

INTRODUCTION TO SUPERVISION AND MANAGEMENT

Professional Development Course Book

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Exploring excellence, definition and principles

Definitions and distinctions

Discussion

What are the differences, if any, between:

- Managing
- Supervising
- Mentoring
- Coaching
- Counselling?

Definition - What is supervision?

“the action or process of watching and directing what someone does or how something is done: the action or process of supervising someone or something.”

Supervision tends to focus on two aspects of work and the individual doing the work:

1. Performance – how well the work is being done
2. Development – is the individual learning and growing to do this task and other tasks better

Supervision helps to promote reflective practice and contributes to professional development.

“A supervisor is responsible for the day-to-day performance of a small group. It may be a team, or a shift. The supervisor has experience in what the group does but is not necessarily better at it than everyone he/she supervises.

The supervisor’s job is to guide the group toward its goals, see that all members of the team are productive, and resolve problems as they arise.

A supervisor generally does not have the power to hire or fire employees or to promote them. A supervisor usually recommends such action to the next level of management. The supervisor does, however, often have the authority to change the work roles of the members of the team, for instance deciding which individual will work at which station.”

Supervision has different meanings in different contexts.

In an Academic or Health context

Supervision in a University occurs when academics oversee the production of a thesis by an honours or Ph.D. student. In this context, supervision is very much about both performance (getting the paper written) and development (ensuring it is a learning experience for the individual).

Supervision has a similar meaning in the clinical environment of health care.

In these contexts, emphasis is placed on supervisors being work-based mentors.

In a manufacturing environment:

“Supervisors manage the day-to-day operations of the workplace and ensure both production and quality targets are met.” In this context, supervision is very much about performance and efficiency.

Here supervisors are responsible for creating an environment in which production can occur to quality as efficiently as possible.

In this context, supervisors coordinate work and bring together individuals into teams. The types of skills relevant to a supervisor include:

- Developing teams and relationships
- Prioritising work
- Ensuring safety in the workplace
- Managing projects and work plans
- Implementing continuous improvement.

Definition - What is management?

Dictionary meaning

- the act or skill of controlling and making decisions about a business, department, sports team, etc.
- the people who make decisions about a business, department, sports team, etc.
- the act or process of deciding how to use something.

Wikipedia

Management in businesses and organizations is the function that coordinates the efforts of people to accomplish goals and objectives by using available resources efficiently and effectively.

The English verb "manage" comes from the Italian *maneggiare* (to handle, especially tools), which derives from the two Latin words *manus* (hand) and *agere* (to act).

The scope of a manager appears to be broader than that of a supervisor.

The five basic management functions are:

1. **Planning.** This managerial function concerns itself with anticipating the future and determining the best course of action to achieve organisational objectives.
2. **Organising.** Organising is defined as the management function that blends human and material resources through the design of a formal structure of task and authority.
3. **Staffing.** The staffing function concerns itself with recruiting, selecting, training, and assigning the right person to the right position within the organization.
4. **Directing.** Guiding and motivating employees towards organisational objectives.
5. **Controlling.** The final function of management is controlling wherein the organisation's performance is evaluated to determine whether or not it is accomplishing its objectives.

Difference between management and supervision

The following list identifies the critical differences between supervisors and managers.

- A supervisor is responsible for the day-to-day operations of employees within a department, and a manager is responsible for the high-level success of the department as a whole.
- A supervisor is responsible for directing the work and goals of individual employees, and a manager is responsible for directing the work and goals of a department.
- A supervisor assigns tasks to individual employees and realigns tasks among employees, and a manager realigns official job descriptions and organisational structures within a department.
- A supervisor is promoted from within and has extensive knowledge about the positions he or she is overseeing, and a manager is hired externally for his or her people skills and project management abilities.
- A supervisor cannot hire, fire, or promote, but a manager can make these decisions for the betterment of the business unit.

Distinguishing Management from Coaching, Mentoring and Counselling

	Manager	Coaching	Mentoring	Counselling
Focus	On performance	Skill development	On learning & development	On problem solving and decision making
Purpose	Performance to be enhanced	Skills to be enhanced	Learning to take place	Problems/issues to be solved
Relationship	Comes with the job	Can come with the job or be self-selected	Self-selected or assigned	Self-selected or referred
Authority	Manager, boss	Coach	Mentor, advisor	Counsellor, confidant
Agenda	Manager sets the agenda	Coach and Manager	Mentee sets the agenda	Agenda mutually discovered by counsellor and counselee
Outcomes	Teamwork, performance	Increasing competence	Affirmation, learning	Problems solved, decision made
Arena/domain	Job and organisation	Work	Work and Life	Life and home

Principles

1. The only person whose behaviour we can control is our own.
2. All we can give another person is information.

Source: Axioms of Choice Theory – Dr William Glasser

Reflection

What implications do these principles have for our views about management and supervision?

Excellence in management and supervision

What are our views of high-quality management and supervision?

What are the indicators of excellence in each?

Discussion

What changes for you now that you are a supervisor or manager?

List the before and afters of being a manager/supervisor.

Before I was a supervisor or manager I....	Now I am a Manager or Supervisor, I....

What do I need to do differently?

Myths about Management and Supervision

You manage people

People are responsible for managing themselves. Back to our principles - The only person a manager can manage is them. All we can give or get from others is information.

"Clarity creates great self-management" – Ross Lyon

You can't manage what you can't measure

We all manage things we cannot measure (e.g. our anger and emotions). We do tend to manage those things that get measured more closely. We should therefore be careful what we measure. I have seen organisations where they have measured aspects of their business quite intensely only to find that they then managed these aspects of their work more closely. Unfortunately, what they were measuring and what they were managing was not the priority part of their business. They tended to measure inputs more than outputs and then tended to manage inputs to the detriment of their outputs and outcomes.

The Manager solves all the problems

Managers do not necessarily know more about problems in the business than others do. Managers should encourage team members to develop options and solutions rather than look to managers to solve everything.

Reference: The One Minute Manager meets the Monkey – Ken Blanchard et al

Some reflections on management and supervision

Consider management as the opposite of "leaving things to chance". We can just let things happen and see what happens. A good manager will not leave important work to chance. They will plan, organise, staff, direct and control that work.

Consider management as the opposite of magic. With magic, things happen once with distraction so no one knows what is going on. Magic is non-transparent and shrouded in secrecy. Good management involves designing work to be repeated, standard and consistent with others understanding what they need to do. Good management demands transparency.

A good manager is a steward of standards, ideals and expectations for the work they oversee and for their team. Managers aspire for their team to perform with excellence. Team members will look to the manager to understand what excellence looks like.

What is our ideal as a manager?

Our ideal is that:

- Members of our team can self-manage and do their jobs well with little interference from the manager. We strive to be able to delegate and avoid micro-management.
- Our teams have methods to follow for their work that consistently deliver results
- New staff members can be inducted and trained in these methods based on documented instructions and guides
- When things work well, the manager appears to be redundant – yet the manager has likely set the business up to succeed without their constant intervention.

As a manager, we manage work, we manage resources and relationships and we aim to develop people to get the work done well.

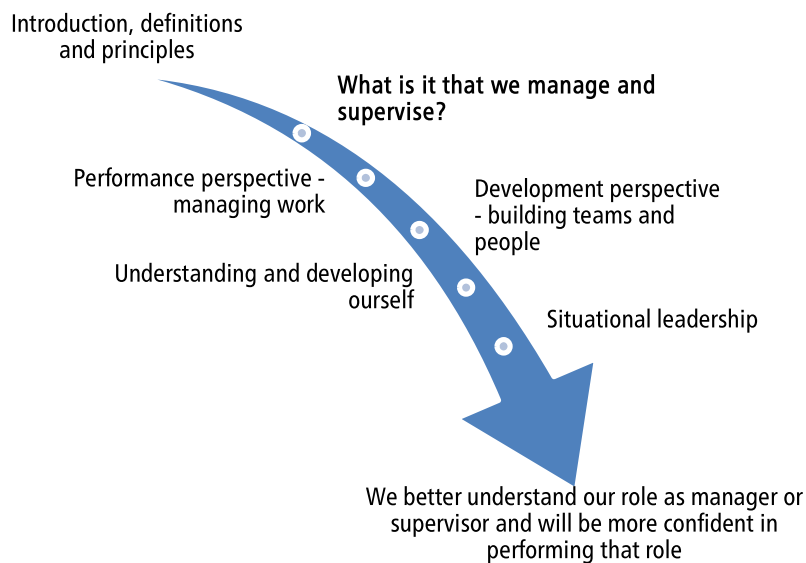
A manager cannot control other team members but managers can aim to develop their team to perform with excellence.

As a manager, strive for coherence in our approach to work, clarity in instruction about the work and our expectations of others and consistency in message.

As a supervisor, we do most of these things acknowledging we have less authority (decision-making, resourcing) than a manager.

Some other terms used to describe excellence in management and supervision:

Creative positive culture	Are a champion & advocate	Value staff
Make work important	Trustworthy	Respectful
Make difficult decisions	Know the business well	Approachable
Communicate well	Articulate the business	Give feedback
Clear expectations	Clarify scope	



What is it that we manage or supervise?

Discussion

Put together a list of the different words we see used before the word Management

Example - Financial (Management)

Financial Management	Information Management
Asset Management	Process Management
Fund Management	Shop/Store Management
Risk Management	Cost Centre Management
Change Management	Quality Assurance Management
Innovation Management	Total Quality Management
Marketing Management	Operations Management
Customer Relations Management	Program Management
Supply Chain Management	Credit Management
Project Management	Research Management
Product Management	Technical Management
Brand Management	Laboratory Management
Production Management	Volunteer Management
Data Management	Office Management
Facilities Management	Site Management
Account Management	Hotel Management
Business Management	Administration Management

Think of this course as an introduction to management but also one that reveals other areas that you may need to develop depending on the area in which you work.

Examples of areas that we may explore further include:

- Project Management
- Financial Management
- Process Management.

What does your team/project do?

Narratives@work handout

Manage your part of the business - The business model approach

Inputs – Activities – Outputs – Objectives - Outcomes

"A business model refers to the logic of the firm, the way it operates and how it creates value for its stakeholders.

Strategy refers to the choice of business model through which the firm will compete in the marketplace.

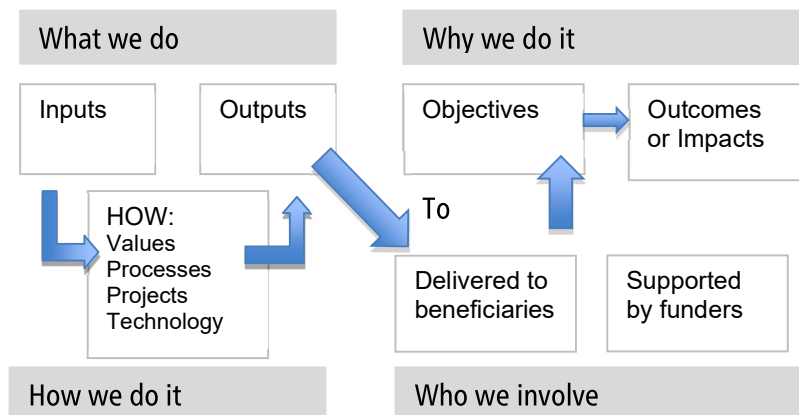
Tactics refers to the residual choices open to a firm by virtue of the business model that it employs."

From Strategy to Business Models and to Tactics, Ramon Casadesus-Masanell Joan Enric Ricart

"A business model describes the rationale of how an organisation creates, delivers and captures value."

Osterwalder, A., & Pigneur, Y. (2010). *Business Model Generation: A Handbook for Visionaries, Game Changers, and Challengers*. New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons.

Consider the business model below that presents the logic of an organisation in terms of what it does, how it does it, who it does it for and why it does it.



Components of a Business Model

What the business does:

- Converts inputs (people, goods and services, technology, assets)
- Into outputs (products and services)

How the business does it:

- Values - essential and enduring tenets or beliefs within an organisation
- Processes - series of actions or steps taken to achieve a particular end (produce outputs)
- Projects - individual or collaborative enterprises that are carefully planned to achieve a particular aim
- Programs - temporary flexible organisation structure created to coordinate, direct and oversee the implementation of a set of related projects and activities
- Workmanship & know-how – skill development and experience of staff and suppliers
- Marketing – links made between the business and its markets
- Support functions - HR, Finance, and IT designed to support teams.

Who is involved?

- Employees – staff employed by the business to make it work
- Suppliers – goods or services purchased through a contract
- Beneficiaries – those who benefit from the goods and services produced
- Funders – those who pay to sustain the business (if a funder is a beneficiary, they are a customer)
- Owners – those who contribute capital and then receive returns (dividends)
- Financier – lenders that expect interest and repayments.

Why?

- Purpose – visions, goals and aspirations of the business or team
- Objectives – A specific result that a person or system aims to achieve within a time frame.
- Outcomes – the consequences of our work – the longer run (ultimate) impact we are trying to have.

Activity

Use the business model approach to distinguish:

- Working
- Supervising
- Management
- Strategy.



The Performance Perspective (The Work):

Discuss

Consider the analogy of managing the production of a play.

What will good performance mean in this context?

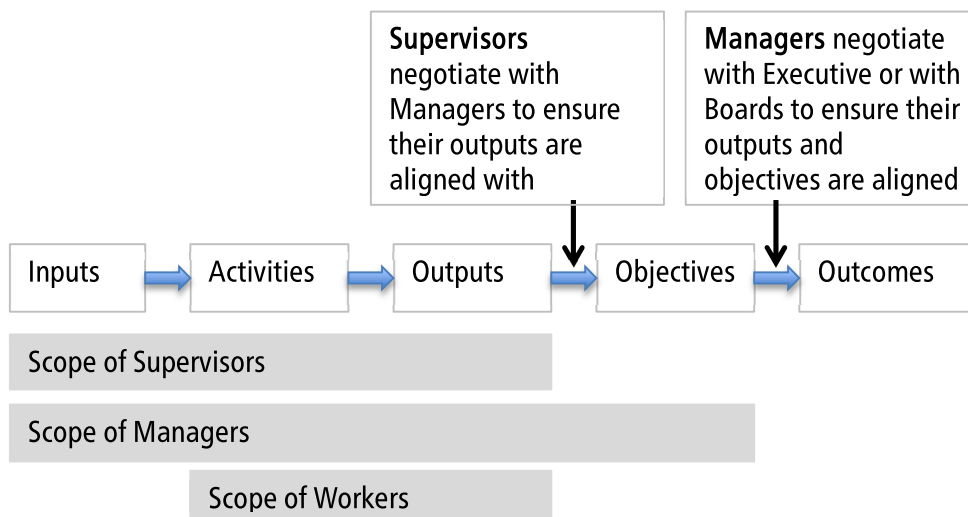
What do we need to manage and what are the expectations of our team?

What types of instructions do team members need to be given in order to perform?

Applying the business model approach

We can use the business model approach to distinguish Working; Supervising; Management; and Strategy.

- Working – activities to produce outputs based on processes and projects that have been set out for us.
- Supervision – watching over people while they perform activities to deliver outputs.
- Management – executing the business model by managing the key links between inputs activities and outputs ensuring the internal environment and relationships are right. Being prepared.
- Strategy – designing and changing the business model to deal with external forces or changes in the environment.
- Leadership – designing the business model and managing the external environment



Measuring performance

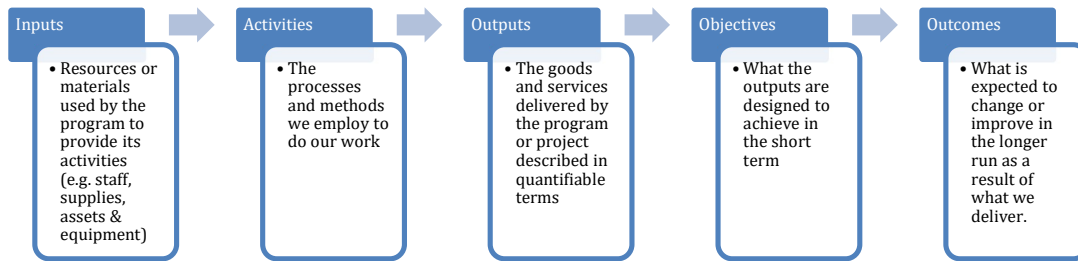
Using this model, measurement should occur across the model. There should be measures of:

- Input/activity (number of staff, number of enquiries)
- outputs (number of goods produced, number of customers served, calls handled)
- the efficiency of processes and technology (calls taken per staff member) objectives (satisfied paying customers)
- objectives (number of satisfied customers) and
- outcomes (profit, improved health).

A **supervisor** will usually be monitoring input, output and efficiency measures.

A **manager** will usually be monitoring a broader spectrum of measures that includes objective measures.

Embedded within a business model is a basic logic:



Examples of performance measures using a logic model are presented below.

	Training organisation	Fire service
Input measures	number of staff Facilities (rooms, PCs, desks) annual total budget	number of firefighters number of fire appliances number of fire stations annual total budget
Activity measures	Training sessions scheduled Registrations for sessions Development of materials & resources	average time to dispatch a fire truck percentage of incidents reached by an appliance within X minutes
Output measures	Materials produced Courses delivered Assessments completed	number of incidents attended
Objective measures	Learning goals achieved students qualified attendee satisfaction	percentage of incidences where fire is contained citizen satisfaction
Outcome measures	Career progression of attendees Manager/business satisfaction	number of deaths per thousand fires perceptions of public safety

Source (fire service): Financial Management and Accounting in the Public Sector - Author Gary Bandy.

Handout – Business model example CTS

Handout – A finance professional

Managing projects and processes

Discussion: Discuss what you understand to be the differences between managing operational process work versus managing projects. How are these different?

Focussing on the work

To get the work done well requires:

- A good environment (facility and culture)
- Access to technology
- Efficiency of process or effectiveness of projects
- Workmanship.

It is therefore these aspects of the work that the manager coordinates and that the supervisor oversees.

A good environment

Discussion: Describe aspects of a good work environment in which your work will occur.

Be aware that part of your environment is the culture ('the way things are done') of your organisation, team and division. Understand the culture that exists and the culture that you would like to promote through your management and supervision.

Access to technology

Technology is machinery, equipment or devices that we use for practical purposes to get our work done. Could be as simple as a pencil or filing cabinet. Could also be a computer, IT system or highly sophisticated robotics.

Project	Process
Unique - have not been done like this before	Do the same thing repeatedly
Are time limited with a start date & end date. Projects come and go	They are ongoing and at the core of the business
The project manager creates the documentation	Will have standard operating procedures and policies documented
Create something new or about implementing a change	Create value or deliver outputs by repeatedly performing a task
Project objectives and plans can be changed by whoever approves the project	Processes can only be changed with significant investment
Projects create change	Standardised processes are usually designed to resist change
Aim to amplify variation or change	Aim to reduce variation

What is a project?

According to the Project Management Institute, a project is “a temporary endeavour undertaken to create a unique product, service or result” and project management is “the application of knowledge, skills, tools, and techniques to project activities to meet the project requirements.” Key terms in these definitions are “temporary” and “unique.” Projects have defined deadlines with clear start and end points and are designed to be specific to the product or service in question.

Projects are the means by which businesses go about making changes to the way they do business.

Project management has a definite emphasis on achieving the end result.

The unique and temporary nature of projects tends to make them inherently risky and requires significant levels of planning.

What is a Process?

A **business process** or **business method** is a collection of related, structured activities or **tasks** that produce a specific service or product (serve a particular goal) for a particular customer or customers.

processes are not meant to be temporary or unique. Processes do not have set starting and ending points in time and are meant to be repeatable. Process management involves careful planning and continuous monitoring of the performance of a given process to ensure quality requirements are met. Change, improvement, and re-engineering are all important components of process management. Process management has an emphasis on improving efficiency and improving quality.

Process management tends to focus on consistency, repeatability, reliability and continuous improvement to achieve efficiency.

Processes tend to be at the core of how an organisation operates.

Business process management activities can be arbitrarily grouped into categories such as design, modelling, execution, monitoring, and optimisation.

Projects, Processes and Problem Solving

The diagram below considers our work from two perspectives:

1. The nature of the demands or requirements made of us or that we make on ourselves
2. The scale of work, its inherent riskiness and disruption to our business.

Demands or requirements

Organisations undertake different types of work sought from them by customers; by the public; and by funders. This work is broken into three categories:

1. Repeated and predictable - work that we know we will have to do and that we will have to do often
2. Familiar and regular – work that we understand and that we do regularly (e.g. once a month or once a week)
3. Unusual, unique or mysterious - work that we have not encountered before or that we do not usually do.

Magnitude, risk & disruption

We can also classify our work with respect to the magnitude of the job and its impact, the risk and its disruption to others. At the low end of that spectrum, there are transactions that occur very often and that will only impact on the person involved (e.g. a person buying a coffee). At the other end of the spectrum, transactions or events occur that are large-scale in their dollar value, impact or risk. Examples include running an election or restructuring a business.

The table below brings these two elements together to show the different types of work we could be doing.

Demands or requirements	Unusual, unique, mysterious	Special request for a service or product, unique customer or idea from leadership Ideation, research and problem solving	Disruption from competition Adapting to changing demographics Exploring a new IT system Research projects and special projects	Large scale and complex projects (e.g. organisational restructuring, implementing a new IT system, major infrastructure) Major Project
	Familiar & regular	Serve customers, Produce monthly reports Specified Process	Regular high value transactions or events with a clear end-result (e.g. housebuilder, produce annual report, conference/event management) Specified Project	Very high value projects or major events Major Project
	Repeated and predictable	High volume of standard medium to low value transactions (e.g. retail store or library self-service, payroll processing) Automated Process		
		Smaller	Large	Very Large
Magnitude, level of disruption and risk to business				

Each category of work requires different management responses. Three basic management responses arise:

- Process management to deliver goods and services
- Project management to deliver goods and services and to change the business
- Research and problem-solving to understand mysteries and deal with the unfamiliar.

For all the work of the team – ask:

- What is the process for this? – for ongoing regular and familiar work
- Does this require a project? – for unusual or larger-scale work
- Should we just solve the problem? – for a one-off but smaller-scale work.

Work Break Down

An important aspect of management is to make work, that may be straightforward and understood by the manager, transparent to others so they can carry out the tasks required to complete the work.

A work breakdown is a way of breaking an initiative or a process into a series of tasks, activities and deliverables.

The term work breakdown structure (WBS) is commonly used in Project Management. A work breakdown structure is a tool used to subdivide project deliverables and tasks into smaller, more manageable components.

- It is usually focused on deliverables
- It requires the creation of deliverables to be broken into smaller steps and stages
- The structure links the steps and stages together.

While the term is used extensively in project management, it can also be applied to the management of procedural or operational work.

The work required to deliver an output through process work can be broken into smaller steps to make it more manageable. The breakdown of work will also assist with the issuing of instructions to others.

In organisations where tasks and deliverables appear to be well understood, the need for documentation can be downplayed – “we already know what we do”. Management is not just about the here and now, it is also about being able to sustain an organisation. In the future, there will be new staff and new managers. If there is no documentation, how will they know what to do?

For someone experienced in a task, documenting a work breakdown structure or a process map can feel like writing the obvious. However, at the heart of management is the ability to provide guidance and instruction to others, in particular new staff, to enable them to understand and carry out the work. Documentation of work breakdown structures and process maps are important tools for management.

It will likely be the case that in the process of documenting a work breakdown that seems obvious, the author will realise that the process could be improved with the need for certain steps to be questioned and clarified.

For projects, developing a work breakdown structure is done as part of project planning to define the different activities and tasks required to deliver an output or to reach a milestone. In projects, a WBS needs to be created to help define the work that is to be done. When shown in conjunction with the timing and duration of tasks, a work breakdown structure will appear as a Gantt Chart.

For processes, a work breakdown can take the form of a process map that details stages or steps in the work required to deliver an output.

The creation of these documents will improve the ability of a manager to communicate with staff what is required to be delivered in undertaking a project or process. It will usually be the case that the creation of the document will help the manager to become clearer on not only what is required, but better ways to deliver.

To improve management – put the work on display

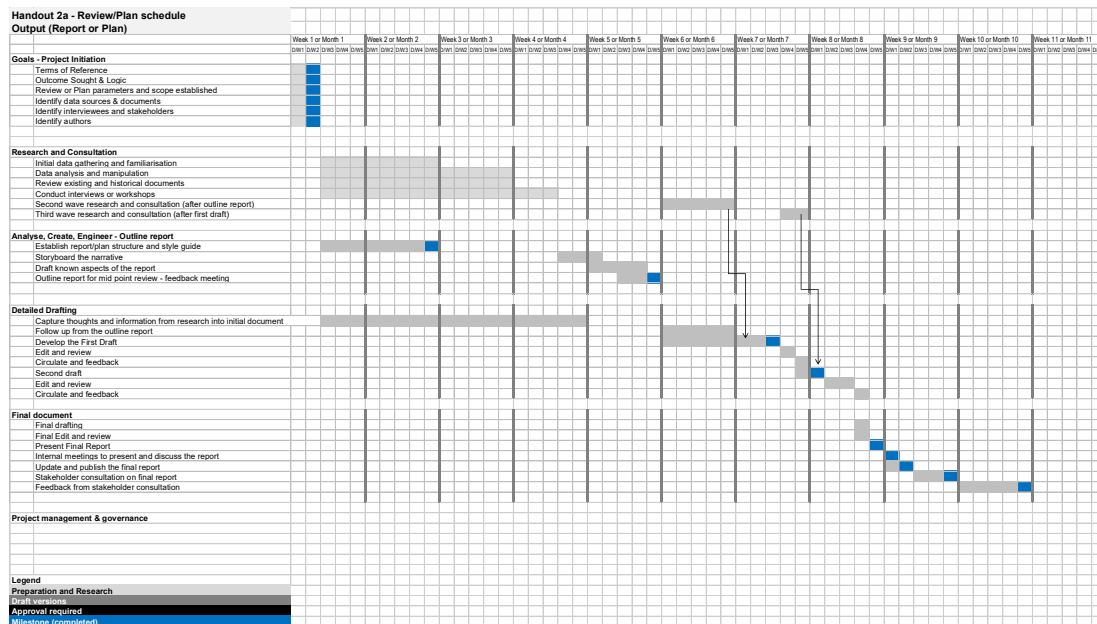
For processes and projects, I have found it valuable to ensure staff have clarity about the stages involved and the timing of stages or steps.

For projects, we use a Gantt Chart. For processes, we use process maps.

A Gantt Chart

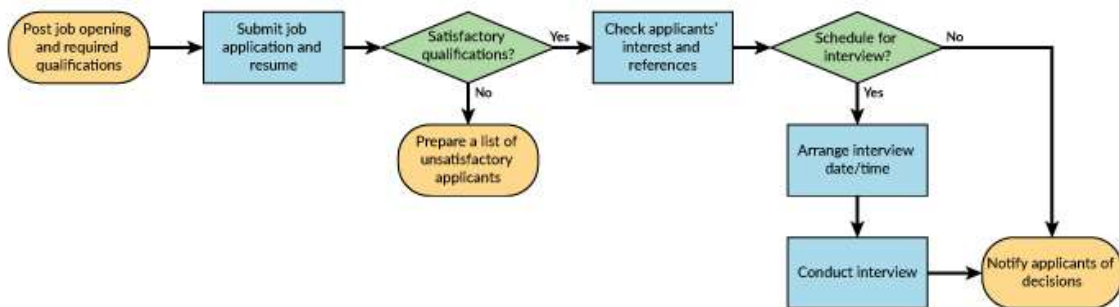
A completed version of the planning calendar displayed above is known as a Gantt Chart. A Gantt Chart is a way of showing activities (tasks or events) displayed against time. On the left of the chart is a list of the activities and along the top is a suitable time scale. Each activity is represented by a bar; the position and length of the bar reflect the start date, duration and end date of the activity.

An example for a team review and report is shown below.

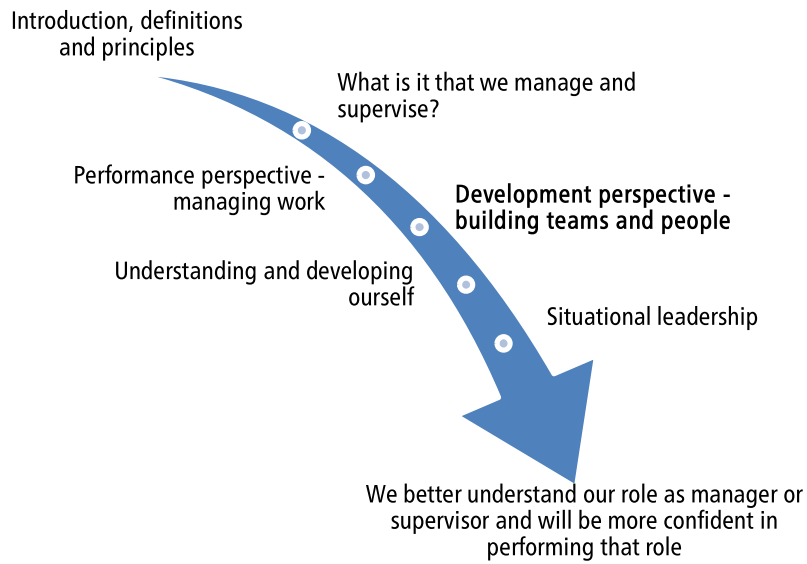


A Process Map

A process map is a planning and management tool that visually describes the flow of work. An example for recruitment is shown below.



See Appendices Four and Five for more information on managing processes.



Discussion

Please consider the following scenario:

There is a staff member in our team who we believe is not performing up to the standards of work required. What are some things we could do?

The Development Perspective: Developing the team or person to enable workmanship

Developing Teams

A time-tested approach to thinking about how teams develop was research published by Alan Tuckman in his article *Developmental Sequence in Small Groups (1968)*.

The model considers teams from two perspectives:

1. The team as a social entity where interpersonal relationships will evolve
2. The team as a work or task entity based on its reason for being is to get a job done.

Tuckman’s research identified four basic stages that small groups go through



Further research identified another stage as groups are subject to change with their task finishing or with team structure changing. The fifth stage is referred to as *adjourning*, which involves completing the task and breaking up the team (in some texts referred to as Mourning).

The table below summarises Tuckman’s views on what happens in teams as they develop through these phases.

	Interpersonal	Task Activity
Forming	Testing what is acceptable and dependence on others to provide structure. Roles emerge.	Orientation to the task – defining the task and understanding parameters
Storming	Intragroup conflict with lack of unity a feature of the group	Emotional response to the task as a form of resistance to the demands of the task on the individual
Norming	Development of group cohesion	Open exchange of information and opinions
Performing	Roles become flexible and functional as structure and relationship issues have been resolved	Solutions emerge as the relationships become a means to an end and group energy is channelled towards the task

High performing teams

I have had the privilege of seeing high-performance teams in action. I have a very strong memory of delivering a finance training session to a group of emergency nurses from a metropolitan hospital. They arrived at training with a buzz about them – conversing, laughing, a sense of energy and positivity. This was not normal for attendees at a finance training session.

When we got down to focus on the training, they had questions and they encouraged each other to ask questions. They openly challenged each other during the session and called on each other to help improve the way the team managed its finances. When we did tasks, they called on each other openly acknowledging areas of strength and weakness among team members.

A work issue arose during the session that was initially directed to the team leader in the form of a phone call. After receiving the phone call and during a break, members of the team sought out the leader to find out what they needed to do to help out. The team members initiated this; they did not wait for their leader. The leader, with the team, quickly resolved what needed to be done and agreed on who would do it. As they attended to this issue there was a seriousness about them. It was clear they were also going to keep each other to account. They were a group of willing volunteers and their behaviour seemed natural – it was a habit for them. Once they resolved their issue, they shifted into a more relaxed mode, comfortable in each other's company.

This attention to a work issue occurred during their break. There was no sense of complaint or issue in missing out on their break. They did not want the break to be extended. The break finished and the team quickly focussed back on their learning task. There was a strong sense of team, and teamwork, before the individual.

I recall the day, because I enjoyed being in the company of a group of willing learners and because I saw a live example of a high-performing team learning and working together.

I have also seen dysfunctional teams. Staff wait for leaders to tell them what to do and doing nothing if not asked. Leaders exhausted by constantly having to initiate and push for work to be done. Constant questions of role clarity and entitlement. Toxic relationships and deadly silence in meetings.

Highly Functioning Team Assessment Tool

Highly Functioning Team Criteria	1	2	3	4	5	My Score	Team Score (Average)
Team Goals	Unclear on team goals		Understand team goals		Understand the link between team goals & organisation strategy		
Roles	Not clear on my role in the team		Know my role		Understand the roles of all team members		
Ground Rules & Norms	We don't have or do not use ground rules & norms		Have ground rules & norms and use them occasionally, mostly at team meetings		Always follow the ground rules & norms in all of our interactions		
Tools, Resources & Physical settings	Tools, resources & physical setting hinder or don't contribute to our work		Tools, resources & physical settings allow us to meet most team goals		Tools, resources & physical setting assist us in meeting & exceeding team goals		
Team Meetings	A waste of time		Regular meetings are generally useful		Excellent forum for sharing information and solving issues		
Conflict	Conflict is ignored		Some conflict managed by leader		All team members proactive and skilled at managing conflict		
Trust	Prefer to work alone; when we work together, we check others' work		Do some work together by choice; occasionally check up on others		Prefer to work together; trust others to do their part		
Valuing Differences	Differences are ignored or not valued		Starting to understand & work with differences		Capitalise on differences to create better solutions		

Training & Development	Little or unplanned training & development		Some training & development but not part of the overall plan		Training & development for current & future jobs as part of regularly reviewed team training		
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Continued over the page....

Highly Functioning Team Criteria	1	2	3	4	5	My Score	Team Score (Average)
Improvement	Too busy working to make improvements		Some improvements implemented		Constantly striving for better ways of doing things		
Feedback	Do not receive much feedback		Hear from leader on mistakes and errors only		Receive regular positive & negative feedback from all team members		
Follow-through	Action items & delegated duties are generally ignored		Some follow-up completed after the work is done		Action items & delegated duties as part of my work		
Communication	Communication is ad-hoc; no systems in place; a feeling of being kept in the dark		Some systems in place. Tends to be one-way; from leader down		Clear communication procedures in place and followed by all. Two-way communication is part of the culture.		
Behaviour	Members form cliques and are generally negative about work and the team		Team members behaviour is generally positive but some unconstructive behaviours evident		Team members consistently behave in a positive and constructive way		

Ideas	Ideas are not encouraged or are ignored		Occasionally ideas are put forward and shared		Ideas are encouraged and shared freely and enthusiastically		
Respect	Staff do not respect each other; people do not co-operate		Staff generally show respect for each other but could co-operate more		A climate of mutual respect, fun and co-operation exists		

Developing people

The Tuckman model for developing teams makes a distinction between the interpersonal perspective and the task perspective.

These two perspectives can also be applied to the way we view a person's development. We can consider their development from two perspectives:

1. Competence (skills and knowledge to perform tasks)
2. Confidence (able to apply skills in the environment)

The first relates to their skills and knowledge to undertake a task. However, having skills and knowledge is not enough to perform independently. These need to be supplemented by the individual believing they have the skills and by being willing to apply these skills in the environment that is the workplace. To this extent, confidence is about the willingness of an individual to apply their skills in the work environment.

An important part of a manager's role is to understand people's confidence and competence.

Improving Competence by Developing Skills

Activity

Discuss the differences between the following types of skills:

- Technical
- Transferable
- Personal

Identify some examples of each

Technical

Transferable

Personal

Technical skills are the specialised skills and knowledge required to perform specific duties, sometimes referred to as 'work skills'. For example:

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Driving a forklift • Computer Programming • Primary school teaching 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Practicing Law • Machine operating • Mechanic 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Nursing • Accounting
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Each one of these skills is made up of specific skills a person must be able to do to complete technical tasks.

Transferable skills are the skills required to perform a variety of tasks. They are great assets as they can be 'transferred' from one area of work to another.

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Customer service • Problem solving • Teamwork 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Planning/organisational • Time management • Reasoning and creativity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Financial Management • Staff management • Leadership
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These skills can be useful when you are trying to make a career change.

Personal skills are the individual attributes you have such as personality and work habits. These often describe what you are like and how you would naturally go about doing things.

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Working under pressure • Trustworthy • Self-motivated 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Honest and reliable • Fast learner • Professional 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Has initiative • Loyal
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Personal skills will often be related to how you fit into 'the team' or the 'culture of the workplace'. They are strongly aligned with the types of values that organisations will have.

Competency Library/Development Guide

Consider the use of a competency library or competency dictionary to give you more detail of the different skills and competencies that you may need to develop but also the skills and competencies that your team members may need to develop

Reflection

What has been an important learning for me and why?

Understanding others

Each of us has a view of the world and mental models that dictate how we go about our lives and work. It is quite natural to expect that others either or understand share our view of the world and mental models.

However, knowing that everyone is different does not always translate into us making efforts to understand the different views and mental models that others have.

Activity - Another view of the world

Understanding and appreciating another view of the world requires that we invest some time and effort in getting to know our colleagues.

Preparing our view:

Capture some points about your

- background – family, birthplace, schooling
- history – major points in their journey to this point in your work life
- experiences - notable events that have impacted you

Example: River of Life

The purpose of this activity is to reflect on our careers and the events that have led us to where we are now. This can help us recall the beginning of our career how it has evolved and how we have each evolved. Your river of life may be useful to share with your colleague(s) as an “ice-breaker”.

- On an A3 sheet - Each participant will be asked to draw a river showing turns, turbulence, bridges etc. that represent turning points and key moments in our lives
- Each team member will then present this to a colleague for 5 minutes to help us understand what has led to us being here now.

Please work with a colleague with the intent of understanding aspects of their worldview by sharing your River of Life.

Self-reflection

What did I learn about the worldview of my colleague?

Managing Underperformance

A guide to managing underperformance is available from the Fair Work Ombudsman.

<https://www.fairwork.gov.au/tools-and-resources/best-practice-guides/managing-underperformance>

Included at this link is:

“Best practice employers have regular discussions with employees about performance. They set clear goals and provide feedback and support to help employees perform at their best. If underperformance occurs, they take steps to manage it appropriately, sensitively and promptly.”

Address underperformance issues quickly to resolve issues and avoid more serious problems. The Fair Work Ombudsman presents a five-step guide to addressing underperformance

Step 1 — Identify the problem by writing down:

- Situations when problems are occurring
- examples of the behaviour or action that is causing an issue
- the impact it is having (why it's an issue)
- specify how the behaviour or action needs to change or improve.

Assemble documents such as business statistics, examples of work or customer feedback. Make copies to give to the employee.

Step 2 — Assess and analyse the problem to understand

- How serious is the problem?
- how long the problem has existed?
- the gap between what's expected and what's being delivered.

Once you have assessed the problem, organise a meeting with your employee to discuss it. Let the employee know the reason for the meeting in advance so they can adequately prepare. If you will be going through specific documents, provide copies to the employee before the meeting.

There will be circumstances when it is appropriate for additional attendees at the meeting. Examples could include an HR representative and/or a colleague of the employee or union representative.

Step 3 — Meet with the employee

Meet in a private, comfortable, non-threatening environment, away from distractions and interruptions so it cannot be overheard by others.

During the meeting, you should:

- clearly describe the problem and refer to specific examples
- explain the impact on the business, the employee's work or co-workers
- explain the outcomes you want to achieve from the meeting
- give the employee an opportunity to respond and give you their view of the situation
- listen and ask questions to understand their response to the problem and why it has occurred

- if possible, refer to recent positive things the employee has done, to show them you also recognise and appreciate their strengths
- use a relaxed and encouraging tone and show confidence in the employee's ability to improve.

Document the meeting and provide copies to the employee.

Step 4 — Agree on a solution

After discussing the problem, you and your employee should work together to find a solution.

Employees are more likely to improve their performance if they feel they have contributed to this process.

The solution can take the form of a performance improvement plan that could include:

- Specific aspects of performance and behaviour that will change
- Development required to support the improvement
- Steps to be taken to monitor performance
- Dates for review and follow-up.

Step 5 — Monitor and review

Once you have a solution in place, make sure you:

- follow through with any training or other support you offered the employee
- regularly check in with the employee to discuss how they are progressing
- continue giving feedback and encouragement
- have a follow-up meeting at the agreed time to review their progress.

It often takes more than one conversation to resolve an issue.

Feedback, Self-Evaluation and Difficult Conversations

The Situation – Behaviour – Impact Feedback Tool

Created by the Centre for Creative Leadership to enable Managers and Supervisors to provide clear, specific feedback.

1. Situation

When you're giving feedback, first define the where and when of the situation you're referring to. This puts the feedback into context and gives the other person a specific setting as a reference. For example:

"During yesterday's governing council meeting, when you were presenting the financial reports ..."

"At the client meeting on Monday afternoon..."

2. Behaviour

Your next step is to describe the specific behaviours that you want to address. This is the most challenging part of the process because you must communicate only the behaviours that you observed directly.

You must not make assumptions or subjective judgments about those behaviours. These could be wrong, and this will undermine your feedback.

For example, if you observed that a colleague made mistakes in a presentation, you should not assume that they hadn't prepared thoroughly. You should simply comment that your colleague made mistakes – and, ideally, you should note what the mistakes were.

Don't rely on hearsay, as this may contain others' subjective judgments. Again, this could undermine your feedback and jeopardize your relationship.

The examples below include a description of the behaviour:

"During yesterday's governing council meeting, when you were presenting the financial reports, you highlighted errors in the report and told the council that others were to blame for the errors."

"At the client meeting on Monday afternoon, you ensured that the meeting started on time and that everyone had handouts in advance. All of your research was correct, and each of the client's questions was answered."

3. Impact

The last step is to use "I" statements to describe how the other person's action has affected you or others. For example:

"During yesterday's governing council meeting, when you were presenting the financial reports, you highlighted errors in the report and told the council that others were to blame for the error. Members of the council were confused about the state of our finances and were unable to make a number of important funding decisions later in the meeting. This has impacted on them and the reputation of our team."

"At the client meeting on Monday afternoon, you ensured that the meeting started on time and that everyone had handouts in advance. All of your research was correct, and each of the client's questions was answered. You did an excellent job and put the organisation in a good light."

Difficult Conversations¹

There will be circumstances where a significant issue with a staff member needs to be confronted because of its importance and impact on the business.

A conversation of this nature will need to be planned, often scripted and it is recommended that it be practiced with a trusted colleague in advance of the conversation.

Determine and name the issue

The conversation must be about a real and current issue. The issue will need to be identified, pinpointed and named. It must be able to be communicated succinctly.

A work colleague has been hard to get along with at work and has not been contributing to tasks as they should.

Evidence the issue

When a problem is first stated, it is often not specific. There will need to be specific evidence and examples of how this issue has arisen or been demonstrated.

Detail the impact the issue is having

The issue is important because of the impact it will be having on the team and the individual. It will usually result in work being passed to others or inconvenience to others. The issue will also usually be impacting on the individual resulting in dissatisfaction with work.

Describe the ideal outcome and your commitment to it

One must be able to describe the ideal state. Unless this state can be detailed, it can never be reached. There will need to be a demonstration that you the manager are committed in some way to this outcome.

Describe what you would like to see happen next

The purpose of the conversation is for the individual to be confronted with an issue and to respond to it in some way. It will not be fair to ask them to respond comprehensively there and then and therefore we will need to outline what we would like them to do over the coming days or weeks.

Allow time for the person to respond

Once these issues have been presented to the individual, there needs to be time to allow for an initial response. This is not time for an argument but time to simply listen.

Confirm the next steps and reinforce support for the ideal outcome

Repeat the plan outlined earlier which could include meeting again or preparing documentation. Confirm the commitment we have made to the outcome and what support we can provide in achieving that outcome.

¹ Reference – *Fierce Conversations* by Susan Scott
Introduction to Supervision & Management

Difficult Conversation – example

The following is based on an experience Mark has had in initiating and conducting such a conversation. This was prepared, scripted and practised before the event. The meeting was pre-booked and lasted about 10 minutes.

Determine and name the issue

Toni – you are a reluctant and often unwilling member of our team. This cannot continue.

Evidence the issues

On Wednesday, Geoff sought your help to assist him in meeting a critical deadline that Friday. You refused to assist for the remainder of the week and yet did not appear to have other high-priority tasks to do. On Friday you called in sick.

Detail the impact the issue is having

Toni, this issue is impacting our business and other members of our team. Geoff and Jenni needed to work late on Wednesday and Thursday to meet the Friday deadline. Your approach to work also appears to be impacting on your health. You regularly leave work early and take days off due to ill health.

Describe the ideal outcome and your commitment to it

The ideal outcome I would like is that our organisation benefits from you being a positive contributor and that you get recognition and satisfaction from your work here.

I am personally committed to this outcome and would like to assist in achieving it.

Describe what you would like to see happen next

Toni - I would like you to spend some time over the coming days thinking about what I am saying to you now and would like to meet with you again on Thursday morning to discuss this matter again. At that time, I would like to discuss a plan of action that we can take to address this issue.

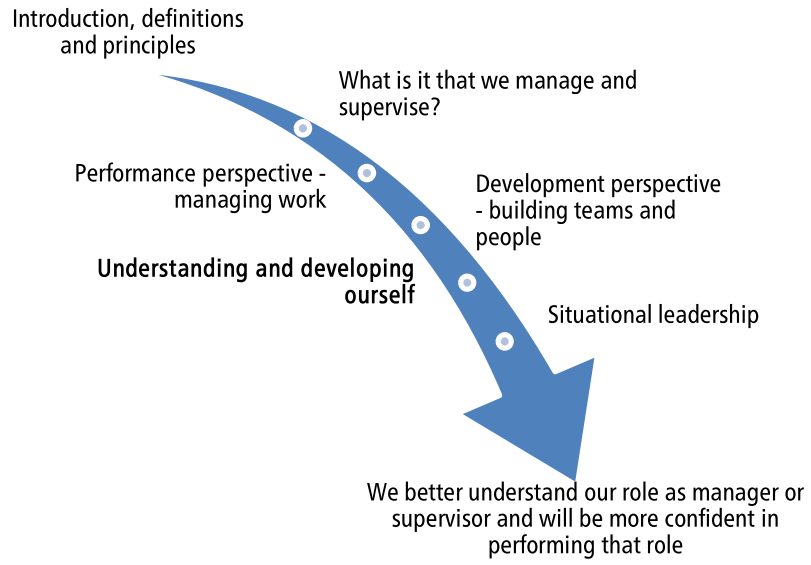
Allow time for the person to respond

Toni – what is your view on what I have been saying?

Confirm the next steps and reinforce support for the ideal outcome

Toni – I would like to meet with you again on Thursday after you have given some thought to what I have said.

I want to restate my commitment to the outcome of you being a valued contributor to the team. At our meeting on Thursday, I would like to discuss a plan of action that we can develop and put into place.



Developing Self

Self-Awareness

As a manager, your personality and the way you go about your work will be more closely scrutinised and tested. Understanding how you deal naturally with stress or how you instinctively react to situations will become important. Your style will now need to adapt to the different personalities in your group.

As a manager, tools to assist you with your self-awareness and self-management can include

- MBTI – Myers/Briggs Type Indicator – “The purpose of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator® (MBTI®) personality inventory is to make the theory of psychological types described by C. G. Jung understandable and useful in people's lives. The essence of the theory is that much seemingly random variation in the behaviour is quite orderly and consistent, being due to basic differences in the ways individuals prefer to use their perception and judgment.” Myersbriggs.com
- DISC – “DiSC is a personal assessment tool used to improve work productivity, teamwork and communication. DiSC is non-judgmental and helps people discuss their behavioural differences. If you participate in a DiSC program, you'll be asked to complete a series of questions that produce a detailed report about your personality and behaviour.” Discprofile.com
- Enneagram – “The Enneagram of Personality, or simply the Enneagram (from the Greek words ennea, meaning "nine" and gramma, meaning something "written" or "drawn"), is a model of human personality which is principally understood and taught as a typology of nine interconnected personality types.” Wikipedia

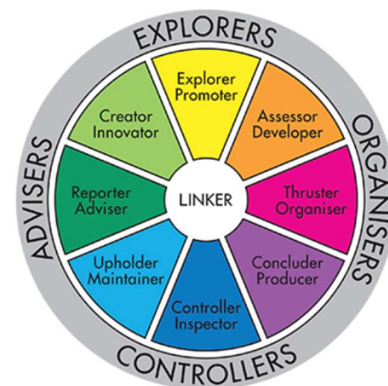
More detail on personality types is provided in Appendix Seven.

A tool that can assist with awareness of the role we play in the team and the nature of our team:

Team Management Systems - The TMP Team Management Profile is based on psychometric assessment for personal and leadership development, as well as for developing teams.

Team profiling can provide information to:

- Identify a person’s strengths and work preferences.
- Develop greater self-awareness.
- Generate actionable strategies to improve performance.
- Understand why people work the way they do.
- Provide a common language for teams to communicate with.
- Successfully and confidently assign people to projects and tasks.
- Deliver objective, constructive and work-focused insights.



Managing Your Time

As a new supervisor or manager, there will be increasing demands on your time. People in your team will want your time to resolve issues or seek clarity. This will mean that, in the past, you could set aside time for your own work with fairly predictable interruptions, you will now be subject to more interruptions and demands.

You need to set parameters around your time. It is also important to discuss with your team, some rules or guidelines to how you and they can manage time.

Some suggestions for time management:

- Know when you work best (morning, afternoon)
- Try and set aside time that is for your work with minimal interruptions
- Schedule time for meetings to make them predictable
- Set aside time when you will focus on emails and phone calls
- Set aside time when you are available for ad-hoc questions and requests
- Complement time with space – to work with minimal interruptions may require finding a quiet room to work in.

Beware of email/Facebook interruptions – we don't have to answer them all immediately. If necessary, 'triage' your messages – categorise and organise them by importance. If necessary, set aside time when you are offline and put in place auto-responses.

Have discipline but beware of being too rigid.

The Covey time management matrix

A more sophisticated model for time management can be found in the work of Steven Covey.

The Covey matrix is created by differentiating activities in two different ways:

- Importance – the extent to which an activity contributes to goals and outcomes
- Urgency – the level of immediacy associated with achieving tasks. High-urgency events tend to be externally driven.

		Urgency	
		High	Low
Importance	High	<p>Activities</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Real crisis • Deadline driven projects <p>Can result in:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Stress and burnout • Crisis management 	<p>Activities</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Long term thinking and planning • Prevention and maintenance activities • Relationship building <p>Can result in:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Vision, perspective • Discipline and control
	Low	<p>Activities</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interruptions • Some emails and phone calls • Some meetings <p>Can result in:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Short term focus • Feeling out of control 	<p>Activities</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Trivia • Time wasters and distractions • Easy activities <p>Can result in:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Loss of focus • Irrelevance • Dependence on others

Importance - The cup, rocks, pebbles and sand

Consider an empty cup that we can fill with rocks, small pebbles or sand.

If we start with rocks and fill the cup to the top, there will still be room for pebbles that we can include second and after that, there will be room for sand.

If we start filling the cup with sand, there will be no room for rocks or pebbles.

The cup represents the time we have.

The rocks represent the things that are most important to us – our family, our health

The pebbles represent the things that rank below that – your job, your car, your belongings

The sand represents everything else in life.

The analogy encourages us to have some clarity about the rocks, the pebbles and the sand in our own lives but also in our organisations.

How we respond to conflict

The factors that dictate *how* we respond to conflict include:

- Our level of assertiveness
- our learnt behaviours
- how important the issue is to us?
- our history with the other party
- our level of self-esteem
- our relationship to the other party (or organisation)
- our health, and
- our current state; tiredness, mood, etc.

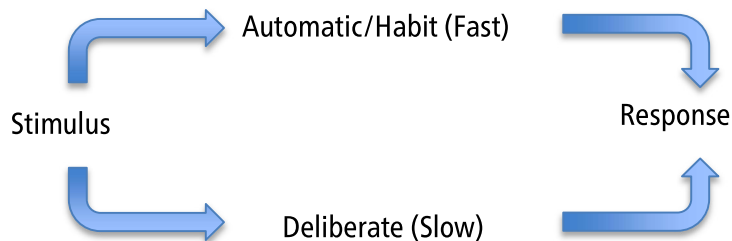
Most of us have a 'default position' when responding to conflict.

Personally - Manage the gap between stimulus and response

The triggers or buttons that 'get us going' are not in themselves responsible for how we respond to conflict. The *Stimulus - Gap - Response* model reminds us that we have a choice whenever we find ourselves in a conflict situation.

"Between stimulus and response, there is a space. In that space lies our freedom and power to choose our response. In our response lies our growth and freedom."

Viktor E. Frankl – Man's Search for Meaning



Beware the 'fast' and 'hot' automatic response.

- Create the space between stimulus and response
- Slow down our response in order to be more deliberate. ²
- Get 'hot' on facts and 'cold' on emotion
- Map out the situation to ensure the range of factors, the context and the sequence of events are understood. Gather information and research the details and assumptions behind budgets and estimates.
- Exercise self-control - Observe and understand your reactions and monitor your stress.

² The concept of 'Fast' and 'Slow' thinking is the subject of Daniel Kahnemann's book, *Thinking Fast and Slow*.

Conflict Management Style - Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument (TKI)

The purpose of understanding the conflict management style is not to prove which is better or worse, or who is better or worse, but to better understand how what style we might default to in conflict.

Each style will have its strengths and weaknesses in certain circumstances.

The TKI is a popular model that describes our preferred responses to conflict. It is based on the 5 responses discussed above, and the principle that we all use a range of styles or modes in handling conflict that are based on our skills and the demands of the situation.

These responses are described in the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument (TKI) as

- Competing - we can choose to win
- Accommodating - we can choose to let the other person win
- Compromising - we can work towards a compromise
- Avoiding - we can retreat and do nothing
- Collaborating - we can work with the other person to get an outcome both are happy with

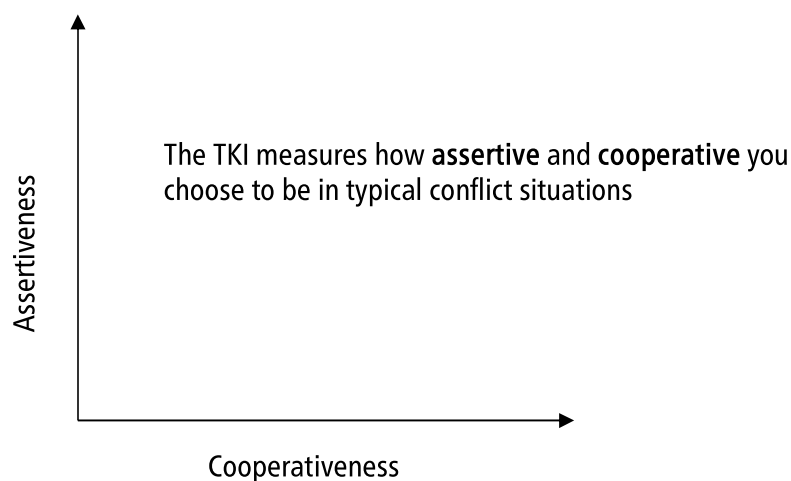
Each of the above styles differs in terms of 2 fundamental aspects:

Assertiveness – the degree to which a person attempts to satisfy his or her own needs.

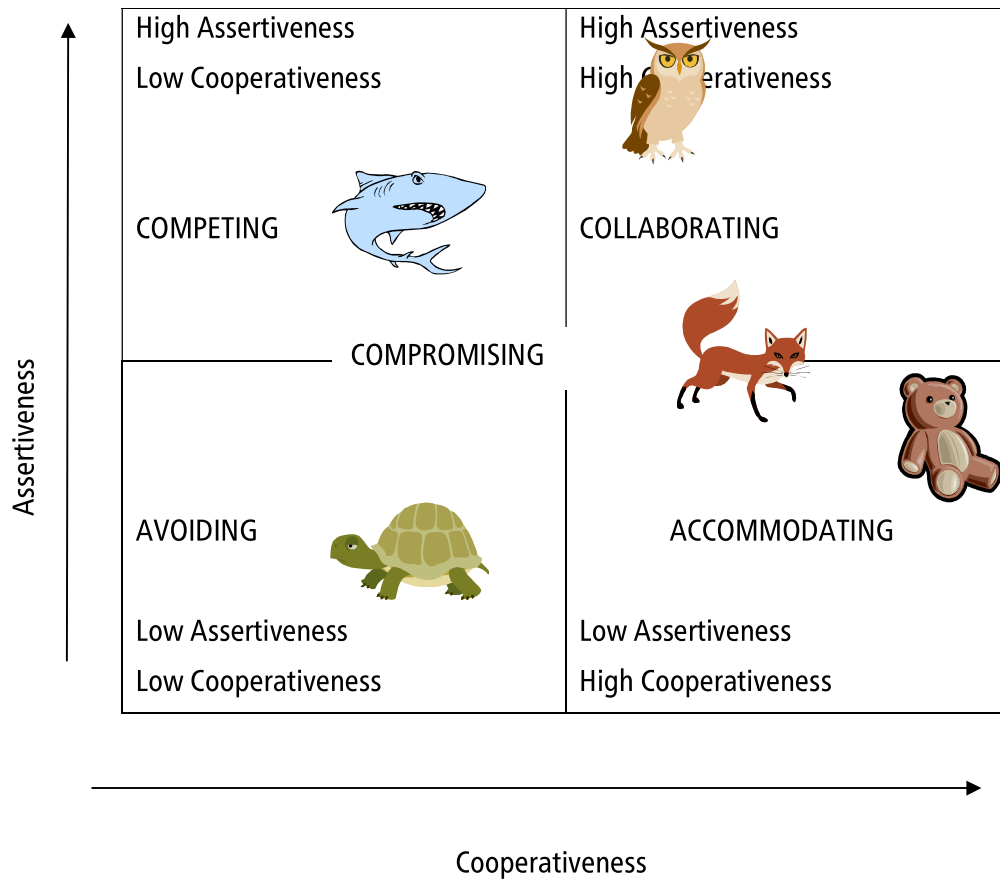
Cooperativeness – The degree to which a person attempts to satisfy the needs of another person.

Most people are more comfortable with, and use, one or two styles over the others.

All modes for handling conflict are useful and effective when used appropriately. There is no "good" or "bad mode", however when any conflict mode is overused or underused, unwanted situations develop. The key is to expand your skill in using all 5 modes and to use the most appropriate for a given situation.



The 5 Conflict Modes or Styles



Discussion:

What is our experience with meetings and what makes a good meeting?

Meetings

Another challenge for new managers and supervisors is the expectation of scheduling and running meetings.

Many people dread meetings. The perception is we spend a lot of time in them for not much benefit. This is a pity, as meetings have the potential to bring the best out in us and to support our work in teams.

Why have meetings got such a bad rap? Patrick Lencioni has identified two failures in the way we have our meetings:

- a) Failure to adapt meetings for different circumstances
- b) We avoid issues making meetings boring.

Lencioni proposes that a good meeting will focus on true issues (usually conflicts or dramas). This should make meetings interesting. To address the second failure, he proposes that we be ready for four types of meetings:

1. A daily check-in (where appropriate)
2. The weekly tactical
3. The monthly strategic
4. Offsite strategic planning.

The daily check-in

A five-minute short meeting to identify immediate issues or changes of priority that need our attention today.

A stand-up meeting with no set agenda that should focus only on where there is any conflict in priorities or ambiguity in what is expected in the coming day.

The daily check-in is not for everyone. It is often used by project teams working with urgency toward deadlines.

The weekly tactical (regular team meeting)

A meeting of between half an hour and ninety minutes that has the goals of resolving issues and reinforcing clarity. These meetings could include the following elements:

- a) A lightning round – each individual checks in to identify current priorities and obstacles
- b) A progress review – reporting on progress against deadlines and against key indicators that may include finances, HR, project status
- c) A real-time agenda – the agenda for the remainder of the meeting is based on any issues arising from the first two elements of the meeting. The only exception would be if the issues arising are strategic and require further research and work before discussion.

Note the agenda for the meeting is not prescriptive – the third item will arise from the other matters.

The monthly strategic

These are the meetings where the team wrestles with issues of importance to the future direction of the team and its work. The issues will have been identified beforehand and so these meetings have more of an agenda structure. The agenda will be focussed on a few critical issues for the business. For the discussion to be meaningful, papers for each issue should be circulated to attendees in advance of the meeting so that they can be prepared for a robust discussion.

Offsite Strategic Planning

An opportunity to undertake more thorough thinking and review of the current strategy, trends and forces in the world around us and to update the strategic plan and business model for our team or business.

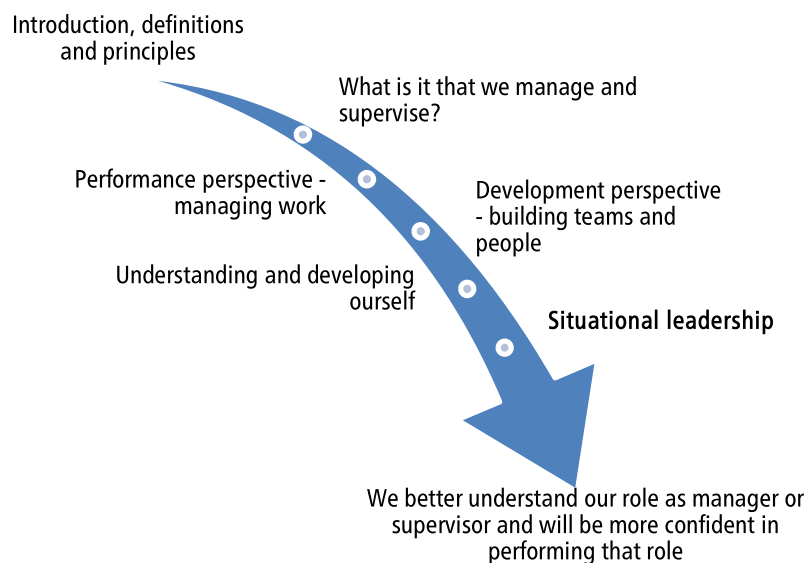
These sessions usually occur offsite to reduce distractions that can arise from being in the office and to create a sense of occasion around these meetings.

The length of the meetings will depend on the depth of issues to be confronted. They could be half a day, a couple of half days or a couple of full days.

The meetings do not have to have set agendas but will have areas that the group will want to cover throughout the meeting.

Reflection

What has been an important learning for me and why?



Situational Leadership (if time allows)

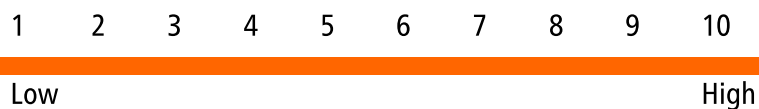
The situational leadership (theory) model is a leadership theory developed by Paul Hersey, professor and author of the book *The Situational Leader*, [1] and Ken Blanchard, leadership trainer and author of *The One Minute Manager* while working on the first edition of *Management of Organizational Behaviour*.

The fundamental underpinning of the situational leadership theory is that there is no single "best" style of leadership. Effective leadership is task-relevant, and the most successful leaders are those who adapt their leadership style to the maturity ("the capacity to set high but attainable goals, willingness and ability to take responsibility for the task, and relevant education and/or experience of an individual or a group for the task") of the individual or group they are attempting to lead or influence.

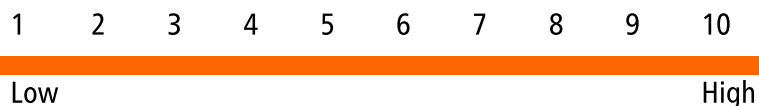
The Employee Perspective

Consider a new employee. Mark where you think they would be on the following scales.

Competence: knowledge, experience and skill to perform



Commitment: Willingness, confidence and motivation to perform



The combination of ability and confidence reflects the readiness of a person to be led to be able to perform a task. Readiness is a function of two things:

- Competence: - refers to the knowledge, experience, and skill a person brings to a particular assignment or activity.
- Commitment: - The degree to which a person shows a belief in themselves, and motivation to accomplish an assigned activity defines their *commitment and willingness*.

Different combinations of competence and confidence are used to determine four categories of readiness for an employee.

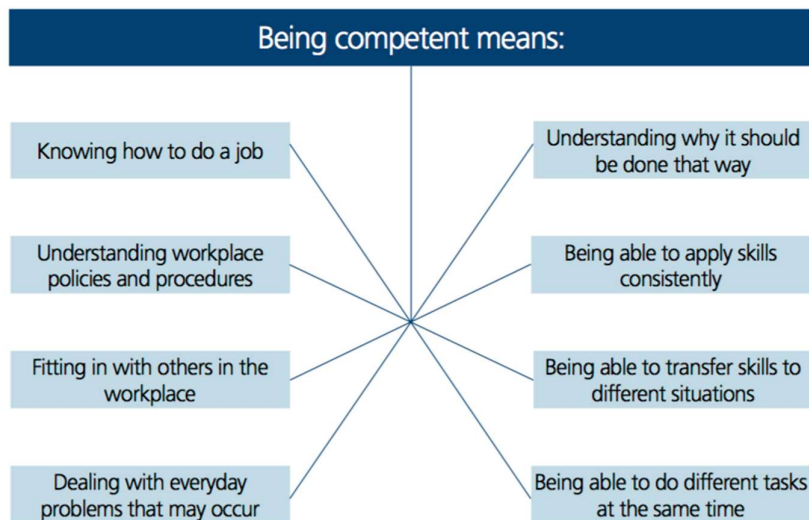
Employee readiness

Low commitment	Reluctant contributor	Disillusioned learner
High commitment	Peak performer	Enthusiastic learner
	High Ability	Low ability

What it means to be competent

An employee is competent when they can apply their knowledge and skills to successfully complete work activities in a range of situations and environments, measured against the standard of performance expected in the workplace and across the industry.

Competency includes what are known as employability skills – the ability to support the workplace through communication, teamwork, problem-solving, self-management, planning and organising, using technology, learning, and taking initiative.



Enthusiastic learner

The employee lacks ability but is motivated and makes an effort to accomplish tasks. The employee may also be unable but committed, as long as you are there to provide guidance.

This can well describe a new employee who is keen to do well but has little knowledge of what is required from a work perspective – they have a lot to learn but are keen to do well and have a good attitude to learning.

Individuals at D1 are open to direction because they are excited and want to do well. What they can't do for themselves, yet is to set their own goals, develop their own action plan, or know if they are on track.

Staff in this category typically don't know what they don't know. They have high levels of unconscious incompetence.

Disillusioned or anxious learner

The employee has developed some ability but may struggle with confidence and motivation. This level may also apply to a person who is both unable and insecure, lacking the confidence to perform a task to standard.

This can happen to a new employee who starts with enthusiasm and self-confidence that is dented by the realisation of how much there is to learn.

Staff in this area are likely to be anxious and lack confidence.

The motivation of this group will drop relative to the previous group as they become aware of how much they don't know – conscious incompetence.

Reluctant contributor

The employee can perform the task but is unwilling to use or apply that ability. The employee is able but insecure—showing ability but acting apprehensively and insecurely about taking the initiative.

This circumstance can arise from confidence being drained by recent failure or by other personal issues. Can also occur when a person starts to get sick of their job or lose interest.

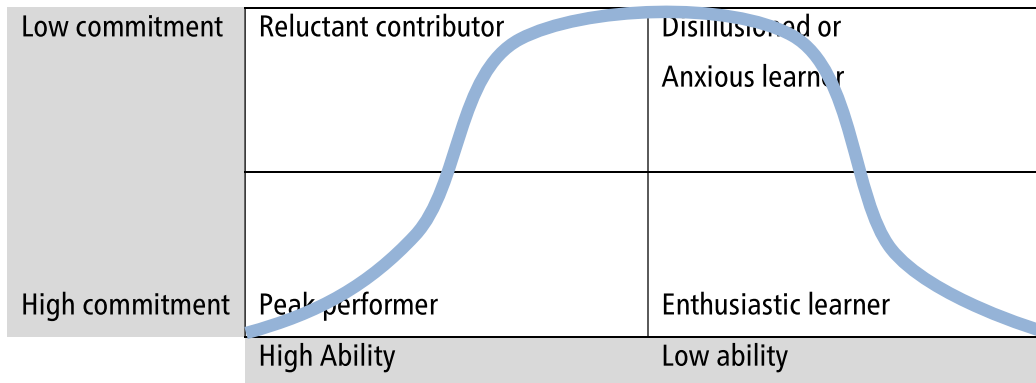
The person may be seeking new challenges or opportunities that expand their capacity or advance their career.

Peak performer

This employee has the ability and commitment to perform the job. The person is confident about completing the assignment and can do so with limited guidance or intervention.

An employee's journey across this matrix will usually start from the bottom right-hand corner and progress upwards into the top boxes and ultimately into the bottom category. This is marked by the curve shown on the diagram.

Employee readiness



The Manager/Supervisor's perspective

The different types of employees or the different stages of an employee's career warrant different leadership or management styles.

A supervisor and leader can be asked to consider their behaviour from two perspectives:

1. The work they manage – the tasks and processes they oversee. This can be defined as "Directive" behaviour.
2. Relationships with individuals – this can be defined as supportive behaviour.

Consider the level of each required for a new employee. Mark where you think they would be on the following scales.

Directive: the extent to which a manager needs to instruct or define the work



Support: the extent of support a manager needs to give an individual



Directing (or task) behaviour - Task behaviour is the extent to which you specifically define the duties and responsibilities of an individual or group. Examples of task behaviour include directing staff in detail on what to do, how to do it, and when to do it. The extent of directing behaviour is indicated by the extent of instructions provided to perform a task.

High Direction is characterised by:

- One-way communication
- Autocratic
- Close supervision

Examples of Directing behaviour

- Setting specific goals and objectives
- Specifying the role of each person in the accomplishment of a task
- Organising resources
- Specifying and communicating job priorities
- Setting detailed timelines for work

Supporting behaviour - Relationship behaviour is the extent to which you engage in two-way or multidirectional communication with your subordinates. Such behaviour includes listening, facilitating, praising, collaborating, counselling, consulting, and other socially and emotionally supportive behaviours.

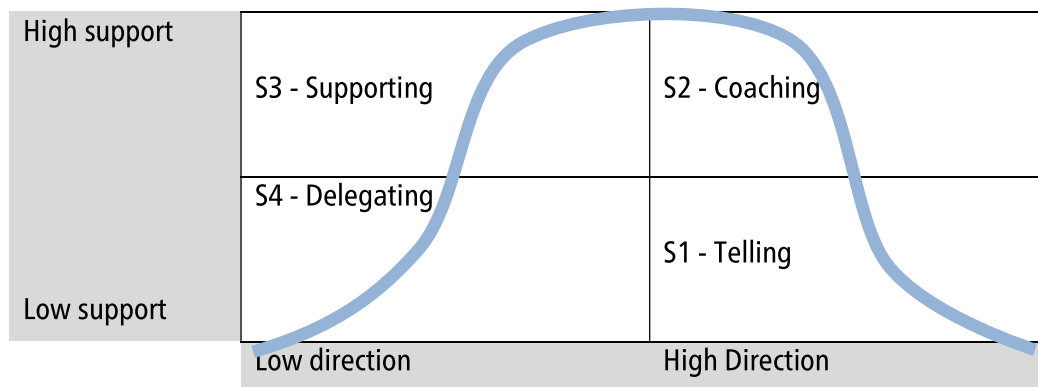
Higher supportive behaviour is characterised by:

- Two-way communication
- Democratic behaviour
- Working with team members to determine and understand tasks
- Monitoring performance

Support will manifest itself in the form of encouragement, recognition of progress made by the employee and reinforcement of initiative and risk-taking.

Different combinations of competence and confidence are used to determine four categories of leadership.

Leadership styles



Style 1 – Telling

Leader decides

When the follower cannot do the job and is unwilling or afraid to try, then the leader takes a highly directive role, telling them what to do but without a great deal of concern for the relationship. The leader may also provide a working structure, both for the job and in terms of how the person is controlled.

Good instruction and monitoring of the entire work process would be the best style of leadership in this situation. This is also sometimes referred to as task-oriented leadership with less concern for human relationships and support.

Requires clear instruction and the need for tasks to be broken into small components and steps.

Style 2 – Coaching

We discuss and negotiate – the leader will decide

When a person has developed some skills but has started struggling with motivation or confidence, the leader needs to start dialling down the telling and dialling up the support.

The leader may first find out why the person is not motivated and if there are any limitations in ability. These two factors may be linked, for example where a person believes they are less capable than they should be, they may be in some form of denial or other coping mechanism. The follower may also lack self-confidence as a result.

Direction is still required as the employee is usually still coming to terms with the skills expected of them. Whereas in the earlier category, where the leader can tell without support because the employee's enthusiasm handles the confidence or motivation, for this category of employee, reduced confidence needs to be matched by increased support.

Coaching combines direction and support with more two-way communications but the leader makes the decisions.

The leader thus spends time listening and advising and, where appropriate, helping the follower to gain necessary skills through coaching methods.

Staff in this area are likely to be anxious and lack confidence. Provide and surround them with support – include other staff in this support network.

- Leader needs to be available to take questions
- Be very careful not to embarrass or create unrealistic expectations
- Encourage and support progress
- A leader needs to take care to not be surprised if knowledge levels are lower than expected.

Style 3 – Supporting

We discuss and negotiate – we decide

When the follower can do the job but is refusing to do it or otherwise showing insufficient commitment, the leader need not worry about showing them what to do and instead is concerned with finding out why the person is refusing and thence persuading them to cooperate.

There is less excuse here for followers to be reticent about their ability, and the key is very much around motivation. If the causes are found they can be addressed by the leader. The leader thus spends time listening, praising and otherwise making the follower feel good when they show the necessary commitment.

This style is focused on building confidence by listening to suggestions and by guiding staff as they develop and implement their solutions based on their competence.

Staff are encouraged to develop and implement their own solutions based on their competence. The leader's role may also be to remove obstacles.

Style 4 – Delegating

Staff decides

When the follower can do the job and is motivated to do it, then the leader can leave them to it, largely trusting them to get on with the job although they also may need to keep a relatively distant eye on things to ensure everything is going to plan.

Followers at this level have less need for support or frequent praise, although as with anyone, occasional recognition is always welcome.

With delegation, you simply let the person get on with their job making yourself available should the need arise.

Reflection

What has been an important learning for me and why?

Coaching Model

Quality world Goals, Aspirations, Vision	
Current reality What are you doing now? What is happening now?	
Evaluate Is this helping me reach my goals? Is there something I need to do differently? Where am I strong?	
Options What are my choices? Can I build on what's working?	
Planning What steps will I take? How will I do? What are the issues I need to be prepared for going forward? What support is needed?	
Action plan – what is being committed to?	

GROW (Goals, Reality, Options and What Next) is an alternate model used to help an individual think through.

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Appendix One: Analysis of Supervision and Management

The Evolution of Management

The different stages of the evolution of the subject of Management are captured in a Harvard Business Review Article - *Management's Three Eras: A Brief History* by Rita McGrath (July 2014).

In the article, the following three eras are put forward:

1. Industrial Revolution - Business as a machine - focus on efficiency, specialisation of labour, achieving scale (Scientific Management & Bureaucratic management)
2. Modernisation - Emphasis on expertise - new theories of management arose that put far more emphasis on the motivation and engagement of workers (Human Relations theory and Psychology)
3. Third era – quest for empathy appears to be emerging putting a large emphasis on the importance of meaning –for workers and customers.

Management Models

Fayol's Principles of Management

Henri Fayol, (1841-1925), author of the textbook, *Classical Administrative Theory Of Management*, which is often used today, identified the five basic management functions. He developed the fourteen basic principles of management that underlie all managerial tasks.

The five basic management functions are:

1. **Planning.** This managerial function concerns itself with anticipating the future and determining the best course of action to achieve organisational objectives.
2. **Organising.** Organising is defined as the management function that blends human and material resources through the design of a formal structure of task and authority.
3. **Staffing.** The staffing function concerns itself with recruiting, selecting, training, and assigning the right person to the right position within the organization.
4. **Directing.** Guiding and motivating employees towards organisational objectives.
5. **Controlling.** The final function of management is controlling wherein the organisation's performance is evaluated to determine whether or not it is accomplishing its objectives.

Fayol's 14 principles of management are:

1. **Division of Work:** Specialisation allows workers and managers to acquire an ability, sureness, and accuracy that will increase output. More efficient work will be produced with the same effort.
2. **Authority:** The right to give orders and the power to exact obedience are the essence of authority. Its roots are in the person and the position.
3. **Discipline:** Discipline is comprised of obedience, application, energy, behaviour, and outward marks of respect between employers and employees. It is essential to any business. Without it, no enterprise can prosper. It is what leaders make it.

4. **Unity of Command:** An employee should receive orders from one superior only. It's generally better to have one supervisor than a duality of command.
5. **One Head, One Plan:** One supervisor with one objective should lead a group of activities having the same objective.
6. **Subordination of Individual Interest to General Interest:** The interest of one person or group in a business should not prevail over that of the organisation.
7. **Remuneration of Personnel.** The price of services rendered should be fair and should be satisfactory to both employees and employers. A level of pay depends on an employee's value to the organisation and factors independent of an employee's worth -- such as cost of living, availability of personnel, and general business conditions.
8. **Centralisation:** Everything that serves to reduce the importance of an individual subordinate's role is centralisation. Everything that increases the subordinate's importance is decentralisation. All situations call for a balance between these two positions.
9. **Scalar Chain:** The chain formed by managers from the highest to the lowest is called a scalar chain of command. Managers are the links in the chain. They should communicate to and through the links as they occur in their chains. Links may be skipped or circumvented only when superiors approve and a real need exist to do so.
10. **Order:** This principle is simple advocacy of a place for everyone, and everyone in his or her place; a place for everything and everything in its place. The objective of order is to avoid loss and waste.
11. **Equity:** Kindness and justice should be practised by persons in authority to extract the best that their subordinates have to give.
12. **Stability of Tenure of Personnel:** Reducing the turnover of personnel will result in more efficiency and fewer expenses.
13. **Initiative:** People should be allowed the freedom to propose and execute ideas at all levels. A manager who can permit the exercise of initiative on the part of subordinates is far superior to one who is unable to do so.
14. **Esprit De Corps:** In unity there is strength. Managers promote harmony and discourage and avoid those things that disturb harmony.

The Scientific Management Model – F. W. Taylor

“**Scientific Management**, also called **Taylorism**,^[1] is a theory of management that analyzes and synthesizes workflows. Its main objective is improving economic efficiency, especially labour productivity. It was one of the earliest attempts to apply science to the engineering of processes and management.

Its development began in the United States with Frederick Winslow Taylor in the 1880s and '90s within the manufacturing industries. Its peak of influence came in the 1910s; by the 1920s, it was still influential but had entered into competition and syncretism with opposing or complementary ideas.”

Source: Wikipedia

Appendix Two: Organisational Maturity

Organisational maturity is a guide to the state and progression of an organisation's readiness and capability. The concept of maturity ratings is based on the Capability Maturity Model (CMM) developed by the Software Engineering Institute (SEI). Maturity ratings are used to evaluate aspects of a business or function using a five-level scale.

A healthy organisation will evaluate its maturity across a range of attributes to help it identify goals for improvement in readiness and capability.

Attributes of a business or function that can be assessed and given a maturity rating include:

- How it goes about managing its business processes – Process management
- How it goes about managing projects - Project Management
- How it goes about managing its finances – Financial Management.
- How it goes about managing its assets – Asset Management

A maturity level represents a step in the evolution of organizational improvement. Each maturity level is necessary to prepare an organization to move to the next maturity level.

What are the different levels of maturity?

1. **Unaware – Chaos – (highly reactive)** - At maturity level 1, processes are usually ad hoc and chaotic. When responses are required, the business is highly reactive as to what it does and how it does it. The organization usually does not provide a stable environment to support processes. Success in these organizations depends on the competence and heroics of the people in the organization and not on the use of proven processes. Despite this chaos, maturity level 1 organizations provide services that often work, but they frequently exceed the budget and schedule documented in their plans.

Maturity level 1 organizations are characterized by a tendency to overcommit, abandonment of processes in a time of crisis, and an inability to repeat their successes.

2. **Aware & Planning – (planned reaction)** - At maturity level 2, measures are taken to establish the foundation for an organization to become an effective service provider by institutionalizing basic Project Management, Support, and Service Establishment and Delivery practices. The second level of rating is indicated by an awareness of the need to improve and planning has commenced to create a more structured and organised response. The need for repeatable processes is recognised and are being planned or developed. Process adherence is periodically evaluated and process performance is shared with senior management. The process discipline reflected by maturity level 2 helps to ensure that existing practices are retained during times of stress.
3. **Defined and partially integrated (ordered)** - The third level of rating requires a definition of services and processes and partial integration of these aspects into the management of professional services. At maturity level 3, service providers use defined methods for managing processes and projects. They embed tenets of project management and service best practices, such as service continuity and incident resolution and prevention, into the standard process set. The organisation verifies that selected work products meet their requirements and validates services to ensure they meet the needs of the customer and end user.

These processes are well characterized and understood and are described in standards, procedures, tools, and methods.

The organization's set of standard processes, which is the basis for maturity level 3, is established and improved over time. These standard processes are used to establish consistency across the organization.

A critical distinction between maturity levels 2 and 3 is the scope of standards, process descriptions, and procedures. Another critical distinction is that at maturity level 3, processes are typically described more rigorously than at maturity level 2.

4. **Integrated & managed (organised)** - The fourth level of operation is competence, where the organisation is running with fully defined and fully planned systems. Business processes are functional and all responses to situations follow due process, supported by information technology. At maturity level 4, organisations establish quantitative objectives for quality and process performance and use them as criteria for managing processes. Quantitative objectives are based on the needs of the customer, end users, organization, and process implementers. Quality and process performance are understood in statistical terms and are managed throughout the life of processes.

A critical distinction between maturity levels 3 and 4 is the predictability of process performance. At maturity level 4, the performance of processes is controlled using statistical and other quantitative techniques and is quantitatively predictable. At maturity level 3, processes are typically only qualitatively predictable.

5. **Optimised & sustainable (exemplar)** - The fifth level of operation is best practice or exemplar, where the organisation is seen as a leader in the field. The business is also continuously reviewing and improving people, processes and technology based on reported measures and evidence. Maturity level 5 focuses on continually improving process performance through incremental and innovative process and technology improvements that enhance the organisation's ability to meet its quality and process-performance objectives.

A critical distinction between maturity levels 4 and 5 is the type of process variation addressed. At maturity level 4, the organization is concerned with addressing special causes of process variation and providing statistical predictability of results. Although processes may produce predictable results, the results may be insufficient to achieve established objectives. At maturity level 5, the organization is concerned with addressing common causes of process variation and changing the process (to shift the mean of the process performance or reduce the inherent process variation experienced) to improve process performance and to achieve established quantitative process improvement objectives.

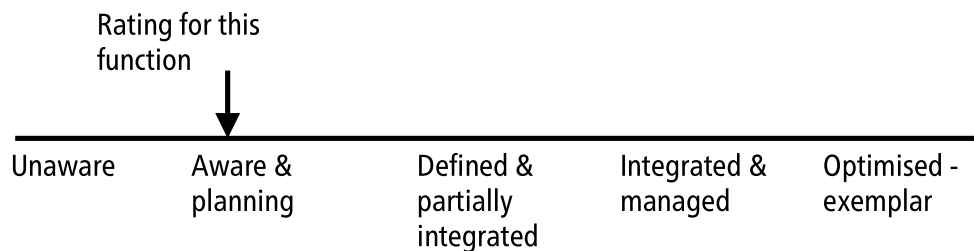
The concept of organisational maturity enables a business or function to evaluate its current performance and begin the process of improvement across the range of maturity rankings. It can put business improvement into context.

Most businesses and functions aspire to be optimised and sustainable. However, if the starting point for the business is a lower level of organisation maturity, the path towards being optimised and sustainable needs to be designed carefully and traversed patiently.

Example

An example of the application of the maturity rankings is shown below:

The maturity rating for the delivery of {service or function X} across the business is shown below.



This rating is consistent with feedback from staff that services across the business are highly reactive and that while organisation structures are in place, there delivery of services is not as ordered or as organised as it could be. It is acknowledged that resource deficiencies could also be a cause of these circumstances. However, the existence of apparent resource deficiencies and high levels of stress amongst staff delivering the services is, of itself, an indicator of the maturity of organisational capability in managing these services.

Reasons for this rating –

- Structure roles and responsibilities – the structure of [function X] is defined with position descriptions in place for each position. Roles and responsibilities are documented in position descriptions but are compromised by the degree of service specification. In this regard, the rating is *Defined*.
- Service specification –services are not well specified. Evidence of this is the lack of clarity from divisions in the services delivered by the team (and therefore on the role of the team), and feedback from service staff that the work they do goes beyond their position descriptions. In this regard, the rating of management capability is *Aware*.
- Business processes – while many business processes impacting services are prescribed by the Business, the demonstrated capability of managing business processes across the unit is low. There is a low appreciation of the nature of business processes and poor documentation of procedures. As a result, outcomes from processes, that should be similar across divisions, vary. In this regard, the rating of management capability is between *unaware and aware*
- Measurement and control – a significant observation from this review is the lack of objective information to support service standards, workload or performance. While there is considerable anecdotal evidence of workload, there is little or no objective evidence or benchmarks to support this. In this regard, the rating of management capability is *unaware*.

What is necessary to progress up the scale:

- Improved service specification for the range of services, in particular from the central office to ensure transparency in the services being delivered from the central office on behalf of divisions and to comply with Corporate accountability requirements
- Improved documentation and definition of key business processes, in particular for process A, process B and process C.
- Improved coordination and collaboration across divisions in the conduct of key business processes
- Establishing basic key measures and indicators of workload and performance for administrative services. This includes maintaining benchmarks regarding the demands for administrative services and the delivery of administrative services.

Appendix Three: Values

Values as part of our Core ideology (Built to Last)

In the book, Built to Last, the authors identified that a feature of visionary organisations was a core ideology and that the core ideology had two elements:

1. **Core values** - defined as essential and enduring tenets or beliefs within an organisation
2. **Purpose** - the organisation's fundamental reason for existence – “a perpetual guiding star” that was not financial.

The concept of core values is based on the importance of distinguishing the small number of values that lie at the heart of the organisation and define it in an enduring way. These core values are held dear and not violated.

It has become a pattern of organisations having too many values that make it difficult for them to be applied or used in making decisions or truly guiding behaviour.

It has also become a common practice to attempt to copy the values of others based on the view that if the values work for one organisation, they can be copied by us to help us become a successful organisation.

Values should reflect the uniqueness of the organisation and its role in the community.

Values - Lencioni

Patrick Lencioni develops thinking about values further, identifying different types of values to ensure we distinguish our core values from other 'nice-to-have' or 'not-to-have' values within our organisation. He distinguishes four types of values:

1. Core values
2. Aspirational values
3. Permission-to-play values
4. Accidental values

Core Values

A small number of traits that are at the heart of the organisation. These cannot be contrived and will be long-standing. They guide every aspect of the organisation. These values will also set the organisation apart from other organisations.

Examples:

- Merck (drug company) – has as a core value Science-based innovation
- Sony – being a pioneer – not following others, but doing the impossible

Aspirational values

These are characteristics an organisation wants to grow or to do its very best that they want to add to the organisation. They differ from core values as they have not been inherent over time and they may not be natural.

Examples: An Audit company wants to be more creative and innovative.

Permission-to-play values

These are minimum behavioural standards that are not necessarily unique to your organisation but that are required for it to function.

Examples include:

- Honesty
- Respect for others

Accidental values

These are values that have evolved unintentionally. These may be values that may or may not serve the good of the organisation. They have just built up over time and may continue to be tolerated or may be identified to be modified or eliminated.

Example: We are polite, although we are so polite, we tend to get taken advantage of.

Appendix Four: Managing Processes and Routines

As a manager, you want to manage routines. Routines are consistent and standard ways of performing tasks. Consistency and standardisation are critical to efficiency.

We want to set up routines for work as regular and predictable. We don't want to have to guess each time about how we do this work.

We want to carry out the majority of our work without having to think too much about it.

Thinking takes time. Thinking requires effort. We should try and reserve our energies to do it when we need to.

At work, routines are also referred to as business processes.

Without routines, without processes, each piece of work would feel like a new adventure. A new adventure that we need to think hard about. For predictable, repeated work this is inefficient.

Business processes have a downside. They can become boring. They are not for everyone. Business processes and routines are for those with an eye for efficiency. They are for customers who want to rely on what you're producing and not pay any more than they have to. Customers won't like adventure for work that should be predictable and repeated.

They are for owners who want to make the most from the money they have invested in the business.

Diagnosing the performance of an organisation can be done by understanding and reviewing its business processes. A series of questions relevant to processes include:

- Have the processes been actively managed or have they evolved?
- Is someone specifically in charge of each business process?
- Do business processes cover all the work done within the business? (If they don't, we can potentially find the adventure and sources of chaos. We could find the sources of inefficiency.)

We can also find processes that don't work and business processes that have workarounds. Often the workarounds won't be documented and aren't well understood. These could be examples of poorly designed processes.

The Importance of Design

To manage processes, we plan them, we design them, we control them and we monitor them.

Be careful that our routines are not badly designed. If they are badly designed, they can become routines but they will not be efficient. Once they become routines, even if they are badly designed, they will be hard to change.

To manage anything, we need an understanding of how it was designed.

To manage a budget, we need to understand what is assumed what it allows for and what it doesn't allow for

To manage a project, we need to understand the rationale behind it and how it was designed.

The same applies to processes. For processes, it is harder to change the design when I realise that it's flawed.

A process consists of a series of tasks that are sequenced together. The art of designing the process is not just about the specific tasks. The art lies in how they are joined and sequenced.

It will be the handover points and transitions that make a process work or cause it to be poorly designed. The handover points and transitions are usually interactions between people.

Process design will manifest itself in procedure documents. We often call these standard operating procedures (SOPs).

Principles of Process Design

Some of my thoughts on important principles behind designing processes:

- In a customer marketplace orient your processes around your customers. Make the process easy for your customers to follow
- In the public service, orient processes around your beneficiaries and your funders (approvers)
- Be clear on the deliverable – is it a document, is it advice, is it care? Name it and be clear on it.
- Get feedback early in the process in particular feedback on your design of deliverable
- Timestamp the process
- Allow time within the process for quality control
- Document the procedure so expectations can be managed and assumptions made clear to all staff involved with the process.
- Technology should support processes - Use technology to automate and support your procedure.
- Design for the rule and manage the exceptions. Don't design business processes to try and process every different type of transaction. Design processes for the majority of transactions and high-value transactions. and manage the exception.

Tasks, processes and projects

In discussing the nature of projects and the nature of processes in organisations, I have received feedback that projects consist of tasks or that projects consist of a series of processes. But others say that processes consist of tasks. I am keen to distinguish the definitions of projects, processes and tasks.

It is my view that projects and processes are fundamentally different ways of approaching work. Both consist of tasks – a discrete piece of work or activity. The fundamental difference is that with process work, the tasks are repeated and form routines, while with projects, several tasks may be once-off and unique to the project.

A household analogy may be helpful. In running a household with school-aged children, we attempt to establish routines (or processes) to ensure certain tasks happen every day. We want breakfast to be eaten, beds to be made, teeth to be brushed, lunch to be made and packed, school uniforms to be ready etc. We establish sets of routines or processes that aim to ensure these tasks happen every day they need to be.

There is the 'getting ready in the morning' routine, the 'getting home from school' routine, and the 'get ready for bed' routine. Each consists of a series of tasks (e.g. eating breakfast, brushing teeth, getting dressed, making lunch).

These are the processes or routines of family life and we do them so that gradually they become habits, second nature and do not require a lot of thought but make sure that the basics of life are taken care of.

We also have family projects, those things we do that are unique or unusual that also consist of a series of tasks. A holiday could be considered a form of family project. It requires special planning and will consist of a series of tasks that are not as routine – packing, getting passports, arranging vaccinations, finding help to look after pets etc.

The balance between processes (or routines) and projects is important. In family life, too many projects can result in instability that may compromise some of the basics in life, like hygiene, diet and exercise. Alternately, too much emphasis on routine can dull life and reduce creativity and enjoyment. There will be a constant tension between routine and differences that we will be working through and that may be unique to each family.

The same will apply to organisations. The balance between routine work and project work will be a constant source of tension inside organisations.

The need for processes is to ensure efficiency and to ensure that customer requirements and standards are consistently met. The need for projects may be internally triggered by the needs of staff and management to improve their work. Projects can also be externally triggered by competitive forces or by funding cuts that demand a change in the way we go about our business.

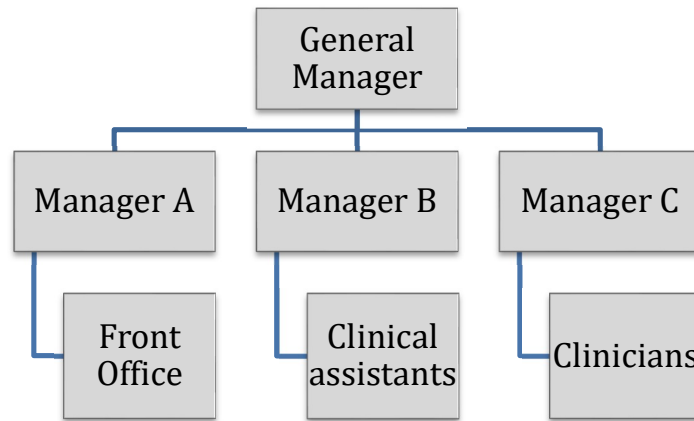
Appendix Five: Processes, Projects and Organisation Structure

Managing projects in our organisations can have implications for how we work in our teams. Many organisations are structured to manage the predominant type of work required to be done by the organisation. This could mean teams are structured by function or by expertise.

I can think of an example – my ophthalmologist. I have had problems with my eyes that have required me to regularly visit an ophthalmologist. The business appears to be structured into three teams:

1. Front Office
2. Clinical Assistants
3. Clinicians.

This is shown in the diagram below.



If our organisations have regular business processes as their focus, these processes will have been operating across teams in such a way that the teams are familiar with what their contributions are to how the processes work and familiar with how they interact with other teams. Business processes are repeated and standard and serve to function like operational habits. While processes require interactions across teams, the repeated nature of processes means that our interaction with other teams is a matter of habit. The standardisation and error minimisation involved in processes often means that these interactions are straightforward.

Using the example of the ophthalmologist, the basic business process consists of the following steps:

Step 1: The client is received at the front office to check in and check records are updated.

Step 2: The client and their records are handed over to the clinical assistant team

Step 3: The clinical assistant team performs necessary assessments and scans

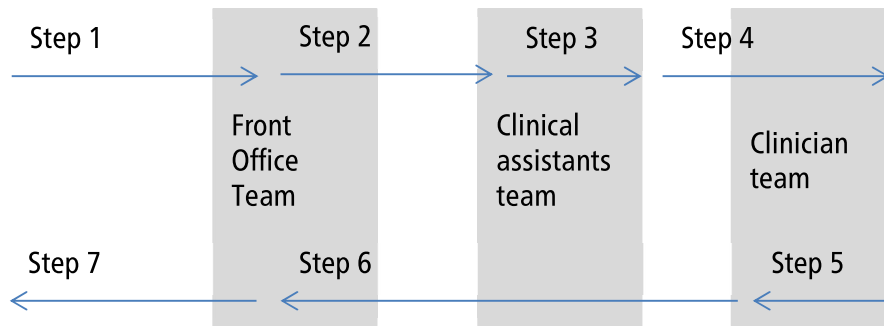
Step 4: The client and their records are handed over to the clinician team

Step 5: The clinician consults with the client

Step 6: The client and their records are handed over to the front office team.

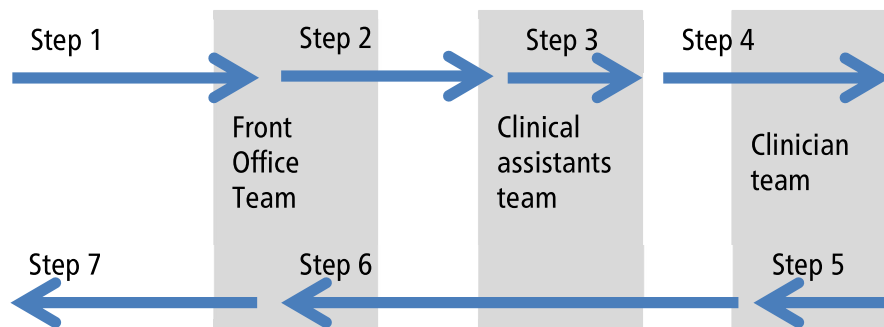
Step 7: The client makes payments and schedules future appointments before leaving.

On our organisation chart, these seven steps look like this -



When managing processes, we can be structured into our teams and the routine of our business processes can link us up with other teams. The habitual nature of the process is such that our relationship with other teams becomes a matter of habit and does not require additional effort to maintain. The processes become a form of organisational fabric that holds the teams together naturally. The repeated nature of the processes serves to strengthen the fabric. They 'tighten' up our organisation.

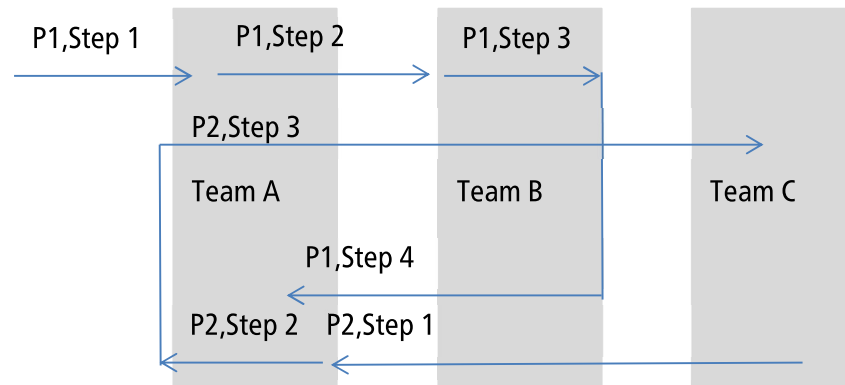
The repeated nature of these steps means the business processes can be considered as working across our structure with stronger bold lines indicative of the reinforced nature of the work.



With mature processes, the linkages across teams are natural and self-reinforcing. The handover of work between teams becomes natural and automated. Each is performing their role, and the habitual nature of the process makes the interactions look seamless and natural.

Managing projects may also require a combination of functions, skills or expertise requiring participation across teams. But projects are typically doing unusual or unfamiliar work and so our interaction with other teams will require additional effort. Working with other teams on projects, while also working with our usual processes, can prove challenging. Our process work is habitual and familiar and will be what we gravitate towards. Our project work can be challenging and can become a source of tension in managing our own time and in managing our relationships and obligations with other teams. For project work, the fabric holding teams together is thinner and less reinforced by repetition.

It could look something like:

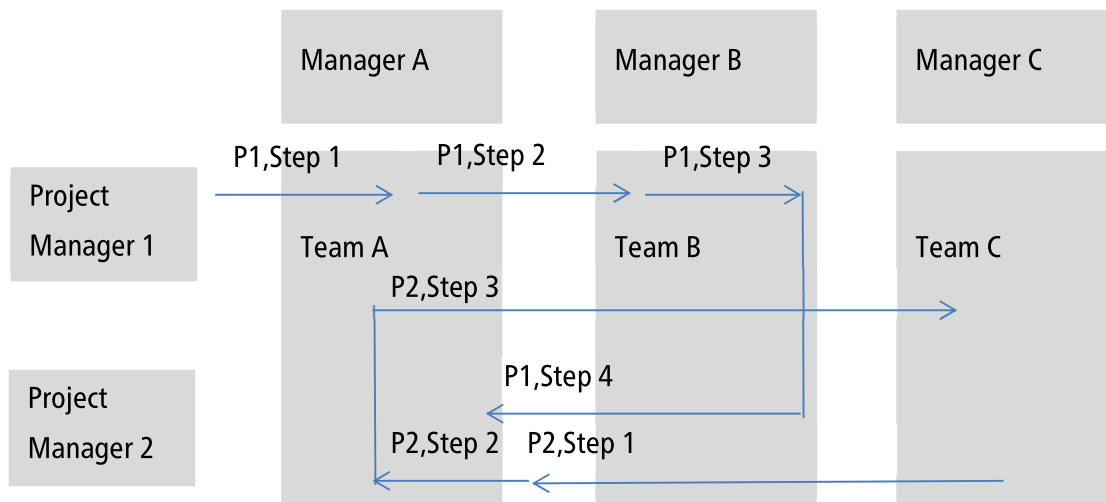


P1 is project 1

P2 is project 2

For projects, the linkages across teams are less natural and because of the unique nature of projects, they are not self-reinforcing.

To attend to this tension and the fact that projects trigger less routine links between teams, organisations often establish matrix organisation structures.



Members of teams A, B and C have standard reporting lines to their manager but they can also have project reporting arrangements with project manager 1 or project manager 2. In a matrix structure, reporting arrangements work vertically and horizontally.

As a staff member, our work will differ in a business that has a combination of project work and process work. At any time, we could have multiple obligations to our line manager and to project managers. Our adaptability and flexibility will be tested and will require negotiation and time management skills. Negotiation skills are required to work through the relative priorities of our work and to clarify expectations for the new and unfamiliar work that occurs in projects. Time management skills are required to ensure we set aside the time necessary to perform the tasks required of us by our line managers and our project managers.

It is also important to understand the relationship between your work and that of others in a project. There may be dependencies between your task and that of others in the project. If your task is a predecessor to other tasks, they will not be able to start until you are finished.

The combination of process work and project work into teams adds to the sophistication and possibly to the complexity of managing organisations. To this end, management thinkers like Peter Drucker have suggested, for organisations managing larger projects, that project work be separated from process work to enable staff and managers to be focused on specific pieces of work.

Appendix Six: Business Model and Financial clarity at work – the Scientists

I was asked to help a team of scientists who had been asked to deliver their services with less money. They were part of a government department and had been given a savings target from the Government.

There is a range of scientific services that operate across State and Federal Governments. In the State Government examples include pathology and radiology services within the Health and Human Services Department, Forensic sciences within the Justice Portfolio, and food, plant and biosecurity services within the environment and primary industries sectors. In the federal government, examples include the CSIRO, the Bureau of Meteorology and aspects of customs.

The initial reaction from the scientists was that they could not achieve their savings targets through efficiencies. Improving their services was an ongoing task and they were continually finding ways to deliver their services more efficiently.

They were confused by the allocation of a savings target without regard for the services they delivered. They had not been consulted on the amount of savings or their implications. My assistance was sought to help them work through this task. In the first instance, I made it clear to them, that all parts of government have savings targets allocated to them. It is a reasonable thing for the leaders of an organisation to expect ongoing improvement and efficiencies as well as the government making decisions to reallocate money due to changing demographics or economic realities like lower taxation income.

My first piece of advice is not to get caught up on why they had been allocated savings or the politics of their savings target. Our goal was to achieve a line of sight between the financial parameters of their business and the service parameters of their business so the implications of the savings targets would be clear to them, to their department and the Government. I wanted to understand the full cost for the delivery of their services and the relationship between these costs, the revenues of the business and the activity of the business.

We started by viewing their business as a series of functions or services. Most businesses do this naturally and the result of this can be seen from organisational structures.

All organisations of any size can be distilled down into two functions:

- Function One: Produces and Delivers the outputs of the business (e.g. Laboratory services, tests, freight to deliver)
- Function Two: Supports function one (e.g. Finance, HR, ICT)

The first function incurs direct costs and the second function incurs indirect costs. The second function is often described as an overhead. Both functions are necessary in any business.

We started by understanding the structure of their business and how the finances were allocated across the various functions of your business. It was important to be able to have both a historical view of their finances by function and to have a forward-looking view of their finances by function. The second area is often not that well understood.

I wanted to develop a representation or a financial exhibit of their overall business showing the revenues and expenses of each function.

We developed an initial financial graphic of the business that looked as follows:

	Team one	Team Two	Team three	Team four	Corporate		Total
					ICT	Exec/Finance/HR	
Labour	x	x	x	x	x	x	∑ Labour
Goods procured	x	x	x	x	x	x	∑ Goods
Services procured	x	x	x	x	x	x	∑ Services
Sub total expenses	X^1	X^2	X^3	X^4	ICT	EFH	Total Costs of Running the business

The graphic showed the total expenses for the business as the sum of the expenses across each team (from left to right) and the sum of expenses across the different categories of expenses (from top to bottom).

The scientists had structured their business and their finances in this way and we were able to construct this above table quite easily.

To get a better line of sight, we needed to understand the full cost of delivering the services from each of the teams. To do this, we need to allocate or attribute the corporate costs across each of the teams. Attributing ICT expenses can be done by identifying the ICT requirement of each team (number of computers, machines or data usage from each team). Other corporate costs are often attributed to teams based on the number of FTEs in each team as a % of the total of the four service delivery teams. I wanted to develop a second financial exhibit that looked like that below.

	Team one	Team Two	Team three	Team four	Corporate		Total
					ICT	Exec/Finance/HR	
Labour	x	x	x	x	x	x	∑ Labour
Goods procured	x	x	x	x	x	x	∑ Goods
Services procured	x	x	x	x	x	x	∑ Services
Sub total expenses	X^1	X^2	X^3	X^4	ICT	EFH	Total Costs of Running the business
ICT allocated	ICT	ICT	ICT	ICT	-ICT		0
Exec/Finance/HR allocated	EFH	EFH	EFH	EFH		-EFH	0
Total attributed expenses	Y^1	Y^2	Y^3	Y^4	0	0	Total Costs of Running the business

We now had a display of the total expenses associated with each team in the business.

My next request for an improved line of sight was to include some measures of activity or output for each of the teams. For the scientists, the measures of activity could have included:

- The number of tests performed
- reports produced
- cases managed
- investigations conducted.

The scientists did have measures of their activity, although they were nervous about how well these captured some of the subtleties of their work. For instance, those who performed tests would comment that they had simple tests and more complex tests. They should not be counted as the same. We could address this by establishing the concept of a standard test and then estimating that complex tests were the equivalent of

three standard tests. Now we could combine the different tests into one meaningful measure of the number of standard tests performed. This activity data can be included in our graphic and can be used to calculate an average cost per item. This is shown in the graphic over the page.

	Team one	Team Two	Team three	Team four	Corporate		Total
					ICT	Exec/Finance/HR	
Labour	x	x	x	x	x	x	∑ Labour
Goods procured	x	x	x	x	x	x	∑ Goods
Services procured	x	x	x	x	x	x	∑ Services
Sub total expenses	X^1	X^2	X^3	X^4	ICT	EFH	Total Costs of Running the business
ICT allocated	ICT	ICT	ICT	ICT	-ICT		0
Exec/Finance/HR allocated	EFH	EFH	EFH	EFH		-EFH	0
Total attributed expenses	Y^1	Y^2	Y^3	Y^4	0	0	Total Costs of Running the business
Activity Measures							
Tests performed	Z^1						
Cases Managed		Z^2					
Reports produced			Z^3				
Investigations conducted				Z^4			
Average cost (\$) per							
Tests performed	$=Y^1/Z^1$						
Cases Managed		$=Y^2/Z^2$					
Reports produced			$=Y^3/Z^3$				
Investigations conducted				$=Y^4/Z^4$			

We are now establishing a line of sight between the expenses of the business and the activity of the business. With this line of sight, the scientists were now able to demonstrate the impact of the budget savings on their activity levels. A reduction in the budget for team one will translate into that team performing fewer tests or managing fewer cases which will likely impact the waiting time for tests or cases.

Another benefit of this line of sight is that the scientists have developed parameters for their business that can be benchmarked. As a minimum, they can benchmark their current and future performance against their past performance. They can also benchmark their performance against that of other enterprises to find and identify opportunities for improvement or to identify where they have achieved high standards of efficiency or effectiveness. The main benefit of external benchmarking is that it acts as a trigger to evaluate performance and to find ways to improve, from the examples of comparable businesses.

The scientists modelled these impacts and provided a submission back to the Government to demonstrate the impact of the budget reductions. They modelled the impact on the number of tests performed and estimated the increased waiting times arising from the reduced activity. There are functions of government where the speed and waiting times for scientific tests will impact other services. Examples will include the speed of pathology tests in moving patients through hospitals, and DNA tests in progressing police investigations and court trials.

An example of the outcome of this work is provided in the following graphic.

	Team one	Team Two	Team three	Team four	Corporate		Total \$'000
	\$'000	\$'000	\$'000	\$'000	ICT \$'000	Exec/Finance/HR \$'000	
Labour	300	400	350	500	100	300	1,950
Goods procured	400	200	300	200	300	100	1,500
Services procured	500	100	500	300	200	300	1,900
Sub total expenses	1,200	700	1,150	1,000	600	700	5,350
ICT allocated	116	155	135	194	-600		0
Exec/Finance/HR allocated	135	181	158	226		-700	0
Total attributed expenses	1,452	1,035	1,444	1,419	0	0	5,350
Activity Measures							
Tests performed	751						
Cases Managed		94					
Reports produced			143				
Investigations conducted				66			
Average cost (\$) per							
Tests performed	1,933						
Cases Managed		11,016					
Reports produced			10,095				
Investigations conducted				21,505			
Impact of \$100,000 reduction							
	52 less tests	9 less cases	10 less reports	5 less investigations			
Est increase in waiting time							
	2 days	1 week	1 week	2 weeks			

This final graphic provides a line of sight between expenses and their relationship with activity and their relationship with a performance indicator like waiting times.

In the case of the scientists, the Government received their submission and feedback from other agencies was such that they wanted to avoid the impact of increased waiting times in one of the services. The increase in waiting times in other services was not ideal but deemed tolerable.

The Government then reinstated some of the savings requirement, seeking to quarantine some key functions from the impact of savings.

The example shows the value of having a line of sight between finances, activity and outcomes and increases the financial clarity for the business. The example also shows business model clarity and financial clarity at work. In this case, the financial clarity served as a defence against budget cuts for one team in the business. For other teams in the business, the financial clarity serves to help manage expectations about service levels, demonstrating that the savings would impact service volumes and waiting times.

Conclusion

Financial clarity is a keystone requirement of public administration. It enables internal management and decision making and it enables external decision making with respect to funding and expectations.

Be prepared to answer two questions:

1. Do I know what resources I need to do what is expected of me?
2. Do I know what I can deliver with the resources I have been provided?

Appendix Seven: Personality type and archetypes

Myers Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI)

The Myers-Briggs system is based on the work of Isabel Briggs Myers which measures 16 personality types in C G Jung's theory of psychological types. The insights of personality type distinguish the natural differences between people and provide a basis for discussion and respect for these differences.

The following is an excerpt from <https://www.myersbriggs.org>

"The Myers-Briggs® system consists of four preference pairs that reflect different aspects of personality – opposite ways to:

- direct and receive energy through Extraversion (E) or Introversion (I),
- take in information with Sensing (S) or Intuition (N),
- come to conclusions using Thinking (T) or Feeling (F), and
- approach the outside world through Judging (J) or Perceiving (P).

Most people find that one preference, in a preference pair, best describes their natural way of doing things, where they feel the most comfortable being themselves, outside of any roles they play in life. When the letters for each of these preferences are combined, 16 distinct personality types form which consist of different characteristics unique to that type."

ISTJ

Quiet, and serious, earn success by being thorough and dependable. Practical, matter-of-fact, realistic, and responsible. Decide logically what should be done and work toward it steadily, regardless of distractions. Take pleasure in making everything orderly and organized—their work, their home, their life. Value traditions and loyalty.

ISFJ

Quiet, friendly, responsible, and conscientious. Committed and steady in meeting their obligations. Thorough, painstaking, and accurate. Loyal, considerate, notice and remember specifics about people who are important to them, and concerned with how others feel. Strive to create an orderly and harmonious environment at work and home.

INFJ

Seek meaning and connection in ideas, relationships, and material possessions. Want to understand what motivates people and are insightful about others. Conscientious and committed to their firm values. Develop a clear vision about how best to serve the common good. Organized and decisive in implementing their vision.

INTJ

Have original minds and a great drive for implementing their ideas and achieving their goals. Quickly see patterns in external events and develop long-range explanatory perspectives. When committed, organize a job and carry it through. Sceptical and independent, have high standards of competence and performance—for themselves and others.

ISTP

Tolerant and flexible, quiet observers until a problem appears, then act quickly to find workable solutions. Analyse what makes things work and readily get through large amounts of data to isolate the core of practical problems. Interested in cause and effect, organising facts using logical principles, and value efficiency.

ISFP

Quiet, friendly, sensitive, and kind. Enjoy the present moment, what's going on around them. Like to have their own space and to work within their time frame. Loyal and committed to their values and to people who are important to them. Dislike disagreements and conflicts; don't force their opinions or values on others.

INFP

Idealistic, loyal to their values and to people who are important to them. Want to live a life that is congruent with their values. Curious, and quick to see possibilities, can be catalysts for implementing ideas. Seek to understand people and help them fulfil their potential. Adaptable, flexible, and accepting unless a value is threatened.

INTP

Seek to develop logical explanations for everything that interests them. Theoretical and abstract, interested more in ideas than in social interaction. Quiet, contained, flexible, and adaptable. Have an unusual ability to focus in depth to solve problems in their area of interest. Skeptical, sometimes critical, always analytical.

ESTP

Flexible and tolerant, take a pragmatic approach focused on immediate results. Bored by theories and conceptual explanations; want to act energetically to solve the problem. Focus on the here and now, be spontaneous, and enjoy each moment they can be active with others. Enjoy material comforts and style. Learn best through doing.

ESFP

Outgoing, friendly, and accepting. Exuberant lovers of life, people, and material comforts. Enjoy working with others to make things happen. Bring common sense and a realistic approach to their work and make work fun. Flexible and spontaneous, adapt readily to new people and environments. Learn best by trying a new skill with other people.

ENFP

Warmly enthusiastic and imaginative. See life as full of possibilities. Make connections between events and information very quickly, and confidently proceed based on the patterns they see. Want a lot of affirmation from others, and readily give appreciation and support. Spontaneous and flexible, often rely on their ability to improvise and their verbal fluency.

ENTP

Quick, ingenious, stimulating, alert, and outspoken. Resourceful in solving new and challenging problems. Adept at generating conceptual possibilities and then analyzing them strategically. Good at reading other people. Bored by routine, will seldom do the same thing the same way, apt to turn to one new interest after another.

ESTJ

Practical, realistic, matter-of-fact. Decisive, quickly move to implement decisions. Organize projects and people to get things done, and focus on getting results in the most efficient way possible. Take care of routine details. Have a clear set of logical standards, systematically follow them and want others to also. Forceful in implementing their plans.

ESFJ

Warmhearted, conscientious, and cooperative. Want harmony in their environment, and work with determination to establish it. Like to work with others to complete tasks accurately and on time. Loyal, follow through even in small matters. Notice what others need in their day-to-day lives and try to provide it. Want to be appreciated for who they are and for what they contribute.

ENFJ

Warm, empathetic, responsive, and responsible. Highly attuned to the emotions, needs, and motivations of others. Find potential in everyone, and want to help others fulfil their potential. May act as catalysts for individual and group growth. Loyal, and responsive to praise and criticism. Sociable, facilitate others in a group, and provide inspiring leadership.

ENTJ

Frank, decisive, and assumes leadership readily. Quickly see illogical and inefficient procedures and policies, and develop and implement comprehensive systems to solve organizational problems. Enjoy long-term planning and goal setting. Usually well-informed, well-read, enjoy expanding their knowledge and passing it on to others. Forceful in presenting their ideas.

Amy Gallo (Getting Along)

In her book, *Getting Along*, Amy Gallo describes eight different archetypes to identify different personalities we may experience in ourselves and our colleagues. For each archetype, she provides some descriptions and background, some questions we can ask ourselves to assist in working with each and tactics to try when working with each

Her eight archetypes are:

1. The insecure boss
2. The pessimist
3. The victim
4. The passive-aggressive peer
5. The know it all
6. The tormentor
7. The biased coworker
8. The political operator.

Throughout the book, Amy Gallo stresses the importance of reminding ourselves that we only have control over ourselves and to be aware of our personality type and behaviour as part of any conflict.

Appendix Eight: Conflict Management

Group discussion

Is all conflict bad?

What are some negative consequences of no conflict?

It is natural to disagree. We have different opinions, access to different information, and different ways of thinking.

It is natural for there to be disagreements in our organisations. Without conflict, these issues get resolved through power or bias.

If we do not have conflict, we can have apathy and poor decision-making.

Conflict itself is a natural and healthy part of life. Without it, we would never challenge each other to strive for better outcomes, both in personal and work life. Invariably it is the way we choose to deal with conflict that can be the source of anxiety, tension and misery. Relationships don't end because of disagreements but how the disagreements are handled.

Task conflict vs relationship conflict

A distinction that is made in considering conflict is between task conflict and personality conflict.

Task conflict - involves concrete issues related to employees' work assignments and can include disputes about how to divide up resources, differences of opinion on procedures and policies, managing expectations at work, and judgments and interpretation of facts.

Relationship conflict - arises from differences in personality, style, matters of taste, and even conflict styles. In organizations, people who would not ordinarily meet in real life are often thrown together and must try to get along. It's no surprise, then, that relationship conflict can be common in organizations.

Task conflict is natural when there is not one right way to do work or when we are looking for different ways of doing work. However, relationship conflict can be more difficult to manage.

'Play the ball, not the man' - It is important to separate task conflict from relationship conflict in organisations.

A Conflict Spectrum

If all conflict is not bad, we need to distinguish healthy conflict from unhealthy so we can manage it knowing what might happen if we don't. Consider conflict across the following spectrum.

	Unhealthy aversion of conflict	Constructive tension	Healthy conflict resolution	Unhealthy escalation of conflict
What happens	Avert and ignore disagreements and differences	Recognise differences and work with them	Recognise differences and resolve conflicts	Escalate conflict to the detriment of people and organisations
Comes from	Fears and anxieties of going against prevailing views	Acceptance of differing views being sustained, Accepting opposing goals and working with them	Recognising differences, accepting them and finding ways to work with them	Win at all costs mentalities and heightened fears of lose or of harm
Consequences	We get walked over Group think Abilene Paradox Withdrawal	Better able to deal with complexity	Find resolutions so we can move on	Collateral damage

Unhealthy Aversion of Conflict – Groupthink and the Abilene Paradox

The left-hand side of the above continuum recognises that if we avoid conflict out of natural fears and anxieties, it can be detrimental to decision-making and can result in apathy. Examples of the impact of an unhealthy aversion to conflict have been documented in examples of groupthink and the Abilene Paradox.

What is groupthink

Groupthink is a phenomenon that occurs when a group of well-intentioned people makes irrational or non-optimal decisions spurred by the urge to conform or the belief that dissent is impossible. The problematic or premature consensus that is characteristic of groupthink may be fuelled by a particular agenda—or it may be due to group members valuing harmony and coherence above critical thought. - Source: Psychology Today

What is the Abilene Paradox

The Abilene Paradox is a phenomenon that describes a situation in which a group makes a collective decision that does not correspond to the feelings and thoughts of the individuals in the group.

This happens when certain members of the group when making decisions, go with the rest of the group even when they don't agree with the rest.

Another expression used for this situation is commonly known as a desire not to "rock the boat".

This phenomenon was written about by Jerry Harvey in 1974 when reflecting on his own experience of a day trip to Abilene in Texas. On a hot Sunday, a father suggests a day trip to a country town for afternoon tea. Other family members, including a son-in-law, accept the offer although motivated primarily by not wanting to upset the father. The trip is hot and dusty and the cafeteria is disappointing. After the event, each party reflects on not really wanting to go, but agreeing because they thought others wanted to go and they did not want to 'rock the boat'.

An often-cited example of the impact of conflict aversion is the case of the Space Shuttle Challenger

The example of the Space Shuttle Challenger

The Space Shuttle Challenger disaster occurred in January 1986. The story:

Where: Florida

When: January 1986

Weather: Cold - 37 degrees Fahrenheit

The space shuttle Challenger launched. Seventy-three seconds into its flight, the shuttle blew apart killing seven crew members.

Disintegration of the vehicle began after an O-ring seal in its right solid rocket booster (SRB) failed at lift-off. The O-ring was not designed to fly under unusually cold conditions as in this launch. The temperature at the time of launch was 37 degrees Fahrenheit. O-rings had never been used in space flight at temperatures less than 53 degrees Fahrenheit. At temperatures around 53 degrees Fahrenheit, data showed the O-rings were more susceptible to failure.

The NASA side of the story

NASA was under pressure to launch the space shuttle for political reasons – The space shuttle program was a demonstration of American innovation and for time reasons, the shuttle was scheduled to hook up with an international space station and timing was everything.

NASA also had a culture of high data standards and that if data could not show a failure, it did not exist.

The Engineer's side of the story

Before the launch, the engineers at the launch pad were concerned about the performance of the O-rings in cold conditions.

They recommended that the launch of the Challenger should be delayed until warmer conditions prevailed or until the performance of the O-rings could be guaranteed.

To tell their story the engineers produced a series of tables but the data was not strong enough to meet the 'standards' of NASA decision-making. Under pressure from NASA, the engineers ultimately decided to not stop the launch and accept that the launch should proceed.

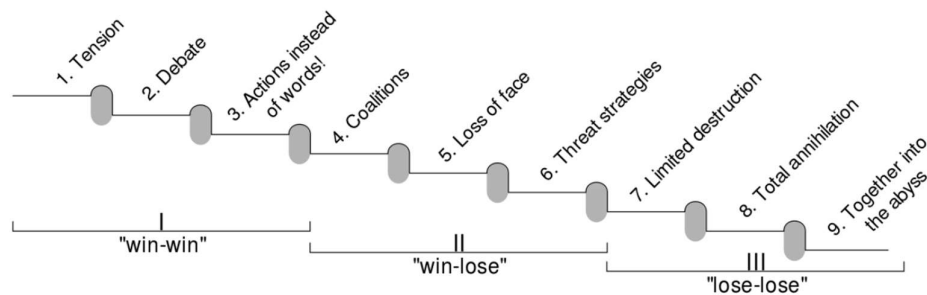
Glas's conflict escalation

The right-hand side of the continuum is well captured in Glas's model of conflict escalation. In that model, Glasl presents the impacts of conflict if it escalates to becoming unhealthy. In Glasl's model, conflicts become unhealthy from stage four onwards – once there can be only one winner.

In personal settings, escalation occurs when we put personalities ahead of tasks or the organisation and strive to be the winner. It can arise from competitive personalities that view the conflict as being an indicator of their power or status.

Each action or event produces a stronger reaction, repercussion and/or retribution. The parties' lists of grievances and justifications increase. Retaliation for current and past events increases the blame, harm and/or desire for justice.

Escalation is fuelled by fear and a perceived need to protect against harm. Many of the ingredients of conflict escalation are natural. We want to protect ourselves, we want to secure our esteem or identity.



9 Levels of Conflict Escalation according to Friedrich Glasl, Author: Swinnall, original from Sampi (CC BY-SA 4.0)

The movie War of the Roses is used as an example that captures how conflicts escalate across Glasl's model.

Stage 1 – Tension

First tensions are noticeable and become conscious, different opinions collide, and the fronts can harden and cramp. The situation is still harmless, differences of opinion are commonplace and can be resolved through discussion. No camp or party formation yet.

Stage 2 – Debate

The disagreement becomes more fundamental, the opponents try to convince the other through rational arguments and put under pressure. Everybody insists on his/her point of view, uncompromising black-and-white thinking and verbal violence.

Stage 3 – Actions instead of words

The pressure on the conflict partner is increased. Talking no longer helps with actions deemed necessary. The verbal communication steps into the background. The opponent is confronted with accomplished facts. The empathy for each other gives way to distrust and negative expectations, which intensifies the conflict even more.

Stage 4 – Coalitions

The fourth stage is where there can only be one winner left. The opponents search for supporters and allies. Image campaigns are released and bad rumours about the other party are spread. It is no longer about the original thing, but about winning the conflict.

Stage 5 – Loss of face

The mutual attacks will begin directly and personally, immoral “blows below the belt”. Wherever you can, you want to expose your opponent. The loss of morality and mutual trust goes hand in hand with the loss of face. The sight of the opponent alone creates negative feelings, even disgust.

Stage 6 – Threat strategies

Through threats and counter-threats, the conflict parties try to win the upper ground. A demand is intensified with a punishment and supported with proof of the punishment possibility. The more credible the possibility of punishment, the more effective the threat and the sooner the demand will be met. This is about who has more power and can enforce the worst punishments. The conflict continues to get worse and worse.

Stage 7 – Limited destruction

The stage where one’s damage is accepted if only the other’s damage is greater. Humanity is over now, all tricks are used to harm the opponent. The opponent is no longer perceived as a human being but as a thing without feelings. Values and virtues are gone.

Stage 8 – Total annihilation

The ultimate goal is the collapse of the enemy system. The front fighters are cut off from their allies and supplies, vital functions are attacked to the point of physical-material, mental-social or spiritual destruction.

Stage 9 – Together into the abyss

There is no going back, there is a total confrontation between the two parties. If you can drag your opponent into the abyss with you, then you jump. Self-destruction is accepted. Damage to the environment or descendants can’t stop this.

Model of de-escalation

The conflicts of levels 1-3 are still to be solved peacefully among each other, possibly someone intervenes mediating (e.g.: the parents ask their children to reconcile again). At level 4, the affected parties need outside help to solve their conflict. Glasl envisages the following model to de-escalate the conflict:

- Stage 1-3: Self-help is still possible
- Stage 2-3: Help through friends, family or professional moderation
- Stage 3-5: Help through external professional process support
- Stage 4-6: Help through external socio-therapeutic process support
- Stage 5-7: Help through external professional mediation
- Stage 6-8: Assistance through voluntary or mandatory arbitration
- Stage 7-9: Help is only possible through a power intervention from above

Dispute resolution processes are employed to either contain or formally manage a dispute so that it doesn't escalate beyond stage 6.