

Abstract

Analysis of nearly 2,000 management events described by managers from large public, private, and parastatal organizations in seven African countries showed that just over half of these activities were directed toward developmental goals of the countries in which they were working, and only a little over half of those had positive outcomes. When these development-related activities were coded according to twenty different subgoals, it became clear that the largest number of successes were achieved when managers were attempting to strengthen the organizations internally; only a small proportion were directed at the public itself or were intended to affect the behavior or work of citizens at large. Within the internally-directed subgoals, managers were found to be most effective in improving the capabilities of their staff, in improving the informational base on which their own decisions were made, or in imposing tighter organizational structure or division of work within their organizations. They were least effective in stimulating public responses to developmental objectives, changing the functions or charter of their own organizations, discovering new or more promising approaches to development, or upgrading the physical facilities or equipment associated with their functions. They had more success in introducing new enterprises than in changing or improving old ones, and in developing local capabilities or generating new resources from foreign donors than in changing the work habits and performance of their own subordinates. These characteristics were found in similar proportions in large organizations of all kinds, whether public or private; there was no evidence that the activities of managers in public enterprises were directed more toward developmental sub-goals than those in public agencies. These findings hold true, with minor variations, for all seven of the countries and for all ranks or levels of managerial responsibility.

HOW AFRICAN MANAGERS SERVE DEVELOPMENTAL GOALS

by

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Students of government are more likely than the average citizen to believe that bureaucrats serve national goals, but they have rarely attempted to document their actual contributions or to measure the salience of such efforts in comparison with other managerial functions. This paper addresses both questions, drawing on experiences with developmental goals in southern Africa. The procedure followed will be first to identify a series of potential sub-goals that managers might serve in the context of a developing country, and second to present a frequency count of activities directed toward such goals and to contrast those efforts with the total portfolio of reported administrative functions. Then it will offer some preliminary observations on the generalizability of these findings by comparing experiences across countries, distinguish between goal-serving functions of managers in the public and private sectors and at different levels of responsibility, and present some observations about the kinds of managerial skills that are required to serve major developmental purposes, in contrast to other national goals and general administrative activities.

A unique data base makes this analysis possible. In the summer of 1984, nine countries in Southern Africa (Angola, Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia, and Zimbabwe, cooperating as a group known as the Southern Africa Development Coordinating Conference or SADCC) authorized a study of management training needs, covering not only the public and private sectors but also that intermediate hybrid known variously as parastatals, public enterprises, or public corporations.¹ As one means of identifying the skills needed in the region, the study gathered reports of management events that displayed either "effective" or

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"ineffective" behavior on the part of administrators. There were 1,868 incidents in the sample (the appendix gives more details about the methodology employed).

DEVELOPMENTAL GOALS THAT MANAGERS CAN SERVE

Politicians and constitutions define national goals in grandiose terms that are not easily translated into managerial functions: providing for the common defense, insuring domestic tranquility, uplifting the national spirit, or even eliminating the scourge of poverty. Programs are introduced and organizations installed in the name of such purposes, but the managers emplaced to run them tend to think in more operational terms. They have to engage in activities that are instrumental to those ultimate purposes; they have to live with the rhetoric ministers of state use as to justify their organizational existence employs similar hyperbole, but they do not derive much guidance from such language in their daily operations. They set their sights at more modest levels. Those are the levels at which this analysis begins.

Twenty such goals, easily recognizable as instrumental to the grand developmental purposes beloved of politicians and statesmen, describe a substantial portion of managerial activity in developing countries.¹ These subgoals, together with examples of activities undertaken on their behalf reported in this survey, are as follows:

1. influencing development strategies or emphases of specific investment decisions: *"I produced a report on the brain drain which was used by the government as a basis for the position it took in devising incentives for the "Return of Talent to Africa" program."* (incident number 1608)

¹This list of national goals is derived from an empirical study of managerial functions in Asia, adapted slightly to relate them to national as well as organizational or internal purposes. American Institutes for Research, *Assessing the Impact of Participant Training on the Attainment of Developmental Goals, Phase I: Methodological Research* (Washington: March 1974)..

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2. introducing a new agricultural, industrial, or commercial enterprise in the country: *"I successfully negotiated the establishment and construction of a textile plant."*(1769)

3. developing a local capability for an activity formerly dependent on external resources: *"We had a problem in getting the vaccine required for preventing foot and mouth disease. A colleague decided that we ought to make the vaccine ourselves and we are now totally self-sufficient."*(2013)

4. discovering a solution or a more promising approach to a significant development problem: *"In the face of our drought situation, people from the Department of Water Affairs and Water Utilities and our Ministry brought their skills together to conduct a survey and determine the quality, yield, and cost of connections in a reservoir."*(2110)

5. stimulating more widespread adoption of a preferred practice or other desired public response. *"One of my assistants did an excellent job of lecturing community development workers on family planning."*(1374)(?)

6. introducing a new service or program: *"We had a project to establish a manufacturing unit for tools to be used in the mining industry. We registered with a foreign government for import of technical and financial resources. Our negotiations were successful."*(1761)

7. raising standards of products or services provided: *"When plots of land were being allotted, there was a big rush of people in our office. Anticipating this problem, my colleague designed a system for serving them in an efficient and orderly fashion."*(2192)

8. changing rules or procedures to be more responsive to the needs of the clients: *"One of our younger submanagers unraveled some red tape at customs and speeded up the release of goods from the warehouse."*(39)

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9. avoiding disruption of service by timely action, despite difficulties or risk:

"A few days ago, the roasting kiln burner gave serious problems during a night lshift. The foreman in charge, without calling the superintendent/manager, identified the problem, and got the fires going again in four hours." (1084).

10. securing a material advantage or resource by negotiation: *"A colleague was asked by the secretary to intervene on behalf of a company which needed some foreign exchange to import raw materials in order to produce for export. With this order, the company was going to employ an additional 6,000 people. The ministry of finance disapproved the request. My colleague fought the decision successfully after presenting an analysis of the case." (1226)*

11. improving or expanding dissemination programs or techniques: *"The head of one of my divisions did an outstanding job in explaining the Water Resources Act to village users, convincing them it was a protection of natural resources for them to exercise conservation practices."(20)*

12. expanding an institution's authority, status, or charter: *"The Deputy Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Education, has been able to mobilize support and participation of all extension education departments in the National Literacy Program which is, in fact, the responsibility of the Department of Non-formal Education. As a result, all the extension departments began to regard this as one of their own activities."(2076)*

13. developing more effective working relationships with local agencies or sources of external aid: *"The Germans gave a Land Rover to one of our ministries, and in return the permanent secretary agreed to build a road to one of their installations."(31)*

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14. introducing or expanding the use of analytic, data-based management aids:

"Two weeks ago, in an exchange of minutes with my director of management services regarding grading of positions in the Ministry of Education, I was impressed by his well-researched report, which indeed changed my opinion....Later I used it as a model for my subordinates." (9)

15. introducing cost- or time-saving measures or ideas: *"A telex announcing the impending arrival of a ship carrying some cargo for us was received. A colleague of mine took the initiative of sending the customs declarations for the release of the goods without waiting to receive the orders of the director and thus saved demurrage charges."*(135)

16. imposing tighter structure or controls on staff or vendor performance:

"Yesterday I was pleased that my deputy had found a way to get people to arrive on time without insulting or abusing them. He called a meeting to discuss reasons for lack of punctuality, and let them work out ways of dealing with the problems."(97)

17. improving the allocation or organization of responsibilities and functions:

"After we figured out a way of delegating responsibility, our division chiefs were able to release funds more quickly than they had before."
(74)

18. upgrading the caliber, capabilities, or morale of the staff: *"An accident involving two lorries outside a plant attracted the attention of a senior manager. This was a situation that required a management approach he had learned at a training course, and he handled the matter successfully."*
(1105)

19. upgrading physical facilities or equipment: *"My subordinate designed, installed and commissioned a boiler low-water cut-out system as a safety device for the boiler operator."* (1177)

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20. improving record-keeping or information retrieval systems: *"One of my colleagues redesigned some forms to suit the needs of our office."* (431)

These activities do not in themselves serve major developmental purposes: for the most part, they are intermediate and inter-sectoral rather than directly productive. They are proximate, in the sense that they are necessary steps to the accomplishment of larger goals. They are probably representative, since they take place in one form or another in nearly all large public organizations. Because they so often relate to matters of internal organization, their reach toward the public is not always immediately obvious. They are seen by management for the most part as internal, though developmental goals are their objective.

DEVELOPMENTAL GOAL-SERVING ACTIVITIES OF AFRICAN MANAGERS

Not all managerial activities serve developmental goals, to be sure, even in this broad interpretation, in which all positive impacts are interpreted as intermediate stages toward such ends. In fact, 832 reported events - 44.3% of the total number - could not be coded as having a developmental impact. Most of those uncodable events had to do with interpersonal relationships and routine items that seemed to have no special relevance to a national or organizational purpose. Most of the managers studied in the survey were, of course, generalists with relatively little seniority in their present positions (reflecting the African tradition of rotating personnel among jobs and sectors to advance their career prospects, as contrasted with traditions in other countries where job performance is rated in terms of its contributions to sectoral or technical ends.)² There is, of course, no way of knowing whether a more technically oriented civil service would be less inward-looking and more developmental, since we

²American public administration specialists have tended in the past to prefer different career patterns, based on technical knowledge and taking advantage of specialization as a means of introducing expertise into the civil service. See, for example, John D. Montgomery and Milton J. Esman, *Development Administration in Malaysia* (Kuala Lumpur, Government of Malaysia, 1966). The recent emergence of the Federal Executive Service at the top of the scale in the United States indicates a slight turning toward the British tradition. See Alan K. Campbell, "Civil Service Reform as a Remedy for Bureaucratic Ills," in Carol H. Weiss and Allen H. Barton, *Making Bureaucracies Work* (Beverly Hills, Calif., Sage, 1979, chapter 10) for a discussion of this development.

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have no comparative data at hand to measure such differences. Some organization theorists who believe in maximizing functional specialization justify their preferences with the notion that technicians scorn such bureaucratic maneuvering. These data show the extent such activities pervade the life of managers who are not so specialized, but the rest of the case is still to be made.

Managers may direct their activities to national goals but still not advance them very much. The coding of these events takes account of their impact or outcome as well as their intent or objective. A fair proportion of the events that were coded as goal-serving were described in the original reports themselves as failures (i.e., not achieving the intended result). Thus the number of instances in which managers actually did advance the national goal of development, even indirectly, is only about a third of the total number of events.

The frequency distribution of events across the national sub-goals listed above re-emphasizes the inward-looking character of managerial behavior. As Table I shows, most of the effort reported in these incidents had to do with upgrading staff capabilities, introducing improved management tools, imposing greater discipline within an organization, and improving organizational structures. It should come as no surprise to students of comparative politics that systems maintenance is an important function in large organizations, but the proportions disclosed in these events is none the less somewhat disturbing. Activities addressed to the external environment, including citizen-clients, were not very frequently on the agenda of action, even when essentially managerial features were included in the count, like streamlining services or negotiating for additional resources, or bending rules in order to get something done. Special studies of client-related behavior would provide additional insights into administrative styles that are most suited to developmental goals.

Table I also gives some clue as to which managerial activities are most likely to be successful. It is significant that positive and negative results are only *about equal*

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even for fairly routine efforts like introducing time-saving measures, developing better relationships with local units and aid-givers, or influencing investment decisions. Managers *have a less than even* chance of bringing about such results as changing rules and procedures in special cases, or imposing tighter controls on the behavior of members of an organization, or even improving record keeping and retrieval systems. They succeeded *more often* than not, however, in introducing or expanding the use of data in management decisions, supporting new enterprises, upgrading the capabilities of their staffs, developing local capabilities, avoiding disruption of service by anticipating possible disaster, conducting negotiations to gain a national or organizational advantage, and improving public dissemination techniques.

These facts suggest that governments might well consider the extent to which substitutes for bureaucratic instruments could be devised to serve intermediate goals that are not being effectively achieved by existing managerial structures. Such non-bureaucratic procedures might include establishing new "rule-busting" procedures through the use of ombudsmen, for example; or introducing political or other monitoring devices to deal with excessively loose structures or ineffective performance; or providing external nudges in the direction of improved organization; or even entering into contracts for record-keeping and retrieval functions.

These findings are drawn from the massed data including experiences from all seven countries from which significant samples were obtained.³ But the country-by-country breakdown shows that the generalizations hold true even in such disparate situations as socialist Tanzania and capitalist Botswana, and in huge Zimbabwe and miniscule Lesotho. Table II provides the details: the first-ranking subgoal in terms of frequency tabulation was staff improvement, which ranked first or second in all

³The number of incidents gathered in Angola and Mozambique was insufficient to be disaggregated for the country studies.

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countries except Malawi (for which the data base is too slender to disaggregate significantly). The second-ranked purpose, introducing data-driven management decisions, also ranked first or second in those countries. Not until one reaches the third-placed subgoal (tighter structure) is there much country differentiation (that was not an important item on the managerial agenda in Lesotho, Malawi, Swaziland, Tanzania, or Zambia). The events showed a markedly greater proportion of events related to development in Tanzania than in Botswana, for example; more interest in training in Zimbabwe than in Swaziland; and more inclination to tighten up managerial controls in Lesotho and Botswana than in Malawi. Such comparisons may seem only to confirm anecdotal or general impressions, but they might convey a useful message to top managers in those countries.

Table III enables us to distinguish between public and private sector activities in terms of their goal-serving efforts. Most of the incidents came from government organizations, but there were enough cases drawn from the private sector to permit some generalizations, and even hybrid parastatal organizations like public enterprises were represented in the sample. Once again, the managerial efforts in these three kinds of organizations are more comparable than might have been expected in view of the current fad of trying to apply public goods theories to the division between private sector enterprise and government action.⁴ For all three forms of organization assigned their first priorities (as measured by the frequency count of managerial effort) to the same two sub-goals. Government organizations acted most intensely in Subgoals Number 18, 14, and 16 (as shown in Table I), and parastatals rated 14, 18, and 16 at the top. The private sector managers gave top billing in their actions to 18 and 14, but

⁴The Agency for International Development and the World Bank are both citing the theory of public goods to encourage governments to make more effective use of the private sector for developmental purposes. Most of the theoretical arguments on which they are relying are set forth in Mancur Olson's classic, *The Logic of Collective Action, Public Goods and the Theory of Groups* (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1971).

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substituted number 15 - cost- and time-saving measures - as third priority. At the same time, it is notable that the batting averages of success and failure in dealing with these categories of subgoals are not much different as among the three sectors. Government agencies do much less well in training than private and parastatal organizations, but, surprisingly (or, perhaps, necessarily) is better able to tighten managerial controls and change organizational responsibilities. The private sector events show an offsetting advantage in introducing cost- or time-saving measures. These data give little reason to claim much greater "rationality" on behalf of the private sector, at least in the sense that its managerial behavior is more likely to be directed toward these goal-seeking activities. Efficiency measures, of course, might well tell a different story in contrasting these forms of organization.

Table IV addresses is the question whether it is possible to distinguish among goal-related activities at different levels of management. Significantly, junior managers perform fewer functions that serve these sub-goals than their superiors do, but like middle-level managers they devote more of their efforts to staff development than top managers. All three give top priority to applying analytic data as a decision aid (in the case of senior managers, this function ranks first in frequency in the reported events). None appear to be especially successful at the difficult tasks of reorganizing work or imposing more controls on organizational performance. Rank alone does not guarantee effectiveness in dealing with bureaucratic intransigence.

Finally, these management events were coded for the skills or knowledge they embodied as well as for their relationship to developmental goals. Table V shows which skills are correlated best with the different types of impacts coded in this exercise.. The strongest correlation between identified skills and developmental sub-goals is in drafting and writing, which contributed to the effective use of improved management aids; next came personnel administration and motivational management, skills that were called on most frequently for upgrading the capacity or morale of staff members.

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Accounting, like writing, is an important management skill when decisions require the use of data. Skills in interpersonal relations helped build staff capabilities and morale.

Some significance may also be seen in the fact that some skills were only rarely called upon in connection with these goal-serving incidents. Technical knowledge and work scheduling, for example, nearly always appeared in the "no goal" column (but that may be an artifact of the methodology, since the form on which the events were recorded did not require the informants to describe their larger context). Similar limitations may explain why "motivation," surely an extremely important managerial function, is not linked to developmental goals, perhaps because the relationship between that supervisory function and an ultimate impact is too remote to be tracked through these critical incidents. And skills in interpersonal relations, often seen by managers as a survival tactic, probably explain failure in developmental efforts because of their absence, than they do success.

CONCLUSIONS

There are goals other than national development to be served by managers: the defense of the realm, the provision of routine services necessary to the life of the people, and the creation of the physical and institutional infrastructure of modern life, among them. This analysis is confined to developmental activities alone; it excludes military or security functions because the data gathering took place entirely in the civilian sector. Some important activities were not coded as related to development though they might have contributed to the provision of routine services and the creation of infrastructure facilities, both of which are normal governmental functions, and they no doubt contributed to the generation of other public values as well.

The greatest surprise in the analysis concerns the relatively infrequent appearance of episodes directly involving the public. Given the fact that much development involves public responses - such as changes in behavior and more productive

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investments on the part of private citizens - it would have been reasonable to expect managers to devote some considerable amount of effort to client groups of one kind or another.⁵ Such expectations are not borne out by these findings. Is that fact a cause of the extremely slow rate of development in this part of the world? Or, alternatively, is it overly sanguine to assume that governments see their role in development as one of generating opportunities for their citizens? Comparative studies in other parts of the world may be the only way to answer these questions persuasively. But current hopes that development will take place through the unleashing of citizen energy in Africa will thrive only if managerial behavior changes in that regard.

The degree of attention African managers devote to their own affairs is perhaps not surprising, and may indeed be characteristic of all large-scale organizations. If so, it is an important justification for the current preference for seeking decentralization strategies that would permit smaller units to carry out developmental functions. The self-regarding dimensions of bureaucratic activity anywhere should be grounds for concern on the part of political leaders and international organizations interested in economic and social development.

At the moment, there is no particular reason to believe that African managers are very different from their counterparts in other parts of the world. In any case, the intensely internal preoccupation of these supposed entrepreneurs of development is not a good sign. Better ways must be found to direct toward developmental ends the efforts of all organizations whose survival and growth are not directly linked to public responsiveness.

⁵ The data were gathered by an international team of which I served as project director, consisting of Dr. Esau M. Chiviya, Zimbabwe Institute of Public Administration and Management; Prof. Robert E. Klitgaard, Harvard University; Mr. Modiri J. Mbaakanyi, Executive Director, Botswana Employers Federation; Prof. A. Gaylord Obern,

⁵John D. Montgomery, *Technology and Civic Life: Making and Implementing Developmental Decisions* (Cambridge: MIT Press, 1974) builds its whole case on that assumption.

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University of Pittsburgh; Prof. Louis A. Picard, University of Nebraska; Prof. Rukudzo Murapa, University of Zimbabwe; Mr. Bhekis R. Dlamini, Institute of Development Management, Swaziland; Dr. Bogerio F.S. Pinto, Organization of American States; and Mr. M. J. Ziyane, Swaziland Institute of Management and Public Administration. This team was working on behalf of the Southern African Development Coordination Conference under a contract between the U.S. Agency for International Development and the National Association of Schools of Public Administration and Affairs. Prof. Wendell Schaeffer was the coordinator of the project for NASPAA, and Mrs. Jeanne North for AID; both of them made substantial contributions to both the management and substance of the project. Twenty students at Harvard's Kennedy School of Government performed the coding of events for skills and other factors: Lewis Brandt, Mary Byrne, Changyin Chung, Gabriella Dreyer, John Druke, Ronnie Friedman-Partic, Mrs. A.L. Ganapati, Laura Ibara, Cord Jakobait, S. Krishna Kumar, Roop Jyoti, Nurul Nadeem, Otty Nxumalo, Bruno Pouezet, Junio Ragraio, Eafeez Ur Rehman, Alejandro Reyes, Catherine Reilly, Peter Semneby, and Leah Taylor. The additional coding of the management events for the developmental sub-goals they reflected was performed by Mrs. Ganapati. They worked under the supervision of Mr. V.V. Rama Subba Rao, my research assistant at the Kennedy School.

21 December 1985.

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TABLE I
MANAGERIAL CONTRIBUTION TO DEVELOPMENTAL SUB-GOALS
(Regional totals)

CODE	DEVELOPMENTAL SUB-GOAL	TOTAL	POSITIVE	NEGATIVE
0	Did not contribute to development goals.	832	276	556
18	Upgraded the caliber, capabilities, or morale of the staff.	261	146	115
14	Introduced or expanded the use of analytic, databased management aids.	230	142	86
16	Imposed tighter structure or controls on staff or vendor performance.	91	24	67
17	Improved the allocation or organization of responsibilities and functions.	78	36	42
15	Introduced cost- or time-saving measures, ideas.	67	34	33
10	Secured a national advantage or resource by negotiations.	63	41	22
8	Changed rules or procedures to be more responsive to the needs of the clients.	56	19	37
20	Improved record-keeping or information retrieval systems.	38	12	26
13	Developed more effective working relationships with local agencies or sources of external aid.	32	17	15
9	Avoided disruption of services by timely action, despite difficulties or risks.	31	23	8
7	Raised standard of products or services provided.	30	16	14
11	Improved or expanded dissemination programs or techniques.	14	10	4
6	Introduced a new service or program.	8	3	5
1	Influenced developmental strategies, emphases or investment decisions.	8	4	4
3	Developed local capability for an activity formerly dependent on external resources.	7	5	2
2	Introduced a new agricultural, industrial or commercial enterprise in the country.	6	5	1
19	Upgraded physical facilities or equipment.	6	2	4
4	Discovered a solution or a more promising approach to a significant development problem.	5	3	2
12	Expanded institution's authority, status or charter.	4	4	0
5	Stimulated the more widespread adoption of a preferred practice or other desired public response.	1	1	0
	TOTAL	1868	823	1045

TABLE II

MANAGERIAL CONTRIBUTION TO DEVELOPMENTAL SUB-GOALS
(By Country)

CODE	DEVELOPMENTAL SUB-GOAL	TOTAL	BOT	LES	MAL	SWA	TAN	ZAM	ZIM
0	Did not contribute to development goals.	832	165	196	26	27	82	96	240
18	Upgraded the caliber, capabilities, or morale of the staff.	261	20	56	8	3	41	14	119
14	Introduced or expanded the use of analytic, databased management aids.	230	24	43	10	11	46	8	88
16	Imposed tighter structure or controls on staff or vendor performance.	91	13	25	1	3	12	2	35
17	Improved the allocation or organization of responsibilities and functions.	78	5	15	1	6	6	16	29
15	Introduced cost- or time-saving measures, ideas.	67	2	24	0	0	9	2	30
10	Secured a national advantage or resource by negotiations.	63	3	22	1	4	14	3	16
8	Changed rules or procedures to be more responsive to the needs of the clients.	56	10	16	1	6	10	2	11
20	Improved record-keeping or information retrieval systems.	38	11	6	0	1	10	5	5
13	Developed more effective working relationships with local agencies or sources of external aid.	32	2	6	0	4	2	14	4
9	Avoided disruption of services by timely action, despite difficulties or risks.	31	6	6	0	0	0	1	18
7	Raised standard of products or services provided.	30	1	17	0	0	2	2	8
0	Other goals	59	13	16	1	1	5	14	9
	TOTAL	1868	275	448	49	66	239	179	612

TABLE III

CONTRIBUTIONS MADE BY PUBLIC, PRIVATE AND PARASTATAL
MANAGERS TO DEVELOPMENTAL SUB-GOALS

CODE	DEVELOPMENTAL SUB-GOAL	PUBLIC			PARASTATAL			PRIVATE			TOTAL
		TOTAL	POS	NEG	TOTAL	POS	NEG	TOTAL	POS	NEG	
0	Did not contribute to development goals.	598	186	412	48	18	30	186	72	114	832
18	Upgraded the caliber, capabilities, or morale of the staff.	180	96	84	13	10	3	68	40	28	261
14	Introduced or expanded the use of analytic, databased management aids.	160	94	66	15	10	5	55	38	17	230
16	Imposed tighter structure or controls on staff or vendor performance.	63	17	46	7	3	4	21	4	17	91
17	Improved the allocation or organization of responsibilities and functions.	57	27	30	4	0	4	17	9	8	78
15	Introduced cost- or time-saving measures, ideas.	12	8	4	5	4	1	50	22	28	67
10	Secured a national advantage or resource by negotiations.	29	17	12	5	3	2	29	21	8	63
8	Changed rules or procedures to be more responsive to the needs of the clients.	47	14	33	3	2	1	6	3	3	56
20	Improved record-keeping or information retrieval systems.	32	11	21	4	0	4	2	1	1	38
13	Developed more effective working relationships with local agencies or sources of external aid.	30	15	15	1	1	0	1	1	0	32
9	Avoided disruption of services by timely action, despite difficulties or risks.	14	11	3	1	1	0	16	11	5	31
7	Raised standard of products or services provided.	8	6	2	5	3	2	17	7	10	30
0	Other goals	50	32	18	4	2	2	5	3	2	59
	TOTAL	1280	534	746	115	57	58	473	232	241	1868

TABLE IV

CONTRIBUTIONS DEVELOPMENTAL SUB-GOALS
BY LEVELS OF MANAGEMENT

CODE	DEVELOPMENTAL SUB-GOAL	SENIOR LEVEL			MIDDLE LEVEL			JUNIOR LEVEL			TOTAL
		TOTAL	POS	NEG	TOTAL	POS	NEG	TOTAL	POS	NEG	
0	Did not contribute to development goals.	163	52	111	525	165	360	144	59	85	832
18	Upgraded the caliber, capabilities, or morale of the staff.	59	25	34	180	103	77	22	18	4	261
14	Introduced or expanded the use of analytic, databased management aids.	65	36	29	151	98	53	14	8	6	230
16	Imposed tighter structure or controls on staff or vendor performance.	38	7	31	44	14	30	9	3	6	91
17	Improved the allocation or organization of responsibilities and functions.	26	12	14	50	22	28	2	2	0	78
15	Introduced cost- or time-saving measures, ideas.	22	15	7	44	19	25	1	0	1	67
10	Secured a national advantage or resource by negotiations.	33	20	13	28	20	8	2	1	1	63
8	Changed rules or procedures to be more responsive to the needs of the clients.	23	9	14	24	8	16	9	2	7	56
20	Improved record-keeping or information retrieval systems.	11	0	11	25	10	15	2	2	0	38
13	Developed more effective working relationships with local agencies or sources of external aid.	15	5	10	16	11	5	1	1	0	32
9	Avoided disruption of services by timely action, despite difficulties or risks.	10	8	2	21	15	6	0	0	0	31
7	Raised standard of products or services provided.	7	3	4	18	10	8	5	3	2	30
0	Other goals	19	11	8	35	23	12	5	3	2	59
	TOTAL	491	203	288	1161	518	643	216	112	118	1868

TABLE V

MANAGERIAL SKILLS REQUIRED FOR NATIONAL
DEVELOPMENT ACTIVITIES

SKILL	GOAL # 1	GOAL # 2	GOAL # 3	GOAL # 4	GOAL # 5	GOAL # 6	GOAL # 7	GOAL # 8	GOAL # 9	GOAL # 10	GOAL # 11	GOAL # 12	GOAL # 13	GOAL # 14	GOAL # 15	GOAL # 16	GOAL # 17	GOAL # 18	GOAL # 19	GOAL # 20	NO GOAL
ACCOUNTING	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	2	0	0	1	42	3	5	1	15	0	4	36
DRAFTING & WRITING SKILLS	2	0	0	3	0	0	2	2	0	4	1	0	2	72	3	4	2	18	0	2	84
RESEARCH	1	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	1	1	0	0	26	2	1	1	2	0	2	27
KNOWLEDGE OF RULES, PROCEDURES	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	25	2	6	1	0	2	15	4	17	3	11	1	6	95
POLICY ANALYSIS	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	11	0	1	3	2	0	0	12
LEGAL KNOWLEDGE	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	3	0	3	0	0	24
INTERNATIONAL NEGOTIATIONS	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	4	0	0	16	5	0	0	0	1	0	0	5
POLITICAL ENVIRONMENT	0	0	0	1	0	0	6	4	1	5	0	0	2	3	1	5	4	2	0	0	18
SUPERVISION	1	0	0	1	0	1	4	7	3	2	0	0	0	18	5	28	11	18	0	2	54
WORK SCHEDULING	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	2	3	1	0	0	0	13	3	4	7	0	0	1	45
PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION	0	0	3	1	0	2	1	12	1	5	1	0	0	18	4	22	22	68	0	4	96
TIME MANAGEMENT	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	8	0	5	2	2	0	1	23
MANAGEMENT INFORMATION SYSTEM	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	1	14	0	2	0	1	0	7	6
MOTIVATION	3	1	1	1	0	1	2	6	12	9	1	2	1	26	11	12	20	60	0	8	198
ORGANIZATIONAL MANAGEMENT	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	2	6	2	4	14	8	0	1	7
EXPATRIATE MANAGEMENT	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	3	0	0	0	0	1	3	0	1	1	2	0	0	8
DELEGATION OF AUTHORITY	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	0	1	0	0	2	5	1	4	19	3	0	0	30
TYPING & SECRETARIAL SKILLS	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	2	1	1	1	3	1	19	32
JOB PLANNING	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	2	0	0	8	3	1	5	1	0	0	9
NEGOTIATIONS	3	3	0	0	0	1	1	8	1	42	1	1	8	7	8	6	8	16	0	1	38
FINANCIAL MANAGEMENT	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	6	1	4	0	0	2	30	19	12	1	18	0	2	57
TECHNICAL SKILLS	1	0	3	0	0	1	13	0	14	1	0	0	1	18	23	3	2	17	4	1	117
INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS	0	0	0	1	0	0	4	12	7	8	0	1	2	14	1	16	22	39	0	3	127
BUREAUCRATIC POLITICS	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	0	1	0	0	2	4	1	10	14	7	0	1	55
PUBLIC RELATIONS	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	1	3	1	1	0	0	0	2	0	3	0	0	11
TRAINING	1	0	4	0	1	2	1	2	0	2	3	0	1	24	5	2	5	139	0	5	39
COMMUNITY RELATIONS	0	1	0	0	0	2	3	0	1	1	4	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	9	9
PROJECT PLANNING	0	0	0	0	0	1	3	1	2	2	0	1	4	15	3	0	2	8	0	0	15
RESOURCE ALLOCATION	0	1	0	0	0	0	2	2	1	1	0	0	0	2	3	3	1	2	0	0	8
COMMUNICATION SKILLS	1	1	0	1	1	0	6	0	0	0	4	0	1	7	1	1	2	19	0	0	61
CONTRACT MANAGEMENT	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	1	2	0	1	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	1	10
CORRUPTION MANAGEMENT	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	1	0	0	1	3	0	10	1	2	0	0	14
COORDINATION	0	0	0	1	0	1	3	2	2	3	2	1	5	14	1	2	7	11	0	2	28
SKILLS AT ORGANIZING EVENTS &c	0	0	2	1	0	1	1	0	1	2	0	1	1	3	1	0	2	10	0	0	27

.....contd.

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TABLE V

MANAGERIAL SKILLS REQUIRED FOR NATIONAL
DEVELOPMENT ACTIVITIES

SKILL	GOAL # 1	GOAL # 2	GOAL # 3	GOAL # 4	GOAL # 5	GOAL # 6	GOAL # 7	GOAL # 8	GOAL # 9	GOAL # 10	GOAL # 11	GOAL # 12	GOAL # 13	GOAL # 14	GOAL # 15	GOAL # 16	GOAL # 17	GOAL # 18	GOAL # 19	GOAL # 20	NO GOAL
CONTINGENT MANAGEMENT	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
DISASTER MANAGEMENT	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	4	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
PROGRAM ANALYSIS	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	1	0	0	3
IMPACT ANALYSIS	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	6
DATA ANALYSIS	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
ECONOMIC ANALYSIS	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	28	1	0	0	2	0	1	10
COMPUTATIONAL SKILLS	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	2	0	0	1
MONITORING & EVALUATION	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	5	0	1	0	2	0	1	7
INVENTORY MANAGEMENT	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	4	5	1	0	1	0	1	7
LANGUAGE SKILLS	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	5	1	0	1	0	1	3
INTER-ORGANIZATIONAL RELATIONS	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	6
MISCELLANEOUS	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	3	1	1	0	0	0	3

APPENDIX

The Management Events Methodology

The field methods followed in this research come from two sources: the use of management diaries to record the actual roles or operations of selected individuals whose activities are under study, and a procedure invented during the closing years of World War II, when a group of psychologists led by John C. Flanagan developed the "critical incident method" in order to analyze the performance of pilots and other soldiers in combat. These two methods, in various forms, have had hundreds of uses in both the public and private sector, ranging from job analysis and industrial management to personnel selection and training, as well as performance evaluations. There have also been three or four applications in developing countries.

In gathering this information, teams of management specialists visited all nine of the countries in the region known as the Southern African Development Coordination Conference [SADCC] for two weeks in August, 1984 (one team returned to Mozambique to complete the study in November of that year). During the course of their stay, two or three members of the team interviewed public and private officials on a schedule arranged or facilitated by the SADCC representative in each country. In addition to the scheduled interviews, the team invited ten permanent secretaries or managing directors or their equivalents or deputies in each country to complete a short Management Events Diary listing five or six events that occurred over a period of 5 to 10 days. Events to be listed were those that required an hour's time or more, or that seemed to be of special importance. In a third procedure used by the team, more than 2,000 management events were gathered by means of a questionnaire administered on the job to officials at different levels, mostly in the capital city. The questionnaire asked for brief reports, about 20-50 words in length, describing a specific experience or event (not an opinion or a class of incidents) associated with either the exercise or the absence of a managerial skill or specific administrative knowledge. It called for the "most recent" or "next most recent" experience of effective or ineffective behavior in order to obtain a random collection of events. Events were requested that involved subordinates, colleagues, superiors, and the respondents themselves. Some respondents were able to produce as many as 15 or more events; the average was about eight. After several hundred such events had been gathered, it was possible to begin to classify and code them, and to seek correlations and begin to draw conclusions. By the time the sample reached 2,000, it was evident that essentially the whole universe of relevant experience had been captured, in the sense that no new major categories of experience emerged.

The advantage of this method is that individual experience can be tapped directly through analysis of the incidents described, with a minimum of opinion or subjective influences imposed upon the data. It is the collective experience, not the individual respondents, that constitutes the "universe" that is sampled. Intensity or frequency analysis of the data, including simple correlations and counting, constitute the method used to quantify the experience.

In this study, the focus was limited, in the sense that the questions all emphasized events that reflected the application, or the absence, of a "skill or knowledge," since the objective was to discover training needs. The events were therefore classified according to 46 different skills that were identified during the course of the study, as well as by sector, country, level of managerial responsibility, and a judgment as to whether the event was "positive" or "negative" with regard to the skill in question.

The tables that appear in this paper are derived by simply "counting" the skills or the events in question. All of the countries produced enough events through the questionnaire method to justify a direct comparison among them except Angola, where language and logistical difficulties reduced the number of responses below the desired minimum. In order to make the comparisons statistically acceptable, therefore, the coders consulted the management events diaries and added the incidents recorded there to those generated by the questionnaires. There is

no reason to think the quality of the events is different because of the method used to generate them, since both methods call for reports of the "most recent" events. Further applications of the method could yield information about administrative structures and procedures as well as about individual behavior.

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