Role of a manager in a self-determinative resource program

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THE ROLE OF A MANAGER

IN A

SELF-DETERMINATIVE RESOURCE PROGRAM

by

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Bachelor of Science, California State Polytechnic College, 1961

Presented in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Resource Administration

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# TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>INTRODUCTION</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER 1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Know Your Public!</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER 2</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managerial Roles and Responsibility Definition</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER 3</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational Climate For Success</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER 4</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summary and Conclusion</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BIBLIOGRAPHY</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
THE ROLE OF THE MANAGER
IN A SELF-DETERMINATIVE RESOURCE PROGRAM

INTRODUCTION

This professional paper is written not only to fulfill a require­
ment for the degree of Master of Resource Administration, but in the
hope that it will provide some positive guidance to managers. In this
sense, I mean managers who deal with public programs as direct adminis­
trators, advisors or on a cooperative basis.

Since my primary interest in the Master of Resource Administration
Program has been public administration, I have emphasized this aspect
of management. However, as one will note in the bibliography, much of
the source material has been borrowed from the behavioral sciences as
well as the business field. Hopefully, therefore, it lends itself to
the broader application in spite of Sayre's Law which states that
"Business and government are just the same except in all the important
aspects."1

Of the variety of programs administered and services provided by
federal, state and local units of government the greatest opportunity,

1Joseph L. Bower, Managing the Resource Allocation Process: A
Study of Corporate Planning and Investment, Division of Research,
Graduate School of Business Administration, Boston, Harvard University
to my knowledge, for citizen involvement and self-determination exists in the field of resource management. Voluntary self-determination is classed by Zavalloni as a psychic factor specific to human activity. He defines the term as:

...the power an individual has of acting with conscious intentionality, of producing a true voluntary act, of actualizing a volition in the true meaning of the term.²

A number of individuals may be similarly moved. They may foster a group effort toward the definition, analysis and solution of resource based problems. This community action, involving concerned citizens, will usually bring with it a temporal dimension of behavior if the citizens are sufficiently concerned. The group will probably want its efforts to endure. It is this future perspective that introduces into their behavior a constructive element constituting a line of development which may be considered specifically human.

It is recognized, however, that there are various combinations of circumstances that may require action that need not have this enduring quality. Under these circumstances it is rational to approach, identify, analyze and solve problems on an "ad hoc" basis.

The key point is the consciousness of acting. Zavalloni emphasizes that this is the characteristic distinguishing voluntary action from all other activities. He points out that decisions involving this factor are not only spontaneously attributed to the ego, but are considered by all the subjects to be voluntary. He further makes the point that

all other elements can be disposed of without this feature losing the characteristic by which it is considered voluntary.\(^3\)

While a psychological study of the volunteer is beyond the scope of this paper, the topic itself suggested the need for a strong introductory foundation. In so doing the relationship between the "alternatives of choice" and the presence of "the ego-who-chooses" has been established.\(^4\) This relationship should be important to a manager working with self-determinative groups.

Our environmental conflicts center around the use and abuse of our resources. Powerful interest groups struggle to exploit, preserve, recycle and conserve resources. The extraction, harvest, processing, production, and sale of the resource and/or the item manufactured from it affects people locally, regionally and nationally. To be keenly aware of the needs, desires, and pressures of these several publics, the modern manager or public administrator needs to have them involved with him.

To be successful the manager must become acquainted with and understand the people involved in the program. He does not just do things for people, or through people, he does things to people. It is with this idea in mind that I have constructed this paper in the manner illustrated by the Table of Contents.

\(^3\)Ibid., p. 106.
\(^4\)Ibid., p. 111.
CHAPTER I

KNOW YOUR PUBLIC!

So you are the new manager? Perhaps you are stepping into a role as manager of an irrigation district, pollution abatement district, flood control district or perhaps as an agency official assisting local people with their university's extension program, a Resource Conservation and Development project and/or a Conservation District Program. It really does not make that much difference. If a manager or public administrator is serious about his intentions of helping people with their problems, there are some things he will want to know.

First (and perhaps the key) item is to know the people with whom he will be working. Make a concerted effort to understand them. Who are they? What are their cultural backgrounds and social patterns? Who are their leaders and what values do they hold? An alert public administrator will be seeking out key individuals to assist him in his managerial functions. Alan Booth and Gunnied Bisztray note in a study depicting patterns of influence in a small town, that there are two types of individuals that local people turn to for advice in decision making. They term these individuals as:

1. The local influential.

2. The cosmopolitan influential.
Booth and Bisztray indicate that local influentials were preoccupied with local community affairs. The local influentials know more people locally, and were better informed about the intricate interrelationships in the community than were the cosmopolitan influentials. The cosmopolitan influential, while interested in local affairs was, however, also concerned with national and international problems. This was evidenced most strongly in communication behavior in that the cosmopolitan influential was a much heavier consumer of mass communicated information, particularly about the outside world, than was the local influential.

Booth and Bisztray point out that these distinctions have also been used to characterize the loyalties, reference group orientations, and values of individuals. This being the case, a conscientious manager should be quick to identify these influential persons and assess their part in, and effect on, the program he is charged with administering.

Messrs. Booth and Biztray state:

If most of the members have a cosmopolitan orientation toward information sources, some low ranking, locally-oriented members will participate in the hope that participation will enhance their status in the association, the integrated cosmopolitans are central to the success of the activity. They will constitute the largest group of participators, and they may even draw in a few highly integrated members who are not particularly sympathetic to the program. However, their

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participation will not serve as an incentive for cosmopolitan members who are not well integrated; such persons cannot risk their marginal status in the group by deviating from the dominate value orientation.6

The relative economic positions and political biases of people are important too. This can be especially critical because most self-determinative programs depend, for the most part, on what are essentially volunteer inputs. While some community organizations are able to pay their workers, often even this payment is only a token. Most such local organizations are considered fortunate if they are able to provide mileage and expense money for their officers. The program manager is then, essentially dealing with volunteer or unpaid elected participants in these programs. Similar principles could, however, be effectively applied to paid organizational workers.

Julia Abrahamson in her article "Who Volunteers and Why" responds to the question "What keeps volunteers working?" in the following manner:

Interest in their community, of course, and a sense of responsibility for it. But they would not continue to work month after month, year after year, if the experience were not personally satisfying. It is up to the professional worker (or chairman) to make it so. Whether she or he succeeds or fails depends primarily on her or his own personality and attitudes. To work successfully with volunteers, certain qualities are vital: warmth, thoughtfulness, sensitivity, and interest in and concern for people, the ability to identify them with, a genuine respect for their skills and their strengths.7

6Ibid., p. 44.

Ten general principles may be cited which will provide guidance to the manager: 8

1. Continued participation depends upon reward. The rewards will vary with volunteers. They may be the opportunity for self-expression, for recognition, the need to feel useful and important, the opportunity to learn, to meet new and different people, to use leisure time for social improvement and/or a desire to meet unmet community needs.

2. Volunteers must see the relationship of the job they do, however small, to the total effort. Many jobs in an organization require minutia, repetition and attention to detail. Depending on the organization, its nature, and structure, the professional (or his staff, if any) may be able to relieve the volunteers of this responsibility so that they can concern themselves with policy development and implementation pertinent to the overall program. In some organizations, however, it is exactly this detailed kind of work that is done through the volunteer effort. In any case it is vitally important that the volunteer realize the role he or she plays in the organization and how his or her efforts will be utilized.

3. Volunteers must be made to feel the importance of their contribution. What does the volunteers' contributed effort mean in

8Ibid., paraphrased and adapted.
terms of service provided, community betterment, savings to the organization and/or the opportunity for others to contribute also. The volunteer has a right to know what his or her contribution means to the organization and the professional has an obligation to tell the volunteer.

4. The first efforts of a volunteer must be simple enough to insure success. This principle is vital to maintaining a volunteer's interest. Task assignments must be within the individual's skill and experience. Frustrations at the outset may be death to the efforts of volunteers whereas small successes will lead them to greater successes.

5. Volunteers must have opportunities to grow and learn. Interest ceases when stagnation begins. Most people are unwilling to do the same jobs repeatedly. Keeping people continually involved demands new challenges, the provisions of opportunities to try new methods and skills and the kind of leadership ability that broadens horizons, providing potentialities for growth and leadership.

6. Volunteers must be encouraged to make as many decisions as possible. Growth is demonstrated by the capacity ot make intelligent decisions. One of the hardest leadership jobs in a volunteer organization (especially the democratic, citizens group) is to refrain from making all the decisions. It may be the simplest thing to do, but it is nearly often wiser and healthier for the
organization to allow the volunteers to do it. There is a very fine line between knowing when to step in and when to remain silent. Generally people can be trusted to act with maturity if they are treated like reasonable human beings. If they are given the facts and a sense of direction with regard to policy and programs, they will generally make intelligent decisions.

7. Volunteers work best in a warm friendly atmosphere, where their efforts are obviously needed and appreciated. The professional manager must see that the volunteer is made to feel a part of the working family and that appreciation is expressed when deserved. Each volunteer needs to be treated as an individual human being.

8. Volunteers must not be taken for granted. They do not owe the manager or the organization anything. They are contributing time which they might otherwise be using for pleasure or profit rather than performing a community service. Certainly that service gives them satisfaction or they wouldn't be doing it. However, the manager's appreciation of their sacrifice and recognition of its value should be sincere. Appreciation should be expressed at the time the service is performed as well as periodically.

9. Keep them informed about the developments, whether or not they are directly related to their work. If people volunteer to work for an organization they are sincerely interested in it. They will feel more intimately involved if they are able to share
knowledge of the problems and crises as well as the new programs.

10. Care enough about volunteers to learn about their strengths. Everyone has strengths although they may be reluctant to admit or even display them. It is up to the professional manager to identify them and put them to use. This activity will render invaluable service to the volunteer as well as the purpose for which they are working.

If you, as a professional, are guided by these principles, if you are warmly concerned about people and sensitive to their feelings, if you try to put yourself in the place of every volunteer with whom you work—you won't have to worry about what to say and do. You'll know and your volunteers will keep working.9

Studies have shown that organizational identification will most likely be experienced by a service-oriented person; that is, a supportive, involved person with a strong need for affiliation and public service. It is important to note that the identification grows as a function of the length of service and is affected by this length of service with the organization rather than any position held within the organization. Identification may then be related to the satisfaction of the individual's higher order needs.10

This classification of needs is taken from Abraham Maslow, a psychologist, who has developed a theory of human motivation. Professor

9Ibid.

Maslow has classified human needs into five categories:

1. The physiological needs. Included in this group are the needs for food, water, air, rest, etc., that are required for maintaining the body in a state of equilibrium.

2. The safety needs. They include the need for safety and security, both in a physical and psychological sense. The need to be protected from external dangers to our bodies and our personalities are included in this group. Most employees, for example, desire to work at jobs that are free from physical and psychological hazards, and that provide tenure.

3. The belongingness and love needs. The need for attention and social activity are the major needs in this category. An individual desires affectionate relationships with people in general and desires to have a respected place in his group.

4. The esteem needs. These include the desire for self-respect, for strength, for achievement, for adequacy, for mastery and competence, for confidence in the face of the world, and for independence and freedom. Also included in this group is the desire for reputation or prestige or respect and esteem from other people.

5. The need for self-actualization (realization). This refers to a man's desire for self-fulfillment; namely, to the tendency for him to become actualized in what he is potentially. "What a man can be, he must be." This tendency might be phrased as the desire to become more and more what he is, to become everything
that one is capable of becoming.\textsuperscript{11}

The physiological needs are the most fundamental. However, once these needs are satisfied, the safety needs become predominate. This process continues throughout the hierarchy progressing toward the needs for esteem and self-realization. As lower needs are satisfied, higher needs become dominant. The needs that remain to be satisfied may be termed the individual's "\textit{satisfaction} needs."

From this, one might generalize that a "certain individual" would tend to identify strongly with a particular organization and that "certain characteristics" of service orientation would be dependent upon the specific goals and attitudes of the particular organization. One might also generalize that identification with a particular organization is related to the satisfaction needs of the individual rather than his higher order needs. This, then, would include both growth-oriented and deficiency-oriented identification.\textsuperscript{12}

Hall, Schneider and Nygren define these orientations as follows:

There can be two different types or components of identification, as Argyris has pointed out in a private communication. In one the individuals higher-order needs, esteem, autonomy, and self-fulfillment, are in accord with the goals of the organization. This is probably what most theorists mean when they use the term integration. In a second type of identification, the individuals lower level needs, security, dependency, avoidance of threat and growth, are in accord with the organizations need to direct and control its members.


\textsuperscript{12}Hall, Schneider and Nygren, \textit{Op. Cit.}, p. 187
Using Maslow's (1955) terms, for higher--and lower--order needs, one might term these two concepts growth-oriented and deficiency-oriented identification, respectively.\textsuperscript{13}

Consideration must also be given to the various problems being dealt with by the group. This can strongly influence support and participation as well as the manner in which problems are perceived and alternative solutions identified. While the group may see individual problems as being unrelated (which they may or may not be), part of a professional manager's job is to demonstrate to the group how they may approach alternative solutions collectively. This process called socialization, develops cohesiveness in the group.

Let us examine this idea with respect to a resource problem. The group being assisted has a water problem. Some individuals in this irrigation project have too much water. The problem stems not from an excess of delivery but from seepage from the irrigation canal itself. The seepage raises the water table and saturates the adjacent lands. Other individuals, toward the end of the lateral, suffer a water shortage as a result of the seepage losses.

The individuals may perceive their respective problems quite differently. Those suffering the water shortage may see their problem as one of excess appropriation by individuals further upstream. However, these people upstream may attribute their saturated soil condition to some source other than the irrigation canal, such as surface runoff from adjacent uplands. In such a situation, the

\textsuperscript{13}Ibid.
misperception of the actual problem by both sub-groups could lead to conflict.

In terms of developing sufficient group cohesiveness to help identify the real problem, which is one of water loss causing improper distribution, the administrator may approach the group as resource managers. That is, with group involvement, the pertinent resources will need to be inventoried. Some questions to be answered may be:

1. How much water is available at the source?
2. How many acres of land do they collectively want to irrigate?
3. What is the capability of the land to be irrigated?
4. In what proportion do they want to raise one crop as opposed to another in their agronomic system?
5. What is the water holding capacity of the soil in relation to the water requirements of the crops?
6. What irrigation frequency will be required?
7. Is there enough water available to do what they want to do? If not how may it be apportioned most equitably in compliance with state water laws?
8. What alternatives exist in terms of improving the distribution of the resource?
9. What are the costs: benefit ratios of the alternatives?
10. What alternative(s), if any, do they wish to pursue and install?

Their managerial limitations must be explored, collectively and individually, to help the group decide what form of operation and
maintenance system would be most applicable. First, in terms of resource distribution:

1. Would the group be wise to hire someone to oversee the distribution?
2. Would they prefer to take turns overseeing distribution?
3. Would they prefer to have automatic distributive devices installed?
4. How would the system be operated and maintained?
5. How would costs be apportioned most equitably?

Second, in terms of their individual use of the resource:

1. What improvements could be made on individual land units to improve resource distribution and use efficiency?
2. What management techniques might be used to improve resource use efficiency?

A clue to management effectiveness with a group may be found in the manner they have approached problems in the past. What has contributed to success, and what has contributed to failures? What are the motivating stimuli for this group?

What is needed is not merely the willingness to confront change...but a commitment to changes in structure and procedures.14

Motivation strong enough to solve sticky resource allocation problems may require relinquishing certain behaviors and beliefs. This will undoubtedly result in some degree of conflict.

What the systems concept of management teaches the contemporary manager is that if one of the interlocking elements in this network is changed then some or all of the other elements will be affected. Inevitably change will be resisted and conflict generated.\textsuperscript{15}

The manager or coordinator must realize that conflict is a natural consequence and not be frightened of it or overreact. Conflict generally follows a particular pattern and may be predictable. The organization exists in a social environment which may be turbulent in response to conflicting interests. Under these conditions the rate of change in the environment may be greater than the rate of change in the organization. This however, may be the unintended result of poor coordination.

Conflict may be induced by the skillful manager in order to encourage the organization to define or re-define goals, change processes and/or reallocate resources. However, conflict is likely to have positive results only when there is an approximate balance of power between the disputing parties. The ability to resolve conflict is vital to an effective organization. Group interaction may be the key to the development of this critical ability in that studies indicate that the greater the depth of interaction, the greater the likelihood that the group will be successful at conflict resolution.

A principal point in knowing the public, or publics, is then, knowing and understanding as much as possible about the people involved;

their strengths and weaknesses, as well as who leads, and who follows. Since so much volunteer effort may be involved it is wise to be sensitive to the needs of people, individually and collectively. A manager must develop an atmosphere of belongingness and group approval that will show appreciation of effort expended and progress made. He must also develop an awareness of, and appreciation for, the problems faced by the group and their orientation toward problem solving. Be prepared to face conflict openly and honestly. An alert manager will develop techniques that will enable the organization to resolve conflict positively through more effective interaction and more effective communication.
CHAPTER 2

MANAGERIAL ROLES AND RESPONSIBILITY DEFINITION

An important way an administrator can help the group with which he may be associated is to recognize the various managerial roles he can play as well as when to play these roles. Managerial role playing can include such roles as an actor, catalyst, guardian, friend, landowner/citizen, technician, person or coordinator. Several such roles may be played simultaneously to best serve the group. For instance, while serving as a catalyst attempting to help the organization's leadership synthesize and develop a particular course of action a manager may also play a technician's role providing them with specialized information and assisting with interpretations. At the same time he may also be playing the coordinator's role, identifying with them the various ways that the objective can be gained and what other resources may be applied.

Sonthoff supports the point:

...Moment and Zaleznik established that these roles express patterns of "combination of attitudes toward the world of work and people, behaviors consistent with the attitudes and behaviors and perceptions from others which reinforced the attitudes and behaviors."^17

Therefore, role playing is not only an important means whereby the manager facilitates, in many ways, the objectives of the group; it also

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serves to reinforce the manager's commitment to the program and its objectives. Role playing provides some insight into what a manager is by allowing the manager to see himself, albeit in limited perspective, playing these various roles.

The roles a manager seeks to play may each have a different status within the group. This should be taken into account regarding the action he hopes to stimulate.

Group productivity in the synthesizing phase of the problem-solving task was related directly to the achieved status of the leader. The social conditions in groups with leaders having high achieved status were conducive to problem solution, but only after the problem had become basically one of coordination.18

This situation poses a particular challenge to a manager in a self determinative program. There is a tendency for fewer ideas to be generated by groups looking for leadership to a person with higher achieved status, therefore, he must be skillful in not overshadowing the group with his expertise while involving them in group interaction.

A leader with high achieved status might very well possess more expertise in the problem than other members of the group. When his ideas are productive and direct the group toward a solution, his presence may indeed be facilitative in the analyzing phase of problem solving. This may be especially true when leader expertise in solving a particular problem is combined with high expectations by subordinates for substantial contributions from him. Furthermore, a high-status leader could improve problem analysis if he delays his own substantive contributions and assumes an integrative role.

The findings reported in this paper demonstrate that high achieved status of leaders has both functional

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and dysfunctional consequences; the processes characteristic of effective group functioning were facilitated in the synthesizing phase but impeded in the analyzing phase.\(^\text{19}\)

Managers in these positions bear a heavy responsibility for coordinating effective decision making rather than making decisions themselves.

In this sense, it is imperative that responsibilities be clearly defined. Self-determinative programs require considerable coordination. To assure the least disruption, the obligations of each participant should be specified and agreed upon. This agreement should be recorded and made available to the parties involved.

Local institutions may have commitments to local groups; agencies may have agreements with local institutions; and individuals may be cooperating with local groups. Many points will require clarification to avoid disruptive conflict, antagonism, and possible polarization. What is going to be expected of the various parties involved? For what actions, what expenses are members of the organization to be held responsible? How well do members relate to the leadership of the group? Do members hold the leadership accountable for their decisions? Does the leadership realize the effect their actions have on the members and are they sensitive to the people they represent?

What is the responsibility of the manager in his various roles? If he is an agency employee, are the responsibilities of the agency

\(^{19}\text{Doyle, Op. Cit., p. 48.}\)
clearly defined especially where expenses for salaries, facilities and operating equipment may be involved?

Are there any joint responsibilities? If so, perhaps the best way to express them as well as identify those held separately by the organization and the manager (or agency), would be through a written document agreed to by the parties involved. Such action may assure effective functioning of the organization and a positive relationship with cooperating groups, agencies and individuals.

A manager, then, can exert influence through careful appraisal of the organization's mission and by anticipating social and economic changes that will affect the organizational environment. The process of continually reappraising the role of the organization itself and adjusting it to change may be among the manager's key functions.
CHAPTER 3

ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE FOR SUCCESS

What kind of a climate is necessary in a resource program and/or an agency if they are to be viable? Programs of self-determinative nature require an element of mutual cooperation to be successful. This willingness and ability to work with others is essential for equable organizational interrelationships, and for the effective internal functioning of each individual organization. The importance of organizational climate in such a program is made more striking because the process of resource allocation is more complex than many managers seem to believe.

A manager must be continually alert for changes in the organizational climate as well as "soft spots" in the allocation process. It is the manager's responsibility to provide leadership in developing and maintaining a sensitive and productive organization. In order to perform this critical function effectively, Bower suggests that:

...the manager must constantly act as if he were a research scientist, testing his understanding of how the system operates against the evidence he receives. Where he can distinguish a pattern of events he does not understand, he must not prejudge the issue but rather conduct his own version of research and seek new evidence. Success for a manager when he takes on the researchers role is an assumption found to be invalid, a hypothesis rejected. In some ways it is a perverse role for
a manager to take, for it means looking for trouble. On the other hand, this approach is at the heart of management by exception.\(^{20}\)

Such organizations should certainly be customer centered or service oriented. Many organizations start out customer centered by unfortunately evolve into a bureaucratic centered group. This is seen as an increasing responsiveness to the comptroller's office, the personnel office or the accounting office--"The main office" or "Upstairs"--at the expense of sensitivity to public service.\(^{21}\)

A key test of such a state of affairs is the fact that the persons behind the counter resent the customers.\(^{22}\)

Creative leadership is necessary for an organization to be sensitive to its various publics and receptive to change. A creative person questions the way things are done--routines, procedures and systems. An organization is creative because it involves creative people or because it has responsibility for product innovation.\(^{23}\) By comparison a custodial person will fear change and resent new ideas.

Part of his reaction will be caused by inertia, indolence, ignorance, timidity, lack of imagination, feelings of inferiority, or fear of failure.\(^{24}\)

In a custodial type of organization the manager's role is reduced to one of predictability. This is to be expected, however, when one realizes that the efficiency of the custodial organization is based

\(^{20}\)Bower, op. cit., p. 325.


\(^{22}\)Ibid., p. 36 \(^{23}\)Ibid., p. 33 \(^{24}\)Ibid., p. 101
on predictability. That is, the personnel working within the organization can be efficient only to the extent that they can predict what will happen.

Four rules suggested for minimizing conflicts between bureaucracy and creativity are:

1. Recognize the type of organization--bureaucratic or creative--and adjust your leadership-followership patterns accordingly.
2. Don't suppress information.
3. Provide for many interchanges among people.
4. Let the second team watch--and also play.25

A creative organization may be decentralized for maximum effectiveness. Decentralization is described as the class of formal organizations in which authority to make decisions and the responsibility for these decisions is delegated to subordinate managers.26 In such an organization all levels should understand the reasoning behind their decentralized organizational pattern. If the organization is concerned with many diverse responsibilities, decentralization of planning may be necessary because the information necessary to make sound management decisions is held by managers at the lower organizational levels. It may also mean that the organization's responsibilities are so complex that higher level managers cannot absorb all the details of the activities they supervise.

Various other responsibilities must be delegated commensurate with planning. To evaluate this more specifically, a manager may

26Bower, op. cit., p. 19.
examine the situation from the centralized side of the organizational coin:

If management is purposive and if it understands the organizational phenomena reported, then
1-a. Top management of a centralized company will not delegate less in investment decisions than it does in business planning or, alternatively,
1-b. Top management will not centralize the investment process more than the planning process.

II. Although there is a distinguishing feature between the critical processes, they are in fact both parts of the strategic process in a firm and cannot be evaluated separately.27

A review of material written on management indicates that there are three processes functioning that affect the internal and external climate of an organization. These processes also pose challenges to the manager who wishes to develop or maintain a creative atmosphere.

One process deals with the technical and economic content of plans and project proposals. A second process deals with the determination of which of the proposals would be funded, while the third process deals with those activities which determine the structure of the organization, its choice of a performance evaluation system, its motivational attitude, and its approach to public relations.

The processes involve different people who appear to be motivated toward different objectives. For instance, the manner in which an individual's position was defined, information received and transmitted, and performance evaluated seems to have a great effect upon the manner in which problems are perceived and analyzed. Middle management plays a

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27 Ibid., p. 21.
key role in coordinating proposals submitted by subordinate units and in ensuring that they are commensurate with program, or organizational objectives. Therefore, some objectives will relate to the organization as a whole, while others will relate more closely to the objectives or goals of the subordinate unit.

Therefore, the funding of a project proposal is dependent upon the willingness of the middle manager (or his supervisor in some organizations) to commit himself to sponsoring the project. In so doing he is placing his reputation for good judgement on the line. A manager in such a position will carefully compute the costs and benefits to him personally before making such a commitment. His continued usefulness as a manager depends upon how well he maintains or increases confidence in his judgement. This decision is made somewhat easier when the objectives of the organization and the subordinate unit are similar; or when the organization's goals are broad enough to include a wide variety of public demands for its goods or services. It is made still easier when subordinate unit managers bear their proportionate responsibility for the project. This facilitates decision making as well as the flow of productive ideas.

Successful coordination of these processes requires the exercise of a great deal of managerial discretion in influencing their successful interrelationship, while effectively controlling a productive, creative, decentralized institution.
SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

In conclusion, let us examine some of the problems the manager may deal with and some of the cautions he might heed.

First, in dealing with personnel that he might supervise as well as a citizens group to which he may be responsive, the manager must be alert to frustrations stemming from dependence on other people. This may be seen as frequent negative references to the organizational rules. These rules may come to be seen as unnecessary extensions of authority into an individual's private domain.

In bureaucracies this may be exhibited as described by Russell:

Data was presented which showed that a negative orientation to bureaucratic procedures, called autonomy, was found generally more in middle management positions than any other, but particularly in situations that tended to limit promotional opportunities. It might be argued than an orientation to autonomy is a patterned symbolic expression of frustrated mobility needs characteristic of those who perceive the unlikelihood of continued advancement within their organization. Since the career goals of middle managers are strongly mobility oriented and since the number of middle managers who can expect to advance to top management is limited, this particular kind of crises and symbolic reaction will tend to typify this group.28

In these circumstances stress is certainly placed on mutual consultation

between employees and supervisors and agency people and interested citizens. In this sense consultation means involving people when decisions are being made relative to their work activities and interests. In an open, decentralized organization, which may be devoid of impersonal rules and populated by independent, practical people, some means of providing continuity of action is seen as necessary, and consultation is seen as the preferred method of coordination.

Second, let us return again to the idea of being "creative" and developing and maintaining the environment necessary for a "creative organization." This matter is worth additional thought in that the two points in management most subject to neglect are problem-definition and idea-production.

The custodial person may be satisfied with the same product or process, and at the most only tinkers with the one or the other; the creative person seeks wholly new approaches, new designs, new breakthroughs.\textsuperscript{29}

The manager's role here is the key in that he is able to control the climate effecting idea-production. He can encourage and promote original thought and institute procedures and actions resulting from innovative thinking, or he can squelch it.

This is critical to success in a citizen directed, self-determinative program. It serves to build the image and the effectiveness of the manager as well as the people with who he is working. Likert states that:

\textsuperscript{29}Dyer, op. cit., p. 37.
...the more extensively a manager applies the principle of supportive relationships and uses group methods of decision making and supervision, the greater is the amount of his influence and the greater is the amount of influence the men in these offices are able to exert on matters affecting the performance of the sales office. The men's ability to exercise influence, however, is not obtained at the expense of the manager's capacity to exert influence. In the high-influence offices all hierarchial levels can exert more influence: The national headquarters, the managers and the men.30

The third concluding consideration is the development of what Likert calls a "Human Asset Accounting System." This refers to a means of attaching dollar estimates to the value of the human organization and its customer goodwill. This line of reasoning can be applied to a business firm, an agency or a citizen-directed organization for if able, well-trained people leave, the human organization is worth less. If, however, such people join the organization, its human assets are increased. By the same token if bickering, distrust and irreconcilable conflict are dominant, the value of the human enterprise is less. If the organization's capacity to use differences constructively and develop cooperative teamwork improves, the human enterprise becomes a more valuable asset.

The fourth area of consideration deals with recognizing that the public's needs are going to be met. The question which should be addressed is whether or not they will be met intelligently. Americans are people accustomed to getting action and who want better results than the systems have been producing. The public is often frustrated

by the apparent gap between what is known and the quality of what is done.

It is right, of course, that standards of what we demand of ourselves and of others and of our society should rise as knowledge rises. But when expectations consistently outdistance performance, we ought to re-examine our notions of how much practical improvement should reasonably be anticipated from the advance of knowledge. Possibly a tendency to expect too much from knowledge produces, in its disappointment, much of the guilt, cynicism and betterness that now discolor private and public life in the U. S. 31

There appears to be considerable evidence that ignorance does not necessarily diminish as knowledge advances. In fact it appears that the more that is learned, the more knowledge we need. It appears very important that managers understand that if society does not learn to live with this paradox it may come to reject both knowledge and the practical achievements first made possible by knowledge which then requires possession of more knowledge than is currently available.

Daniel Patrick Moynihan in his farewell statement to the Department of Health, Education and Welfare called the tendency to oversimplify:

"The greatest single temptation of our time" and "the great corrupter." He said that "What we need are great complexifiers, men who will not only seek to understand what it is they are about, but whose who will dare to share that understanding with those for whom they act." Refusal to admit the genuine intellectual difficulties of policy formation in the contemporary world brings with it

"the Moralistic Style" and the public tendency to lurch "from crisis to crisis with the attention span of a five-year old." 32

With these thoughts in mind managers need to look at their own working tools and the modern improvements thereto; for the broad advance in organized problem-solving promises not only "more," but has more promise. The public has recognized the need for more and better information, for a more careful definition of what managers are trying to do, and for a more critical comparison of alternatives.

Management has often been practiced as a process of meeting immediate operational needs ("chasing spot fires") rather than as a totally integrated approach. In recent years, however, managers have been increasingly challenged to reassess this philosophy and their practices for executing this philosophy. The public challenge has penetrated the ethic of management; demanding dynamic involvement in the process of continual change. This involvement is vital to an organization's ability to exist and to cope with changes in the various internal and external forces which may affect its operations. When changes are necessary, the interests of both the organization and the public which it serves may best be protected through the development and institution of sound policies and alternatives.

It may be difficult to assure that all of the influencing economic, political, social and psychological forces are adequately considered. However, the application of scientific knowledge to the executive process of management, using interdisciplinary teams, will provide

32 Ibid., p. 118.
greater integration of these factors.

The conditions and bases for making these changes should be thoroughly understood by managers, and sufficient control should be maintained by the public to insure that changes are made in an equitable and consistent manner. Because the rate of change is so rapid, a manager cannot expect his education at the time of graduation to last him throughout his professional career. To remain productive, effective, (in fact, employable) he must have an educational background broad enough to provide a foundation for further training and education.

While some training and education may be provided by the organization, the prime responsibility for self-improvement lies with the manager himself. Education should not be terminal in nature. A manager, seriously intent on being the "best," will vigorously pursue a program of continuing education through involvement in professional societies, by discussion, by reading a wide variety of subjects and writing. The alternative to self-improvement is vegetation, stagnation and professional deterioration.

Astute managers foster this philosophy in the people they supervise and the people they assist with their respective programs. Resource programs require flexibility of professional managers and lay participants alike if they are to participate effectively, and respond readily to the public's changing needs.

For the new ways of dealing with change can themselves generate in the public mind a sense of direction, of intelligent, effective choice, a
sense that our evolving capabilities and our evolving values will move hand in hand.\textsuperscript{33}

One of the problems managers deal with daily is the sheer number of people to whom they have to relate. The more involved the clientele is with the problem and efforts toward its solution, the more effective the manager has been in distributing a larger proportion of the public responsibility for the decisions that shape the future.

The sharp manager's working tools have much in common with the corporate approach to determining market potential. He tries to shape, between cost considerations and value considerations those innovative programs that the users, the public, will like and "The Shareholders," the taxpayers, will tolerate. Some of the characteristics of modern improvements in organized problem-solving are:

1. A more open and deliberate attention to the selection of ends toward which planned action is directed, and an effort to improve planning by sharpening the definition of ends.

2. A more systematic advance comparison of means by criteria derived from the ends selected.

3. A more candid and effective assessment of results, usually including a system of keeping track of progress toward interim goals. Along with this goes a "market-like" sensitivity to changing values and evolving ends.

4. An effort, often intellectually strenuous, to mobilize science and other specialized knowledge into a flexible framework of information and decision so that specific responsibilities

\textsuperscript{33} Max Ways, "The Road To 1977", \textit{Fortune}, LXXV, 1, 1967, p. 94.
can be assigned to the points of greatest competence.

5 An emphasis on information, prediction and persuasion, rather than on coercive or authoritarian power, as the main agents of coordinating the separate elements of an effort.

6. An increased capability of predicting the combined effect of several lines of simultaneous action on one another; this can modify policy so as to reduce unwanted consequences or it can generate other lines of action to correct or compensate for such predicted consequences.34

With these modern improvements goes a sharpening of the administrators use of the more conventional managerial tools. Much of the key to management appears to lie in the executives understanding and using the operating budget.35 This skill is very closely allied to the use of productivity analysis and knowing as precisely as possible what key services are costing. Here, figures for analytical purposes must be developed throughout the entire cost structure to eliminate the hidden or overlooked costs.

For a growing number of public officials, facing up squarely to the disparity between needs and available resources, are showing interest in the question: Is it possible, by better management and the application of modern technology to slow down the runaway costs of urban services?36

These public administrators recognize that a rising population

34 Ibid., p. 95.
will steadily increase the demand for existing and new services. They recognize too, that inflation and rapidly rising wages will make the cost of providing those services increase even faster.

These increasing costs are rapidly approaching equilibrium with a wide spread mood of citizen opposition against higher local tax levies. Voters are quicker to react against local office holders than against the more distant Congress and/or national administration even though local levies may be only a fraction of the federal income tax. Therefore, those administrators seeking ways to improve the local situation are directing their greatest attention toward improving performance of four basic services: police and fire protection; garbage and trash collection; and the maintenance and operation of parks and recreational facilities. These services comprise about twenty-six percent of the average city's general expenditures and:

For all their differences, these four functions have in common one key characteristic: they are extremely labor intensive. Approximately seventy percent of their total cost goes for personnel, including not only wages but such fringe benefits as generous pensions and sick leave and short work weeks.

This further emphasizes the point that one of the principal concepts that public administrators must adopt from business is the capacity to equate productivity and wages. The equation poses many problems in the service oriented, non-profit public sector. However, notwithstanding the difficulties, current articles indicate that many public administrators are convinced that they can improve productivity

\[37\text{Ibid.}\]
using the same two methods relied upon by the private sector: technology and better management.

The sharp manager needs to look, too, at the legal restraints to improved management. There may be antiquated federal, state and local laws that prevent or prohibit efficient administration. What steps can be taken to modernize or repeal them? Accurate cost figures can be vital in this effort as they can in pursuing the answers to problems such as: what activities can be contracted out and/or turned over to private enterprise thus freeing government employees for the provision of services best done through government; and, can user fees help support segments of the operation, such as in parks and recreational areas?

In summary, this paper has dealt with many (although certainly not all) of the variety of problems with which a manager may be confronted providing assistance to a self-determinative resource program. While it has dealt heavily with the manager's personal involvement and interrelationship with both organizational staff and "volunteer" participants, it has also been concerned with the impact of the external environment on the management of the organization and effectiveness of the program. The paper has attempted to point up the importance of recognizing change and utilizing the most flexible tools available to cope with change. The tools utilized should be based on sound, scientific knowledge. Creativity and the future have been emphasized because they appear to this writer, to be inextricably linked. While the future probably should not be viewed with rose-colored glasses, neither should it be viewed with undue pessimism.
Rather, it should be viewed as presenting a challenge to a manager. There should be little doubt that more will be demanded continually of tomorrow's manager—in education, in planning competence, and in flexible action.

It is hoped this paper may help a new manager who soon will be dealing with these problems. It is also hoped, in the long run, that the governmental financial squeeze may produce important benefits in the form of more efficient, more effective governmental services involving greater citizen participation. One of the greatest challenges to management is effective program administration in the face of a restricted budget.
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