambiguous understanding of the different roles to be played by government and NGOs.

Conclusion

South African NGOs have played an important role in enabling communities to participate in the socio-political changes that have taken place during the last two decades. Yet it is true to say that their function within the socioeconomic, infrastructural and educational arenas has not been as effective, partly because of the political pressures of the environment.

Within the scenarios of a new South Africa with increasing poverty, continuing violence and difficult transition towards a democratic society, NGOs will have an even more crucial role to play. However, to be effective they will have to change as the environment is changing, and exhibit an ability to network effectively, define their own critical objectives and exhibit a professionalism appropriate to significant community-based organisations. NGOs will have to recognise the need for a multidimensional approach and affirm those who provide services different from their own. Unproductive competition would be avoided through careful definition of functions and need so that appropriate organisational strategies can be applied without assuming full responsibility for the whole development problem.

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New liaisons will have to be formed in order to maximise the utilisation of scarce resources and meet ever increasing challenges for aid. Particularly important is the relationship with government structures, where a new understanding is required by both parties.

NGOs must exercise a new pragmatism in the promotion of the evolution of people's organisations. They will need to challenge and redefine the principles of development, in a manner that is relevant to a new socio-political order. There will have to be an openness to learn from one another, so that mistakes of the past are not repeated through ignorance.

In a new spirit of critical cooperation, NGOs can synergistically improve their ability to provide services to communities, enabling and empowering people to take control of their own problems, so helping to eradicate poverty.

It is not charity that the poor require, but a transformation of development.

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