REINVENTING COMPETENCY - BASED MANAGEMENT EDUCATION AND TRAINING -

FORGING A STRATEGIC ALLIANCE BETWEEN THE ENTERPRISE AND AUSTRALIA'S QUEST FOR WORLD COMPETITIVE PERFORMANCE
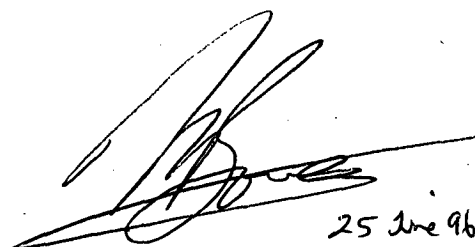
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**Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements
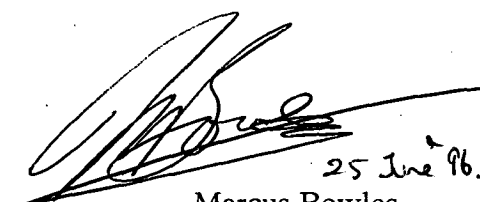for Masters of Education**

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ABSTRACT

This thesis has a genesis in frustration over why so many managers in Australia are either neglecting skills development or receiving education and training that is substantially divorced from the competencies required within their enterprise performance context.

Outside normal research and literature review this thesis is based around material drawn from two sources. This includes personal experience derived since 1990 from working with enterprises and government bodies implementing training reform, and access to personal or contemporary records held by members of those bodies involved in managing training reform. What results is a study fundamentally influenced by the different perceptions held by enterprise executives interested in business success and those individuals managing training reform.

Competency-based management education and training forms the central theme in this thesis. It serves to focus the exploration of the translation of management theory into developing the effective manager during a period of national training reform. This is not a search for a new theory of competency-based management education and training. Rather it is a search for a better understanding of how we can reinvent existing approaches to produce managers that can effectively achieve enterprise performance requirements.

Through reinventing what exists the thesis illustrates it is possible to better integrate national training reform efforts with the sourcing of management education and training required by enterprises to achieve business success. This finding confirms the need to move debate from the actual process of reform (means) to a more collaborative basis concerning the perceived benefits (ends) sought by all participants. One such end advanced is the search for competitiveness; in both the local and global marketplace.

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To my family for their support and to Professor John Williamson who provided invaluable supervision and suggestions for improvement, go my thanks.

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1. Introduction

This thesis is about using competency-based management education and training as a basis for achieving enterprise business success while enhancing the global competitiveness of Australian industry.

The central argument in this thesis falls out of the different perspectives one may achieve by viewing learning from a national or an enterprise level. From these different perspectives it will be argued that conduct of the national training reform agenda in Australia has failed to develop a precise focus on what will 'drive' enterprises to support and promote implementation. The focus has been on global or national policy and portfolio drivers for change. **While the issues driving national reform may be rational and logical it will be advanced that they represent an insufficient basis for convincing enterprises their business success can be promoted through the process of training reform.**

This thesis will argue that the fundamental issues or imperatives, or so called 'drivers', that impel resulting action at a national level lack integration with an enterprise executives' strategic imperative to achieve business success. The imperatives to achieve training reform and to implement resulting initiatives must extend beyond the national level to encompass enterprise level needs. It will be argued that such a collaborative basis can be achieved through a process of reinventing (Mackay, 1994:19). This involves completely rethinking or redefining the fundamental principles impelling enterprises and the nation to achieve competitiveness. It is through such a study of that it will be possible to focus on the diverse elements impacting the translation of training reforms into the enterprise - specific strategic context.

To argue that national training reform needs to be reinvented in order to achieve improved outcomes this thesis must first determine what already exists. As one initiative resulting from training reform competency-based management education and training will be used by this thesis as basis for isolating the elements that shape how enterprises support and promote national training reform. A study of competency-based management education and training also invites analysis of the many elements that impinge upon, and ultimately determine how specific enterprises respond to training. The identification of the elements to be studied, and the relationship between these elements will be central to how this study is structured.

While focussing on what may give cause for enterprises to support training reform it is not being argued that current reform efforts have necessarily failed to involve enterprises and industry. As the central thesis is really heuristic the study will not always progress like the 'typical' academic paper. However, on conclusion there should be a much clearer delineation of the relationship between the factors that drive policy and portfolio objectives, as encompassed under the "national training reform agenda", and how they have or have not addressed what would drive enterprises to support training reform. By using competency-based management education and training the study can be focussed and begin to isolate fundamental drivers that may promote national and enterprise collaboration. It is from collaboration on training reform that the current achievements can be extended to forge strategic alliances that meet not only national interests, but perhaps achieve national interests through directly enabling enterprises to use training and education in a way that promote business success.

A number of critical elements impact the thesis' study of competency-based management education and training. The most obvious is training reform in Australia and what has driven this national agenda. Study of this element then needs to be counterbalanced by how

enterprises have responded to competency-based management education and training. To permit comparative study this analysis must include pre-training reform and current enterprise initiatives on competency identification and competency-based training and education strategies. Determining the other elements in the study serve to build a broader 'picture' of current developments..

A component of this thesis must be dedicated to a thorough analysis of the principles and practices underpinning management and the act of reinventing. The thesis must define what constitutes a manager. This is important not only because we need to know what constitutes a manager in an enterprise. We also need to identify how the concept of 'management' has influenced how education and training have been used to develop more effective managers. Reinventing must be examined to establish how the study of management, training reform and enterprise level competency-based management education and training can be integrated and then renewed through analysis of our findings.

The structure of the thesis will systematically consider each of the key elements. First, the thesis will establish a basis for reinventing and a determine a framework for studying all elements and the relationship between these elements. In the ensuing chapters the thesis will use the conceptual framework progressing on a path reflecting the heuristic nature of the study. Chapter Three will examine what constitutes the effective manager and how management theory has altered our definition of management development. An examination will be made of how changes to the theory of 'management' and concepts of management development render inadequate current frameworks that seek to promote competency-based management education and training within an enterprise.

Chapters Four and Five, respectively, will cover the national and comparative international 'drivers' impelling Australia to undertake training reform. Chapter Six will conclude the examination of the basis for training reform by establishing how enterprises have approached their search for the competent manager. This chapter will permit a fundamental comparison between the strategic need for competency-based management education and training, as perceived by enterprises, and those identified as driving the national training reform agenda.

Chapter Seven will present a basis for reinventing what previous analysis in the thesis has established. This will involve articulating principles that can underpin a new basis for progressing national training reform. A basis where national and enterprise collaboration on competency-based management education and training can achieve mutual advantage.

Chapter 8 extends somewhat beyond the immediate scope of this thesis. It marks the applied study of an Australian enterprise currently achieving enterprise competitive advantage through the integration of national training reform initiatives. The chapter extends previous study to evidence a strategic alliance between government and an enterprise that confirms the fundamental principles for reinventing competency-based management education and training which were articulated in Chapter 7.

In completing its study this thesis will conclude having established how competency based training can forge an alliance between the national efforts to become "world competitive" and the enterprise imperative to secure competent managers who can meet the challenges inherent in their specific performance context. By focussing on competency-based management education and training the thesis will highlight how it is the manager's awareness of, and personal competence in identifying the company's capabilities, that influence the demands made on government. Successful translation of partnerships between business and government

on training reform requires managers demanding skills that underpin an enterprise's quest for market advantage and a nation's quest for world competitiveness. (NBEET, February, 1994:42; Cherry, 1995:34; ASTC, September, 1991:111)

It's not sufficient for this study to just reinvent existing competency-based management education and training practices. The thesis must also illustrate how the drivers for national training reform represent an insufficient basis for convincing enterprises that these reforms will directly advance business success. In essence proposing principles that should underpin a reinvented approach to competency-based management education and training must promote wider implications for using education and training as a basis for forging strategic alliances between government and enterprises. Ultimately the success of the national efforts to achieve world competitiveness as advanced by national vocational education and training reforms require Australian managers be convinced that their personal and their enterprise's business success rests on their support and involvement.

2. Developing a Conceptual Framework

2.1. Why Reinvent?

The choice of a path based on reinventing either technical entities or concepts (Osborne & Gaebler, 1993:xviii) should not be taken lightly. It is a strategy that will inherently attract criticism from those locked into existing practices and their theoretical foundations. It is therefore necessary to clearly articulate why this thesis will choose to 'reinvent' our understanding and application of competency - based management education and training (CBMET).

Completing a reinvention of current approaches to competency-based management education and training must not leave Australian managers with another construct that seeks to change current practices. What is required is not another theory, but solutions that can assist interpret what already exists within the manager's own, their enterprise's context. This is particularly so in Australia where the myriad of international management literature and the reforms initiated by government have multiplied the current ideas on what constitutes "the best" approach to management.

In starting with an examination of reinventing, the emphasis is on renewing our understanding of the known to develop an improved way to conduct management education and training. This does not imply that all previous theories of management, management development, or approaches to education and competency-based training are to be replaced with this latest approach. It implies, in fact, the reverse. While the subject matter of this chapter will not be advanced by a study of the historiography of the wider debate we do need to note that reinventing focuses on being able to analyse known factors prior to devising a new approach.

The practice and theory underpinning why we should seek to reinvent can be explored initially by examining why improvement, innovation, or re-engineering of existing approaches to CBMET are not adequate solutions.

2.1.1. Improvement

Improvement is herein limited to a focus on incremental change to an existing or known entity, component, technique, or idea that generates superior outcomes (Davenport, 1993:11). Because such changes are based on the existing practices, they rarely generate radical cultural change and the incremental nature of the process usually has limited impact on organisational structures.

2.1.2. Innovation

Innovation is defined generally as the "process that begins with an inventor's insight and ends with a new product or technique" being created (Lundstedt & Colglazier, 1982:xiii). Innovation is not just the practical improvement of hardware. It is also the reshaping of concepts or ideas. The innovation process forms the basis for individuals to inject ideas, insights, pure and applied research, scientific knowledge, and technical 'know-how'.

Innovation is not held within this thesis to be the same as **discovery** or **invention** where a new technical entity is produced. Discovery is the production of new technical or scientific knowledge based on intuition or a rational/ analytical approach to research. (Goodman & Lawless, 1994:40-41). This is distinct from invention, which is production of a novel technical entity, usually the result of pure research discovery or the unique combination of established knowledge.

Innovation involves the substantial change and development to identified technology, ideas or techniques. On a continuum of change or search for superior outcomes innovation may be

considered to sit below the high risk, uncertain efforts of those seeking inventions or discoveries, and above those undertaking improvements. Nevertheless innovation can often involve the rejection of the known to produce a more radical change, as such innovation can greatly effect both the organisation's culture and structure. (Davenport, 1993:11)

2.1.3. Re-engineering

Re-engineering has fundamentally dealt with the analysis of all activities associated with the way an organisation operates and the associated radical process changes required to achieve breakthrough outcomes. (Bowles, 1994:14) Breakthroughs are typified by changes that generate improvements or outcomes which open new opportunities and which are a major progression from existing or known practices. Re-engineering is usually marked by a higher risk factor due to the desire to achieve these 'breakthrough' results.

Re-engineering texts and literature are now becoming as popular and as numerous as Total Quality Management texts were in the late 1980s (see for example, Hammer & Champy, 1994, Davenport, 1993, Obolensky, 1994). In terms of later study in this thesis it is important to appreciate the belief held by those advocating process re-engineering that organisations are failing to change sufficiently rapidly. While this may not sit quite so comfortably with the traditional view of operations and process management theories (and indeed many practitioners schooled in such approaches), re-engineering asserts we must completely escape a focus on traditional management approaches if we are to achieve world competitive enterprises. (Hammer & Champy, 1994:5)

Process re-engineering necessitates escaping the conceptual parameters imposed by past ideas and ways of 'doing things'. Such an approach is often termed a **greenfields** approach to reform or change. A **greenfields** approach requires those involved in a re-engineering exercise to

rethink everything they do. This may mean examining the known only if we are prepared to discard past practices thereby escaping any approach to change that is locked into incremental or low risk solutions. Those undertaking **process** re-engineering must:

1. suspend reference to existing practices and traditional concepts;

2. start process design from the output service/product delivered and the requirements of external customer;

3. define process relationships by mapping the ideal or optimal internal customer relationships that can support external customer requirements;

4. derive ideal and optimal procedures and relationships without initial regard as to 'why we cannot do this';

5. devise new performance targets;

6. review the new performance targets against corporate or strategic targets; and

7. establish priorities and responsibilities for implementing process re-engineering

In effect, re-engineering is about escaping incremental and *ad hoc* change exercises and promoting a radical re think of how organisations conduct operations. It is therefore more than a tool or adjunct to existing management theories. Proponents view re-engineering as both holistic in its consideration of organisational management and in how we go beyond innovation based on known factors. It essentially promotes change to business operations and service and product delivery processes to a point where a new basis for competitive positioning has been created.

Theorists and practitioners within the field have debated what exactly re-engineering entails. Writers such as Michael Hammer and James Champy suggest that organisations have not responded well to the imperatives of the three "Cs" - customer, competition and change. (Hammer and Champy, 1994:24) Hammer and Champy advocate that business process re-

engineering, to be truly effective, requires the complete renewal of the corporate entity. This requires what has been called the "big-bang" approach to re-engineering where all processes are considered as part of the corporation re-engineering exercise.

Some writers take a more conservative approach to process re-engineering. They believe radical change can occur through re-engineering but it can be based on innovations that better integrate the systems supporting cumulative change to performance with the need to exceed customer expectations. (Davenport 1993:37-43) This exercise fundamentally alters the concept and management of operations as defined by a series of related input, transformation and output sequences. As such to achieve an operational breakthrough the exercise of process re-engineering goes beyond a limited reconsideration of a process in isolation from wider corporate efforts. This also assists in defining process re-engineering as distinct from a process 'redesign' or improvement as may occur in administrative or process cycle time reduction.

Davenport in Process Innovation: Reengineering Work Through Information Technology (1993) highlighted another area of contention concerning re-engineering experts. Davenport places a heavy emphasis on using information technology to re-engineer processes. Davenport has critically impacted management thinking since publication of the above text. This work has provided the nexus between the concept of innovation as a radical management tool and the concept of re-engineering processes. However, Hammer and Champy (1994) see the focus on re-engineering work through information technology as limiting the definition of re-engineering. They argue:

> ... despite the prominent role played by information technology in business reengineering, it should by now be clear that reengineering is not the same as automation. Automating existing processes with information technology is analogous to paving cow paths. Automation simply provides more efficient ways of doing the wrong kinds of things.(Hammer and Champy, 1994:48)

It is beyond the scope of this thesis to discuss all the arguments but it is critical to note that re-engineering is a systematic effort to stimulate process innovation. This is further accelerating the total rethinking of management, leadership and organisational design.

2.1.4. Reinventing

The concept called reinventing has been loosely associated with the drive to re-engineer organisations. In fact **reinventing** is often considered to be synonymous with re-engineering. Reinventing has been used to underpin the need to rethink completely how organisations or societies operate. Reinventing is fundamentally linked to the "Age of Redefinition" where global changes challenge us to redefine things we once may have held to be absolutes. (Mackay 1994:19)

The concept has even been used especially by Osborne and Gaebler in <u>Reinventing Government: How the Entrepreneurial Spirit is Transforming the Public Sector</u> (1993) when they argue for the United States public sector to be reinvented in an entrepreneurial spirit. The authors advanced imperatives that necessitate a fundamental redefinition of government. (Osborne & Gaebler, 1993:xviii & xix) Osborne and Gaebler established the basis from which to reinvent what existed by establishing a new paradigm based on a novel interpretation of entrepreneurial government. (Osborne & Gaebler, 1993:16) This enabled Osborne and Gaebler to establish or reinvent the basis for debating the definition of government in the United States of America.

Reinventing can therefore be seen to have three critical elements:

1. an examination of the imperatives for redefining the chosen topic within a world-wide (rather than just local) frame of reference;

2. the redefinition of the given elements that originally constituted the basis for current practices or processes; and

3. using the first two steps as the basis for the articulation of the new, whereby a technical entity, conceptualisation, or approach, unlike any previous is produced.

This thesis is broadly divided into three parts that cover the act of reinventing.

A Conceptual Framework to Diagnose what Exists	Next Section
Map Developments and the Reasons for Existing Practices or Processes.	Chapter 3 to 5
Reinvent what Exists to Form Innovative and Improved Solutions	Chapter 6 to 8
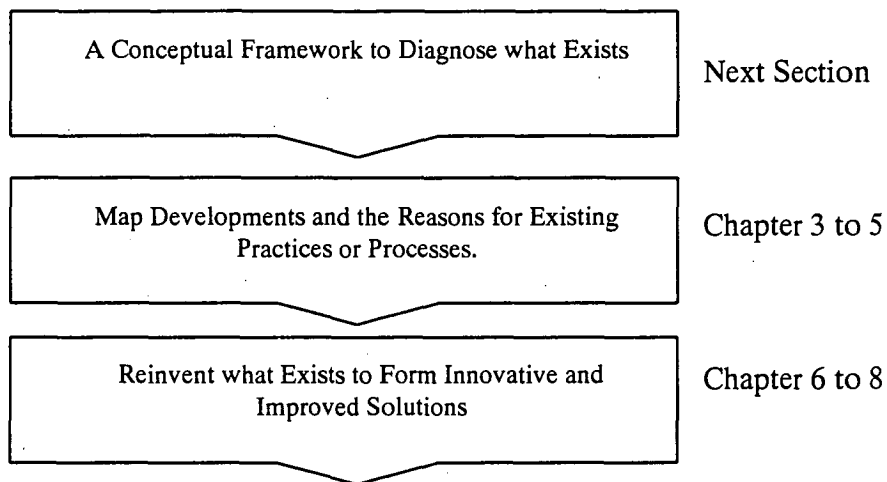
2.2. Postulating a Model To Unravel the Relationships

This thesis will argue a need to explore reinventing competency-based management education and training to maximise effort and enhance the collaboration to achieve competitiveness. The study of competency-based management education and training is used as a focus point to deal with a number of major concepts and elements that serve to hinder strategic alliances between enterprises and national policy implementation agents in their search for the effective manager.

Elements in the study such as enterprise strategic imperatives, national training reform, competency based training and education, competitiveness, management theory and management development could all form areas of study for this thesis. Any model or tool in this thesis needs to be assessed on its ability to untangle the relationships between such disparate elements.

Figure 1: Elements Defining the Manager
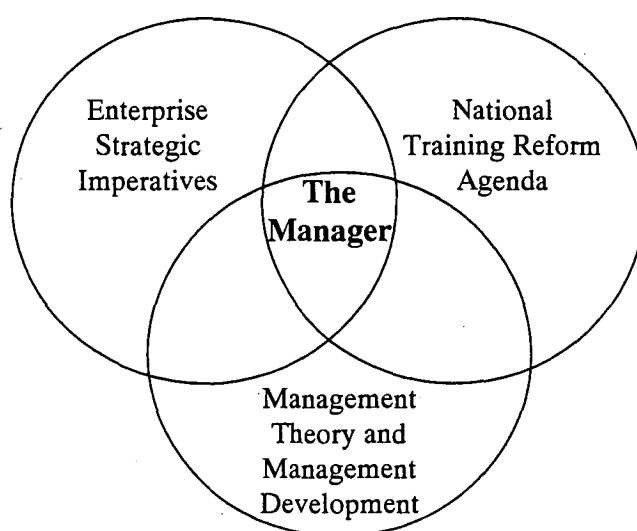
Only after we have examined the existing principles and processes that determined the relationship between these elements can we fully articulate how competency-based management education and training may best be implemented to advantage enterprises and the individuals being developed.

The framework to be used by this thesis to examine the interrelationships between the elements is based on the Slocum and Lei model for the design of global strategic alliances. (Slocum & Lei, 1993:295-232) The authors devised this framework to highlight the importance of values or the management of diversity. Their focus however is very much on devising a simple model that in the formation of strategic alliances permits the exploration of complex interrelationships between government, enterprises and enterprise executive management. These alliances were

seen as the "mechanisms aiding managers' efforts to cope with accelerating rates of environmental change and to restructure their competitive activities." (Slocum & Lei, 1993:297)

The framework is simple in construction. It seeks to detail the relationships between economic factors and cultural values within a strategic alliance between businesses and government. (See the figure below taken from Slocum & Lei, 1993:298)

Figure 2: Slocum and Lei Model for Strategic Alliances
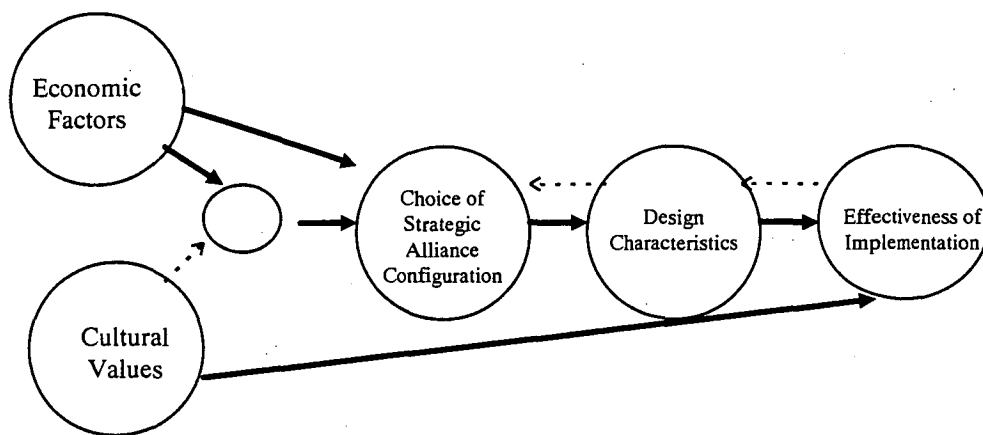
It is the intention of this thesis to conduct an examination from a competency-based management education and training perspective. Central to the thesis is the concept of strategic alliance based on enhancing national or international competitiveness and the configuring of systems to support business performance. In this case competency-based management education and training is the focal point for examining how the relationship between the myriad of elements can impact this alliance.

2.3. A New Conceptual Framework to Examine CBMET

The thesis will finally move to present a conceptual framework that explores the concept of a strategic alliance based on an enterprise's strategic imperative for performance improvement and the national search for world competitiveness.

To achieve a framework for diagnosis that can unravel the relationships between the factors

within this thesis can modify the Slocum and Lei (1993:298) framework as outlined below.

Figure 3: Conceptual Framework for Unravelling Relationships Between Elements
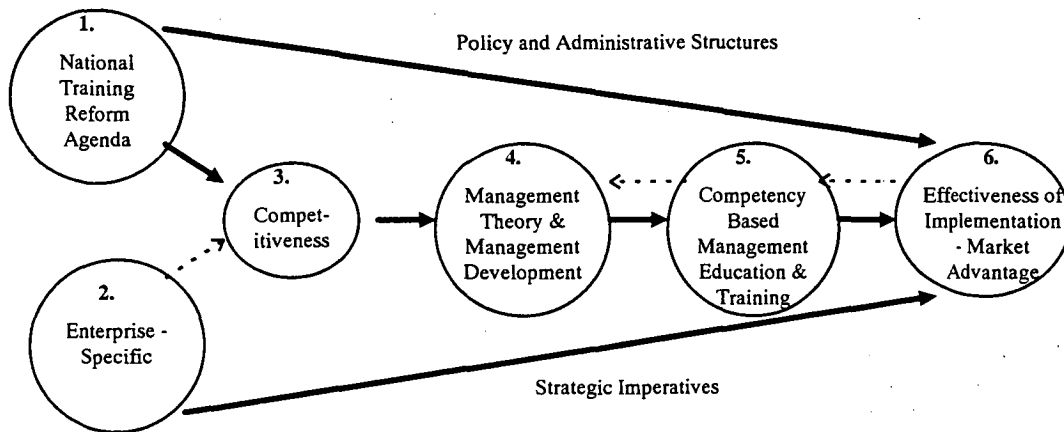
The framework above is set to assist our investigation of the factors surrounding national

training reform and enterprise strategic imperatives. The framework also can permit this thesis

to determine the current status of the alliance on competency-based management education and

training to achieve competitiveness in both the domestic and international marketplace between

enterprises and government .

As the factors in the above figure are dynamic and relationships constantly change, this thesis

is not seeking to determine the exact configuration of the strategic alliances that can meet every

enterprises' strategic outcomes. Rather the model is heuristic. It will permit us to identify and

study the relationship between different elements. Once we understand what exists and the

basis for existing principles and practices, it will be possible to explore the potential of the use

of a revised version of the framework to renew the relationships between the factors in our

study.

Many factors inhibit the formation of alliances that can capitalise on market opportunities.

Slocum and Lei, (1993:298-300) identified four critical factors which government can address

when seeking to improve the formation of strategic alliances and to raise organisational competitiveness. They included:

1. Creating Economies of Scale and Critical Mass

2. Learning for New Skills and Technologies

3. Shaping Industry Evolution

4. Reducing Risk

All elements will be revisited on completion of an examination of what national reforms. However the conceptual framework above suggests any study of national strategies for enabling strategic alliances needs to be counterbalanced by examination of the factors motivating enterprises to forge alliances with government. To avoid dimensional descriptions of any factors studied by this thesis, and to preserve the as yet unknown nature of the relationships between the elements in this thesis, Slocum and Lei's four factors will have to be revisited. Using the conceptual framework posited above this can occur after we have studied the first four elements and aim to derive new collaboration framework for competency-based management education and training.

It is, therefore, with the study of what constitutes a modern manager that this thesis must commence before examining either national training reform or the enterprise search for the effective manager.

3. Defining the Effective Manager: Management Theory and Management Development

When devising competency-based management education and training programs for an enterprise the focus is on increasing management effectiveness. This leads us to question how management theory and thought have come to define what constitutes an effective manager?

To establish a better understanding of current approaches to management development, we need to come to some basis for interpreting how development activities have intended to actually improve effectiveness. We also need to explore the basis which management theories have provided to frame the concept of an effective manager. This will permit us to then assess the impact the function-centred mindset of what a manger should do has had on our approach to management education and training.

3.1. Defining the Effective Manager

This Section will explore three broad 'schools of thought' in management theory that have dominated our approaches to developing an effective manager. We will look at how we have defined the effective manager in terms of the Role Approach, the Trait Approach and the Competency or Outcomes Approach. Each approach has unique characteristics but are they as mutually exclusive in their intent as we may assume?

Regard for quality, activity-based accounting; competency-based training; workplace agreements; best practice and benchmarking; participative management styles; and such like all are all addressed with a mix of awe and fear. This fear is invasive. It is not necessarily just a fear that a competitor in the marketplace will absorb the message in these areas first and get to a "sustainable market advantage", both domestically and internationally; but the fear that an

individual's personal career survival depends upon the ability to respond to these new imperatives.

Like computer sales people, management theorists and management development experts purport a "best mix" of management practices that invariably unites to form a management philosophy. The beauty is that sense can be made of the separate actions of a manager across a range of functions by how the action relates to the overall philosophy. Teach a principle, and the principle builds into an integrated approach to management in the workplace. The effort is laudable, but has been going on since Taylor (1947), Fayol (1949), and Barnard (1938) established their principles which were within twenty years being built into "philosophies" of organisational theory, leadership and management. Real progress was made when theorists such as Drucker (1954), McGregor (1960), Herzberg (1960), Likert (1960), and Cyert and March (1963) came forward with variations, optional approaches and new management principles.

By the early 1990s managers were faced with an overwhelming theory on every aspect on management and organisational life. The fundamental reason for this is that the management of organisations is so complex and open to so many variations, that it can not be explained by one set of prevailing theories and practices. Studies of management theory serve as a necessary basis to make sense of the topic and the act of management, but they cannot encompass the increasingly rapid changes confronting the emerging market and workforce needs of modern organisations.

Faced with the overwhelming array of different ways to manage, and the imperative to seek and implement better management practices that can ensure enterprise survival, there is still a need to convince Australian executives that management education and training is part of the

solution to improved enterprise performance. (Report of the Industry Task Force on Management and Leadership Skills, 1995:xviii-x)

Generally, Australian managers have been oriented toward the management of structures. To produce corporate visions that are underpinned with quantifiable and meaningful objectives. These objectives are derived from, and implemented in business units that are increasingly associated with satisfying particular client needs and building long term relationships with these clients to attain that elusive "sustainable market advantage".

The changing emphasis to leading, supporting and facilitating process improvement has not been underpinned with the realisation that structure is no longer a physical factor that can be simply charted on office walls. Structure is treated as a result of the relationships between processes, and between processes and external clients. Those people steering organisations are increasingly placing their operations into a 'customer-driven' environment, and challenging managers and staff to respond to client needs. Autonomy and flexibility are enhanced through the formation of teams with 'ownership' of a process.

What is required is a more holistic approach to management that recognises organisational improvement encompassing corporate, process and human dimensions.

Nevertheless, we continue to emphasise an approach to management involving some kind of generic theme that sits astride a number of functions. We then weigh down our managers with the "latest" philosophy or theory to extend their functional responsibilities into a wider cross-functional, people-centred perspective. Yet we know that employers want skill sets that are not functional, but general (eg. communication, interpersonal skills, global perspective, etc.), and we acknowledge that it is the market and the external clients being served which should be the critical focus for management actions (NBEET, 1990:11-19; Hilmer, 1993:191-196). This

requires managers to move away from an exclusive focus on planning, control and coordination to a cross-functional focus that vests staff with the capacity to undertake some 'traditional' management functions.

This thesis is not about challenging the myriad of ways we teach management theories or promote management development approaches. This thesis is about recognising that managers make pragmatic choices based on the imperatives impacting their workplace, and any aspect of management development must acknowledge the diversity of needs that interact to shape what constitutes an effective manager.

What is required is a model that will permit each enterprise and individual manager to make sense of the complexity surrounding the improvement of management performance. This approach must be flexible and consistent, while being shaped by the outcomes which individual and enterprise education and training are intent upon achieving.

3.1.1. The Effective Manager As Defined By the Role Approach

Blake and Mouton stated:

> *"Flexibility, contingency, and situational management suggest there are no principles to give guidance to managing different situations. This seems to be at variance with all forms of experience, in whatever field of human endeavour... Just as the principles of aerodynamics and nutrition must be adhered to, if results are to be sound, so must the principles underlying effective managerial behaviour be adhered to. One cannot, and does not, in whatever walk of life, suddenly abandon principles because one is faced with a new situation - and, of course, every situation is new!"* (Blake and Mouton, 1981, 2-3)

The role of management has shifted from a sole focus on planning, organising, supervising and controlling. Rather, the search is for a mix of skills that will transverse the technical, human and conceptual skill mixes necessary for the given management context.

Figure 4: Katz Model for Defining a Manager

Skill Mix   (Katz:1974)
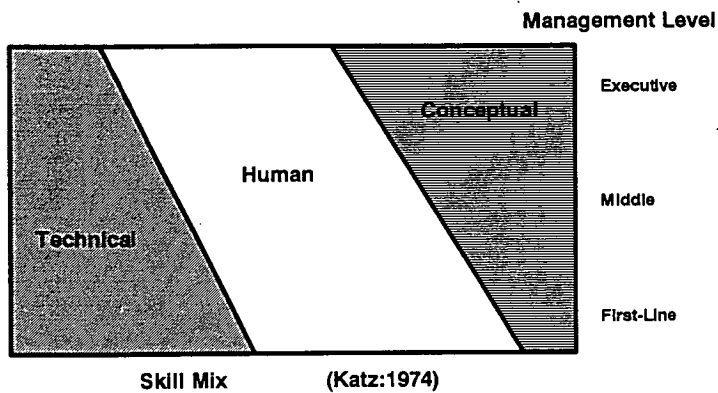
With staff understanding vital for implementing change, the "warm and fuzzy" concepts of vision, values, culture and ethics become far more critical in orientating workplace actions. In times of certainty and stability, adherence to management authority can become almost ritualistic, but in times of rapid change, leadership requires staff commitment and adherence to shifting strategic goals. This has emphasised the role of management communication at not only the interpersonal level, but in the setting and communication of common visions, values, and ethics. Effectively, management communication also can be used to shape and mirror an organisation's culture.

The Role Approach to specifying what constitutes effective management derives data from the various roles that managers assume when managing. Essentially, the Role Approach examines what the functions of management are. The Role Approach gained momentum in the early part of the 20th century when the French industrialist, Henri Fayol, theorised that managers perform five basic functions:

- Planning
- Organising
- Commanding
- Coordinating
- Controlling (Fayol, 1949:3)

Fayol's theory was based on his experiences in French industry, rather than on objective analysis. This subjective analysis was common among early theorists. In an analysis of

bureaucracy, Max Weber argued that management therein involved the exercise of control on

the basis of knowledge:

> *"Bureaucratic administration means fundamentally the exercise of control on the basis of knowledge. This is the feature of it which makes it specifically rational."* (Weber, 1947:340)

While many have taken issue with Weber about how rational the management of bureaucracy

sometimes is, Weber's theory was derived at a time when a rational approach to management

was emerging. It reached its pinnacle and is exemplified in the work of Frederick Taylor.

Taylor referred to his theory as "Principles of Scientific Management". It involved scientific

observation to replace what he perceived as a rule-of-thumb approach to the organisation of

work. Under scientific management, Taylor argued that the role of the manager:

> *"...is the scientific selection and then the progressive development of the workmen. It becomes the duty of those on the management side to deliberately study the character, the nature and the performance of each workman with a view to finding out the limitations on the one hand, but even more important, his possibilities for development on the other hand; and then, as deliberately and as systematically to train and help and teach this workman, giving him, wherever it is possible, those opportunities for advancement which will finally enable him to do the highest and most interesting and most profitable class of work for which his natural abilities fit him, and which are open o him in the particular company in which he is employed. [sic] The scientific selection of the workman and his development is not a single act; it goes on from year to year and is the subject of continual study on the part of management."* (Taylor, 1947:41)

Although Taylor's theory applied to a relatively stable production environment, there is merit in

his human relations training and development approach which still applies in today's work

environment of fast and continuous change. Mary Follett (1941) extolled scientific

management because it was based on rational inquiry. In a 1925 paper titled "The Giving of

Orders" (perhaps the title is an indication of the period in which it was written) Follett shifted

the role of management from simply giving orders to finding the reason for an order to be given:

> *"We have here, I think, one of the largest contributions of scientific management: it tends to depersonalise orders. ...one might call the essence of scientific management the attempt to find the law of the situation... Our [the manager's] job is not how to get people to obey orders, but how to devise methods by which we can best discover the order integral to a particular situation."* (Follett, 1941:59)

Chester Barnard perceived the role of the manager as maintaining the organisation in operation via a system of co-operative effort involving three major functions:

• The maintenance of organisation communication;

> *"We have noticed... that, when a complex of more than one unit is in question, centres of communication and corresponding executives are necessary. The need of a definite system of communication creates the first task of the organiser and is the immediate origin of executive organisation."* (Barnard, 1938:217)

• The securing of essential services from individuals; and

> *"The second function of the executive organisation is to promote the securing of the personal services that constitute the material of the organisations.*
>
> *The work divides into two main divisions; (I) the bringing of persons into cooperative relationship with the organisation; (II) the eliciting of the services after such persons have been brought into that relationship."* (Barnard, 1938:225)

• The formulation of purpose and objectives.

> *"The third executive function is to formulate and define the purposes, objectives, ends, of the organisation. ...purpose is defined more clearly by the aggregate of action taken than by any formulation in words; ...purpose is something that must be accepted by all the contributors to the system of efforts."* (Barnard, 1938:228)

Despite the fact that Barnard wrote this over half a century ago, his emphasis on communication, contract and objectives is still very much to the fore of modern management practice.

Herbert Simon argued that management and decision-making are synonymous. That is, the manager's role is to make decisions:

> *"In treating decision making as synonymous with managing, I shall be referring not merely to the final act of choice among alternatives, but rather to the whole process of decision. Decision making comprises three principal phases: finding occasions for making decisions; finding possible courses of action; and choosing among courses of action. These three activities account for quite different fractions of the time budgets of executives... The three fractions, added together, account for most of what executives do."* (Simon, 1960:189)

Peter Drucker traverses the various approaches to management theory and advocated in 1968 a reconsideration of the management theory and the role of the executive.

> *"We have stressed the abilities of the executive, his training. and his knowledge, but not his specific attribute, which is effectiveness"* (Drucker 1969:247))

Drucker advocates management by objectives which developed the Outcomes Approach.

In 1973, Henry Mintzberg intensively observed five US chief executives as they worked. This followed a number of similar studies by Mintzberg in the late 1960s. Mintzberg aimed to analyse what executive managers actually do, in order that he might develop a theory of effective management. Mintzberg's observations exploded the notion that managers made decisions after careful planning and reflective thinking. He found that managers had little time for reflective thinking because of the number of interruptions they encountered in their work. Rather, Mintzberg concluded that managers perform ten interrelated roles (or behaviours) which he grouped into three categories; interpersonal, informational and decisional. Mintzberg described managerial roles as follows:

INTERPERSONAL ROLES

Role	Description	Identifiable Activities
Figurehead	The symbolic head who is required to perform a number of routine social or legal duties	Ceremony, status requests and solicitations
Leader	Responsible for motivating and activating subordinates as well as for staffing, training and associated duties	Virtually all managerial activities involving subordinates
Liaison	Maintains a self-developed network of outsiders and contacts who provide favours and information	Acknowledgments of mail, external board work and other activities involving outsiders

INFORMATIONAL

Role	Description	Identifiable Activities
Monitor	Seeks and receives wide variety of special and current information to develop a thorough understanding of the organisation and the environment so as to be the nerve centre of internal and external information of the organisation	Handling mail and contracts concerned with receiving information (including periodical news and observational tours)
Disseminator	Transmits information received from outsiders and subordinates to organisation members some of it being factual, some involving interpretation and integration of diverse value positions of organisational influencers	Forwarding mail into organisation for informational purposes, verbal contracts involving information flow to subordinates (review sessions and instant communication)
Spokesperson	Transmits information to outsiders about organisation plans, policies, actions and results and serves as an expert about the organisation's industry	Board meetings, handling mail and contracts involving the transmission of information to outsiders

DECISIONAL

Role	Description	Identifiable Activities
Entrepreneur	Searches internally and externally for opportunities, initiates improvement projects to bring about change and supervises the design of certain projects	Strategy and review sessions involving initiation or design of improvement projects
Disturbance Handler	Responsible for corrective action when the organisation faces important, unexpected disturbances	Strategy and review sessions involving disturbances and crises
Resource Allocation	Responsible for the allocation of resources thereby making or approving all significant decisions	Scheduling, requesting authorisation, budget activities, and programming subordinates' work
Negotiator	Responsible for representing the organisation at major negotiations	Negotiation

(Mintzberg, 1973: 93)

A number of studies have tested Mintzberg's theory and the evidence generally supports Mintzberg's roles. However, it has been found that the roles change depending on the hierarchical position of the manager. For example, the roles of disseminator, liaison, figurehead, negotiator and spokesperson are practised more at higher levels than at lower level

management, while the role of leader seems to be practised more at lower levels than at higher levels. This, however, might be an inditement of higher level management leadership capacity!

Luthans (Luthans, Hodgetts & Rosencrantz, 1988) led a team study of manager's roles from a different perspective. Luthans and his colleagues observed what managers do and then assessed the percentage of time spent by three different category of managers in actually performing these observed roles. The three categories he defined were:

1.	**Average Manager:**	Managers whose performance and commitment on the job was rated as just satisfactory by their subordinates and illustrated by the quality and quantity of work they accomplished
2.	**Successful Manager:**	Managers who were fast-track promoted and therefore are assumed to be highly capable and effective
3.	**Effective Manager:**	Managers whose performance and commitment on the job was rated as highly satisfactory by their subordinates and illustrated by the quality and quantity of work they accomplished.

After studying 450 managers, Luthans and colleagues defined four managerial roles:

•	**Traditional Management:**	Decision making, planning and controlling
•	**Communication:**	Exchanging routine information and processing paperwork
•	**Human Resource Management:**	Motivating, disciplining, managing conflict, staffing and training
•	**Networking:**	Socialising, politicising and interacting with outsiders.

Luthans then studied the percentage of time spent by each category of manager on the managerial roles. The results are somewhat surprising:

	Average Managers	Successful Managers	Effective Managers
ACTIVITY	Percentage of Time		
Traditional Management	32	13	19
Communication	29	28	44
HR Management	20	11	26
Networking	19	48	11

(Adapted from Luthans, et al., 1988)

These data provide compelling evidence that different managers assume different roles to attain a standard of performance.

The roles of manager are fairly consistent across big and small business although the percentage of time allocated to particular roles varies between them. Note the following differences identified by Paolillo (1984):

Figure 5: Management Roles in Different Size Businesses

SMALL BUSINESS		BIG BUSINESS
Spokesperson	**High**	Resource Allocator
Entrepreneur Figurehead Leader	**Moderate**	Liason Monitor Disturbance Handler Negotiator
Disseminator	**Low**	Entrepreneur
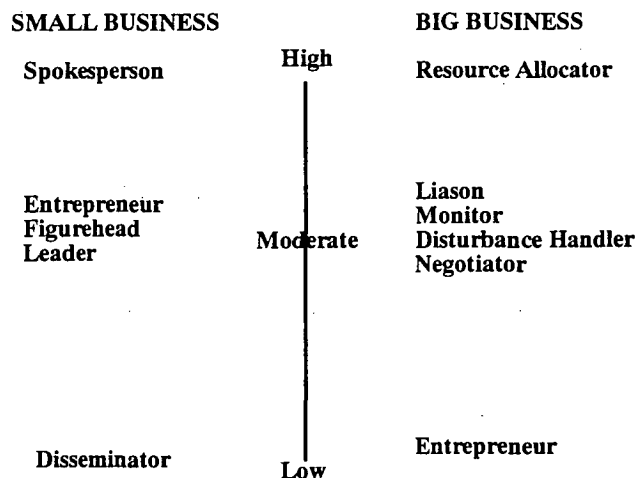
(Adapted from Paolillo, 1984:61)

Regardless of the size and type of organisation they work in, managers perform common roles. They all make decisions, set objectives, structure work, recruit and motivate employees, develop internal support for programs and seek efficiencies of operations. The Role Approach provides a valid way to categorise the functions of management towards a theory of what

constitutes effective management. The Role Approach to management is a pervasive theme in management literature.

3.1.2. The Effective Manager as Defined by the Trait Approach

In the first section we discussed the fact that many theorists focus on the role(s) that managers assume in their control of the enterprise. In contrast, the Trait Approach to specifying what constitutes effective management derives data from the traits or characteristics that managers **display** when managing. Essentially, the Trait Approach asks what innate **characteristics** does an effective manager display and what characteristics does an ineffective manager display? The general answer usually includes **leadership**.(Conger et al.; 1988) Leadership, then, has become the focus of the Trait Approach in an attempt to differentiate the traits of leaders and non-leaders. Inevitably, this led to behavioural - psychological theories examining leadership styles.

While management and leadership are interdependent, one can make a simple distinction between the two by describing leadership as the creation of vision and orientation of action, and management as the achievement or actions undertaken to achieve the vision.

In 1960 traits emphasising participative, and what Likert termed "supportive relationships" began to broaden the management into a leadership arena:

> *"The leadership and other processes of the organisation must be such as to ensure a maximum probability that in all interactions and all relationships with the organisation each member will, in the light of his background, values and expectations, view the experience as supportive and one which builds and maintains his sense of personal worth and importance." (Likert, 1961:104)*

Likert as much as any management theorist typifies the Trait Approach, but perhaps Douglas McGregor's Theory Y (1960) entrenched the Trait Approach in enterprise practice. Essentially, McGregor observed there were two diametrically-held assumptions which infiltrated

management practice. Managers, he theorised, display traits derived from one or the other set

of assumptions. The first set of assumptions he called Theory X:

"1.   *The average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if he can...*

2.   *Because of this human characteristic of dislike of work, most people must be coerced, controlled, directed, threatened with punishment to get them to put forth adequate effort toward the achievement of organisational objectives...*

3.   *The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition, wants security above all."* (McGregor, 1960:33-34)

The second set of assumptions he called Theory Y:

"1.   *The expenditure of physical and mental effort in work is as natural as play or rest...*

2.   *External control and threat of punishment are not the only means for bringing about effort toward organisational objectives. Man will exercise self-direction and self-control in the service of objectives to which he is committed.*

3.   *Commitment to objectives is a function of the rewards associated with their achievement...*

4.   *The average human being learns, under proper conditions, not only to accept but to seek responsibility...*

5.   *The capacity to exercise a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity and creativity in the solution of organisational problems is widely, not narrowly distributed in the population.*

6.   *Under the conditions of modern industrial life, the intellectual potentialities of the average human being are only partially utilised."* (McGregor, 1960:47-48)

McGregor concluded that the traits Theory X managers displayed were those of direction and

control associated with the exercise of authority, while the traits Theory Y managers displayed

were facilitation and integration. McGregor's theory had a remarkable impact on management

and even today managers are sometimes referred to as X or Y managers.

Frederick Herzberg (1960) enunciated his Motivation-Hygiene Theory on the premise that five (motivational) factors stand out as strong determiners of job satisfaction - achievement; recognition; work itself; responsibility; and advancement. He went on to postulate that five different (hygiene) factors stand out as strong determiners of job dissatisfaction - company policy and administration; supervision; salary; interpersonal relations; and working conditions. That is, the opposite of job satisfaction would not be job dissatisfaction but rather no job satisfaction; and the opposite of job dissatisfaction would not be job satisfaction but rather very little job satisfaction. Therefore it follows that a manager who exhibited traits which developed the determiners of job satisfaction (the motivators) would be more effective than the manager who worked on eliminating the five determiners (hygienes) of job dissatisfaction. Herzberg concluded:

> *"If we accept the notion that one of the most important functions of a manager is the development of future managers, the teaching of hygiene motivations becomes a serious defect to the company... The superior who is a hygiene seeker cannot but have an adverse effect on management development, which is aimed at the personal growth and actualisation of subordinates."* (Herzberg, 1960:91)

Perhaps the most important work balancing a manager's concern for people or processes was undertaken by Blake and Mouton who developed a two dimensional view of leadership style structured in a managerial grid with two axis: concern for people; and concern for production. The grid has nine possible positions along each axis creating 81 different positions into which a leader's style can fall. (Blake & Mouton, 1984)

Figure 6: Blake and Mouton Management Grid
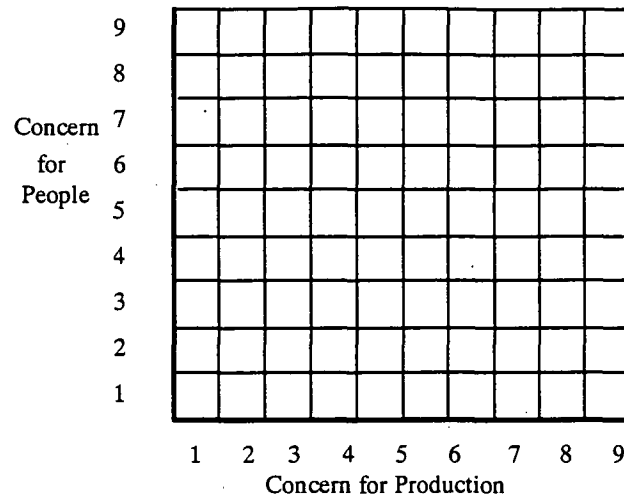
Blake and Mouton identified five key positions on the grid:

Cell 1:1	**Impoverished:**	The leader exerts minimum effort to accomplish work.
Cell 9:1	**Task:**	The leader concentrates on task efficiency but shows little concern for the development and morale of subordinates.
Cell 1:9	**Country-club:**	The leader focuses on being supportive and considerate of subordinates to the exclusion of concern for task efficiency.
Cell 5:5	**Middle-of-the-road:**	Adequate task efficiency and satisfactory morale are the goals of this style.
Cell 9:9	**Team:**	The leader facilitates task efficiency and high morale by coordinating and integrating work-related activities.

Blake and Mouton conclude that a manager performs best using traits that achieve a 9:9 result.

(Blake & Mouton, 1984)

In another study of leadership traits, Warren Bennis (1985) interviewed 90 managers with the following demographic characteristics:

- 60 private sector and 30 public sector
- median age 56 years
- average 22.5 years with the organisation
- 65% possessing undergraduate qualifications
- all were the CEO of their organisations
- 84 males and 6 females

From his observations, Bennis defined four traits common to every one of the 90 managers studied:

1 Management of Attention
2 Management of Meaning

      3   Management of Trust
      4   Management of Self.
(Bennis, 1985:126)

William Sandy identified that management requires an emphasis on flexible traits that reflect

the manager's ability to build productivity partnerships between the individual and corporate

development needs. These traits include:

Credibility - Saying what you mean and meaning what you say

Confidence - You know what to do even in the most ambiguous circumstances

Consistency - You work for the sustainable long-term, and short term needs fit within this

plan or vision

Context - You can make all the separate actions fit into a holistic strategic blueprint

(Sandy, 1990:25)

These are very interesting traits because they remove us from the mindset of managers as

simply replicating learnt behaviours to highlight that managers must respond to a number of

contingencies. In effect, managers' build from their personal experiences and develop traits in

response to the need to be effective.

Without cross-referencing their research studies, those such as conducted by Bennis and Sandy

highlight how many common aspects emerge when defining the effective modern manager by

traits. These studies also that traits can be commonly held not only across functions, but across

different countries and cultures.

3.1.3. The Effective Manager as Defined by Competency Approach

Unlike what many managers would like to believe, the search for a model to develop

competent mangers has not been a recent fad. In the late 1970s and in the early 1980s many

writers explored the concept of competence as a basis for improving human and management

performance. Authors included M.A. Bunda and J.R. Sanders (1979) *Practices and Problems*

in Competency-Based Measurement; W.J. Popham (1979) *Criterion Referenced Measurement*;

D.C. McClelland (1976) *A Guide to Job Competency Assessment* ; T. Gilbert (1978) *Human*

Competence; and G.O. Klemp and L.M. Spencer (1980) *Job Competence*. Most influential

were the earlier work by Chris Argyris (1962) *Interpersonal Competence and Organisational*

Effectiveness and that by Richard Boyatzis (1982) *The Competent Manager: A Mode for*

Effective Performance.

Boyatzis' (1982) seminal work formed the basis for defining and producing a model of

management competency-based development.

It is in Boyatzis' work that we can also find many of the shortcomings of approaches that

distinguish between competencies required for roles, traits, and the specific work context.

Boyatzis proposed a model of management training, education and development based on

competency. He stated competencies would tell us:

> *"...what sort of person will be effective in our organisation in specific jobs ...*
>
> *a template for decisions such as selection, promotion, firing and design of and assignment to management development activities...*
>
> *interpret responsibility for success or failure with respect to accomplishment of performance objectives ...*
>
> *communicate to all managers how they should act and what they should be doing ...*
>
> *basis for the design of management jobs and the organisational systems, policies, procedures and programs"*. (Boyatzis 1982:13)

Figure 7: Boyatzis Model for Competencies and
Effective Management Performance

Effective Performance
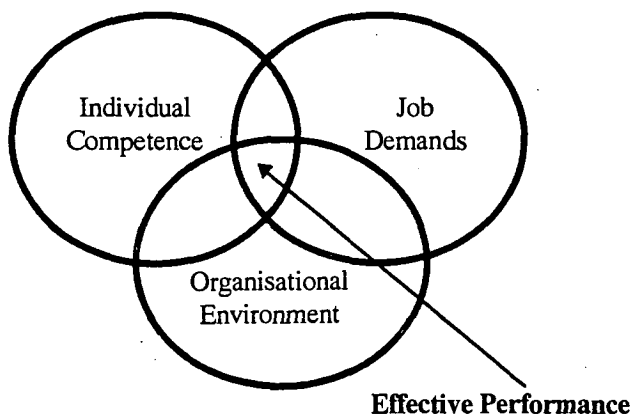
In very simple terms Boyatzis saw effective performance as requiring a consistent attainment of three factors: job demands; organisational environment; and individual competence. (Boyatzis, 1982:13) Other dimensions were added to these three aspects of effective performance.

The Job Demands were seen as formed around roles in planning, organising, controlling, motivating, and coordinating. (Boyatzis, 1982:17)

The Organisational Environment was almost exclusively seen as formed around a study of climate and culture with a heavy emphasis on theorists and concepts associated with identifying the role/function and characteristics of management in a given organisational environment. This was consistent with ideas advanced by such theorists as Mintzberg (1973) and Drucker (1973).

Unlike Mintzberg's earlier contingence approach (1973:102-103) that *externalised* the common variables that shaped the *different* ways managers performed specific work, Boyatzis' Model, in contrast, sought to *integrate* organisational environment, functions, personal competencies as variables that shaped management jobs into a *common* set of performance requirements.

14

Figure 8: Mintzberg's Examination of Variables Impacting a Management Job in a Given Environment


```
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│ Environmental Variables:                        │
│ Characteristics of the milieu, the industry, the organisation │
├─────────────────────────────────────────────────┤
│ Job Variables:                                  │
│ The Level of the job & the function supervised  │
├─────────────────────────────────────────────────┤
│ Person Variables:                               │
│ Personality & style characteristics of the incumbent in the job │
├─────────────────────────────────────────────────┤
│ Situational Variables:                          │
│ Temporal features of an individual job          │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────┘

  Basic Managerial              Basic Characteristics
  Role Requirements             of Managerial Work

                One Manager's Work
```

Mintzberg (1973:103)

Boyatzis sought to integrate Mintzberg's model into a concept of "Individual Competence" defining the characteristics of a manager that enabled them to perform successfully in a job. (Boyatzis, 1982:20) This definition included the dimensions of skills, individual characteristics and what were termed traits and motives. (Boyatzis, 1982:27, 33, 195) Later Boyatzis went on to identify competence as a dynamic interaction between components of job competency and levels of application.

Figure 9: The Dynamic Interaction between Job Competencies and factors in a Given Performance Context
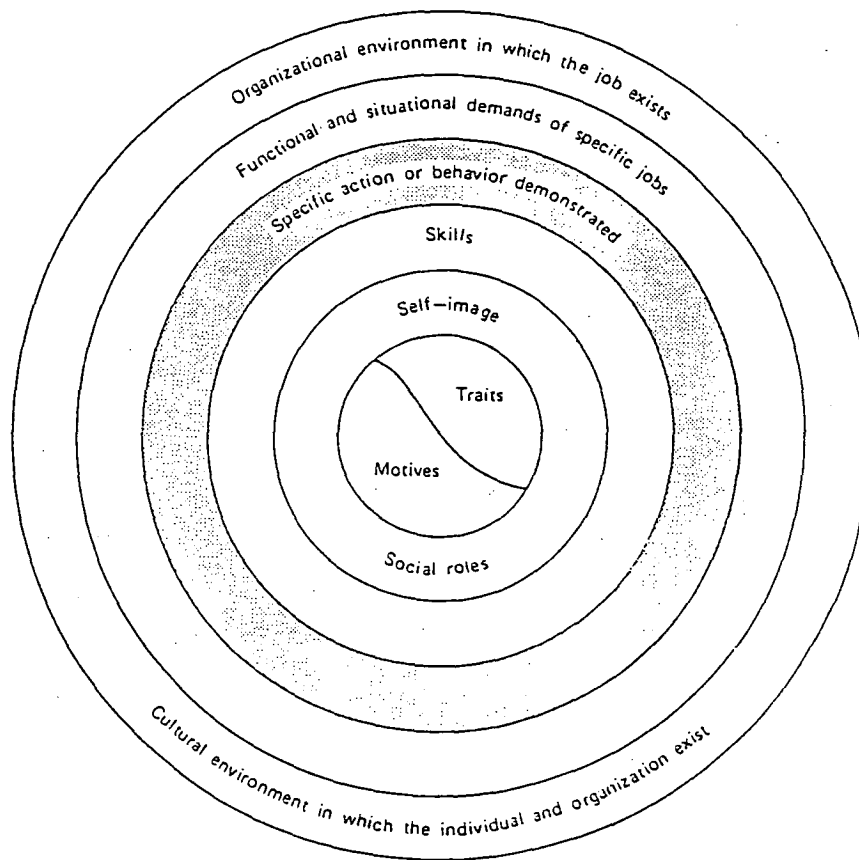
Boyatzis found common or core management clusters could be determined by examining the groupings of specific sets of competencies under different functions. This is an important factor as Boyatzis was focussing on developing functional management competencies. He stated the list of specific competencies in a discrete or highly specialised function and "is not as important to this analysis as the predictive accuracy of the entire set". (Boyatzis 1982:203)

To assist differentiation, levels of job application were broadly grouped into entry level, middle level, and executive level jobs. (Boyatzis, 1982:217, 219 & 222) Boyatzis identified management clusters that included:

1. Goal and action
2. Leadership
3. Human Resources Management
4. Directing Subordinates

5. Focus on Others; and
6. Specialised Knowledge.

It was under the sixth topic that most of the variations or specific management competencies were included when they did not fall into the other clusters.

In effect, what was produced was a matrix model to define generic management competency development.

Generic Management Development Model	Roles/Functions				
Dimensions of Effective Performance	Planning	Organising	Controlling	Motivating	Coordinating
A. Job Demands					
B. Organisational Environment Demands					
C. Competence of Person					

Competence of Person at each Level of Entry, Middle, and Executive	Clusters					
Roles/Functions	Goal & Action	Leadership	HRM	Directing Subordinates	Focus on Others	Specialist Knowledge
Planning						
Organising						
Controlling						
Motivating						
Coordinating						

For each function, under each of the clusters one could define tasks that a specific manager at different level of performance would perform in their organisational environment. (Boyatzis, 1982:215 &242)

In summary Boyatzis proposed a Generic Management Development Model that would improve performance by the sequence of events:

Figure 10: Boyatzis Competency Development Process

```
        ┌─────────────────────────┐
        │      Organisational     │
        │ Environment in which Job │◄ ┄ ┄ ┄ ┐
        │ Exists - including culture│       ┊
        └─────────────────────────┘        ┊
                    │                       ┊
                    ▼                       ┊
        ┌─────────────────────────┐        ┊
        │ Identify Functional & Role│       ┊
        │ aspects of the Demands of │       ┊
        │          a Job           │        ┊
        └─────────────────────────┘        ┊
                    │                       ┊
                    ▼                       ┊
        ┌─────────────────────────┐        ┊
        │    Identify level of Job │        ┊
        │        Functions         │        ┊
        └─────────────────────────┘        ┊
                    │                       ┊
                    ▼                       ┊
        ┌─────────────────────────┐        ┊
        │  Group Competencies into │        ┊
        │        Clusters          │        ┊
        └─────────────────────────┘        ┊
                    │                       ┊
                    ▼                       ┊
        ┌─────────────────────────┐        ┊
        │    Identify Competency   │        ┊
        │   Components for Job by   ┄ ┄ ┄ ┄ ┘
        │  Clusters- Skills, Self- │
        │ Image, Motives and Traits│
        │      & Social Roles      │
        └─────────────────────────┘
```
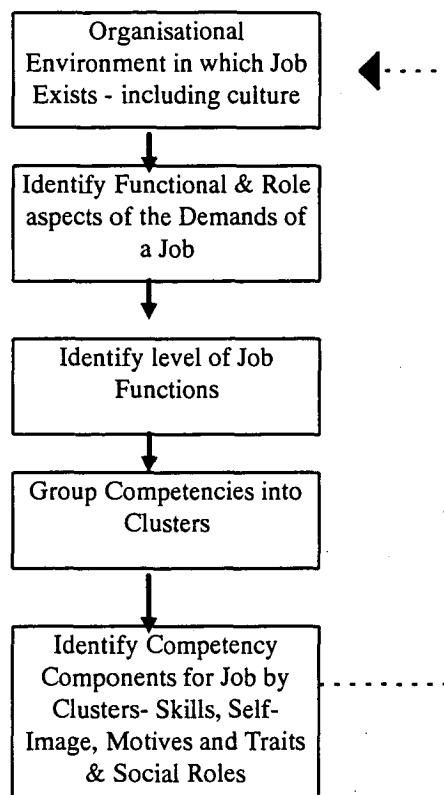
Boyatzis' approach to competency based management development did not effectively address some important considerations, including:

• The concept of generic was related to common functions and clusters of competencies within a level of performance in a specific organisational environment, not explicitly related to a management function across an industry or nation.

• 'Functions' and 'roles' of management were seen as interchangeable terms relating to the five roles defined.

• Except where it was included as a Competency Cluster called 'Specialised Knowledge' the definition of competence excluded knowledge and concentrated on the individual's socio-psychological characteristics, traits, motives and skills.

• Leadership was seen as a competence cluster of manager functions at an executive level.

- The Model placed heavy emphasis on both conscious and unconscious behaviours inherent in a manager's functioning to meet job demands in an specific organisation.

3.2. Defining Management Development

3.2.1. What is Management Development?

Without extending this thesis into semantics or taxonomical debates, it is critical to determine a clear definition of management development and also to determine what competency-based management education and training may constitute.

In this thesis **management development** will constitute the:

> '...*education and training activities "specifically planned to improve the job performance of the individual manager"* (Daly, 1976:22) *and achieve current and future enterprise strategic outcomes.*

This definition places strong emphasis on the strategic merit, or value adding function management development may promote for an enterprise. Nevertheless, the definition is broad enough to encompass any planned education and training actions that promote individual outcomes perceived only to have tangential or indirect benefit to the organisation. (Calvert, et al., 1994:41)

The definition above does not limit the conduct of management development by a number of alternative strategies. Delivery strategies may include (Bowles, 1988:27-28):

Training - The direct transfer of skills, knowledge and attitudes through on- or off-the-job programs; structured or unstructured learning; action based learning; or a variety of technologically assisted means.

Education - The transferral of learning on cognitive and broader philosophical viewpoints through formal means (structured internal courses or accredited courses sourced from recognised providers); and sessions (including workshops, network meetings, interest forums, and presentations on key issue).

The above training and education strategies may further be assisted by:

Interchange - Formal placement of employees in other business units or organisations.

Work rotation - Formal placement in other jobs or work areas.

Project work - Completion of projects to assist specific competencies or cognitive capabilities. (Bowles, 1988:27-28)

Unfortunately current management development programs have placed a primary emphasis on education. (Rothman & Stewart-Weeks, 1995a:155-228). This trend has confused more than a few analysts who have difficulty identifying why philosophical and cognitive viewpoints have been stressed when organisations paying for such development derive more return more from managers who possess the skills to achieve organisational objectives. (Conant, 1991:15)

A study of the reasons why enterprises tend to place such heavy emphasis on educating senior managers through university courses and broad based workshops has identified the quest to improve quality management and leadership as the main motivating forces. (Bolt, 1993:43-46; McDermott, 1993:37) Not surprisingly the evaluation and measurement of these management development programs was also placing emphasis on educational achievements. Measurement tended to be focussed on feedback from participants after the programs, education content and structure, and overall program value. (Conant, 1991:18) This diminished the focus on the outcomes individuals, teams or the enterprise derived from such management development strategies.

A lack of emphasis on skills acquisition or competencies has reduced the use of "management development as a strategic tool supporting efforts aimed at applied responses to change". (Bowles, 1988:11) A re-emphasis on competencies can assist the focus and flexibility

enterprises can derive from management development programs. It also requires an extension of education programs beyond teaching the roles and traits of an effective manager.

The emphasis on competency-based education and training effectively moves management development into the generation of the skills, knowledge and attitudes that support work outcomes. Roles and traits can be encompassed within this approach.

With the Boyatzis approach, traits and roles could be encompassed under a competency model.

Traits could be defined as factors impacting job performance that **generally** apply to each manager. **Roles** became the **common** activities performed by managers across competency clusters formed by functional or occupational boundaries.

It must, however, be acknowledged that Boyatzis' Model does not imply that an effective manager can be defined or produced through the competency approach alone. In real terms, the development of the effective manager seems to be made up from a number of ingredients that can be achieved through a balanced approach to education and training. In a competency-based approach these may be identified as follows.

Competency-Based Management Development
Traits + Roles + Task Competencies

Together they form into **The Current Performance Capacity in a Given Context.**

1. Traits	are attributes which individual managers generally acquire, assimilate and gain from processing information and interpreting the world around them.
2. Roles	denotes the common attributes for performance or performance outcomes achieved by managers within functional or occupational boundaries, or those acquired within a defined performance situation.
3. Task Competency	is here defined as specific Knowledge, Skills, Attitudes or Values that shape behaviour or define individual task performance.

Given the above, Australia's search for the effective may be competency-driven. However, development of the effective manager must consider the different training and education considerations that will complement a manager's current capacity to perform (See Jaques & Clement, 1991; O. Mink et al., 1991).

3.2.2. Who are We Developing with Competency-Based Management Education and Training?

Much of today's literature assumes organisations and individuals not only understand the distinction between leadership and management, but can pursue personal and organisational development strategies based on this understanding. It is certainly fallacious to believe that in modern organisations a level of employment management exists at which the individual is required to acquire a new set of non-technical management skills. In today's organisations, management and leadership are activities conducted at all levels of employment.

Figure 11: Defining a Manager Actions Across Different Levels of Employment

| Boss-Centred Leadership | | | | | | Participative/Subordinate - Centred Leadership |

Use of Authority by Manager

Areas of freedom for subordinates

| Makes & Announces Decision | "Sells" Decision | Presents Ideas & Invites Input | Tentative Idea Open to Change | Presents Problem & Invites Input before Making Decision | Defines Parameters Team Makes Decision | Empowers Subordinates to Function within defined Limits |

Manager's Actions

(Above modified from Tannenbaum & Schmidtt, 1972)

The continuum clearly expresses the modern dilemma in which leadership is not vested in an individual manager but in a workforce composed of individuals who all have the capacity to influence strategic outcomes. Managers who try to control or monopolise problem-solving mechanisms invariably lose the flexibility of harnessing team and 'subordinate' input into decision-making and change management.

In many cases the approaches to management and personal development that promote raising leadership roles are trying to focus on how managers involve people in their strategic activities. While we can therefore see the value of organisations emphasising quality and leadership development, it does not necessarily follow that education is the only basis from which to achieve management development. In fact such an emphasis has been seen as the root cause for organisations neglecting to underpin senior management education programs with the necessary skills development and behavioural change required by middle management and line staff. (McDermott, 1993:37) Without ensuring management education is balanced by management training emphasising the applied skills many quality improvement programs have failed when translated from conceptual to the implementation level. (McDermott, 1993:37-43)

Management development can be an activity that emphasises leadership and actions at all levels of employment. It can also be customised to emphasise the different levels of skills application required to fulfil the traits, roles and specific tasks required in different enterprises' performance contexts.

Fundamentally we can debate the structure, approach and content of a management development program, but it must have a focus on the individual and his/her level of employment and performance context; be enterprise specific; and be framed with regard for the customer and the cultural and strategic context.

A concentration on Competency-Based Management Development does not deny the existence of alternative forms of non-behavioural development activities. Nor does it limit the selection of education or training strategies. Such a concentration on what constitutes an effective manager promotes questioning of how education and training seek to develop a competent manager. A manager who can in turn achieve improved national and enterprise performance targets.

4. Competencies and Competitiveness - National Vocational Education and Training Reform in Australia

This chapter will seek to explore The National Training Reform Agenda (NTRA) in Australia, and the principles and practices that delineate the policies and structures supporting the reform agenda. This study will be conducted against a backdrop of the Australian search for world competitiveness.

Fundamentally, the chapter seeks to investigate questions surrounding the use of national reforms that seek to translate a training reform agenda, derived from a 'global' perspective, into raised enterprise - level competitiveness.

Australia is one of many countries in the world undertaking extensive reform of their whole education and training systems. Yet many questions continue to be raised over the origins and intentions of the Australian Government's reforms of vocational education and training. While no one policy document or bureaucratic decision can be said to have engendered the National Training Reform Agenda, it is important to map its development and determine if its broad focus did promote an 'agenda' for transforming enterprises.

With education and training identified as decisive factors in national competitive advantage, counties seeking to achieve world competitiveness could not ignore the need to improve the relationship between training and education and the needs of enterprises and other 'customers'. (Porter, 1990; EPAC, August 1991:17) Achieving enterprise competitiveness has been identified as a fundamental need that influences the design of organisational systems. Goodman and Lawless stated that:

"The objective of the corporation is to make choices and deploy resources to create opportunity and erect barriers to competition within its market area." *(1994:119)*

How then does education and training reform, orchestrated from a global policy perspective, better assist enterprises achieve this fundamental strategic aim of achieving competitive advantage?

4.1. World Competitive Performance and Australia Reconstructed

In order to survive economically Australian governments and business have realised that they must be internationally competitive. This has promoted the focus on the 'internationalisation' of the Australian economy. This goes beyond promoting a sustained, low inflationary period of growth, to encompass the promotion of enterprise performance to create an industrial sector that is capable of competing against other countries' industries on domestic and international markets.

The realisation of the performance standards Australian enterprises had to achieve to become internationally competitive came as a profound shock to most enterprise managers. While Australian managers could accept. the existence of a global marketplace, there was little realisation of how competitiveness now required improved management practices. (Hilmer, 1991:3) In the early 1990s Australian management practices and the search for competitive performance and high productivity were still being shaped by approaches more common to the post-Industrial Age than to the new age; often called the 'Information Age', 'Age of Discontinuity', or 'Post-Industrial Age'. (Jones, 1990:11-46) The profound shifts are summarised below.

Industrial Age	Information Age
Industry-wide conformity	Enterprise variance
Mass production	Boutique focus
Control of people	Control of process
Departmentalisation	Holism
More of the same (vertical progression)	Continual change (process improvement)
Logical-deductive thinking	Logical-creative thinking
Life-long employment	Contracted (self) employment
Industrial awards	Enterprise agreements
Career progression	Career diversification
Paternalism	Self-determination
"Them" and "Us" (Confrontation)	Partnership (Co-operation)
New merchant class	New information class

(Bowles & Graham, 1993a:3)

The federal government of Australia sought to stimulate or force change by deregulation, freeing up the markets, and reducing industry protection. These policies have been encapsulated under an economic reform known as 'Australia Reconstructed'. (Bowles & Graham, 1993:3)

Australia Reconstructed was a policy platform introduced in 1983. The key policy initiative in the original sequence included:

1. DEREGULATION OF THE FINANCIAL SECTOR
   Foreign Banks, Competitive Practices

2. TAX REFORM
   Business Incentive, Personal Investment Incentive Increased Personal Responsibility

3. FOREIGN INVESTMENT REFORM
   Australia as a safe and viable place to invest in

4. WAGE POLICY REFORM
   Wage increase determine by productivity increases aligned to affordability

5. EDUCATION AND TRAINING REFORM
   Flexibility, On-the-job Training related to Productivity, Competency Based Training, Portability

6. WORKPLACE REFORM
   (Award Restructuring), Career Progression, Non-discriminatory, Responsibility, Union Rationalisation, Enterprise Focus

Elements 5 and 6 were to become more commonly known as the 'Structural Efficiency Principle'.

The Structural Efficiency Principle focussed on reconstructing how enterprise level activities could become more efficient. These reforms were intended to mirror economic structural reforms. Criteria for determining improvements in efficiency and productivity included:

- Award restructuring/ enterprise focus
- Skills formation
- Career paths
- Open access
- Teamwork
- Rationalisation of unions   (Bowles & Graham, 1993:3)

Workplace and industrial reform became a very important and highly visible government reform platform. Australia remains the only OECD country to maintain a centralised system to determine conditions of employment. Enterprise Agreements which replace industry-wide awards began to emerge in the early 1990s in response to the demand for increased productivity based on the needs of the enterprise, its employer and employees. The variations of work practice able to be implemented by an enterprise agreement encouraged both employer and employee to focus on productivity increases supported by flexible and responsive work practices. This in turn integrated the consideration of training to achieve flexible skills and the notion of remuneration for attainment of those skills.

> "Work organisation in the future must overturn the Taylorist approaches of the past. Workers must be provided with greater scope for individual initiative, judgement and responsibility for quality outcomes. The nature of management and supervision must change from an emphasis on control and direction to one which coordinates and develops the skills and potential of all employees. . . Job design for reform of work organisation is the most fundamental requirement upon which maximum possible utilisation of advanced technology, skill formation and wage remuneration can be built." (ACTU Congress, September 1991:204)

With the introduction of the Structural Efficiency Principle and its application in the Second Tier arrangements under the National Wage Case in 1988, the broad banding of occupational classifications, multiskilling and more flexible work arrangements became emphasised. This in turn led to a national awareness that skills acquisition and recognition will be central to any award restructuring process. (COSTAC, 1990:44)

What the Federal Government began to initiate in the late 1980s and early 1990s was the need to promote decentralised approaches to achieving industrial and workplace reform. To engender 'best practice' that would underpin Australia's world competitiveness, enterprises had to adopt improved systems of management and work. As part of these reforms the national imperative to address skills levels in current and future labour markets joined the existing workplace and industrial initiatives in a reform triumvirate.

Figure 12: Reform and Raising Australia's International Competitiveness

INTERNATIONAL COMPETITIVENESS
THREE PRONGED REFORM AGENDA

Workplace Reform

Decentralised IR System

Vocational Education & Training Reform
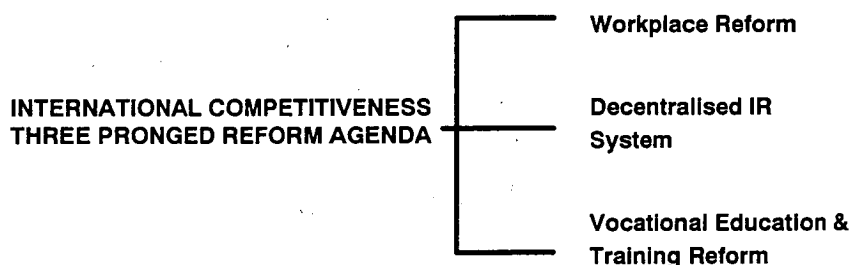
4.2. Determining the Agenda in National Vocational Education and Training Reform

4.2.1. Vocational Education and Training Reform

In April 1989 the special Ministerial Conference on Training agreed to establish the National Training Board (NTB). Subsequently the Commonwealth / State Training Advisory Committee (COSTAC) established a working party to devise 'A Strategic framework for the

implementation of a competency-based training system in Australia'. (COSTAC, 1990) The

working party not only established extensive consultation "with the industrial parties" but

recommended "a broad set of principles for the implementation of a competency-based training

system" in Australia. (COSTAC, 1990:iv)

The COSTAC Report, A Strategic Framework for CBT stated that:

> *"Agreed national standards, developed by industrial parties and ratified by the*
> *NTB are the linchpin in and should provide the basis of, a competency-based*
> *training system. (1990:10)"*

Recommendation 8 also stated that:
> *"In the context of award and industry restructuring, the development of national*
>
> *standards and other forces for change, there will be a need to establish priorities for*
>
> *the conversion of existing off-the-job curriculum to an integrated workplace and off-*
>
> *the-job format, where applicable." (COSTAC, 1990:12)*

The role of industrial parties in CBT Systems was reinforced by recommendation 12 that

stated:

> *"Primary responsibility for defining skills and competence standards will lie*
> *with the industrial parties." (COSTAC, 1990:5)*

It was not until the Vocational Employment, Education and Training (VEETAC) Working

Party on The Implementation of Competency-Based Training released its 1992 report on

Assessment of Performance under CBT and Administration of CBT (1992) that a competency-

based system was defined in relationship to both Australia's "need to increase its productivity

and international competitiveness" (1992:1) and how CBT would become the "cornerstone of

vocational education and training reform". The Working Party established that a competency-

based system would involve:

1. establishing competency standards for occupations and classifications in industry;

2. education and training to enable people to perform at the identified level of competency;

3. establishing capacity (through registration) of training providers to deliver courses meeting standards;

4. the accreditation of courses and the awarding of credits against those standards;

5. mechanisms for assessing the skills of individuals against agreed competency standards; and

6. a qualifications system based on demonstrated competencies. (VEETAC, 1992:1)

While elements that form vocational education and training reform can be isolated and the strong influence of industrial and economic imperatives for such reforms be mapped, the development of an "agenda" is still obscure. Listed below are the key events in the vocational education and training reform in chronological order.

A CHRONOLOGY OF EVENTS IN THE REFORM OF AUSTRALIA'S VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING SYSTEM

DATE	ACTIVITY	RESULT
1971	Development of Industry Training Committees	National network to advise government and focus training to industry needs
1984	The Kirby Report into Labour Market Programs	Development of traineeships and the first discussion on the notion of competency based training as an economic and industrial solution to skills development and recognition
1985	Development of the national Australian Traineeship System	The introduction of structured entry-level training, based on competencies, in the areas not covered by apprenticeships
1988	The National wage case and the introduction of the Structural Efficiency Principle	Award Restructuring and the implementation of Commonwealth Government micro-economic reforms
1988	Establishment of the National Board of Employment, Education and Training (NBEET)	Inclusion of statutory advisory bodies such as the Australian Research Council (ARC), Employment Skills Formation Council (ESFC), the Higher Education Council (HEC) and the Schools Council.
mid-1988	Departments of Labour Advisory Committee (DOLAC) investigation of training systems, entry level arrangements and the introduction of competency-based training systems	Working in conjunction with the Commonwealth/ State Training Advisory Committee (COSTAC) timeframes and implementation requirements for a CBT system were commenced.
1989	ESFC report on Improving Australia's Training System in completed	Five priorities identified for government in national training reform 1. increase the level of investment in training especially by the private sector 2. improve the quality and flexibility of national training arrangements 3. improve national consistency of training arrangements and coordinate effort 4. improve access to training by disadvantaged groups 5. reform arrangements for recognition of those qualification obtained overseas
1989	Special Ministers Conference (Commonwealth and State Ministers of employment, education and training)	National decision to adopt competency-based vocational education and training system Establishment of the National Training Board (NTB) Establishment of the National Office of Overseas Skills Recognition (NOOSR)
1990	Introduction of the Training Guarantee	Legislative requirements for enterprises to dedicate a percentage of payroll to training. Policy imperative to increase private sector investment in skills development and training.
October 1990	The Deveson Committee Report on Training Costs of award Restructuring	Formal development of the Ministers of Vocational Employment, education and Training (MOVEET) and the Vocational Employment, Education and Training Advisory Council (VEETAC)
Nov. 1990	COSTAC Report	A Strategic Framework for the Implementation of CBT System
Nov. 1990	2nd Special Ministers Conference	Approval for the competency-based Australian Standards Framework (ASF) Establishment of the National Framework for the Recognition of Training (NFROT) Agreement to establish the Australian Council for Training Curriculum (ACTRAC) to ensure increased quality and national consistency in vocational education and training.
Jan. 1991	NTB releases first edition of The national Competency Standards Policy and Guidelines	National framework and guidelines for conducting standards projects, writing and submitting competencies for endorsement by t he NTB as standards against the ASF.

Continued

DATE	ACTIVITY	RESULT
May 1991	MOVEET meeting endorses the capacity of the NTB to recognise Competency Standards Bodies and NFROT is agreed in principle	Industries commence development of standards
July 1991	Finn Committee - report on Young People's Participation in Post Compulsory Education and Training	The concept of key competencies was developed and two major concepts were advanced - the notion the all young people needed essential competencies in preparation for work, and that national targets could be set for participation of young people in post-compulsory education and training.
Nov. 1991	VEETAC Report on the National Framework for the Recognition of Training	A framework for mutual recognition and skills portability is determined.
March 1992	ESFC report on Australian Vocational Certificate Training System (AVCts) (Carmichael Report)	Encouragement of pilot projects to attain targets for participation in entry level training, especially by 15 to 21 year olds.
June 1992	MOVEET sign NFROT agreement and AVCts pilots endorsed	NFROT outlines 10 agreed principles for recognition and the process of deriving recognised training.
July 1992	Establishment of the Australian National Training Authority through the Heads of Government signing of the Agreement on a National Vocational Education and Training System (ANTA, 1992)	To oversee the interaction of CBT systems in national vocational education and training and ensure it met industry, training market and cross-sectorial needs. ANTA was also responsible for national qualifications recognition, curriculum review and credit transfer. ANTA also became responsible for funding public providers.
August & September 1992	VEETAC Working Party on the Implementation of CBT Endorsed by MOVEET in September	Formal adoption of a system to increase Australia's "productivity and international competitiveness".
November 1992	Mayer Committee report on Key Competencies	Seven key competencies identified for integration into general education
October 1992	NTB releases the second edition of The national Competency Standards Policy and Guidelines	National framework and guidelines for writing, packaging and submitting competencies for endorsement by t he NTB as standards.
December 1993	MOVEET endorse the Australian Qualifications Framework Later in December endorsed the need for funding arrangement for AVCts	Establishment of an implementation timetable for the new Australian Qualifications Framework
February 1994	ANTA releases its Priorities for 1994	Priorities set for training and labour market development
1994	MOVEET is reformed into the Ministerial Council for Employment, Education, Training and Youth Affairs (MCEETYA)	Employment, Education and Training are integrated with Youth Affairs under a peak Ministerial Council
May 1994	Commonwealth Government's Working Nation White Paper	Accelerated reforms and the need for a focus on vocational education and training
1994	Suspension of the Training Guarantee	Inability of the legislation to effectively increase private sector investment in skills development and training.
1994	ANTA release of Towards a Skilled Australia	A consolidated strategy and vision is devised for vocational education and training in Australia. Ministerial Council agree to the national strategy for vocational education and training
June 1994	Fitzgerald report Successful Reform	The concept of reform and the role of bureaucratic structures are reviewed and consolidated.
July 1995	Australian Committee for Training Curriculum, National Staff Development Committee, and The National Training Board consolidate their operations under ANTA	The formation of a Standards and Curriculum Council within ANTA.

The chronology illustrates how national training reforms stemmed from initial economic and

industrial concerns but can be seen to widen to a point where a number of bureaucratic bodies

were specifically chartered to implement or support aspects of vocational education and training reform. A clear expansion on the vocational education and training reforms was the need to address entry level training, the quality of existing curriculum and providers, and the consistency of administration arrangements.

Imperatives for reforming existing vocational education and training curriculum, delivery and recognition

Need	Problems with Existing Arrangements
Mobility	The general difficulty people had was when they moved from one level to another, or from one education and training sector or occupational area to another. This was despite the immediate need to create a more mobile national workforce.
Credit for prior learning	Inconsistence in recognition of learning despite RATE guidelines creating bridges between sectors by creating common qualification types credit for formal and structured learning. Credit for unstructured learning was usually denied. Credit and recognition for incomplete courses were also not gained on any consistent basis.
Credentialling of the individual	Licensing or credentialling or certificates that gave employment "currencies" were inconsistent across Australia in regards to entry and exit requirements. This did not provide any consistent basis for indicating what an individual could do.
Articulation	Vertical mobility in education and training was often disjointed and certainly (due to above points) difficult to translate into different occupational or educational streams.
Multi-skilling	Horizontal movement was restricted by the above situations and by the rigid adherence of some providers to stipulated industry courses that imported rigidities in what constituted skills training for a specific job.
Broad based (generic) entry level competencies	The apprenticeship system was perceived as too narrow in the occupations and industries to which it applied, and as ignoring the need for skills that apply in occupations that cross industrial areas.
Access	Apprenticeship systems and existing national approaches to VET excluded sections of the potential workforce. Demarcations rigidified the creation of wider career paths. Retraining of workers was limited by training "hurdles" that did not relate to real workplace skill needs, and industry was changing rapidly while those being trained often received redundant skills. The value of undertaking vocational education and training was often not valued highly by trainees
Modularised	The existing courses required time-serving, full course completion for an award, normative marking, and specified location and output requirements.
Provision	The existing system promoted the TAFE delivery basis while some quality private providers were not being fully accredited.
Equity	Structural barriers such as age, gender, ethnic origin, arbitrary prerequisites, location and other such barriers were limiting equity in vocational education and training

(Adapted from - Ashenden, 1991:50-54; DEET-VEETAC 1992:12-14; HRSCEET 1991: vi-x; Bowles, 1992:9-10; Gardiner & Singh, 1991:1 & 29-30)

As the national Training Reform progressed in towards the mid-1990s the imperatives for reform as identified in the table above were increasingly being counterbalanced by rhetoric expressing 'competitiveness' and enterprise or business support.

In 1994 The Australian National Training Authority released the document <u>Towards a Skilled Australia: A National Strategy for Vocational Education and Training</u> (1994) that established the Mission Statement aims of the vocational education and training systems to be:

- *provide an educated, skilled and flexible workforce to enable Australian industry to be competitive in domestic and international markets*

- *improve the knowledge, skills and quality of life for Australians, having regard to the particular needs of disadvantaged groups. (1994:2)*

Such statements strongly reinforce the potential of the national strategy for Vocational Education and Training to assist support the strategic alliance between government and enterprises establishing competency-based education and training systems. It also suggests competency-based management education and training would be advantaged through this relationship.

Yet the above statements seem to exist in isolation from any agenda for reform that sought to directly enhance the strategic alliance between government and enterprises establishing competency-based education and training systems.

The Commonwealth Government's White Paper on Employment and Growth, <u>Working Nation,</u> was released on 4 May 1994 . This paper emphasised the need for vocational education and training reform to:

- better respond to industry concerns about relevance and context of training;

- improve pathways;

- increase competitiveness in the training market;

- increase access and equity; and

- remove time serving to emphasise individual

The policy and programs supported the reforms with an injection of $2.1 billion into training and development. (Keating, 1994a:6) Yet the training and education reforms ('job compact' to encourage long term unemployed back into training or work, entry level training measures, youth training initiatives and a youth training wage), were linked to changes in labour market assistance, science and technology initiatives, social security changes, and regional development programs. In real terms training and education reform was placed as a high priority but still one policy component in an overall industry policy. The identified principles that underpinned industry policy were identified in Working Nation: Policy and Programs as:

- *"the role of government is to provide a business environment in which individual firms can build on their competitive advantages, not to shelter from competition;*

- *industry policy should address systematic problems and impediments, recognising that the solutions sometimes require action at the industry specific level and taking account of the different strengths of, and problems facing, large and small enterprises;*

- *the Government should be a catalyst for promoting activity that is in the broader national interest but which otherwise would not occur;*

- *policies in relevant areas, including education and training, industrial relations, trade, business law and taxation, should assist in building industry competitiveness;*

- *industry and environmental policy should be coordinated to ensure that future growth is ecologically sustainable; and*

- *industry needs to evolve, with wider consultation, to reflect changing circumstances and yet be transparent and predictable" (1994b:58)*

By early 1995 official documents that seek to define The National Training Reform Agenda (ANTA, March 1994:5; ANTA 1994:11-13; Hannigan- NTB, 1995:10 & 14) seem to settle around six main reform elements:

1. Developing competency-based standards.

2. Developing competency based curriculum, delivery and assessment systems

3. National consistency through -

    - recognition of training by state and territory recognition authorities under The Australian Qualifications Framework

- Recognition of prior learning

- Quality assurance and best practice

- Articulation and credit transfer between sectors

- Use of standards as benchmarks.

4. Stimulate the Training market and improve funding and investment arrangements.

5. Improving the transition from school based general education into entry-level training in the workplace

6. Access and equity for disadvantaged groups.

These elements occur against the backdrop established by the National Training Board for the National Training Reform Agenda to be guided by:

1. skills linked to career paths;

2. linking of workplace and off-the-job training;

3. transferability and portability of competencies across the nation and between industries and occupations;

4. industry needs driven system;

5. nationally endorsed standards as benchmarks (Hannigan, 1995;9)

Effectively, any concept of a National Training Reform 'Agenda' embracing the above elements is more an emotive description than a policy and program reality. Certainly it is possible to map the volume and parameters of vocational education and training reform; the distinct pattern of policy development, and the development of a very important set of supporting legislative changes; and the creation of the delivery structures. Nevertheless the 'agenda' commenced and still is discussed by the Commonwealth Government as part of contemporary industry and micro-economic policy aimed at increasing competitiveness.

Vocational education and training of itself does not seem to be the only theme, either in policy or program terms, driving a national training reform 'agenda'.

4.3. Training Reform and Global Competitiveness

While clearly a critical stakeholder in national training reforms, enterprises are indirect recipients of the benefits achieved from Australia addressing the six main reform elements. Implicit rather than explicit in the National Training Reform 'Agenda' is the establishment of how enterprises will benefit. Nor does there seem to exist the means by which the training reform can enhance other industry policy and portfolio imperatives (such as workplace reform, best practice and attainment of quality improvement targets) that impact enterprise operations.

Improvements to enterprise productivity and performance are central to Australia achieving world competitive performance. Yet the national training reform agenda does not directly build a strategic alliance between changes to vocational education and training and enterprises. It may, however, be in the delivery structures that translate policy into reality that we may find a focus that indicates how national training reform and enterprise needs are connected.

Setting aside $2.1 billion through the Working Nation initiatives signals a unique commitment by the federal government to training and workplace reform in Australia. However the global industry policy, with its longer term view of achieving national competitiveness, does not immediately seem to embrace enterprises' needs. Enterprises exist on shorter term and more localised viewpoints of what may constitute competitiveness. This may in turn influence how they promote, support and access competency-based, or standards-based training and education.

What we must now explore is the different set of 'drivers' that will impact on competency-based management education and training. Drivers are the factors that impel change or a reasoned response to a change in the existing paradigm for decision making. The elemental drivers framing an Australian response to competency-based management education and training need to be studied at both the global (national and international) and enterprise levels.

5. The Standard Problem - Global 'Drivers' and Training Reform

5.1. A Comparative View: International Approaches to Competency-Based Education and Training 1988-1992

The focus of the Australian training reform agenda on operative and entry levels of training is not unique. The Australian attempts to reform the training system did not occur in a vacuum. Overseas study groups and special missions were dispatched in the from 1989 to 1991 to determine how internationally competitive countries conducted vocational training. (TAMOMS-DEET, 1991; Industry Task Force on Leadership & Management, April 1995c)

To better understand the Australian focus on vocational education and training reform we need to appreciate how overseas systems set important precedents .

5.1.1. European Community

The European Community established a qualification framework known as the Training Levels Structure that serves as a good example of a structure used for comparing qualifications and ordering occupational roles. This structure applies to all Member States of the European Community and is administered by the European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training (CEDEFOP). The Framework was devised to assist member countries obtain a more effective basis for mutual recognition of their myriad vocational qualifications and of their outcomes. The Training Levels Structure was agreed to be the best basis for achieving some form of "comparability of vocational training qualifications between the Member States of the European Community". (European Community, 1985)

The Training Levels Structure is based on broadly defined levels of competence. The competency-basis was felt to least impinge on individual country's qualifications systems, while promoting their own economic, industry and workforce needs. The Training Levels Structure is not a system promoting equivalence, it is only promoted as a basis for comparisons.

Through the use of the levels it is possible to generate tables of vocational qualifications within a sector that can be regarded as comparable. The occupational activities within that sector are then listed by common agreement and, while avoiding listing by description of a single job, are listed in a job description format. The Member countries then identify what qualifications match (or contain) that job description. This then generates a list of comparable qualifications that are circulated in *The Official Journal of the European Communities*. (Leonard, 1991)

The Training Levels Structure has provided a mechanism that, with varying degrees of success, has enabled countries to compare vocational qualifications while initiating their own recognition systems.

5.1.2. United Kingdom

The United Kingdom was the first to promote a national approach to a vocational qualification system. Their National Vocational Qualifications (NVQ) system used competency standards separated into five levels. The structure concentrates on vocational qualifications with the intention to "create a coherent classification for qualifications and to facilitate transfer and progression". (National Council for Vocational Qualifications, 1992:2)

The NVQ Framework enables the coordinating body, the National Council for Vocational Qualifications as the *accreditation body* to:

- rationalise and simplify the provision of vocational qualifications, in order to facilitate progression by clarifying the career routes which are open to individuals by making the relationship between work and NVQs clear;

- make explicit the relationship between qualifications, and to aid comprehension by presenting and classifying them in a systematic and logical way; and

- make the provision comprehensive in order to cover all significant occupations and work activities. (NCVQ, 1992)

The level descriptors were set out based on vocational qualifications (NCVQ, 1992):

Level 1: competence in performance of a range of varied work activities, most of which may be routine and predictable.

Level 2: competence in a significant range of varied work activities, performed in a variety of contexts. Some of the activities are complex or non-routine, and there is some individual responsibility or autonomy. Collaboration with others, perhaps through membership of a work group or team, may often be a requirement.

Level 3: competence in a broad range of varied work activities performed in a wide variety of contexts, most of which are complex and non-routine. There is considerable responsibility and autonomy, and control or guidance of others is often required.

Level 4: competence in a broad range of complex, technical or professional work activities performed in a wide variety of contexts and with a substantial degree of personal responsibility and autonomy. Responsibility for the work of others and the allocation of resources is often present.

Level 5: competence which involves the application of a significant range of fundamental principles and complex techniques across a wide and often unpredictable variety of contexts. Very substantial personal autonomy and often significant responsibility for the work of others and for the allocation of resources features strongly, as do personal accountabilities for analysis and diagnosis, design, planning, execution and evaluation.

In conjunction to the five competence levels of qualifications, the framework is divided into

eleven major functional classifications that relate to areas of work, see chart below.

Figure 13: The National Vocational Qualifications Framework (United Kingdom 1992)

The NVQ Framework

Level 1

Areas of competence
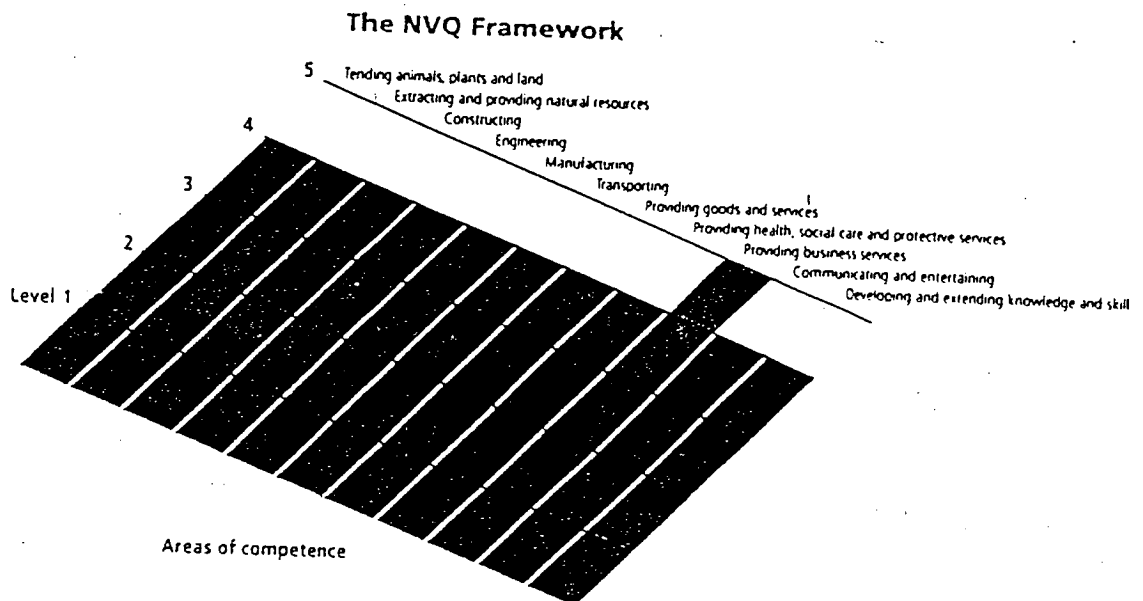
The classifications are further broken down into a third level relating to occupational activities that may include categories often corresponding to the title of an NVQ (eg. Bus driver, competence level 2). Further sub-categorisation can occur down to job duties and tasks. The intention is not only to differentiate the levels or "increments" of competence between levels of qualifications, but by linking through the NVQ Framework to indicate progression routes that transcend traditional occupational and industry boundaries (the eleven functional categories) which currently inhibit employment mobility and career progression.

It is important to note the following:

- If there is considerable choice and variation in what one can obtain within an NVQ (functional category at a particular level - bus driver competence level 2), then the meaning of the qualification may be diminished. If there is significant variation in the routes to the same qualification (mix of modules), it is likely that two or more NVQs with different titles will be framed (eg. school bus driver competence level 2, and touring bus driver competence level 2).

- It is accepted that while Units of Competence relate to a single function, a job may not cover the full scope of an NVQ.

- The NCVQ is not an awarding body but an accreditation agency.

- The functional classifications (Industry Lead Bodies) are pre-determined and not divided on industry, cross industry, or enterprise lines.

- While the NVQ system deals specifically with vocational areas, it has three streams of NVQs covering (a) competence delivered outside the workplace in training and education institutions; (b) the general competence or core skills (like the Mayer Key Competencies) that are required to bridge school and work NVQs, or in management areas that cross-industry needs; and (c) the acquisition of specific functional based NVQs.

Figure 14: Qualification Streams Under the UK System
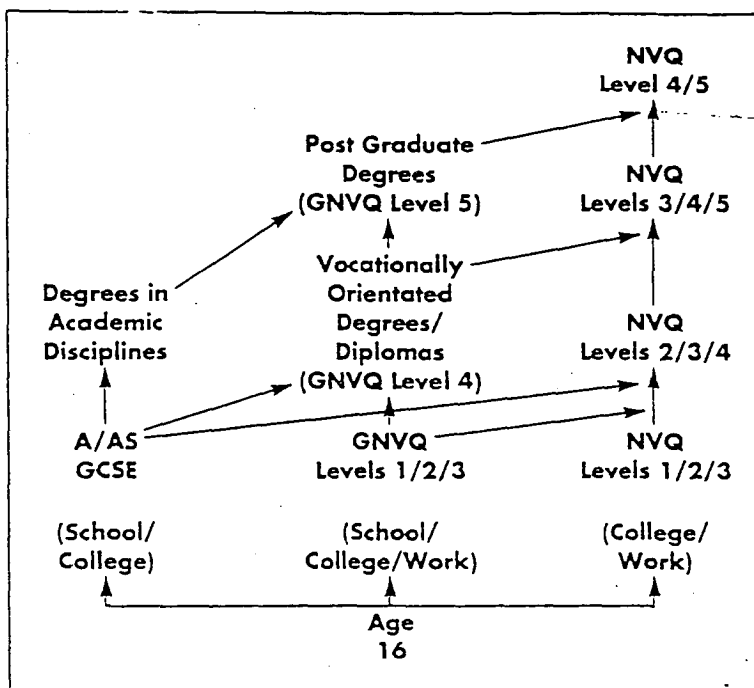
(Employment Department, 1992)

5.1.3. Scotland

It is of note that the SCOTVEC, Scotland's vocational education and training peak body, promotes a distinction between education and training qualifications. While the SCOTVEC relate its Scottish Vocational qualifications (SVQs) to the NVQs, they have a wider variety of units and modules than the UK industry (eleven functional classification areas) based units. All vocational education and training is based on competence outcomes, including those that do not necessarily relate to one industry area. The SCOTVEC system promotes adherence by educators to industry competence requirements and standards through the common use of the curriculum contained within these units or modules.

5.1.4. New Zealand

The New Zealand Qualifications Authority (NZQA) drew experience from the SCOTVEC model and elements of the Australian Standards Framework (ASF) to derive its qualifications

framework. The framework integrates schools, higher education and the vocational education and training sectors.

The Framework consists of eight levels (as with the ASF), ranging from third year of secondary school (Level 1) to postgraduate and professional degrees and diplomas (Level 8). The lowest and highest levels are meant to be open-ended, while the levels in between are intended to be hierarchical. They separate degrees of complexity, while recognising they could form a year's worth of mainstream study. (Wagner & Sass, 1992:22) The Framework as it currently exists is listed below:

Figure 15: New Zealand Qualifications Framework

Qualification	Level	Old Qualification
Post Graduate	8	Honours/ Post Graduate
National Diploma	7	University first degree
	6	NZ Certificate/ 200 level Uni.
	5	Adv. Craft/ Tech./ 100 level Uni.
National Certificate	4	Scholarship/ Crafts (Trades)
	3	Bursary
	2	6th Form Certificate
	1	School Certificate

As stated above, the agreed basis for awards offered under the New Zealand Qualification Framework is a national certificate from Levels 1 to 4; a national Diploma from Levels 5 to 7; and other Degrees, higher Certificate and Diplomas in Level 8. The level descriptors are important in differentiating not only levels of increased complexity but the alignment of existing qualifications to the new qualifications level. This permits providers to determine where outcomes for courses not based on industry derived standards align with an appropriate qualification level. The qualification levels and descriptors must also be flexible enough to permit new courses and training programs, designed for changing labour market needs, to be

integrated with existing qualifications. This principle of the Framework also ensures consistency in credit transfer and articulation arrangements.

While the level descriptors are intended for the formation of levels of qualifications, they permit industry to derive competency standards that use work as the basis for forming competencies and then appropriate qualifications. Existing general education, vocational education and training and academic approaches use learning (education and training) outcomes as a basis for alignment with the Framework.

No implicit differentiation is made between general and specific VET, or between qualifications obtained under a schools or higher education sector provider. The answer to the question is still being determined as to how well the New Zealand approach readily translates traditional academic approaches into competency-based outcome terms and that can then co-exist in the single NZQA Framework.

After ten years working on moving towards a National Vocational Qualification system in England, one author still noted:

> "... while the specification of performance criteria represents a significant move towards criteria based assessment, normative assessment still takes place. That is, the new criteria have to be interpreted and judgements based on them. However, who makes these judgements and upon what bases is critical to the overall success of the new system. Thus, the size of the task involved in securing regular and consistent workplace assessment should not be underestimated."
> (Haffenden & Brown in Burke, 1991:149)

In Australia we should not be inclined to overestimate the speed at which the development of competency standards will permit NFROT principles and processes to accredit training which is based on identified industry needs. It is possible accreditation under NFROT may, in the interim, promote assessment of industry 'agreed outcomes' on a course-by-course basis. To use these courses as representative of 'national' industry needs, or to represent enterprise

productivity improvement requirements is to diminish the real value credentials can have as indicators of an individual's performance capabilities to a defined industry standard.

While drawing heavily from the UK experience, Australia has a very strong commitment to a model like those in New Zealand or Scotland where general education is integrated into one system with vocational education and training. However, unlike Scotland, Australia has not created a binary system with separate vocational training and vocational education. The problems with not distinguishing between qualifications in an academic sector and qualifications in a vocational sector have also tended to create many unresolved issues in both New Zealand and Scotland. These issues centre on how to determine credit between academic institutions and vocational education and training providers, at the same level of qualification, when the nature of the learning is very different, and the identification of academic outcomes may not be relevant to workplace contexts.

5.2. A National Approach to Identifying Competency-Based Standards in Australian Enterprises

5.2.1. Defining Management by National Standards of Performance

Within the Australian context the competency approach has come to have a set of defined parameters which we need to clarify. Australia adopted the Australian Standards Framework as the means of achieving national consistency and 'standards' of performance as described in competency terms.

In 1991 the National Training Board (NTB) was established in Australia by a joint agreement of Federal, State and Territory governments. Its role was to endorse industry competency standards as part of the Australian National Training Reform Agenda. The NTB was composed of a shareholding of the Ministers of Vocational Education, Employment and

Training across Australia. The Board consisted of members representing the Commonwealth, States and Territories chartered with overseeing the process of identifying national competency standards. To enable the alignment of competency standards across and between industry sectors and occupations, the Australian Standards Framework (ASF) was established to categorise the complexity of tasks according to a hierarchical ladder of eight steps:

Figure 16: The Australian Standards Framework

AUSTRALIAN STANDARDS FRAMEWORK		Function or Occupation	Function or Occupation	Function or Occupation
Environment Management	8			
Skills	7			
Contingency Management	6			
Skills	5			
Task Management	4			
Skills	3			
Task	2			
Performance (Basic Entry)	1			

The NTB defined competency as follows:

> "A competency comprises the specification of knowledge and skill and the application of that knowledge and skill to the standard of performance required in the workplace." (Hannigan - NTB, 1995:11)

The competency should also be related to realistic workplace practices, be expressed as an outcome and be understandable to trainers, supervisors and potential employers. (Hannigan - NTB, 1995:11)

A competency standard is defined as for the competency, but they must be:

"...developed by industry parties, based upon the structure of work within the particular industry, expressing in terms of workplace outcomes and regularly reviewed to ensure their continuing relevance to the workplace." (NTB, 1992:11)

National standards development is founded on the basic philosophy that national training reforms will promote the following:

1. *National consistency*:- emphasising portability of competencies across regional areas.
2. *Transferability*:- emphasising the portability of competencies within and across industries, and within and across workplaces.
3. *Current and future orientation*:- emphasising the link to workplace needs, now and in the future.

The NTB structured a competency as a Unit, a discrete component within a standard. Each is subdivided into Elements, the basic building blocks of the unit of competency; and Performance Criteria, evaluative statements which specify the required level of performance. (NTB, 1992: 30-31)

The competency approach is predicated on the push for tighter measurement of the outcomes of vocational education and training towards defined standards. By aligning competencies to the ASF, a consistent level of credential across a range of industry training should result. Such an alignment involves:

• the groupings of units of competence that set out the requirements for groups of jobs, or areas of work; and
• the work structure that contains the group of jobs which can be established from work levels and/or job descriptions.

Figure 17: The Structure of a Competency Standard
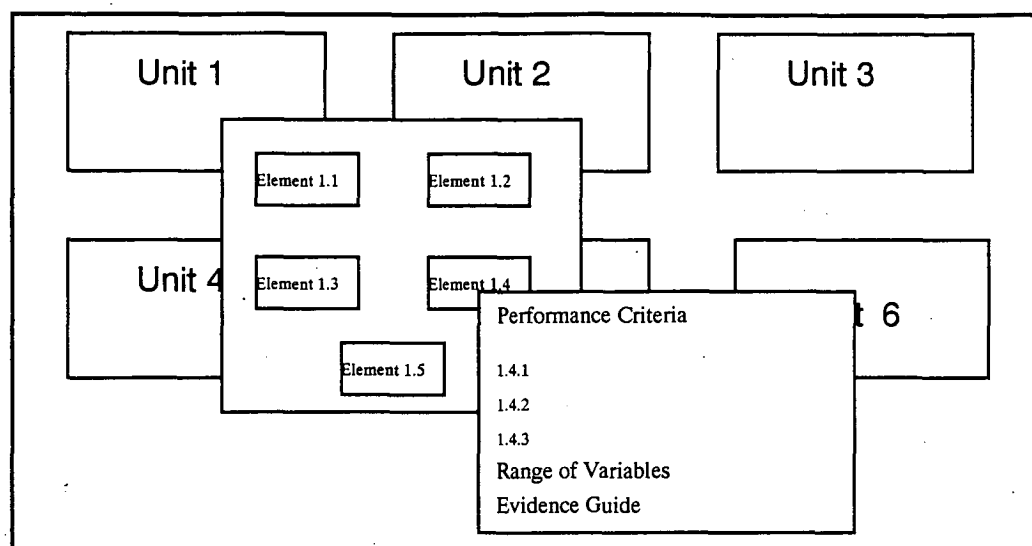
If, therefore, an enterprise is to develop its own competencies and translate these into standards, it had to gain endorsement from the NTB. For NTB endorsement, the competencies had to meet all the guidelines and provisions enforced by the Board:

- align with enterprise, industry or cross-industry standards already endorsed by the NTB;
- use the appropriate format and logic;
- align with the Australian Standards Framework; and
- have the capacity to up date and review to standards once registered.

Important distinctions must be made between industry standards, cross industry standards and enterprise standards. Industry standards are developed for a specific industry by the relevant industrial parties (eg. coal mining, tourism, printing, retail, etc.). Equally cross-industry standards (eg. small business, assessor and workplace trainers, etc.) are based on competencies that may be common to a range of industries. Enterprise standards, however require competencies that are developed or used specifically within an enterprise. To become nationally endorsed, however enterprise standards still require involvement of the industrial parties, alignment with any existing industry or cross-industry standards, and demonstrated application across Australia.

It is important to note the types of competencies that may be registered. ' Core competencies' refers to those competencies that are determined by the industry, cross-industry or enterprise standards body to be essential for a person to be considered competent at a particular level. (NTB, 1992:58). 'Common competencies' refers to those competencies that may apply across a number of industries with essentially the same outcomes (NTB, 1992:57). 'General competencies' or 'generic competencies' refer to those competencies that apply to work or broad performance outcomes, rather than particular occupation or industry context (NTB, 1992:59). 'Specific', 'optional' or 'elective' competencies represent those units of competency that only require a selection to be completed for a person to be considered competent at a particular level.(NTB, 1992:60) This requirements may well be additional to the requirement for attaining core competencies.

For enterprises, the use of competency standards endorsed by the NTB would permit an *agreed minimum* standard of performance to be described in employment or job specific outcome terms. This would permit standards to form the basis of:

- improving the effectiveness of recruitment;
- focussing training directly on enterprise requirements;
- increasing the access to relevant training, or to components of courses considered relevant, developed by the industry or a provider;
- improving skills-mapping in the workforce by using known descriptors;
- accessing national certification for individuals completing training and assessment to a national standard;
- facilitating the recognition of prior learning;
- providing a way of integrating on and off-the-job training arrangements;
- facilitating the introduction of skills based career paths;
- providing a way of ensuring that training investment (both at an enterprise, industry and national training planning level) can be targeted effectively; and
- making explicit the nature of the skills used in the industry. (NTB, 1992:39; Bowles & Graham, 1993a:15)

When packaging enterprise competencies, therefore, the enterprise may go through a number of steps:

1. Check the availability of relevant national competency standards (usually core, common and general).
2. With consent of the relevant standards body, modify existing national competency standards to fit enterprise needs..
3. With the consent and support of the relevant standards body, produce variations that are ultimately added to the industry or cross-industry bodies endorsed standards as variations.
4. Identify enterprise standards where no coverage exists.

Under the final step, it will be necessary to include the Key Competencies as general competencies. The remaining identified competencies usually are core and specific / optional. (Purity Supermarkets, 1995:10) This is usually due to the inherent flaws in how industry, and particularly cross-industry standards are designed.

Figure 18: Enterprise Competencies and Alignment Difficulties with Existing Standards
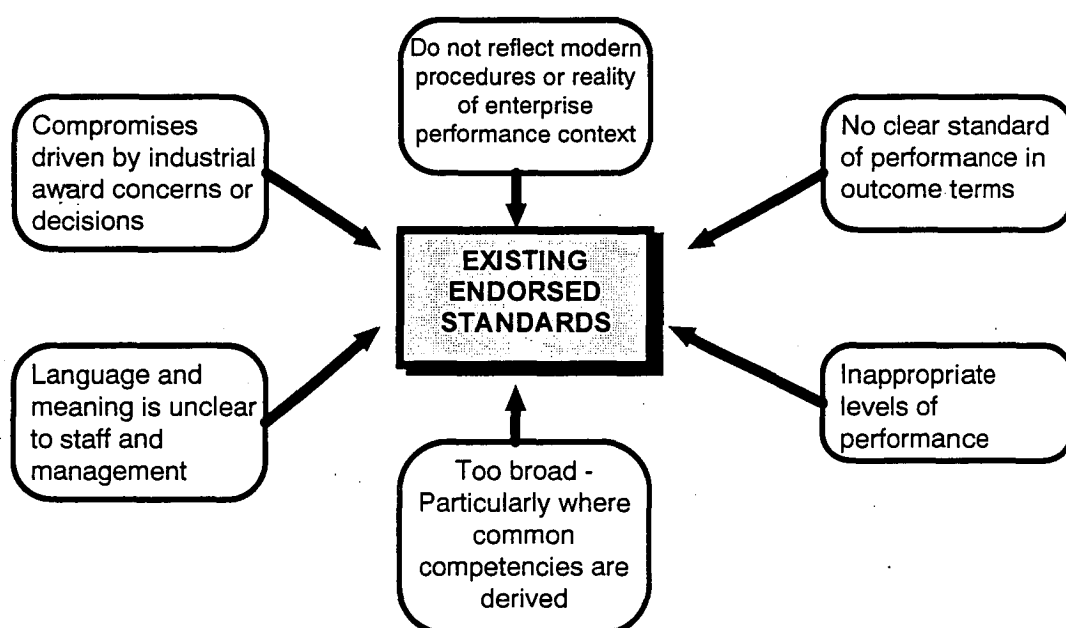
The National Training Board in its procedures for endorsing standards against the Australian Framework did not exclude enterprise efforts. However, where an enterprise wanted national standards but wished to work outside an industry or existing standards endorsed by the NTB, they faced serious barriers. Barriers to achieving enterprise standards included the need to illustrate:

- national relevance;
- failure of the national standards to provide sufficient detail or functional coverage;
- consultative frameworks that were funded, methodologically sound, and involved tripartite structures;
- intention to apply through the relevant (industry) Competency Standards Body (CSB) or achieve CSB status according to the NTB guidelines (only a CSB could forward competencies to the NTB for endorsement); and
- wide validation of the standards in the workplace.

Administratively, few enterprises commenced or progressed through all the above barriers to achieve a set of national enterprise standards. By early 1995 only six companies had endorsed standards that were listed as national enterprises standards. In terms of units of competency, this formed approximately 5 percent of all units of competency endorsed by the National Training Board. (NTB Network, June 1995)

The approach to defining standards through performance descriptions endorsed against the national Australian Standards Framework did permit enterprises to define within their own context. This could also permit competency-based management education and training as defined in this thesis, to embrace roles, traits and task specific competencies to achieve a current performance capacity relevant to an effective manager within a specific enterprise performance context. This could be achieved by

1. **Traits:** individual managers generally acquire, assimilate and process information and interpret the world around them.

2. **Roles:** the common attributes for performance or performance outcomes achieved by managers within functional or occupational boundaries, or acquired within a defined performance situation.

3. **Task Competency:** is here defined as specific Knowledge, Skills and Attitudes or Values that shape behaviour or define individual task performance.

The National Training Board guidelines on development of national standards encompassed such competency development. Despite different terminology the following table reflects the comparative alignment.

Competency-Based Management Development	NTB -Guidelines
Trait competencies	General or generic competencies
Role competencies	Core competencies
Task Competency	Specific competencies

5.2.2. Defining Management by Levels of Nationally Recognised Learning

While national standards and the Australian Standards framework encompass the development of the competencies required to define the current performance capacity of an effective manager, the link to competency-based management education and training is less tangible.

Internationally there would seem to be a prevalence of comparing levels by identifying the outcomes of study required to obtain a qualification. Importantly, Australia intended to have training reform driven by industries by setting standards based on descriptions of performance. As established in Chapter 4 and the previous section (5.1) of this Chapter, such reforms placed the imperative for change beyond setting a comparative basis for qualifications or reforming education systems, to emphasise the need to skill the workforce through recognised and relevant learning.

In Australia the emphasis has been on identifying standards of performance and **then** reforming existing study (curriculum and provision networks) that is consistently recognised across the nation as delivering the standard required in employment. The alignment with the ASF was stressed because Ministers were intent upon establishing accredited courses as the benchmark for national approaches to recognition. Eventually courses were to align with competency standards endorsed against ASF Levels, thus promoting benchmark courses and related

standards that could automatically be compared within and across industry areas. (*VEETAC,* 1991:12). The work dimensions and performance requirements would be the determinant of qualification, and the basis for comparison would be qualification delivering workplace outcomes.

The reliance on the ASF to form a VET benchmark framework that interfaces with school and higher education sectors may be in the process of being overturned. A number of problems appear to encourage the replacement of the ASF with the new AQF. These include the facts that:

- standards have a number of uses, but training outcomes are increasingly dominating and encouraging other uses of standards such as Recognition of Prior Learning and Career paths;

- existing institutional education and training providers (such as Technical and Further Education, and Universities) are still not responding to industry needs expressed as competency standards;

- qualifications form a more 'open' basis for determining levels of employment;

- entry level training and post-compulsory education at Year 11 and 12 highlights the need for cross industry approaches;

- not all workplace outcomes can be described by Standards, but Competency-Based Curriculum can include embedded educational or cognitive learning;

- standards development against the ASF and curricula development against the AQF will require greater co-operation and alignment of effort between existing administrative structures; and

- international systems have promoted a focus on qualifications structures.

In January 1995, after 13 months of manoeuvring and re-aligning state recognition and accreditation structures, a national Australian Qualifications Framework came into being. The framework was established under 'mirroring' legislation in the states and territories and established a set of descriptors against which all competency-based could be aligned.

THE AUSTRALIAN QUALIFICATIONS FRAMEWORK

ASF	DESCRIPTION	AQF
8		
7		
6	- The application of a significant range of fundamental principles and complex techniques across a wide and often unpredictable variety of contexts in relation to either varied or highly specific functions. Contribution to the development of a broad plan, budget or strategy is involved, as are accountability and responsibility for self and others achieving the outcomes; - breadth, depth and complexity involving analysis, design, planning, execution and evaluation across a broad range of technical and/or management functions, including development of new criteria or applications or knowledge or procedures; and - applications involving significant judgement in planning, design, technical or leadership/guidance functions related to products, services, operations or procedures.	Advanced Diploma
5	- The self directed application of knowledge and skills, with substantial depth in some areas where judgement is required in planning and selecting appropriate equipment, services and techniques for self and others; - breadth, depth and complexity covering planning and initiation of alternative approaches to skills or knowledge applications across a broad range of technical and/or management requirements, evaluation and coordination; and - application involving participation in development of strategic initiatives, as well as personal responsibility and autonomy in performing complex technical operations or organising others. It may include participation in teams including those concerned with planning and evaluation functions. Group or team coordination is involved.	Diploma
4	- Performance of a broad range of skilled applications, including requirements to evaluate and analyse current practices, develop new criteria and procedures for performing current practices, and provision of some leadership and guidance to others in the application and planning of the skills; - breadth, depth and complexity of knowledge and competencies cover a broad range of varied activities or applications in a wider variety of contexts, most of which are complex and non-routine. Leadership and guidance are involved when organising activities of self and others, as well as contributing to technical solutions of a non-routine or contingency nature, and - applications may involve responsibility for, and limited organisation of, others.	Certificate IV

Continued

ASF	DESCRIPTION	AQF
3	- Performance in a defined range of skilled operations, usually within a range of broader-related activities involving known routines, methods and procedures, where some discretion and judgement is required in the selection of equipment, services or contingency measures, and within known time constraints; - breadth, depth and complexity of knowledge and competencies cover selecting, adapting and transferring skills and knowledge to new environment, and providing technical advice and some leadership in resolution of specific problems. This is be applied across a range of roles and in a variety of contexts with some complexity in the extent and choice of options available; and - applications may include some responsibility for others, Participation in teams may be involved, including group or team coordination.	Certificate III
2	- Performance of a prescribed range of functions involving known routines and procedures, and some accountability for the quality of outcomes' - breadth, depth and complexity of knowledge and skills to prepare a person to perform a range of varied activities of knowledge applications where there is clearly defined range of contexts and in which the choice of actions required is usually clear and there is limited complexity in the range of options to be applied; and - application may include a some complex or non-routine activities involving individual responsibility or autonomy and/or collaboration with others through membership of a group or team.	Certificate II
1	- Breadth, depth and complexity of knowledge and skills to prepare a person to perform a defined range of activities most of which may be routine and predictable; and - application may include a variety of employment related skills including preparatory access and participation skills, broad based induction skills and/ or specific workplace skills. They may also include participation in a work team or work group.	Certificate I

The AQF seeks fundamentally to redraft the levels against which curriculum is accredited. In turn, this impacts how other state and territory recognition bodies and training and education systems can recognise the level of learning achieved. With requirements for meeting the National Framework for the Recognition of Training (NFROT) still in place, issues such as articulation, credit transfer, and related portability of the credentials and qualifications have to be resolved at the time of accreditation.

Unfortunately the links between competency-based management development and competency-based education and training are far from tangible. Fundamentally the education sector response to establishing traits and role of management has not been seen as involving a competency-based approach. In particular universities and even to national approaches adopted by the Technical and Further Education (vocational) system have reflected a desire to

avoid competency-based curriculum that extends beyond industry or functionally specific management competencies.

Competency-Based Management Development	AQF Training & Education solution
Traits - General or generic competencies	Level 6+
Roles - Core competencies	Level 6+
Task Competency - Specific competencies	Level 2-6

Management education is often viewed in terms of where the participant would exit with a qualification. In terms of graduands with a degree this would place the qualification at or above AQF level 6.

Removal of Colleges of Advanced Education (CAE) eliminated a traditional pathway between the vocational and the university sector. The education and training system was consolidated with CAEs integrated into the higher education sector under universities. The higher education sector and TAFE sector were further integrated in 1990 under The Register of Awards in Tertiary Education (RATE) guidelines that set ministerially-endorsed guidelines defining nine major national course award levels. The express purpose of the RATE guidelines was to prevent a possible binary system of tertiary course awards, and to promote credit transfer between the TAFE and university providers. This consolidated the dual pathways to education and training while promoting consistency in the types of academic awards being offered. RATE guidelines also inculcated a sense of hierarchical progression in education and training that was invariably crowned by post-graduate university certificates, diplomas, masters degrees and doctorates.

Although beyond the immediate scope of this project, it is worth noting the importance of credit transfer as part of how training and education can impact strategic outcomes. Credit transfer can enhance productivity by ensuring training is not being repeated unnecessarily;

overlap is defined between courses or programs; and studies and levels of learning in different institutions (TAFE, university or other providers) can be compared to achieve credit transfer. (Lewis, 1991:2).

At the risk of revisiting some well-trodden ground, it is important to understand the variety of current definitions delineating of a "qualification'. Understanding the differences between these definitions contributes to one's ability to impact the derivation of the new Australian Qualification Framework (AQF) implemented on 1 January 1995. A qualification is not necessarily a credential. A credential marks the attainment of all competencies within a program of study covering at least a full unit of competency. A qualification constitutes the award for completion of a full course of study. A course may be framed around a number of short courses or indeed programs that can be credentialed. For a participant, the concept of credentials permits separate recognition upon completion of components of study prior to attainment of the competencies necessary for the qualification.

In simplistic terms, a national qualification under the new AQF system will provide a consistent basis for recognising learning outcomes achieved by individuals in relation to competencies required to achieve performance outcomes. These outcomes must be linked to a framework indicating the pathway from one level of learning to another level. Each level of learning will be marked by a credential or qualification based on the competencies identified as relevant to an industry occupational role.

Figure 19: The Australian Qualifications Framework and A National Training and Education System
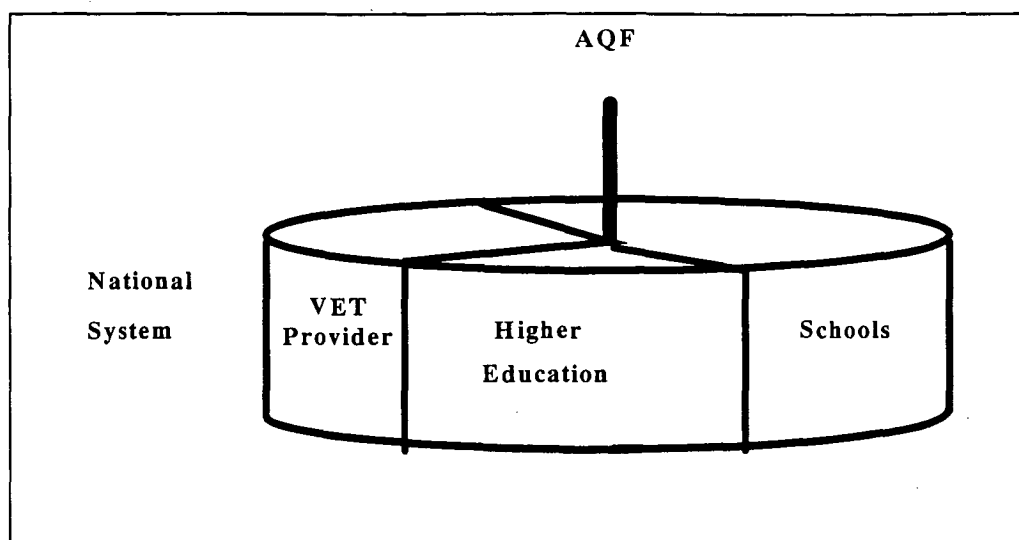
It would seem the use of the word 'qualification' is a deliberate attempt to depict a single education and training system. The above diagram is a simple representation of how the AQF can be used as a basis to benchmark standards-based courses and to escape the 'levels of application in a job' or 'industrial agreement' and 'industrial award' implications with which the Australian Standards Framework (ASF) has been tainted. The AQF describes levels of learning. While the courses, programs or short courses may be based on competency-based performance outcomes, the learning is not necessarily defining a level of employment or necessarily a job. It is conceivable that the ASF could be completely replaced as a national benchmark framework by the AQF.

The issue of pathways (packaging of modules by provider or industry) to a national qualification has already identified that the critical issue is the assessment of competence, not the source of learning or the original description of the standard. While the acquisition of competence may come from structured or unstructured education and training, work experience or general life learning, the critical issue is how the individual is assessed against the outcomes described for attainment of parts (modules) or the complete credentialled course.

THE ASF, QUALIFICATIONS AND STANDARDS

AUSTRALIAN STANDARDS FRAMEWORK		GENERAL	CORE	SPECIFIC	AUSTRALIAN QUALIFICATIONS FRAMEWORK
Environment Management	8				Advanced Diploma
Skills	7				
Contingency Management	6				
Skills	5				Diploma
Task Management	4				Certificate IV
Skills	3				Certificate III
Task	2				Certificate II
Performance (Basic Entry)	1				Certificate I

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5.3. The Industry Task Force on Leadership and Management

In Australia, the emphasis on developing an integrated response between the changing role of modern managers, shifting industry needs, and resulting education and training responses has been consolidated in the landmark report by the Industry Task Force on Leadership and Management or The Karpin Committee Report, Enterprising Nation (Industry Taskforce, 1995, 1995b, 1995c).

Chaired by David Karpin, the committee conducted research and consultation to renew the approaches to developing the management and leadership skills of Australians. As this thesis

was drafted just as the Industry Task Force handed down its findings, the impact of the

Industry Task Force's considerations was still unclear.

Findings of The Enterprising Nation: Renewing Australia's Managers to Meet The Challenges

of the Asia-Pacific Century - Report (1995) have indicated that there are some key strategies to

be undertaken:

- train some 180,000 line supervisors in management skills;
- accept the role and value of behavioural based training within Masters of Business Administration (MBA) and mainstream educational courses;
- provide greater emphasis on cross-cultural and values based training;
- rank available MBA deliverers and management programs across Australia;
- emphasise communication, creativity and 'people skills';
- harness diversity; and
- base national approaches to developing Australia's managers on a clear vision and economic rationale.

(Karpin, 1995)

The emphasis of the Karpin Committee is overwhelmingly on the absolute need to promote

how we educate, train and develop managers before Australia can hope to achieve world

competitive enterprises.

The Report established the basis for arguing a need to move Australia towards a new paradigm

of management and leadership. To achieve this new paradigm Five Key Challenges were

proclaimed:

1. Employment growth and improved living standards, through:
2. upgrading vocational education and training and business support;
3. capitalising on the talents of diversity;
4. achieving best practice management development; and
5. reforming management education (Industry Taskforce, 1995:xviii-xix)

Management development has been placed into a very prominent role in the research and

findings. The Australian Mission on Management Skills (1990) definition of management

development was used to denote the broadest possible connotation of management development.

> "*The total, continuous learning process through which managers develop their competence. This encompasses learning through a variety of formal and informal, structured and unstructured experiences, including:*
>
> - *courses offered in enterprise and industry training programs offered by private providers, TAFE and higher education institutions;*
> - *co-operative education programs;*
> - *work experience (on-the-job);*
> - *higher-level managers and peers; and*
> - *self development.*" *(Industry Taskforce, 1995:138)*

In stressing the importance of work roles and work relationships in the learning process, however, the links between these "development" factors and the emerging management profile are less clear. The Report's main focus is on developing a new paradigm of management, consciously supported by efforts to change the profile of senior and line managers.

Figure 20: The Industry Taskforce's Emerging Senior Manager Profile

1970	Today	2010
The Autocrat	**The Communicator**	**The Leader/ Enabler**
• Male	• Male	• Male or female
• Anglo-Celt, British or Australian citizenship	• Anglo-Celt, British or Australian citizenship	• Wide rage of ethnicities, citizenship
• Started as message boy, rose through the ranks. All management training on-the-job.	• Graduate, possibly post-graduate qualification. Career in corporate centre. Product of internal management development program.	• Graduate, probably with MBA or AMP as well. Wide ranging career, many placements. Product of major company development program, including placements.
• Very local focus, possibly one Australian state. Has travelled once, to England.	• Expanding focus, travels regularly to Asia, United States of America, Europe.	• Global focus, travels regularly. Has lived in two or more countries.
• Established competitors, cartels.	• Recently deregulated marketplace, rapidly changing competitors.	• Manages in both regulated and deregulated economies
• Paternal view of workforce.	• Sees workforce as stakeholder in business, working hard on communication and information sharing.	• Manages workforces in several countries. Shares information and delegates heavily.
• Stable environment. Relatively low stress, home to see kids most nights, long term position.	• Turbulent environment. High stress. long hours, fears abound.	• Environment typified by rapid change. Limited term appointment, high pressure, results driven.

(Industry Taskforce, 1995:22)

Figure 21: The Industry Taskforce's Emerging Frontline Manager Profile

1970	Today	2010
The Supervisor	**The Organiser**	**The Leader/ Coach**
• Male	• Male, possibly female in sales.	• Male or female
• Supervisor from position of accepted authority	• Conflict in role between management's needs for supervision and group's need for leadership	• Clear role as leader and coach. Responsible for developing employee skills.
• Operates in a highly hierarchical organisational structure.	• Major changes in organisational structure (elimination of middle management)	• Flat organisational structure. Team leader reports to senior management
• Values of role: control, organising, motivation by authority, technical expert.	• Values of role: control, organising, motivation by promoting teamwork.	• Values of role: performance management, facilitator, participative, empowers other team members.
• Low pressure work environment	• Stressful environment due to organisational restructuring.	• Environment emphasises best practice, benchmarking, quality and customer service.
• Experiences in field, with trade qualification.	• Experienced in field, with trade qualification	• Most have TAFE level qualification or degree.
• Little formal management training.	• 50% have formal management training for the position, but little support from management for further learning.	• 100% have formal management training for the position. Regular in-company training for further education.

(Industry Taskforce, 1995:23)

Unfortunately the terminology used in the Industry Taskforce report, and supporting research reports often ignores current training reform initiatives and terminology. Talk of core-generic competencies identified by industries, and the need for workplace unstructured and non-accredited training clouds how the report will link with current initiatives to achieve these new management profiles.

It is important to note that the critical role the Taskforce is playing in pulling a number of issues together into a single focal point for raising debate on management and leadership. With a global perspective, the dimensions and focus relating to implementation and enterprise motivations for involvement can follow from this basis. Nevertheless some observations can be made as to how the Taskforce's global perspective impacts some of the considerations raised in this thesis.

The Industry Taskforce takes a fairly traditional view by delineating a management development system as an entity distinct from education and training. While promoting management development that is based on the "development of management competence" (Industry Taskforce, 1995:138), later analysis separates on-the-job training and learning through workplace experience from management education and training. (Industry Taskforce, 1995:147) This promotes major "management education" recommendations including the need for a centrally run annual leadership initiative (Industry Taskforce, 1995:206) and the development of "state-of-the-art management and leadership educational curricula" (stressing leadership, internationalisation and diversity) that could be disseminated to management education providers and interested parties (Industry Taskforce, 1995:336). Somewhat paradoxically, another recommendation specifically stresses the need for management development to be "enterprise driven" with the overturn of the centralised, "provider driven" approach. (Industry Taskforce, 1995:149)

The Report suggests that the system of management and leadership development would be overseen by an Australian Council of Management Development (ACMD). This body would be responsible for creating 'economies of scale' and coordinating vocational education and training, enterprise driven management development, and broad based education under a single centralised administrative body. This body would ensure flexibility while achieving best practice developments through a range of functional bodies responsible for enhancing leadership and management skills. This would be achieved through a co-operative structure involving the peak bodies of management education providers, government, business and unions. (Industry Taskforce, 1995:354)

Examination of the paradigm of management shows that it failed to differentiate, as this thesis has, between traits, roles, and specific competencies a manager may require to be effective.

(Industry Taskforce, 1995:21) What is of profound importance to note is The Taskforce's reluctance to escape the previous definitional problems in distinguishing between roles, traits and specific competencies that may differentiate the effective manager at a global, national, or local/ enterprise level. Rather The Taskforce centres its new paradigm of management and leadership on a Boston Consultancy "Emerging Manager Profiles" (seen above), whereby the development of management over the past 30 years seems to place management on a continuum evolving to "higher order" traits and roles. (Industry Taskforce, 1995:22)

Early indications suggest that some of the issues which The Taskforce has not encompassed include:

- best practice examples of enterprise approaches to the identification and design of an enterprise competency-based management development program and related qualifications;

- the implicit assumption that universities will provide behavioural based MBA units or courses without necessarily supporting such observations with a logic linked to the competency-based reform agenda or existing practices;

- the absence of analysis of such critical roles as those required for industrial relations, or specific competencies for conflict resolution;

- the lack of access to consultative forums and initial findings the public, enterprises and vocational education and training provider bodies have had; and

- the failure to completely integrate, then build upon, previous national management and training reform work on competency-based systems and enterprise implementation.

Consistent throughout the Report and supporting Research and Study Mission findings is the link between skills development and improved competitiveness of the enterprise and the nation.

(Industry Taskforce, 1995:39) This supports the need for training reform, and the Australian approach to standards development through employment related skills and knowledge. It is this basis that can then drive training and education design, accreditation and recognition systems.

Ultimately The Taskforce has established the magnitude of the problem confronting development of managers in Australia. However, as stated in one research report:

> *"... at this point in time Australian business is not fully aware or convinced of the critical importance of management education, training, development and life-long learning or its potential to improve the competitiveness of business."*
> *(Rothman & Stewart-Weeks, 1995b:201)*

As with the issues so far highlighted in this thesis, however, identifying national 'drivers' for training and education reform does not necessarily promote enterprise response or support. It seems the need to identify enterprises' drivers for competency-based management education and training may better place the global drivers for change into a perspective understood at the enterprise level.

6. The Enterprise Search for the Competent Manager

6.1. Identifying Management Competencies in Australian Enterprises 1988-1994

To contrast earlier studies it is important to establish how, if at all, Australian enterprises used competencies to define or even redefine what constituted an effective manager. This study will focus on approaches conducted at an enterprise level prior to 1994 when national competency-based training reforms were well established.

In examining enterprise approaches to competency-based management development in the late 1980s and early 1990s, one encounters the profound influence Boyatzis had on the development of management education and training. This focus on one 'theorist' seems to stem from the limited numbers of 'models' of competency-based education and training. This was compounded by the almost total absence of examples illustrating how these approaches had successfully tied skills acquisition with actual operational outcomes. (Toohey, 1995:118)

In 1988 The Manpower Services Commission in the United Kingdom commissioned Professor C.J. Constable to produce a report on _Developing the Competent Manager in a UK Context_ (February 1988). This report, and a report by Handy, entitled _The Making of Managers: A Report on Management Education Training and Development in the USA, West Germany, France, Japan and The United Kingdom_ (1987) were critically acclaimed in Australia by enterprises and key government agencies for their promotion of vocational training and the use of competencies by countries and highly competitive enterprises to achieve management development.

The report influenced how UK and Australians considered developing a competent manager. In particular, Professor Constable advanced tenets for a competency-based management development approach that:

- *separated skills, knowledge and competence into aspects of management work and performance;*

- *indicated that sorting competencies by job title may assist define levels of performance and types of functions performed;*

- *identified three levels of management - 'entry level', 'supervisory' and 'middle'; and*

- *confirmed industry and educational confusion as to whether a competent manager was to be an 'idea' specialist within a function, or a generalist who could 'do' a number of tasks related to the imperatives of future management functions.* (Constable, 1988:4-5)

In Australia, during 1988 to 1989, Westpac Banking Corporation engaged Peter Saul to raise management performance and to implement an assessment methodology. Saul used a competency-based approach. (Saul, 1989:74-85) The approach had a number of parallels with that of Boyatzis. Competency was defined as "Any characteristic of a manager that enabled him/her to perform successfully in a job" (Saul, 1989:78). Through surveying superiors, subordinates and those in management positions, a profile of behaviours associated with management performance were developed. The Behavioural Scales (Competencies) identified were:

1. Task Orientation
2. People Orientation
3. External Orientation
4. Personal Commitment
5. Entrepreneurship
6. Social Presence
7. Bureaucratic Orientation

Under each of these Scales were descriptions that defined the behaviour. (Saul, 1989:82-83)

The final list of competencies were then consolidated into the following two areas.

Task Oriented Competencies
1. Servicing customers' or users' needs
2. Achieving outputs
3. Acting proactively
4. Accepting responsibility
5. Acting analytically `
6. Acting entrepreneurially
7. Initiating self development

People Oriented Competencies
1. Planning for a team
2. Providing performance feedback
3. Developing subordinates
4. Rewarding good performance
5. Gaining commitment
6. Communicating clearly
7. Gaining social acceptance

Descriptions were also listed of competent performance achievement to which managers would aspire and against which they would be assessed . While these remain confidential as for their commercial performance 'advantage', similar competencies were identified by Saul for the State Electrical Commission of Victoria's Executive Performance Management System. (SECV, 1991) The same 14 Management Competencies identified for Westpac were identified and used by the SECV. (See Attachment 1 for full list of competencies and behaviour descriptors) For each of the 14 competencies, descriptions were detailed of low, medium and high performance or unsatisfactory, competent and outstanding behaviour/competence. Individuals were then assessed against these behaviours to ascertain their performance or development needs. (SECV, 1991:4)

This model or approach to Management Competency Development and Assessment was integrated into individual and corporate management training and education under a very specific model. While by no means meeting the National Training Board requirements for competency standards (especially the design and description being in outcome terms) the competencies were core to managers attaining competence at a level of performance. It followed a basic process as described below.

Figure 22: SECV process for defining management competencies

```
        ┌─────────────────────┐
        │ Define Organisational│  ◄ - - - - ┐
        │        Needs         │           ┊
        └──────────┬──────────┘           ┊
                   ▼                       ┊
        ┌─────────────────────┐           ┊
        │Link Competencies to Each│       ┊
        │         Job          │          ┊
        └──────────┬──────────┘           ┊
                   ▼                       ┊
        ┌─────────────────────┐           ┊
        │ Identify the Competence of│     ┊
        │ the Individual in the Job │     ┊
        └──────────┬──────────┘           ┊
                   ▼                       ┊
        ┌─────────────────────┐           ┊
        │  Group Related or Like │        ┊
        │ Competencies into Clusters│     ┊
        └──────────┬──────────┘           ┊
                   ▼                       ┊
        ┌─────────────────────┐           ┊
        │  Identify Competency │           ┊
        │Improvement/Development│- - - - - -┘
        │        Needs         │
        └─────────────────────┘
```
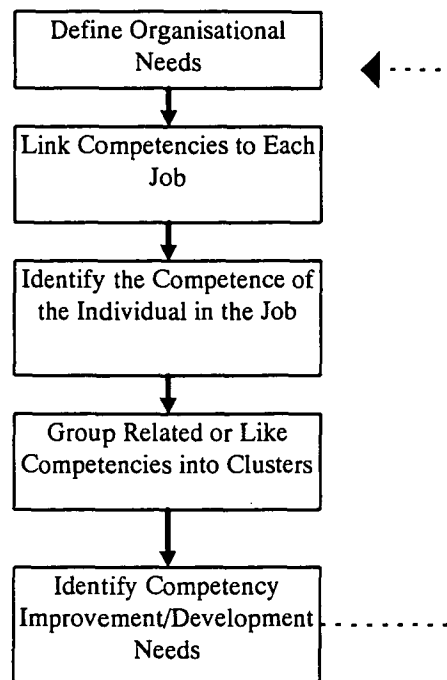
In the same period of the early 1990s the Australian Broadcasting Corporation and the Victorian Public Sector were using Boyatzis' work as a basis for their own efforts to develop the competent manager. The ABC defined competency as "an enabling characteristic of a manager that results in superior performance as judged by his [sic] superior" (MacLeod & Wyndham, 1991:69). The Victorian Public Sector defined competency as "a cluster of behaviours which results in effective or superior performance in a job." (Glass et al., 1990:406)

The identified competencies at the ABC were grouped into clusters that included:

Goal and Management Cluster
> Concern for effectiveness
> Diagnostic Use of Concepts
> Pro-activity

Human Resource Management Cluster
> Use of Socialised Power
> Positive Regard for Others
> Managing Group Process

The Leading Cluster
> Use of Oral Presentations

Directing Subordinates Cluster
   Developing Others
   Compliance

The final Management Competencies included:

Vision
- use of concepts
- inspires people with what is possible

Pro-activity
- getting things accomplished

Effectiveness
- sets goals for individuals and team

Socialised Power
- uses networks and alliances across the organisation and outside of it

Oral Presentations
- persuades others
- wins co-operation
- uses personal contact to build commitment

Group Process
- gets team co-operation
- gets one team co-operating with other team, etc

Developing Others
- leads by giving feedback both positive and negative about their work
- provides clear direction
- assists by providing resources

Positive Regard
- believes individual and group performances will improve

Compliance
- stimulates compliance behaviour
- gets others to go along with what is wanted
- sets limits with others

(MacLeod & Wyndham, 1991:76)

By late 1989, after a major review of training, management education and development, the Victorian Public Service Board had identified core management competencies that described behaviours, values, attributes and skills. (PSB, 1989:ii).

Eighteen months later, in 1991, the Victorian Public Sector Board had issued an Office Based Structure package to assist agencies achieve the goals required under the Structural Efficiency

Principle and overall workplace reform initiatives. (Public Service Board, 1991a, and Public Service Board, 1991) By then the Core Management Tasks/Competencies at AM 8 level included:

1.   Achieving Results

2.   Creating Solutions

3.   Managing People

4.   Delivering Client Services

5.   Managing Strategically

6.   Policy Development

7.   Working with Government Processes

8.   Self-Development

(Public Service Board, 1991a:68-72)

At the AM 7 or middle management level the competencies included:

1. Achieving Results   5. Managing with Initiative
2. Creating Solutions   6. Policy Development
3. Managing People   7. Managing Strategically
4. Service Management   8. Working with Government Processes
                                              9. Self-Development

(Public Service Board, 1991a:56-62)

At the AM 6 or supervisory management level the competencies included:

1. Achieving Results   5. Understand Financial Management
2. Supervise Staff   6. Policy Development
3. Managing People   7. Understanding Government Processes
4. Personal Management in the VPS   8. Self-Development

(Public Service Board, 1991a:46-)

The distinction between each of the levels indicates a more sophisticated attempt to delineate levels of management behaviour. Each task also had detailed sub-descriptions of skills and personal attributes that delineated competent and incompetent performance, and described levels of performance at different levels of management.

For example for the AM 8 to undertake the task Policy Development they also had

Task Descriptions	Skills and Personal Attributes
• Formulate policies and plans for the efficient operation of training and personnel development practices throughout the agency	Policy Development, Communication, Negotiation
• Provide advice on policies	Leadership, Understanding of Government Process

For example for the AM 6 to undertake the task Policy Development they also had

Task Descriptions	Skills and Personal Attributes
• Advise senior management on the development and evaluation of policy options	Entrepreneurial, Analytical, Policy development
• Undertake investigations and research or take charge of discrete aspects of work associated with the development and review of policies and procedures throughout the Agency	Procedure development, Consultation, Negotiation, Oral and written communication, Understanding of government processes, Reasoning
• Develop local strategies, procedures and work practices	Interpretation skills, Meeting Skills, Initiative

The above descriptions were further supported by a description of each Skill and Personal Attribute in general terms that outlined minimum and competent performance levels. Thus, each management level had broad descriptions of task performance underpinned with behaviours that could be assessed and defined for a job, and for the person performing that job.

By the end of 1991, key enterprises in the public and private sector were using the concept of competency as being composed of tasks that were described behaviours comprising attributes that included skills and knowledge.

The above development of competencies again did not meet the NTB guidelines and requirements for framing competencies, but they identified core and optional competencies determined to be specific requirements for a manager within a given job, at a determined level

of performance. Identifying management competencies broadly followed the process described below.

Figure 23: Victorian Public Sector process for defining core management competencies

```
                    ┌─────────────────────────┐
                    │     Define Context       │◄ - - - - - - - - - - - - - - ┐
                    │ (Enterprise Strategic     │                              ·
                    │  Goals & Environment      │                              ·
                    │       Issues)            │                              ·
                    └─────────────────────────┘                              ·
                                │                                            ·
                                ▼                                            ·
                    ┌─────────────────────────┐                              ·
                    │   Define Management      │                              ·
                    │   Responsibilities &     │                              ·
                    │       Functions          │         ┌ · · · · · · · · · · · · · ┐
                    └─────────────────────────┘         ·  Assess individuals      ·
                                │                         ·     against job          ·
                                ▼                         ·   Competencies &         ·
                    ┌─────────────────────────┐         ·    Performance/          ·
                    │  Link Skills, Knowledge  │         · Development Program      ·
                    │ and Characteristics or   │         └ · · · · · · · · · ▲ · · · ┘
                    │ Clusters to Core         │                            ·
                    │     Functions            │                            ·
                    └─────────────────────────┘                            ·
                                │                                          ·
                                ▼                                          ·
                    ┌─────────────────────────┐                            ·
                    │    Identify levels of    │                            ·
                    │  Management Competence    │                            ·
                    └─────────────────────────┘                            ·
                                │                                          ·
                                ▼                                          ·
                    ┌─────────────────────────┐                            ·
                    │  Describe Behaviours for │                            ·
                    │   Each 'Competency'      │                            ·
                    └─────────────────────────┘                            ·
                                │                                          ·
                                ▼                                          ·
                    ┌─────────────────────────┐                            ·
                    │ Package Competencies to a│· · · · · · · · · · · · · · ┘
                    │   Specific Position &    │
                    │       Encumbent          │
                    └─────────────────────────┘
```

'Core competency' was described very much as a specific set of descriptions linked to function, operational outcomes, and performance context within the enterprise.

6.2. A National Approach to Defining Australian Management Competency Standards

The previous section highlights that the 'drivers' in the search for competent managers in enterprises were occurring in isolation from training reforms. The selection of competency-based performance descriptions and training was also occurring without enterprises necessarily being aware of national moves to reform training. Certainly the enterprise search was not being 'driven' by training reform, or models for describing and categorising competencies. The search was also evidenced in private and public organisations seeking to define the competencies 'core' in their own operations and performance context.

The thrust to develop a national approach to the identification of management competency standards in industries and occupations was reinforced by the 1991 Report of the Australian Mission on Management Skills. (TAMOMS, 1991) This Mission was headed by a private sector executive, Allan Priestly, Manager of Education, Training and Personnel Services for BHP. This Mission was formed to report, in the light of overseas experience, on how enterprise and industry training, education and development in Australia could be further enhanced by the introduction of suitable national, state, industry and enterprise strategies. The Mission addressed 'best practice' management skills formation in Europe, North America and Japan; the promotion of management skills formation in Australia; and strategies for enhancing management skills formation in Australia. The recommendations of the Mission included:

> "1.1   That in order to facilitate a national commitment to the need to develop
> Australia's management skills, an integrated national approach to the
> process of management skills be adopted which will involve all groups
> which have a role to play.
>
> 2.1   That as a means of raising the public awareness of the importance of
> management skills a major national campaign be undertaken which
> would have as its objective the highlighting of the importance of
> management skills to Australia's economic future.

3.1   That the Australian Council on Management Skills commission the development of an Australian framework which identifies appropriate skills standards for supervisory and middle management levels within the Australian workforce and that these standards, when developed, be submitted to the National Training Board for endorsement.

3.3   That the standards emphasise the following skill areas:

- *The importance of people management skills with an emphasis on the skills necessary for change management;*

- *business/technology management skills;*

- *the importance of strong technical skills;*

- *an appreciation of the skills necessary for successful business activity within the global economic environment including foreign language and inter-cultural skills.*

7.1   That emphasis be given to the provision of training skills amongst managers and the need for managers to see one of the primary roles their own contribution to the training and development of their staff.

8.1   That a code of management practice be developed which would identify specific criteria for best practice in management development, and that companies who subscribe to this code of conduct be entitled to use a specific endorsement on their publications and letterheads. "

(TAMOMS-DEET, 1991:ii-xii)

The Mission observed that an important model for Australia to further investigate was that developed around the German national core training modules in management. These included:

"Initial Management Level

- *organisational change*

- *organisation of work*

- *people management and managing a team*

- *leadership skills, communication and interpersonal skills*

- *quality management*

- *problem solving skills*

- *customer expectation and service*

- *business environment*

- *training skills*

Middle and Senior Management Levels

- *internationalisation*

- *language and inter-cultural training*

- *work exposure to other countries*

- *strategic planning with long term perspective*

- *marketing and finance"*   *(TAMOMS-DEET, 1991:19)*

TAMOMS also reinforced the relevance of the national German modules by highlighting their consistency with the core management competencies adopted by the Karstadt company of department stores for their managers:

- *"Ability to manage people*

- *Initiative*

- *Ability to plan and make decisions*

- *Practical intelligence*

- *Willingness to take responsibility*

- *Personality*

- *Stress ability and reliability*

- *Empathy - dealing with conflicts"*   *(TAMOMS-DEET, 1991: 31)*

The German model was also favourably reinforced by the Handy/Constable Report (UK) on four levels of management training:

"First Level of Management - *an emphasis on people-management skills*

Second Level of Management - *an emphasis on budgetary issues and the allocation of resources*

Third Level of Management - *an emphasis on internal strategic issues*

Fourth Level of Management - *an emphasis on external strategic issues, including consideration of competitive strategies"*

(TAMOMS-DEET, 1991:33)

The centralised approach to management competency standards and management development was seen, therefore, as reflecting the realities required to 'catch up to' practices existent in Europe, Japan, and North America.

The first accomplishment of 'national' management competencies for an industry (transversed enterprises and applied across occupations) that broadly conformed to the National Training Board's format were achieved by the Public Service Commission. Under the co-ordination and management of the Joint Australian Public Service Training Council (JAPSTC) a national set of competency standards were drafted in late 1991 and finalised as an integrated set of core competencies endorsed by the National Training Board in 1993. (JAPSTC, June 1993)

Figure 24: JAPSTC Management Competencies

The JAPSTC model of management competencies for senior public sector managers involves the following management levels and associated units of competency:

Competency Strand	Knowledge of Organisational Context	Planning	Leaders, People Development & Workgroup Participation	Interaction with People	Resource Management	Change	Manage own Performance	Information Management	Using Equipment	Literacy/ Numeracy
Senior Officer Structure	Apply Knowledge of APS and Agency Context to Work	Plan for Results	Lead and Develop People	Interact with People	Manage Resources	Manage Change	Manage Own Performance			
ASO 5-6	Apply Knowledge of APS and Agency Context to Work	Plan for Results	Lead and Develop People	Interact with People	Manage Resources	Adapt and Implement Change	Manage Own Performance	Research, Analyse and Use Information		
ASO 1-4	Apply Knowledge of APS and Agency Context to Work	Plan and Organise for Results	Contribute to Work Group	Interact with People		Participate in and Adapt to Change	Manage Own Performance	Find, Analyse and Use Work Related Information	Make Efficient Use of Equipment	Work with Numbers Work with Words
GSO 8-10	Apply Knowledge of APS and Agency Context to Work	Plan for Results	Lead and Develop People	Interact with People	Manage Resources Prepare for Contracts & Tenders	Adapt and Implement Change	Manage Own Performance			
GSO 2-4	Apply Knowledge of APS and Agency Context to Work		Work in a Team	Receive and Communicate Information		Adapt and Implement Change	Manage Own Performance		Use and Maintain Equipment and Tools Work Safely	Work with Numbers Work with Words
SPO STO	Apply Knowledge of APS and Agency Context to Work	Plan for Results	Lead and Develop People	Client Service	Manage Resources	Manage Change	Manage Own Performance	Analyse Research Investigate and Interpret Information		

Despite the delay in seeking national endorsement for the JAPSTC competencies, as early as 1989 the Australian Public Sector Commission (PSC) had used competencies as the basis for redefining job performance across the public sector. In 1990 the PSC had proposed an approach to identifying management and other competencies by using a process detailed below.

Figure 25: Australian Public Sector Commission core competency identification process

```
┌─────────────────────────────┐
│       Define Context        │
│   (Occupation, Classification,│
│           Stream)           │
└─────────────────────────────┘
              │
              ▼
┌─────────────────────────────┐
│       Define Functions      │
│                             │
└─────────────────────────────┘
              │
              ▼
┌─────────────────────────────┐
│    Define Key Functional    │
│        Roles of Job         │
└─────────────────────────────┘
              │
              ▼
┌─────────────────────────────┐
│   Identify Core Competence  │
│        of Functions         │
└─────────────────────────────┘
              │
              ▼
┌─────────────────────────────┐
│     Define Elements of      │
│         Competence          │
│    (behaviour descriptors)  │
└─────────────────────────────┘
              │
              ▼
┌─────────────────────────────┐
│      Define Levels of       │
│         Competence          │
│   (functional roles that mark│
│ differences at each classification│
│        or job level)        │
└─────────────────────────────┘
```
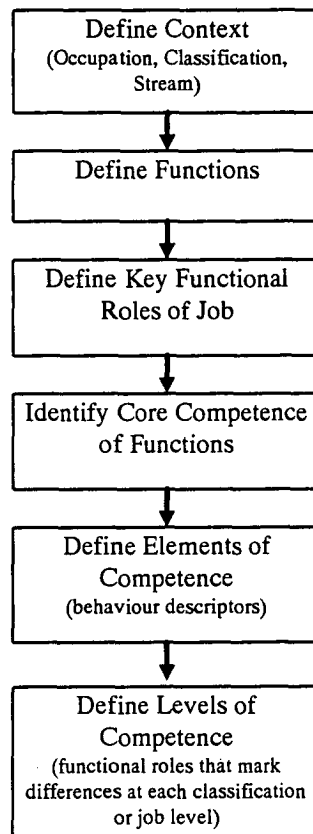
(PSC, 1990: Attachment C)

Unlike that for the Victorian Public Sector competencies, the process outlined above began to look very much like and result in, competencies that could meet with The National Training Board's requirements (the competencies were submitted for, and endorsed by the NTB in late 1993). Core competencies were far broader in description and held greater flexibility with regards functional or occupational outcomes and the performance context. It also required competencies to be aligned against occupational and industrial award descriptions that closely

mirrored the eight level Australian Standards Framework. Even prior to final alignment with the ASF, the JAPSTC standards were able to be used to indicate the level of application and to give a cross-industry benchmark reference point to standards projects aligning their standards with the ASF. (Bowles, January 1992:17)

Of interest is the fact that the release of the above process was based on the Australian Industrial Relations Commission decision in the National Wage Case in 7 August 1990 which was based on the Structural Efficiency Principle which linked wages to increased productivity. The Public Service Commission noted that the competencies had a role to define job skills and achieve "a critical bridging between productivity and wage increases". (PSC, 1990: Appendix 1, page 1)

From 1993, The National Training Board began to receive descriptions of competencies for management in a variety of industries. In terms of core units of competency that could be applied to the management of an enterprise, by mid 1995 only five industry areas had endorsed competency standards at the Australian Standards Framework (ASF) levels 7. These included the APS, Fire Services, Automotive - Retail Service and Repairs, Maritime, Property Services and Arts Training. (NTB, 1995:24) No standards existed at ASF Level 8.

In addition to those listed above, industries with core management covered at ASF level 6 included Retail, Arboriculture, Local Government, Farm Management, Warehousing, Telecommunications, Insurance, Nursery, Tourism and Hospitality. (NTB, 1995:24). Small Business Management had also submitted cross-industry common competencies with the NTB but without ASF alignment. (NTB, 1995:24)

Of the competency units registered by enterprises, only two sets had integrated coverage of management competencies from entry-level (ASF 1) to ASF 6 or above. This included one in the stevedoring industry and Purity Supermarkets (Woolworths). (Purity Supermarkets, 1995:3)

As all the industries could only gain endorsement from the NTB where no pre-existing competencies had been accepted, there is a large diversity of management competencies considered core or specific to a function in the industry area.

What has also been noted is the need to provide more cross-industry or generic management competencies for those functions that transcend or cross-industry boundaries. In a national review on The Preparation of a Generic List of Supervisory/ Management Skills and The Feasibility of Defining and Assessing These Skills as Competencies, it was identified that generic competencies had value from the viewpoint of national efficiency, and for industries and organisations "identifying and planning their management development needs." (Slater, 1994:40). The Report concluded that:

> "The evidence from the literature shows that it is feasible to assess supervisory/ management skills against prescribed standards of performance. There will need, however, to be significant further work undertaken to develop competency standards for managers, which allows for industry and workplace specific variables to be taken into account." (Slater, 1994:38)

Thus, while generic competencies could be identified under the national process for broad functions within industry and across industries, the development of industry and enterprise variables faced difficulty because of different structures, strategic outcomes, workplace contexts, and the management language and practices used within different workplaces.

The approach by the PSC reflected an intensive effort to underpin workplace reform and award restructuring in all Australian Public Sector (APS) agencies. This was achieved through the

use of consistent descriptions of functions undertaken in jobs within occupational (award) classifications across the eight level (industrial) award structures adopted by the APS.

The different format and means of framing competencies exemplified by the pre-1992 examples provided in this Section formed a major barrier to the identification of common or core management competency descriptions in Australia. (Bowles, January 1992:19) However it was not the different descriptions or styles of writing competencies that proved the major stumbling block for the Australian Commissioners for Public Employment Committee on competency based training and education, but identifying common management competencies for all Australia's public sector managers. Significant commonality and consistency in alignment was identified by using the National Training Board's approach to re-translate the different approaches of writing competencies into a comparable set of competencies for managers. (Bowles, January 1992:19)

The major problem that eventually stopped development of agreed Australian public sector management competencies (covering commonwealth, state and potentially local government sectors) was the inability to use competency descriptions to differentiate occupations and the functions and level of performance required by occupational areas. It was the different political and policy imperatives guiding award restructuring that hindered the Australian Public Sector, Victorian Public Sector, Tasmanian State Service, South Australian and other State Service management competencies being aligned at a *level of application.* This effectively removed any basis for agreement on how competency descriptors could be aligned to the Australian Standards Framework (ASF) and thence be endorsed as agreed national standards. (Bowles, January 1992:20)

6.3. Enterprises and Management Competencies

This chapter highlights how enterprises had conducted the search prior to, and during the commencement of training reform for the competencies that constituted effective management and for performance system. However the development of national management competency standards did not initially build on enterprise efforts. Rather the efforts of the Overseas Management Mission and the Joint Australian Public Sector Training Council's gradually reframed the efforts of identifying, describing and aligning competencies to promote a methodology that could permit competencies to be endorsed by the National Training Board.

The factors impelling the description of the competencies that constituted an effective manager within an enterprise setting revolved around core competencies being described in terms reflecting the main strategic objectives. Not core as defined at a national level as essential for all managers at a level of employment within a functional or occupational area.

Competency-based management education and training had been considered a good idea for enterprises in Australia prior to national training reform. Somewhere during the driving of national training reform, and the enterprise search for competent managers, the reasons for cooperation seem to have become clouded. Notwithstanding the debate surrounding whether the Australian Public Service's management competencies are enterprise or industry based, they still represent the only pre-1994 competencies to be translated by the originating enterprise into national competency standards.

What we need to rediscover is the imperative that gave cause to competency-based management education and training prior to 1994. This imperative can then be examined to reinvent the basis for the formation of strategic alliances between global policy and enterprise specific needs.

7. Reinventing Competency - Based Management Education and Training

Earlier chapters examined the relationships between the main elements impacting the conduct of competency-based management education and training in an enterprise. In the following chapters the mutual basis for driving a strategic alliance that can enable competitiveness between national reforms and enterprise strategic imperatives will be described.

Figure 26: Collaborating to Form An Effective Manager
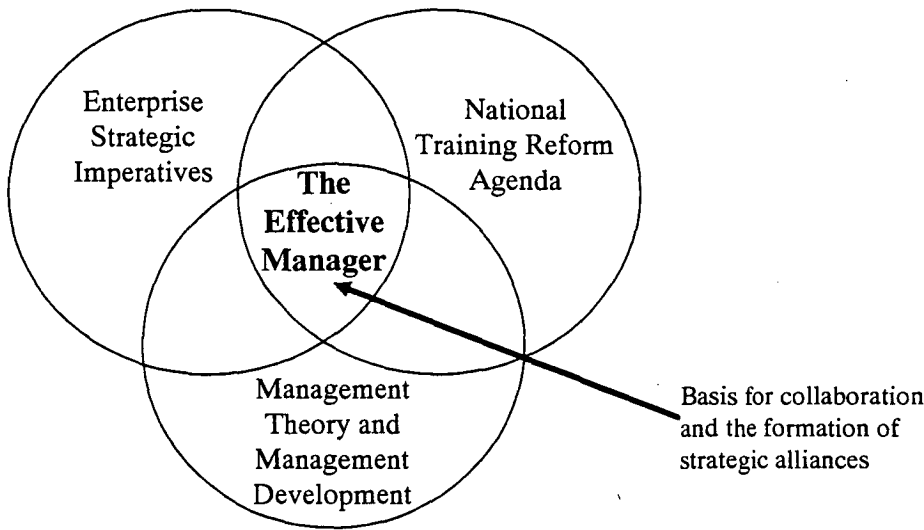
The above figure illustrates the parameters of the study so far. The development of the manager must be understood as an outcome from the relationships between all elements described. In real terms, while the following sections deal with the facets that impel change, they also highlight the mindsets that trap us into obsolete management development approaches. Approaches more related to how work was managed in the Industrial Age, rather than in the Information Age.

The current imperatives can be identified that necessitate governments and enterprises collaborating to revise our concept of competency-based management education and training (CBMET). The previous chapters have at least served to warn any study away from a singular focus on global reasons for driving a strategic alliance to achieve effective enterprise managers. The drivers for change must also reflect imperatives known to executive managers and confirmed as critical in every-day strategic decisions.

In essence, eight significant drivers should be used to transform our mindset on what competency-based management education and training can contribute to the attainment of competitiveness. Four of these drivers impel enterprises, and four effectively impel government, to enable national competitiveness through competency based systems.

These eight drivers directly impact the reasons for collaboration and the formation of strategic alliances on competency-based management education and training.

7.1. Enabling Competitiveness - The Enterprise's Imperatives Driving a Redefinition of Management Education and Training

The First Driver - **Continuous improvement and quality emphasise the transformation of management to achieve world's best practices**

During World War II, the United States had employed a young statistician, W. Edwards Deming, in the manufacture of military equipment. Deming applied statistical control to the manufacture of US military equipment thereby eliminating waste and increasing productivity. At the end of the war Deming's statistical control methods were dismissed in favour of a wave of industrial growth and renewed industrial optimism. The fact the US piloted and then lost Deming's principles of statistical control of manufacturing was to its ultimate disadvantage. Following World War II, the US provided economic aid to Japan in the form of industrial

advice. In the early 1950's the US sent Deming to Japan recognising his ability to improve manufacturing but seeing no further advantage in a peace time context. Deming's statistical control had a seemingly incomprehensible vision - to build quality control into production before a commodity was manufactured. Put simply, Deming defied the paradigm that governed mass production in the West. (Deming, 1986)

Deming's system of building quality control into an item before it was manufactured thus provided the Japanese with an opportunity for market gain which the US and the industrial West failed to see. Deming's methodology for pre-production quality control had three essential components. First, he maintained that 80 percent of all product faults were routine and could be eliminated by standardising input. Second, the process of production could be broken into component parts and improved continuously. Third, the re-orientation of the workforce to accept responsibility for quality standards and continuous process improvement would take a generation, that is about thirty years. Deming's notion of quality is not about high quality or low quality. It is about a product performing to the standard to which it is designed - first time, every time.

Deming's eighty-twenty rule (eighty percent of impediments in manufacturing are routine, twenty percent are special causes which require a process focus but can still be eliminated) implies that items manufactured to quality standards do not require routine checking (resulting in cost reduction), do not require returns and repairs (resulting in cost reduction) and do reinforce consumer confidence in brand (resulting in increased profit). The increase in profit as the volume of consumer purchase increases leads in turn to the ability of the manufacturer to lower the unit cost. This in turn makes the product more competitive on the market - consumers retain confidence in the reliability of the product and are attracted to purchase more (or change from other brand allegiance) based on the lower unit price.

Once quality management systems were implemented, Deming believed, process improvement would continue to reduce the cost of production. (Deming, 1982:12) The aim of the Deming method was to find improvements continuously so that the cost of goods was reduced, making them more affordable, at the same time as their reliability was increased by building in the quality. When Motorola US adopted the quality improvement method in the 1980s, they became the top cellular phone telecommunications company in the world and the largest selling manufacturer of mobile phones in Japan! This was a result of a deliberate action by the President of Motorola, John Garvin, to send his executives to Japan to learn how quality improvement could beat the Japanese. So successful is quality improvement for Motorola, that Garvin established the Motorola University dedicated to teaching quality methodologies. The concept of process improvement is best summed up by Garvin who states that Motorola has shifted from the industrial philosophy of "If it ain't broke, don't fix it!" to the quality improvement concept of "If it ain't broke, you haven't looked hard enough!" implying there is always a better way of doing something. There is no end to the continuous quality improvement process because human values (consumer priorities) change continuously, thereby creating the demand for new products.

Measuring the performance of machines is easy, but measuring people, in the industrial mindset, smacks of management supervision in which unsatisfactory performance usually leads to dismissal. In order to eradicate this connotation, the Japanese quality factories introduced a non-dismissal policy in which redundancy in the job could be no reason for dismissal. Then there was the difficulty of introducing the radical shift from human control to human empowerment on which quality improvement is predicated. To an industrial workforce, the notion of individual responsibility without supervision is almost absurd, but the quality method required this and more - the contribution of each worker to suggest ways to improve their

processes of operation. Essentially this requires a commitment to change continuously - a notion contrary to the uniformity of labour established in the industrial west (and reinforced by industrial awards in Australia). Workers operate in teams with managers as members and together decide how they can improve their work. Initially, workers were neither interested nor forthcoming with suggestions, while managers were intent on dominating and controlling. This process had to be eradicated via a structural methodology in which rules were made to elicit suggestions and eventually responsibility from the workforce for their actions and support and coaching from managers to enhance worker responsibility.

Subsequent theorists have developed variations of Deming's Total Quality Management. Misaaki Imai (1986) crystallised a Japanese variation known as Kaizen (ie. gradual, unending improvement) which Toyota implemented to become the world's leading car manufacturer. This was achieved in a slow growing world economy using Just in Time Production, Autonomous Defect Control, a flexible workforce and creative thinking. Most recently, Karl Albrecht (1988) has promoted a service variation called Total Quality Service which focuses on meeting customer expectation via a quality methodology. All quality improvement methodologies are premised on standards and measures, flexible work structures, continuous improvement (involving rapid, constant change which the British theorist Tom Peters refers to as "Thriving on Chaos" (1990)), and creative thinking (involving autonomy, responsibility and problem solving). These factors underpinning quality philosophies are the anathema of western industrialism. It was the quality improvement methodology, devised by an American, Deming, which significantly shifted the industrial advantage of the western nations to the Japanese. For it was the quality system which allowed the Japanese to maximise their greatest natural strength, their manpower. (Halberstam, 1986)

Quality in recent times has been seen to be an important component in any organisation's attempt to achieve international competitiveness. Fundamentally quality management systems attempt to minimise the amount of variation from established process standards when products or services are produced. This has required a significant shift in management practices.

Figure 27: Transformation of Management Practices

Traditional 'Tayloristic' or 'Manufacturing' oriented Management Practices	Transformational Management Practices
Optimise short term results and profit. Minimise and control change	Flexible and pro-active approach to corporate environment (anticipate change and accept environment as dynamic.)
Reduce current costs	Market differentiation and share
Management control and planning	Management support quality process and delivery agents
Improvement on direct competitor	Benchmark best competitor or intentional 'best practice'
Important few decision-makers "need to know"	Information sharing and communication so "all need to know"
'Feudalistic' and centralised tall hierarchical models with unity of command and limited spans of control	Delegation of authority and facilitated participation through short hierarchies with authority vested in expert knowledge
Many Classifications	Fewer classifications (breakdown of functional rigidity's and resulting job enlargement and enrichment)
Detection	Prevention
Instrumental and functionally-based Control	People centre with Team Building
Individual Performance incentives and particularly financial incentives	Pride in workmanship and service delivery
Individual appraisal and reward	Team appraisal and individual feedback
Manage by objectives	Reduce variation
Mechanistic	Holistic management and organic
Unresponsive and non-targeted training	Learning organisation
Capital & Plant considered greatest resources	Knowledge and Human Value Management considered critical resources and investments

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Regardless of the quality improvement theorist, the above transformation in the general principles of management must be addressed.

Figure 28: Quality 'Gurus' Compared

(Bowles & Graham, 1993:12)

	Deming (1982, 1986)	Juran (1988)	Crosby (1979)	Taguchi (1986)	Ishikawa (1985)	Shingo (1986)
Role of Top Management	Leadership participation	Varied	Stress Zero defects	Leadership participation	Participate at all levels	Leadership
Scope	All activities	Product	Product	Initially process	All activities	All activities
Program Motivation	Long-term competitive position	Decrease cost of quality	Decrease costs	Process & Product insensitive to variation	Competitive niche - Respect for humanity	Long-term Competitive position
Program Goal	Improve competitive position	Short-term profits, quality of life	Short-term profits	Continual Improvement to target	Continual, incremental improvement	"pokayoke" fail safe prevention of variation
Management Style	Participatory	Varied	Authoritarian	Participatory	Participatory	Participatory
Use of Incentives	Nil	Varied	Individual recognition	Team recognition	Team recognition	Does vary
Quality Goal	Zero Defects	Minimise cost of quality	Zero defects	Quality through design	Avoid waste and Zero Defects	Zero Quality Control - Just in Time
Definition of Quality	Uniformity about a correct target	Fitness for use	Conformance to specifications	Variation incurs a cost	Participation by everyone (in teams)	No variation leaves plant or re-occurs
Project Selection	Pareto error analysis	Cost analysis	Cost analysis	Cost analysis	Begins with customer	Cost analysis
How to Measure Improvement	Direct Measurement	Cost of quality data	COQ data & direct measurement	Direct measures	Use of 7 Tools	100% Inspection
Role of Quality Control Department	Initially high eventually low	Extremely high	Moderate	Low but off-line testing used	Reduced by Quality Circles	Low
Role of Workers	Maintenance & Improvement	Limited	Limited	Identify variation from target	Great role at all stages	Stop plant if error detected
Cost of Quality emphasis	Low	Very high	Moderate	Low	Traded off in short term against participation	Low
Statistical Analysis	High use by all	For lower management	Mixed	High	High - SPC by all	For lower managers

Success in business today is measured by a company's ability to achieve a competitive advantage over other organisations in the marketplace. Further, this market place has expanded for most companies to encompass global competition. Operating in this global marketplace has also become more difficult as trade barriers are reduced and new technology alters the factors determining competitiveness.

The major indications of this are the increasingly multinational culture of organisations and the realisation within national governments of the inappropriateness of dividing business along national lines through the imposition of tariff barriers and trade restrictions.

In the past, performance in business was measured in the ability of a specific organisation to provide its specialised product or service at a competitive rate; that is, at a competitive price where service was measured by the availability of the product. Customers today have a greater access than in the past and are not restricted by geographical boundaries. This has meant that the focus for production has shifted from volume and cost of production to the ability to meet individual client needs and expectations. For example, in the banking sector there was a focus on providing standard services to clients with limited flexibility in service. Modern banking services now focus on access and the ability to tailor services to clients' needs. This has altered management perceptions, and now the client or customer is seen as a commodity that has value to the organisation in the same way that materials used in production would have.

Quality systems therefore place an emphasis on the end-users of products and services and relate the ability of the processes used in production to meet the expectations of the customer or end-user. In turn, this focus on quality has led to the development of quality programs that engender whole management systems. This is because the development of quality is seen as a

holistic process that involves the interaction of all the steps in the production of goods and services to achieve a quality result.

It is important to note how the vesting of authority in teams impacts the role of management. In quality improvement systems, teams must be vested with authority. This authority may not only deal with setting new strategic directions, but how teams are able to become communication mechanisms with a more flexible charter to anticipate and respond to current operational problems or anticipated discontinuities of change.

The increased emphasis on teams evidences the overall change to organisational structure. Enterprises that are organised on process lines can grant staff ownership of the factors that impact their work life and product or service improvement. It is an acknowledgment that, in a team environment, the manager's role is more one of leadership; supporting and promoting team operations.

The changes to structure and strategy engendered by teams should impact how a manager uses communication. Effectively, teams permit the manager to participate in decision-making with those involved in line activities.

While quality management systems may inherently acknowledge and encourage bottom-up involvement in process design, some still see scientific management as again seeking to control complex organisations from the top-down. (Chorn, 1993:38). To make teams effective change agents, managers need to emphasise the valuable role that communication can play in their management systems. Managers need to realise that teams can manage the process. They might, therefore, adopt a "people-centred" communication style that is confirmed in their management actions and seen by all as "the front end of serious and sustained performance improvement". (Sandy, 1990:25)

Improvement also involves a conscious identification of the organisation's positioning against competitors. Benchmarking is becoming increasingly popular in enterprises seeking to continually improve. There is a recognition by managers that it is worthwhile to focus on those companies whose processes or management techniques have secured a competitive advantage.

This external focus within organisations is provided by the increasing need to adapt to a changing business environment, and the need for greater integration of the external and internal factors affecting organisational performance. We have already examined the process of identifying standards within the organisation through the use of quality management systems, that is, improving the processes that exists through the continuous improvement cycle. However these increases are often not seen as sufficient to remain competitive within an environment which is characterised by rapid changes in both the technology and processes. Along with the need to monitor the performance of internal processes of production, the need has also been identified to examine the production processes of competitors and the practices and procedures used by market leaders.

Benchmarking has been best summarised by the book by Robert Camp:

> *"Benchmarking is the search for industry best practices that lead to superior performance." (Camp, 1989)*

Superior performance is now often defined purely as Best Practice, or:

> *"The way in which leading-edge companies are able to manage and organise their operations to deliver world class standards of performance in such areas as cost, quality and timeliness." (Report of the Overseas Mission on International Best Practice, 1991:3)*

Benchmarking to achieve competitive advantage through best practice is not limited to manufacturing organisations. Heskett, Sasser and Hart in Service Breakthroughs identified:

> *"Real competitive advantage comes from identifying your service advantage*
> *and the opportunity for improving beyond your competitors practices to achieve*
> *"Contrary Positioning" in the market place."(1990:62)*

Competition involves risk, including the risk of failure. Benchmarking has been expanded from the recent concentration on just comparing the organisation's goods and services to those of competitors, to include *all aspects* of the leading competitors' operations. While many early writers suggested benchmarking was a separate and distinctly new management approach, it has increasingly become a *scientific and systematic process* for increasing competitiveness through quality improvement. Today, in the mid-1990s, benchmarking is more often seen as a direct adjunct to continuous improvement;

> *"Benchmarking is an external focus on internal activities, functions, or*
> *operations in order to achieve continuous improvement ..."* (McNair &
> Leibfried, 1992:1)

The imperative to benchmark can be viewed as a means for managers seeking process improvement to cheat. Although a simplification of a complex exercise, benchmarking does permit managers to 'look around the blind corner' before undertaking change. As we have previously established, innovation and continuous improvement all involve a vary degree of risk and uncertainty. Benchmarking can reduce this through an organisation establishing how others have undertaken change and how best practices have been achieved.

Benchmarking therefore involves the identification of standards of quality, both internally and externally, and the determination of a company's competitive position. While Total Quality Management and other quality management principles identify internal quality standards, benchmarking concentrates on the comparison of externally identified standards with internal

standards. This comparison may be conducted internally to identify the 'best approach', or it may reach as far as a comparison of internal standards with those organisations which are identified as having the world's best practices or performance in an area related to the organisation's operational activities.

For many enterprises rapid change necessitates some mechanism be adopted to determine response priorities. Ensuring a business is competitive means matching and improving the performance of those who have obtained world's best practice. Those organisations seeking to compete in the world marketplace also demand that local suppliers or public agencies achieve a standard of performance that can support their efforts to be world competitive. This often sees a cascade effect, whereby those organisations associated with companies seeking world's best practice must themselves achieve significant improvement. In countries such as Australia, this has lead to national structures to support and promote best practice programs that will make their country's 'world competitive'. In Australia, national experts were appointed and benchmarking tours conducted throughout Japan, Europe and other nations to determine national policy directions that could foster best practice in their industries.

Benchmarking then provides for the initiation of a change process that encourages the enterprise to have an external focus and to identify those practices that, when adapted to the organisations specific situation, form the basis for continuous improvement.

The Second Driver - Organisations as open systems necessitate managers possess skills beyond those required for just controlling variables within the organisation

The change responsible for fundamentally reshaping modern management practices is to view

organisations as open systems.

> *"The idea behind socio-technical systems is that any production or service systems calls for both a technology and a work relationship structure relating human to technological resources. That is, an organisation's total system has a complete set of human activities plus interrelationships to the technical, physical, and financial resources and to the process for turning out products and delivering."* (Mink, Schultz, & Mink, 1991:xiii.)

Figure 29: The Sequencing of Traditional Management Functions
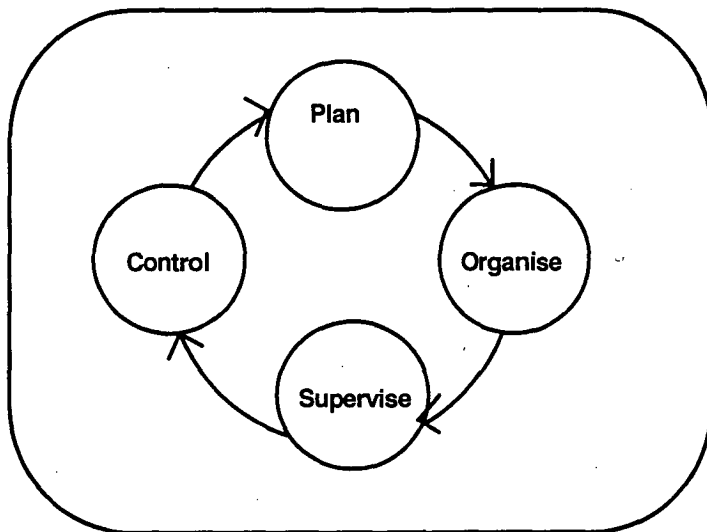
Mechanistic approaches promoted an emphasis on a set of fundamental management job roles which covered planning, controlling, organising and supervising. These job roles were derived from management approaches (commonly attributed to Frederick W. Taylor) that, from the turn of the century right up until today, which postulate that organisational structure can be set from the strategic objectives of an organisation. In turn, jobs within the structure can be clearly defined, and individuals trained to perform to an optimal capacity within these jobs. The strategic objectives and goals, therefore, would be met and reviewed through managers concentrating on a similar set of tasks based around the four main job duties.

With the organisations viewed from an 'open' perspective, and the increased emphasis on responsiveness, the view of management involving any static set of fundamental management

job roles is difficult to sustain.

The Systems approach emphasises this shift in thinking through its focus on the relationships between entities, and how these relationships are inherently dynamic. It is from mapping internal relationships that structure is derived and the basis for management job roles is determined. This is unlike the more traditional mechanistic approaches to organisational design in which management job roles are set by the structure as determined by a linear production process producing precisely programmed stages from inputs to the end output. (Katz & Kahn 1966)

While the environmental influences shape the systems theory approaches to management, more mechanistic styles of management theory focus on the factors within the organisation that impacted management 'control'. Such control was achieved by a 'reductionist' analysis whereby complexity and change could be addressed by dealing with component parts of the organisation. In some cases it can be argued that the dogmatic promulgation of particular approaches to managing organisations could be derived from theories that focus solely on managing the internal factors that may be considered management variables. Failure to adopt the management theory or philosophy in total was to lose 'control' of a variable.

Figure 30: Transforming Organisational Structures

Traditional 'Mechanistic' Hierachy

Flatter 'Organic' Structure

Flatter Structure with Teams

(Modified from Ryde City Council Planning 1991, in Bowles & Graham, 1993a:12)
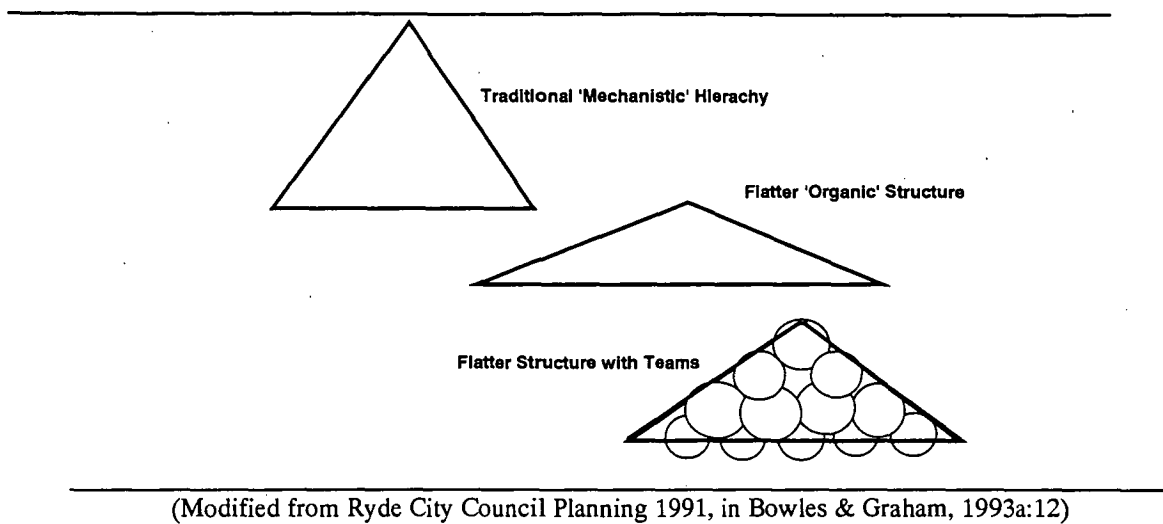
As depicted in figure 30 above, change has shifted the emphasis away from organisational design based on a mechanistic view of an organisation as a static set of relationships, to one based on a structure with dynamic internal relationships created by teams. Today it would be considered excessively simplistic to believe that drawing an organisational chart might pre-determine relationships within the organisation and permit managers to identify and control all the variables impacting processes.

With the growth of a global economy and marketplace, organisations have an increasingly complex environment within which to operate. The fallacy that structure could ward off change and control internal relationships has been dispelled. (Wheatley, 1992:16) The coming of the Information or Knowledge Age has brought a new sense of reality, where organisational design has been shaped by a concentration on both servicing market and client needs, and/or the rapid processing of information. This reflects the open systems, or organic approach to design, where mechanistic structures are systematically dethroned as processes determine structure. Rather than acknowledging that organisations are designed and focused around strategic imperatives that determine structure and thence output, flexibility and responsiveness

to customer or market needs have become the internal determinants of organisational design. While top-down strategic imperatives (ie. corporate visions and objectives) are setting the parameters for process activities and behaviour within the organisation, there is support for management practices that increase the autonomy, and decrease the rigidity, of the relationship between 'operating units'.

Operating units, or teams have increasingly become the focal point for 'self-directed' actions and often launch process improvement with little or no sign of immediate relevance to the corporate vision and objectives. The control and coordination factors associated with mechanistic organisations have waned as managers seek to increase responsiveness to change in the environment, remove process variation, and improve output to defined standards of performance. In effect, managers set about determining "standards" for organisational inputs and outputs. They then chart the organisation with clear relationships, starting with the needs of a specific segment of customers, and sorting operating units (eg. Strategic Business Units) into processes that start with the initial customer contact and end with the delivery of the service or product to the external customer. Some organisations, considered to be at the advanced stages of change, analyse the market place, segmenting it by product or service, and produce measures of what quality means for specific client groups. This indicates targets for the outputs which the organisation should be producing to satisfy current and future customer needs. (Gattorna, 1993:5) In such an environment, structure is determined by the external factors of market or customers that buy corporate products or services. The move from set structures seeking to control internal functions, to one responsive to external needs is complete. This is encapsulated in Gattorna's function and market-centred organisations depicted below.

Figure 31: Structuring Organisations to be Market - Centred
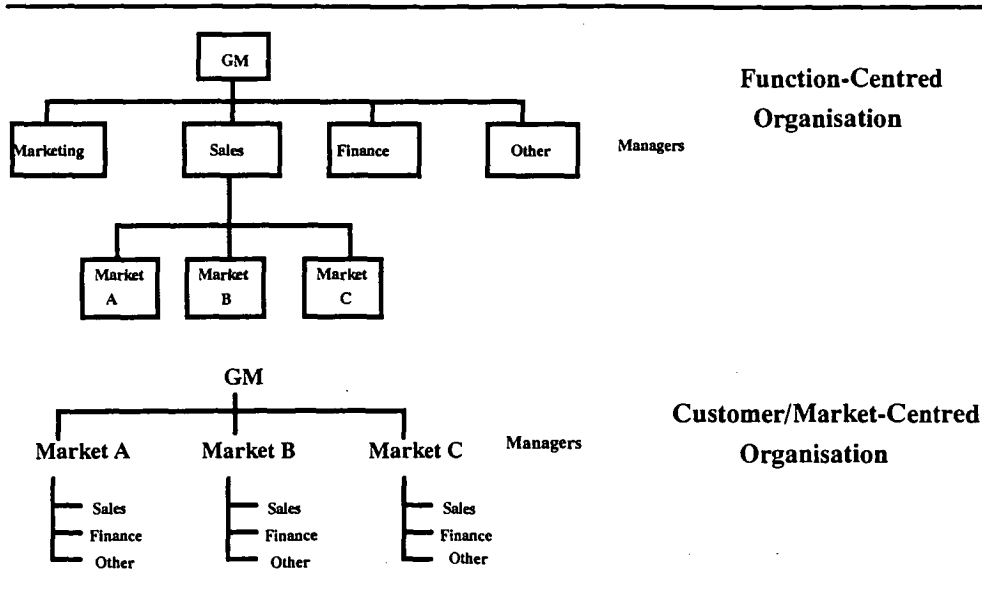
(Gattorna, 1993:5)

The result is an increased emphasis on process management systems that address the total

organisation. ('Total' being a euphemism for considering all aspects of the company, including

management, staff and processes, and which relates to all people however remotely involved in

the operation of the service/product development and delivery.) This has engendered a

significant shift in what we expect managers to do. Unfortunately it has not led to a revision of

how the use of communication by managers will impact beyond the interpersonal level to the

'total' organisational level.

The Third Driver - **In an era where knowledge - based economies grow, competitive advantage will be determined by managers anticipating ambiguity and removing discontinuities that hinder responsiveness to change**

The management of change, and the capacity to create or identify opportunities for exploiting

change, has become a factor in how managers undertake their work, and how organisations are

structured to respond to new imperatives.

Significant discoveries and technological change cannot be ordered or pre-ordained. The

innovation that changes technology may be derived only long after the original 'breakthrough'.

Hence great periods of innovation can then be followed by stagnation. However, as organisations recognise the competitive advantage which can be gained in quickly identifying and adopting conceptual breakthroughs, cross-fertilisation of ideas and practical usage have seen a quantum leap in improvement and innovation at an organisational level. Unlike the late Industrial Age, in the Information or Knowledge Age the impact of a final innovation is occurring sooner as organisations realise the speed of converting conceptual ideas into applied realities is in fact an area of competitive advantage.

The incremental change to technology can be on occasions be overtaken by radical or dynamic 'breakthroughs' in technology that quickly alter existing products or processes, and may swiftly alter existing environmental conditions within which future technological innovation occurs. (Lundstedt & Colglazier, 1982:32) The more radical a 'breakthrough', the wider is the base for new or novel innovative efforts to accelerate technology change. (Lundstedt & Colglazier, 1982:54)

The 'life cycle' or stage of development of an enterprise will impact the skill mix, and what constitutes an effective manager. As managers in open systems actively seeking to improve processes and systems, a modern manager can no longer be viewed simply as controlling what exists.

ENTERPRISES CULTURAL AND STRATEGIC MATURITY

Life Cycle Stage	Key Strategic/Cultural Features
1. Embryonic	High levels of cohesion Dominant role of founder Outside help not valued Lack of procedures and planning systems Politics play an important role
2. Growth	Large variety of culture changes Levels of cohesion decline Emergence of middle management Tensions/conflict may arise in enterprises trying to get people to accept new ways of thinking Diversification of business activities Line/Staff differences
3. Maturity	Institutionalisation of values and beliefs Evolutionary rather than revolutionary changes Inertia may emerge in enterprise Strategic logic may be rejected
4. Decline	Culture may act as a defence against a hostile environment Major decisions may have to be taken Readjustment necessary

(Garavan, 1991:22)

Figure 32: Discontinuity of Innovation/ Change

(Foster, 1986:102)
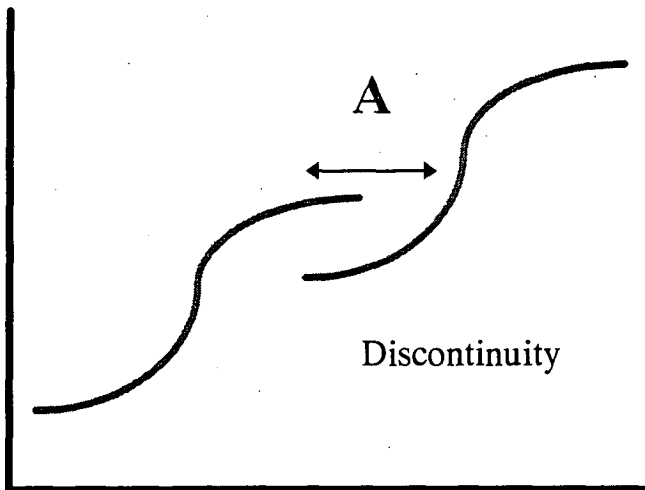
The search for a better product, procedure or idea is on-going. As identified by Foster (1986:102) "... rarely does a single technology meet all customer needs". This provides the essence of why modern managers are seen as leaders seeking to identify new opportunities and anticipate how change may impact operations. This is at odds with the view which has a manager that spends all the time controlling functions and enforcing authority structures.

As rapid change increases the pressure on organisations, more discontinuities occur between current structure, strategy, and market needs. Coupled with the move to be open and responsive to external market and customer needs, as discussed in the previous section, a manager's role has had to move away from just managing the tangible variables within the organisation's control. Increasingly, managers are managing existing actions and capacity to **enable** future outcomes to be achieved. This 'enabling' job role will be unique to the organisation, time, location and manager, but is depicted above by the discontinuity line marked A. In essence, managers will be required to achieve continuity in production by removing ambiguity and making change enhance organisation outcomes.

The Fourth Driver - Emphasising the value of human knowledge in the Information Age

In the Fifth Discipline, Peter Senge links the capacity of an enterprise to become a 'learning organisation' with its ability to obtain and hold competitive advantage. (Senge 1992) Senge depicts an organisation where individuals continually seek to expand their capacity to create desired results, where new patterns of thinking are nurtured, and where people are continually 'learning how to learn' together.

Senge's image of a learning organisation builds on a number of past theorists, especially Chris Argyris. Argyris promoted the concepts of single loop and double loop learning.

Figure 33: Single Loop- Double Loop Learning
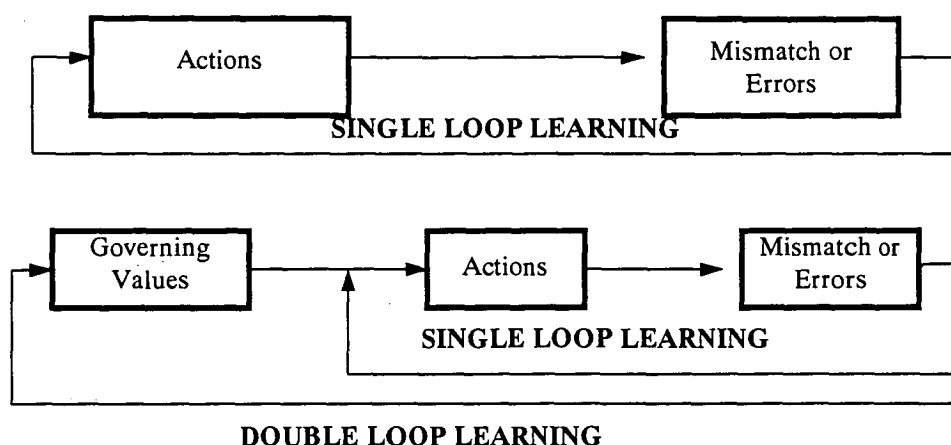
(Argyris 1990, cited in Morrison 1994:26)

Argyris saw a single loop organisation as defensive and avoiding learning. Actions of managers or staff maintained existing norms, rather than detecting errors and correcting them. Thus dynamic planning and a culture that was responsive to the environment was inhibited by the individual's capacity to learn from their actions. (Argyris & Schon, 1978:143; Argyris, 1993:193) Alternatively organisations could develop 'action strategies' to overcome their inherent organisational defenses against behaviours that inhibit responsiveness to external organisational factors (eg. customers and suppliers) (Argyris, 1993:98-99). Using such action strategies organisations were able to use learning to address the organisational culture and structure, and leadership and decision making styles to achieve improvement actions. (Argyris 1978:143; Morrison, 1994:25)

The legacy of Argyris was to instil the concept of a manager that sought and transferred knowledge throughout the organisation to ensure actions were designed to produce intended consequences. Senge promoted this vision to a strategic level, where the enterprise's competitiveness and capacity to improve was underpinned by a learning. He also believed the

learning organisation rests on its ability to recognise how learning shapes future from a shared

understanding of the 'current reality'. (Senge, 1992:250-51)

Senge's writings reinforce the approach to management education and training management

that acknowledges that intellectual capacity resides in all employees, not just management.

(Senge, 1992:350)

Garvin believed the epitome of the learning organisation will be:

> "...*skilled at creating, acquiring and transferring learning within organisation*
> *to change behaviour that stimulates new or improved performance.*" (1993:79)

Recent studies have identified learning organisation's commonly display characteristics

including the ability to:

- learn collaboratively, openly and across boundaries;
- value learning;
- invest in promoting learning;
- translate knowledge into action to gain competitive advantage;
- reinforce the importance of an individual's quest for personal, 'life-long' learning;
- encourage "experimental and seemingly tangential learning"; and
- confirm learning advantages when determining the 'bottom-line'. (Clavert, et al., 1994:41)

The features of a learning organisation fundamentally alter some organisational relationships.

Education is espoused but more greatly valued where it is contextualised to both develop the

individual and reinforce the link with enterprise outcomes. This invariably means universities

and other education providers recognise "life-long learning" must become a relationship

between the individual, the organisation and the provider to achieve workplace applications.

(Stern, 1993:3)

While organisational learning may be viewed as a means to enhance an organisation's capacity

to create a climate and culture conducive to change, the competitive advantages that may be

gained through performance improvement are seen as the immediate spur for any search to achieve this learning paradigm.

How managers use communication to shape learning and culture also serves to raise the task of communicating to a level where it impacts strategic actions. As the implications of such findings have been realised, some organisations have been producing corporate visions that are not only underpinned by more quantifiable and meaningful objectives, but are derived through a participative process of learning. These processes are in reality communication processes, conducted so management and staff not only understand the strategic goals, but are committed to their achievement through joint ownership of what they have created.

7.2. Enabling Competitiveness - National Imperatives Driving a Redefinition of Competency-Based Management Education and Training

The four factors, or drivers, that will impact collaboration (or alliance) between how governments and business revolve around those identified by Slocum and Lei. (Slocum & Lei, 1993:298-300) These are depicted in figure 34 below where National Economic and Industry policy has the capacity to use training reform to increase collaboration with enterprises. This will in turn refocus implementation measures and how competency-based management education and training is implemented.

Figure 34: Strategic Alliances and the Global Factors Enabling Increased Collaboration
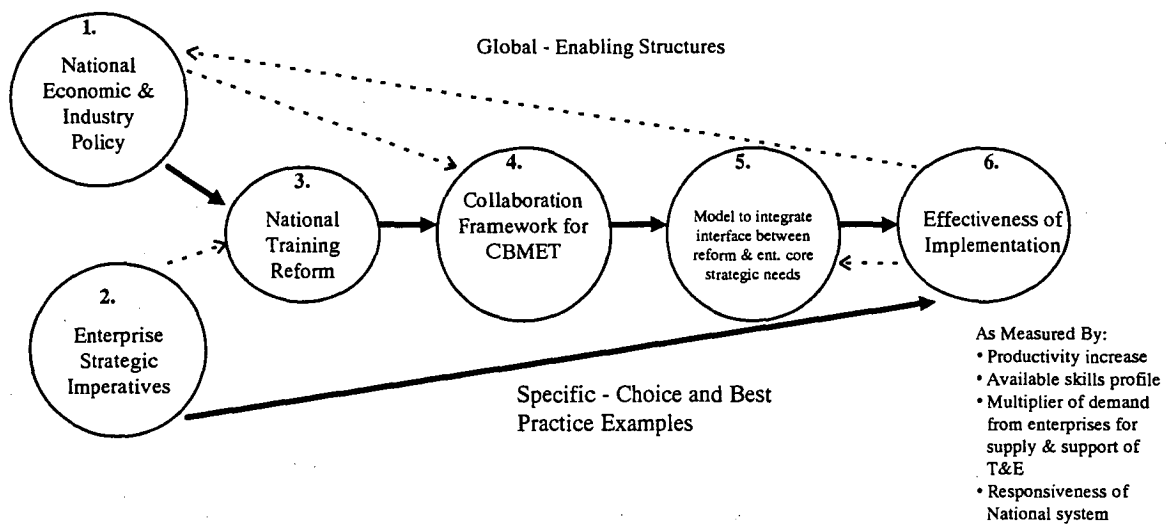
7.2.1. Factors impacting strategic collaboration

Many factors inhibit the formation of alliances that can capitalise on market opportunities. Slocum and Lei, (1993:298-300) identified four critical factors which government can address when seeking to improve the formation of strategic alliances and to raise organisational competitiveness.

The Fifth Driver - Creating Economies of Scale and Critical Mass

Forces impelling economies of scale include the need to pool resources and to share risk on development initiatives in areas such as high technology, functional and market networks; alliances between organisations with compatible skills; and the ability to provide a critical mass of resource or knowledge that can permit competitiveness. (Slocum & Lei, 1993:298) The concept of "complementary value adding" permits partners to achieve economies of scale in existing local and global market places.

National initiatives can achieve economies of scale beyond training reforms targeting the labour market and training market. Economies of scale include the transfer of learning between

enterprises. It also suggests training and education aimed at general or core competencies can achieve economies of scale that advantage enterprise competitiveness. This would occur through reducing the risk of development and ensuring resources are released from developing new broad education and training to focus on customisation or development of programs targeting specific competencies.

The Sixth Driver - Learning for New Skills and Technologies

Strategic alliances should enhance the learning and transfer of new skills and technology between partners. The scope for fostering organisational learning can be broadened to a significant extent where enterprises have multiple sources. (Prahalad & Hamel, 1990:80) Learning can also be framed in areas where enterprises have yet to acquire expertise. This may apply to high technology industries or to enterprises where new technology will radically alter processes.

This driver also can be applied to small business. This would see national effort to enable inexperienced small business managers to acquire the skills to build market share and achieve business success.

The Seventh Driver - Shaping Industry Evolution

Enterprises lacking clear views of industry evolution may fail to frame achievable long term opportunities. Strategic alliances can identify learning needs and develop competency-based management education and training programs that provide management skills to enterprises in a manner whereby they can exploit industry evolution. These strategies may also enable future industry activities to be shaped. (Slocum & Lei, 1993:299)

In a dynamic industry environment enterprises need to form learning alliances with government support to not only add value to their own strategic direction but to assist in shaping the

operating environment. Competitiveness may in fact rely upon shaping education and training that promotes research and development activities, the consolidation of an 'embryonic' or emerging industry's business viability, and presenting barriers to competition through utilisation of government funding for business improvement. (Slocum & Lei, 1993:299; Clegg, et al., 1995:1292-3)

The Eighth Driver - Reducing Risk

As costs of production and product development increase, the motivation to form alliances that reduce financial and planning risk also increases. In technology-based industries or those involving complex processes of service and product delivery, the diversity of skills and technology promote the desire to form partnerships that redistribute risk. (Slocum & Lei, 1993:300)

Reducing risk for enterprises is not easy for government to achieve. Human, institutional and, increasingly, environmental concerns group to form "soft societal factors" (Slocum & Lei, 1993:300) that will impact how enterprise partnerships are designed. These factors also greatly impact the implementation of strategic alliances both between enterprises and between enterprise(s) and government(s).

7.3. A New Conceptual Framework for Reinventing Competency-Based Management Education and Training

The factors identified by Slocum and Lei as influencing strategic alliances need to be placed into the context of this thesis. The four factors present a rational basis for examining how government may assist enterprises to achieve partnerships that will enhance competency-based management education and training. But are they compelling reasons for modern enterprises and their managers to want to seek alliances with government?

One would suggest the factors identified by Slocum and Lei would provide a satisfactory set of headings to group all the national training reform initiatives identified in Chapter 4. However each of the drivers provides greater relevance if examined in relation with the others. The means for government to enable strategic alliances promotes the examination of the drivers impelling enterprises to adopt improved ways to conduct competency-based management education and training.

Structural change has affected the relationship between modern managers and their staff. Yet while the introduction of new management philosophies, such as quality improvement strategies, has been more an evolutionary than a revolutionary change in Australia, an emphasis on the need for transformational leadership practices has resulted. There is a need for management to clearly identify not only what a quality strategy will be, but also to gain commitment from staff to make it happen. Studies around the globe are also focussing on how the interpersonal communication skills of a manager impact staff understanding and commitment to the long term success of an organisation.

Opening the organisation to external factors has immediate implications for the traditional adversarial relationships that exist between some managers/ employers and employees. Staff commitment and understanding of how to transform the total organisation is difficult to achieve on a long-term sustainable basis if mistrust remains between management and employees. Co-operative identification of quality means collaborative efforts need to be undertaken to identify, write, review and improve on process performance standards. Coupled with this exercise is the need to focus continuously on current and future customer needs and expectations. This requires a commitment to participatively establish an internal and external focus for the transformation; including an agreed vision or message of improvement 'owned' by all staff.

Whether it be the need to customise quality into an enterprise context or manage change in a more 'open' organisation the broad need for competency-based management education and training can be supported from an industry or national level. However the specific performance context still lies in the domain of the enterprise.

The imperatives driving a revision of how enterprises view the effective manager can be supported and promoted by national changes that enable competitiveness to be achieved. The conceptual framework posited in chapter 1 should reflect this fundamental revision. Reinventing competency-based management education and training based on the eight drivers or factors identified forges a new basis for collaboration between government and enterprises.

Figure 35: A Collaborative Framework using Competency-Based Management Education and Training
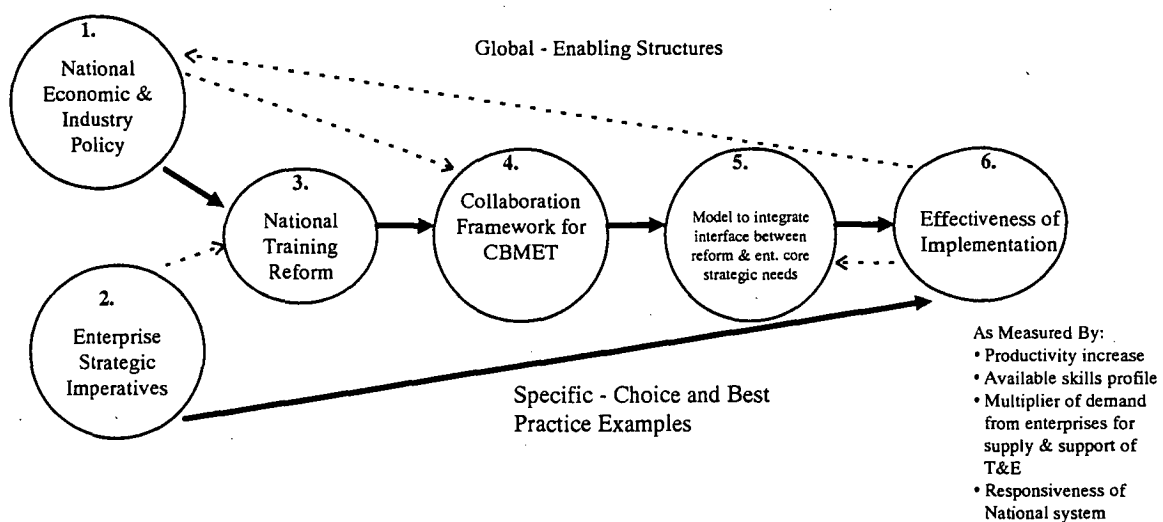
The collaboration and the model for integrating strategic need really resides on the application of the eight drivers for forging competency-based management education and training to achieve competitive advantage. Collaboration must be based on, and measured by the outcomes all parties in the process seek to achieve through implementation. In particular this must include the enterprise and the manager within that enterprise.

This approach would be translate into action through the reinvented basis for competency-based management education and training. Enterprise and national needs could be encompassed through current performance capacity involves a combination of:

1. **Traits**   are competencies which individual managers generally acquire, assimilate and gain from processing information and interpreting the world around them.

2. **Roles**   denotes the common competencies for performance or performance outcomes achieved by managers within functional or occupational boundaries, or those acquired within a defined performance situation.

3. **Task Competency**   is here defined as specific Knowledge, Skills, that shape behaviour or define individual task performance.

8. Integrating National and Enterprise Needs through Competency - Based Management Education and Training

This chapter will seek to highlight how a strategic focus in the process of developing standards and a competency-based management education and training system can promote an enterprise's quest to achieve the drivers impelling local and global reform. This chapter stands somewhat outside the central thesis but aims to illustrate how one enterprise, Purity Supermarkets as part of Woolworths Limited, built on the existing theory of management development and the national requirements for implementing competency-based systems. This promoted a need to totally revise existing approaches to competency-based management education and training. The implementation of the revised competency-based management education and training model in 1995 has been identified as best practice in Australasia by an international benchmarking study. It also received recognition as best practice in Competency-Based Training Implementation by the Australian National Training Authority.

The examination of the Purity Supermarket approach evidences how it is possible to bridge the existing dichotomy between enterprise strategic needs and the challenge for Australia to be globally competitive. But extending this thesis beyond the heuristic it is possible to view the impact of a reinvented approach to competency-based management education and training that embraces training reform while still achieving enterprise strategic imperatives.

8.1. An Integrated Enterprise Approach to Competency-Based Management Education and Training

Under a reinvented approach to Competency-Based Management Education and Training, it must be acknowledged that the starting point for defining competencies, and especially defining management competencies, is in the enterprise's specific performance context. This starting point recognises that the successful promotion of competency-based education and training to improve national competitiveness cannot occur without fostering enterprise involvement.

Initial concentration on the enterprise performance context does not preclude considerations about national competitiveness and wider industry policy imperatives. Reflecting on the actual process of identifying competencies, we need to acknowledge that national alignment of standards is the key point where initial collaboration can occur between global/ national concerns and enterprise specific needs.

Figure 36: A Collaborative Basis for Reinventing Competency-Based Management Education and Training
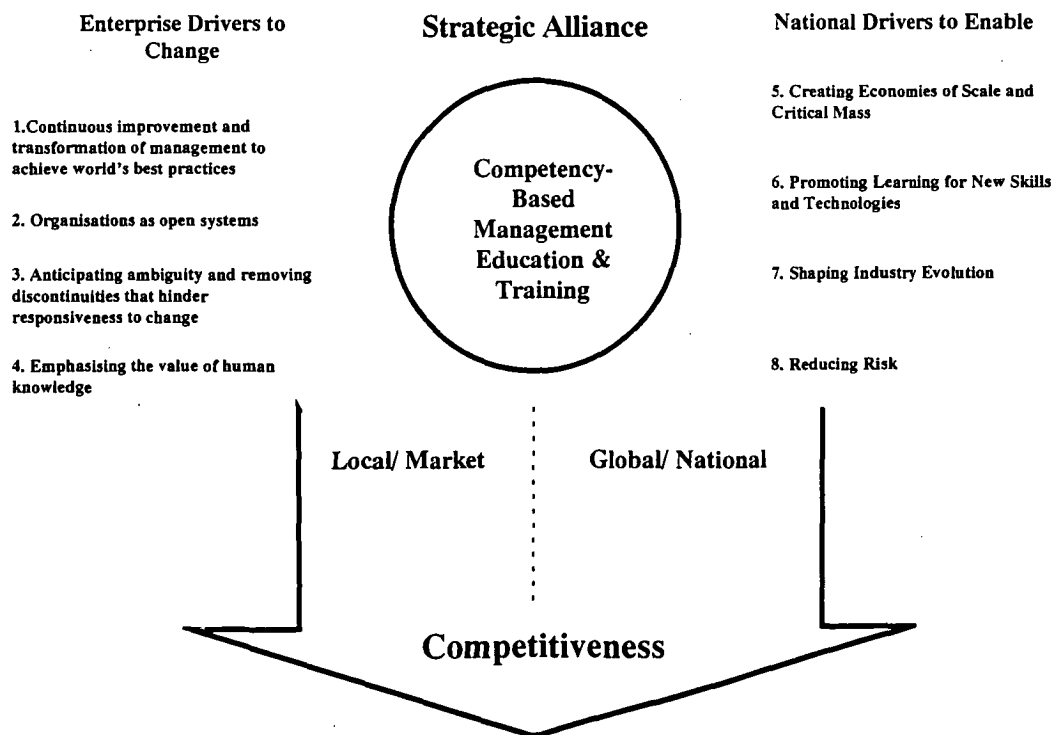
The process of achieving competency-based management education and training that is relevant does not reside solely with the enterprise, or with the national system. The concept of strategic alliance depicted in Figure 36 above highlights the 'drivers' that should encourage collaboration.

The process for identification of competencies for a specific enterprise's managers, as outlined in Figure 37 below, stresses the need to integrate corporate, process and individual level outcomes. This spans the core, general and specific competencies within the performance context. The existence of competencies core to management roles, and general competencies relating to broad traits of management, extends the enterprise's search for competencies beyond the boundaries of the enterprise. Certainly, the existence of industry management standards indicates coverage of functions and occupational roles common to many managers. Equally, the Karpin Committee and national management bodies' push for greater emphasis on management development has improved the focus on the broad, generic or general traits of an effective manager.

As the study so far has highlighted real value-adding at an enterprise level can only occurs where the specific performance requirements of the enterprise are also addressed. As part of a national system, competencies need to reflect the applied performance required to achieve the unique outcomes specific to an enterprise. These also reflect the competitive differentiation all enterprises require to obtain to strengthen their unique competitive advantages.

Figure 37: An Integrated process for identifying enterprise competencies

```
                    ┌─────────────────────┐
                    │ Enterprise Strategic│──────┐
            ┌──────▶│    Imperatives      │      │
            ╎       └─────────────────────┘      │
            ╎                 │                   │
            ╎                 ▼                   │
            ╎       ┌─────────────────────┐      │
            ╎       │ Determine Enterprise│      │  Corporate Level
            ╎       │ Evolution and Future│      │
            ╎       │    Opportunities    │      │
            ╎       └─────────────────────┘      │
            ╎                 │                   │
            ╎                 ▼                   │
            ╎       ┌─────────────────────┐      │
            ╎       │  Identify Functions │      │
   Review   ╎       └─────────────────────┘──────┘
            ╎                 │                         ┐
            ╎                 ▼                         │
            ╎       ┌─────────────────────┐            │
            ╎       │ Identify Job Duties │            │
            ╎       │ and tasks in        │            │
            ╎       │ behavioural         │            │  Process/ Team
            ╎       │ outcomes - skills,  │            │  Level
            ╎       │ knowledge and       │            │
            ╎       │ attitudes           │            │
            ╎       └─────────────────────┘            │
            ╎                 │                         │
            ╎      ┌ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─┼─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ┐            │
            ╎      ╎   ┌──────────────┐    ╎            │
            ╎      ╎   │   General    │    ╎            ┘
            ╎      ╎   └──────────────┘    ╎
            ╎      ╎   ┌──────────────┐    ╎            ┐
            ╎      ╎   │    Core      │    ╎            │
            ╎      ╎   └──────────────┘    ╎            │
            ╎      ╎   ┌──────────────┐    ╎            │
            ╎      ╎   │   Specific   │    ╎            │
            ╎      ╎   └──────────────┘    ╎            │
            ╎      └ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─┼─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ┘            │  Individual Level
            ╎                 ▼                         │
            ╎       ┌─────────────────────┐            │
            ╎       │ Compose an          │            │
            ╎       │ enterprise profile  │            │
            └ ─ ─ ─ ┤ of standards listing│            │
                    │ the levels and      │            │
                    │ cross-referencing   │            │
                    │ with other industry │            │
                    │ competency standards│            │
                    └─────────────────────┘            ┘
```

8.1.1. Basing Competency-Based Management Education and Training on Standards that Enhance Strategic Outcomes

Figure 38: Integrating the three levels of performance outcomes

© Huon Institute - 1993
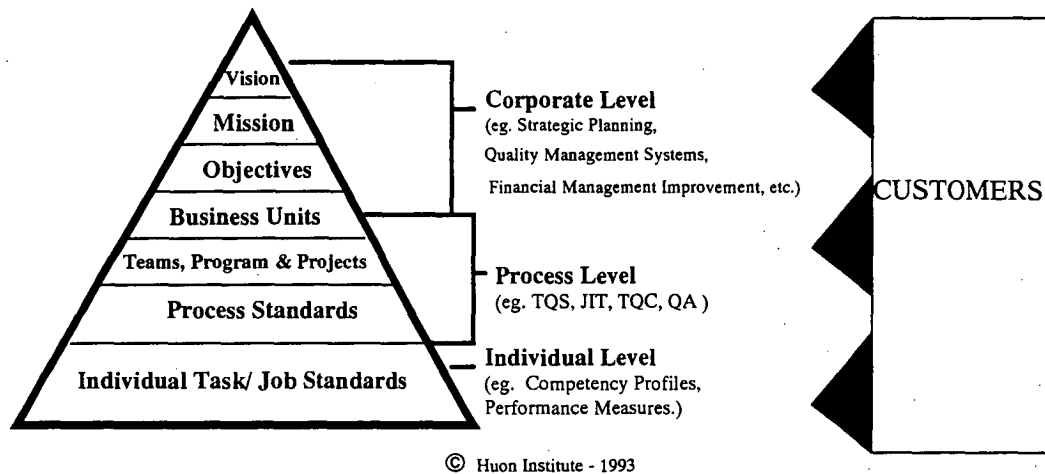
The above diagram represents the small leap in management perception and practice that is required to generate integration between individual performance outcomes and enterprise strategic directions. This suggests that any attempt to finalise a competency-based management education and training strategy that is intent upon integrating strategic goals with performance, cannot ignore the variations in context that will impact an individual's performance within a specific job.

The concept of competencies becoming standards defined to a national requirement endorsed by the independent National Training Board - now the Standards and Curriculum Council of the Australian National Training Authority - integrates well within those represented in the above diagram. Standards at corporate/enterprise, process or program levels are the means to define performance and to remove variations in relation to the business outcome. The addition of individual standards of performance, integrated with corporate and process level outcomes

reinforces quality practices and standards of behaviour for individuals completing job duties or tasks that achieve process outcomes.

Standards of individual performance, the defined competencies, can be framed with regard to productivity or wider strategic/corporate imperatives. The chart below depicts the features of productivity identified by Fred Hilmer (1991). It is possible to tie individual competency descriptors to such outcomes. Therefore, when individual and team competency standards are assessed, it is also possible to support efforts to assess productivity outcomes.

Figure 39: The Features of Productivity

RODUCTIVITY

COST
— Direct Labour
— Overheads
— Material, Energy
— Sales & Distribution
— Capital

VALUE
— Design
— Quality
— Service
— Image

TIMELINESS
— Responsiveness
— Innovation
— Reliability
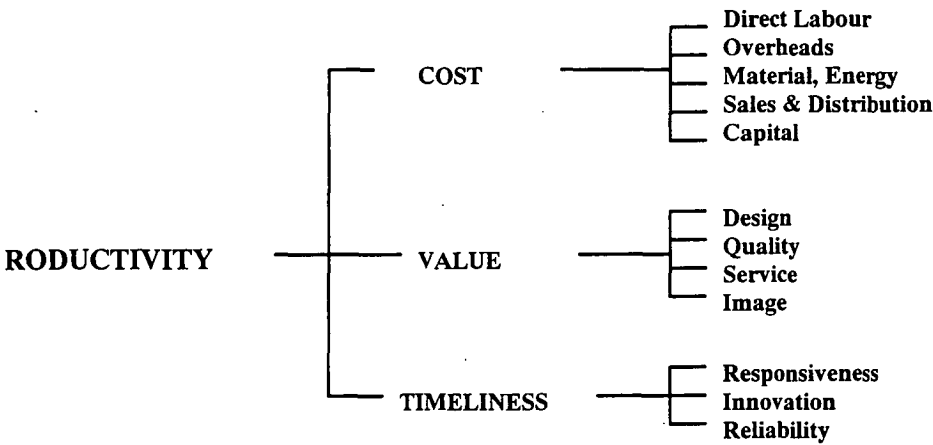
(Hilmer, October 1991)

An individual manager's competency descriptor may include core competency units that would seem to have broad coverage in the relevant industry area. However the standards of performance as defined by the elements and performance can be customised to reflect specific enterprise needs. (Purity Supermarkets, 1995) The national standards advanced by an enterprise for endorsement by The National Training Board can contain the behavioural outcomes that meet company outcomes. As evidenced below, the performance criteria, when considered with the elements, form a performance requirement that also reflect core cultural

and strategic philosophies within the company. The example provided below is extracted from

Purity Supermarkets (Woolworths) endorsed competency standards. (Purity Supermarkets,

1995:57)

Solve Department Operational Problems

ELEMENTS	PERFORMANCE CRITERIA
1. Identify operational problems	• Potential problems are anticipated • Department operational problems are identified • Parameters of the problem are correctly determined
2. Investigate the problem	• Information is sourced on the problem • Alternative solutions to the problem are examined
3. Predict the outcome of alternative solutions	• Problem solution is detailed • Resolution of the problem is monitored and managed • Problem is solved
4. Improve Department operations	• Problem re occurrence is prevented within the immediate operational cycle

Range of Variables

Communication includes oral, written and non-verbal communication and requires account to be taken of the differences between people, especially in relation to their cultural, racial and ethnic backgrounds, physical requirements, gender, languages, customs and religious beliefs.

Problem solving will be impacted by the complexity of the problem, available resources, routine or non-routine nature, and community/ enterprise commitment to resolution.

Evidence Guide

CONTEXT
For credit to be given to this Unit for performance attainment, all the nominated performance criteria must be consistently demonstrated over the agreed range of variables in real or simulated workplace conditions. Evidence requirements include the following:

• demonstrated adherence of department operations to planned store requirements; and
• ability to obtain and give clear instructions related to problem description and resolution.

8.1.2. Competency-Based Management Education and Training Needs to Build New Futures

Any approach to competency-based management education and training has to recognise the

dynamic role individual learning plays in an organisational improvement or attainment of

future competitive positions. Much as described in the 'learning organisation' concepts, a

CBMET model can promote the transition of an organisation from current realities to new

futures. (Senge, 1992:250) This implies the process of identifying and developing

competencies through education and training. The learning and management capability of

individuals at different levels of the enterprise will impact the actions required to achieve

desired outcomes.

To define the performance context we need to firstly establish:

- the maturity of the enterprise;
- the transformation stage of the enterprise; and
- the culture and climate the results from the above.

Compiling the above information will give focus on what the competency-based management

education and training strategies should be.

FOUR STAGES OF TRANSFORMATION FOR ENTERPRISES

	STAGE 1 "TRADITIONAL" CONCEPTS	STAGE 2 DOING BETTER WITH LESS?	STAGE 3 DISTINCTIVE COMPETENCE ACHIEVED	STAGE 4 WORLD-CLASS PRACTICES
CUSTOMER FOCUS	Customers patronise service firm for reasons other than performance.	Customers neither seek out nor avoid the firm.	Customers seek out the firm based on its sustained reputation for meeting customer expectations.	The company's name is synonymous with service. Its service or products doesn't just satisfy customers; it delights them, and thereby expands customer expectations to a levels its competitors are unable to fill.
OPERATIONS	Operation is at best reactive.	Operations functions in a mediocre, uninspired fashion.	Operations continually excel, reinforced by personnel management and systems that support a focus on continually improving and reducing variations, complexity and cost.	Operations is a quick learner and a fast innovator; it masters every step of the service-delivery process and provides capabilities that are superior to competitors.
QUALITY	Is subsidiary to cost, highly variable.	Meets some customer expectations, consistent on one or two key dimensions.	Exceeds customer expectations; consistent on multiple dimensions.	Raises customer expectations and seeks challenges; improves continuously.
BACK OFFICE	Counting room.	Contributes to service; plays an important role in the total service; is given attention, but is still a separate role.	Is equally valued with front office; plays an integral role.	Is proactive; develops its own capabilities and generates opportunities.

(Modified from McDonnell, 1993:47)

What we can do is actually measure the transformation of an enterprise and its cultural and

strategic maturity. It is also possible to link this examination to managers' perceptions. The

individual scores and the perceptions of each manager can be compared. Equally, the overall

scores of each level of management and staff can be plotted and cross-compared to examine different staff perceptions.

Establishing the current transformation of the enterprise can be established by mapping perceptions regarding:

- the enterprise's current culture and strategic frameworks from all levels of the organisation;

- the individual's style of management and

- the discontinuities between the management styles (individual and by function/process/area) which can be contrasted with the styles required to achieve current context outcomes and lead the organisational transformation to meet future realities.

Knowing the transformation stage of the enterprise can actually enhance the formation of competency standards based on those skills required by managers to achieve the required changes.

8.1.3. Converting Competencies into an Enterprise Strategic Tool

The Enterprise Performance Standards Profile (EPSP) represents all the competencies identified for the nominated functional areas or processes within the enterprise. It includes the job duties (Units of Competency), tasks (Elements of Competency), the task outcome descriptions (performance criteria), the range of variables and the knowledge and/or performance evidence an assessor or training designer may need to consider within different work contexts.

Figure 40: Enterprise Competencies as a Performance Standards Profile
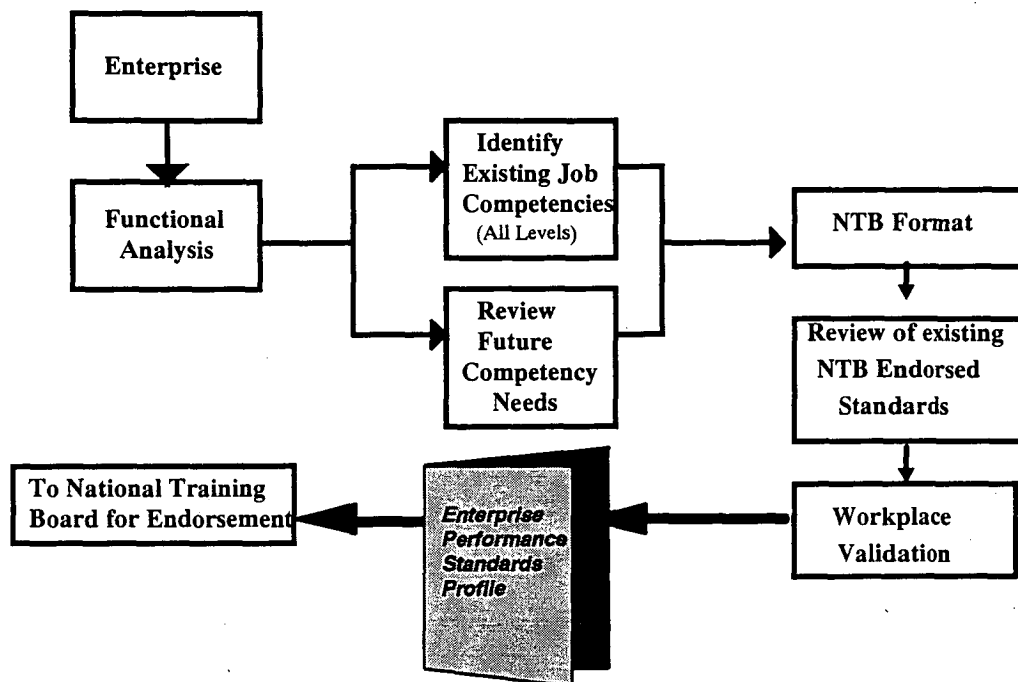
NB: The National Training Board became part of the Standards and Curriculum Council of The Australian National Training Authority in July 1995

The format of an EPSP can be made consistent with the national guidelines if later registration as national enterprise standards is a desired step.

The whole process of implementing a EPSP and mapping its application at individual, group and company profiling against the main records, training design and delivery, and recording competency attainment at all levels can be completed on an information management system.

8.2. Implementing An Enterprise Performance Standards Profile (EPSP) as a Strategic Tool - The Purity Supermarkets Example

Purity Supermarkets is an enterprise within Woolworths (Australia) Limited which undertook a project that allows a brief examination of the previous chapters findings in an applied study. The Purity Supermarket standards not only encompassed management competencies, but saw competencies as part of the management system. The competencies became national enterprise

standards in February 1995, and the basis for nationally recognised training across all levels of

the Australian Qualifications Framework in August 1995. This occurred within, and in

conformance with national guidelines promoting training reform.

However, Purity Supermarkets primarily developed a Service Standards Profile Document as

an integrated tool supporting strategic and staff development. This underpins their efforts to

improve Service Quality.

Purity Supermarkets adopted training reform guidelines because they also integrated five ways

to improve the business systems.

A COMPETENCY-BASED
PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT SYSTEM

Conduct Training

Assess competency-based
education and training
(Against criteria derived from
EPSP & agreed in individual-
position competency alignment
or competency audit)

Record individual competency
to form training plan
outcomes for
- individual
- team/ process
- region
- company

**Enterprise Competency
Standards Identification
Methodology**

Evaluate & Update

Training Design
- **Modules**
- **Courses**

Enterprise Performance Standards Profile

Enterprise Competency
Defect Identified
- Identify Training Needs
- individual, team &
company training plans

Profile individuals against
prefered jobs
(eg. recruitment, development,
selection, succession planning.)

Profile Individual's
Against Position Profiles
(ie. Training Needs/
Recognise Prior Learning/
Performance Appraisal)

Renew Position
Descriptions
(Job Renewal)

**Profile Individual's
Against Relevant EPSP units
(ie. Skills/ Competency Audit)**
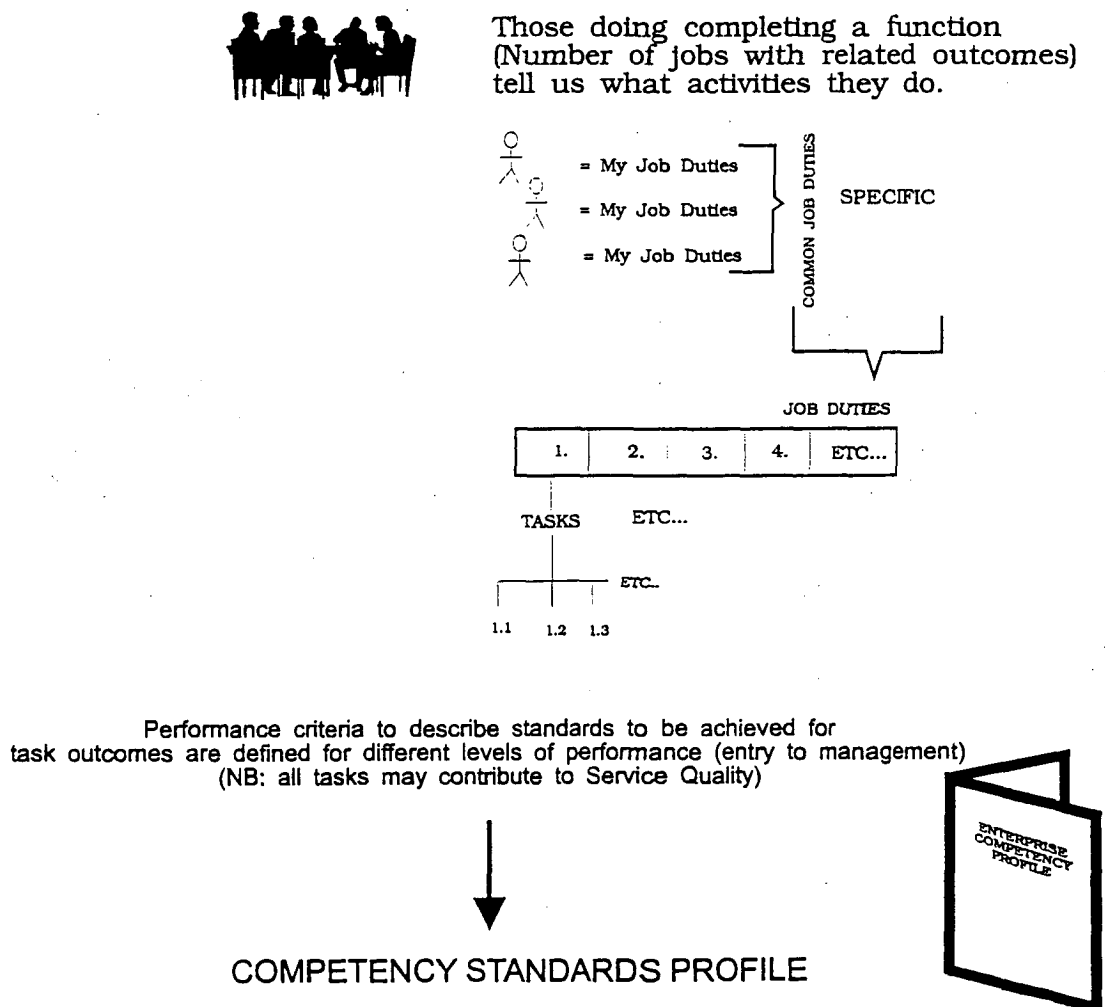
**Profile Existing
Positions Against
Standards**

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8.2.1. Descriptions of service standard or job performance are determined by those doing the job.

This will mean that the expectations for the job and the basis for training people for the job are written by those already doing the job. One job description will no longer 'fit all', but a collection of job duties can be packaged to describe what is actually required in employment.

Figure 41: Competency Identification as a Communication Process

Those doing completing a function
(Number of jobs with related outcomes)
tell us what activities they do.

= My Job Duties
= My Job Duties
= My Job Duties

COMMON JOB DUTIES

SPECIFIC

JOB DUTIES

| 1. | 2. | 3. | 4. | ETC... |

TASKS   ETC...

ETC.

1.1   1.2   1.3

Performance criteria to describe standards to be achieved for
task outcomes are defined for different levels of performance (entry to management)
(NB: all tasks may contribute to Service Quality)

ENTERPRISE
COMPETENCY
PROFILE

COMPETENCY STANDARDS PROFILE

8.2.2. Tie individual performance to continuous business performance improvement:

The Purity Service Standards can better profile everyone's job using common descriptions that can then recognise actual skills held, or can target training to meet specific needs. There should be no need to retrain where an individual is already competent, or to not recognise the skills already held (no matter where or how you acquired them) when moving between Departments, stores or when applying for a new job.
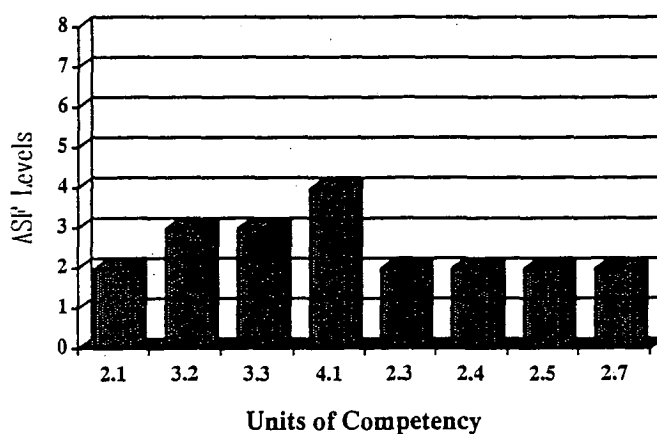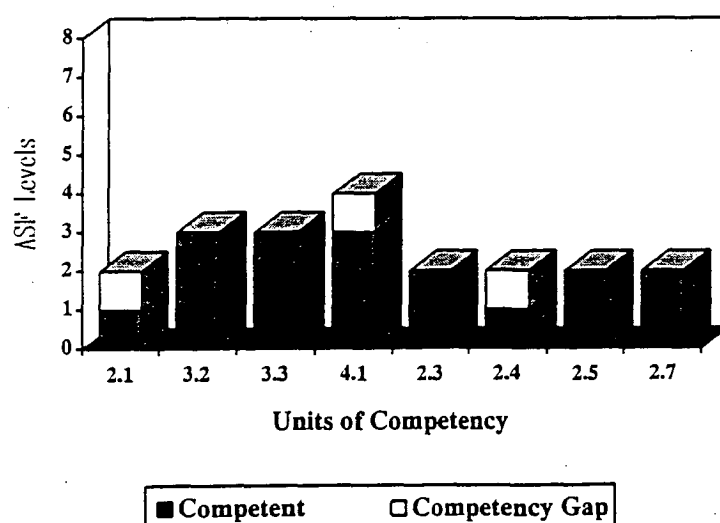
Figure 42: Skills Profile for a Job

Units of Competency

Figure 43: Person and Position Profiling to Determine Job Training Needs

Units of Competency

| ■ Competent | □ Competency Gap |

NB: All identifying numbers for the units of competency are listed and derived from the Service Standards Profile Document. The above process will also target recruitment, selection and succession planning activities.
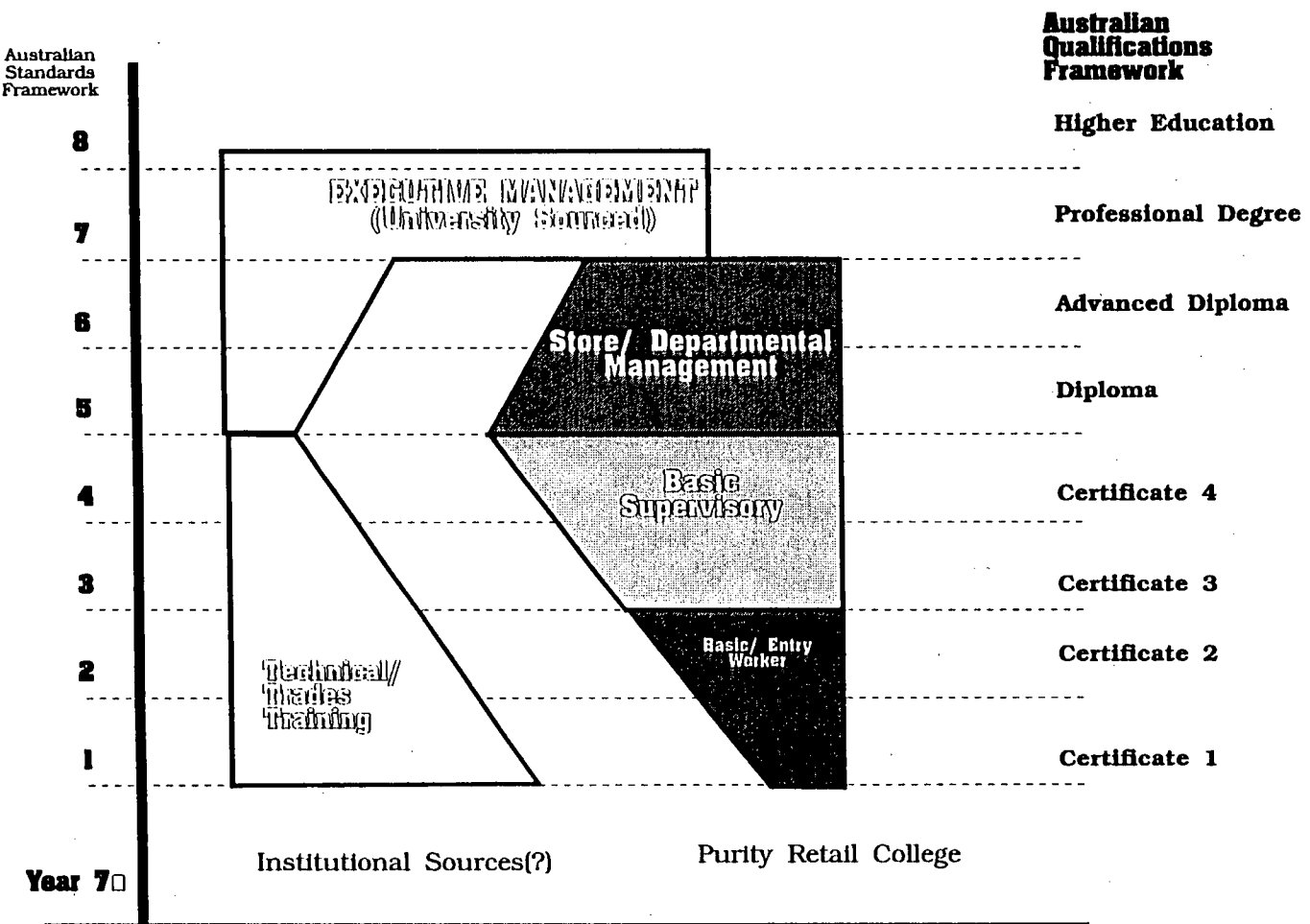
8.2.3. Promote and continually improve job performance linked to corporate outcomes

JOB DESCRIPTION FORMAT	An example drawn from existing job descriptions

Store:

Department:

Team / Group:

> ◆ How the function fits into the corporate system
> ◆ The internal and external 'client' relationship
> ◆ The Performance context and the functions importance.

Position:

Grade:

Award/Agreement:

Responsible to:

Positions supervised:

Enterprise Team Membership:

Purpose/ Position Specifications	Overall outcomes, expectations of incumbent and position responsibilities in brief.

Responsibilities and Accountabilities	Results achieved and supported through. ....

Communication and Influence -
(Job and Performance Context and Indicators)

> ◆ Measures of job performance.
> ◆ Up dated in annual Performance Work Plan.
> ◆ KRA(s) linked into individual performance requirements

KRA Responsibilities
{Number from Corporate Plan and/ or Number from Business or Work Team Plan}

Job Performance Indicators
{List or attach Job Performance Plan}

> Performance described in terms of Quality, cost, time or human elements. Standards described may be from quality outcomes.

Position Competencies

1

1.1
1.2
1.3

> ◆ Job competencies described for job duties and tasks required by person achieving job performance outcomes/ standards
> ◆ Can be a list of numbers that parallel Enterprise Service Standards Profile.

2

2.1
2.2
2.3

3

3.1
3.2

ETC....

8.2.4. Offer nationally recognised qualifications

Attainment of individual competence and specific workplace performance can be linked to

formal qualifications for all employees in Purity Supermarkets. (ie. beyond traineeships/

apprenticeships and integrating store level management into post-graduate university courses)
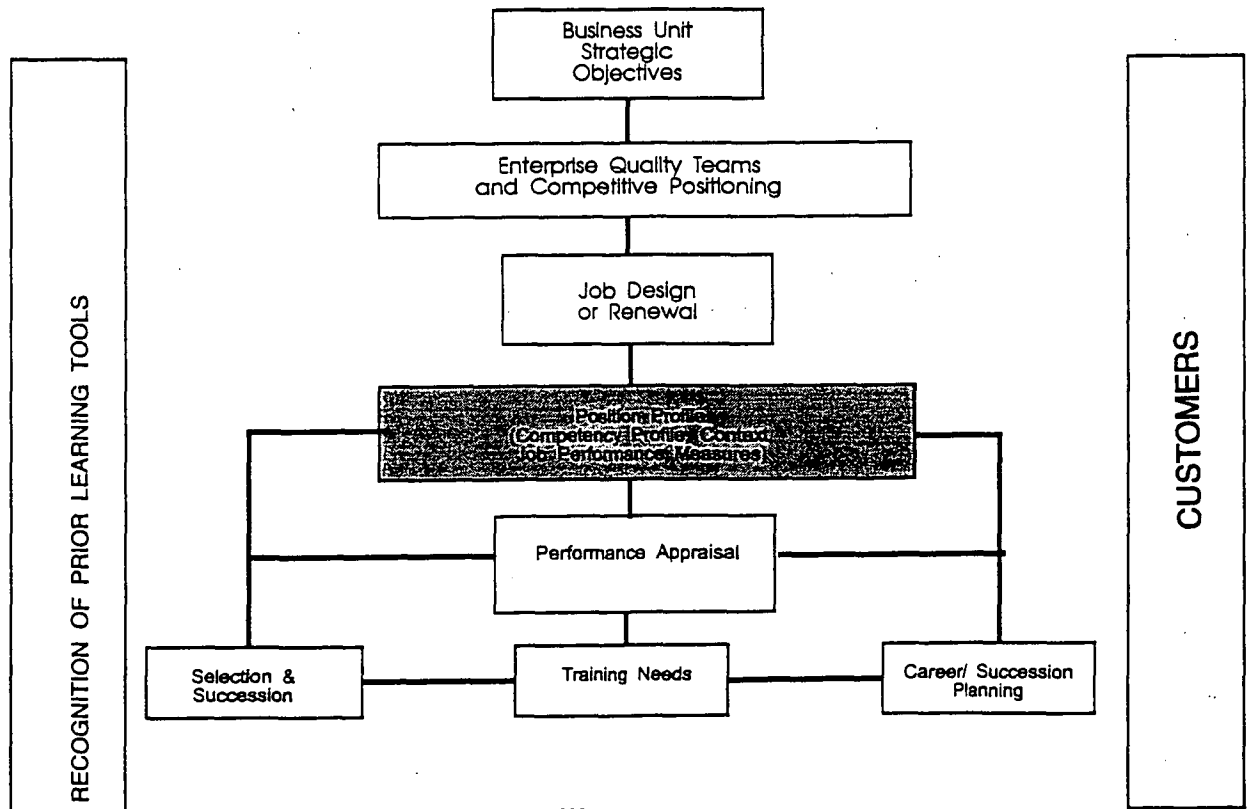
Figure 44: Recognising Woolworths Competency Based Education and Training Under the Australian Qualifications Framework

Australian Qualifications Framework

Higher Education

Professional Degree

Advanced Diploma

Diploma

Certificate 4

Certificate 3

Certificate 2

Certificate 1

Australian Standards Framework

8
7
6
5
4
3
2
1

Year 7□

EXECUTIVE MANAGEMENT (University Sourced)

Store/ Departmental Management

Basic Supervisory

Basic/ Entry Worker

Technical/ Trades Training

Institutional Sources(?)   Purity Retail College

8.2.5. Support and promote other outcome focussed strategic management activities

Purity Supermarkets were able better integrate recruitment, selection and job design activities under one standards-based approach. This also impacted job design, the formation of teams, and training within a quality service environment.

Figure 45: Enterprise Competency Standards and Selection, Recruitment and Human Resource Planning

Business Unit Strategic Objectives

Enterprise Quality Teams and Competitive Positioning

Job Design or Renewal

Position Profile (Competency Profile, Contract Job Performance Measures)

Performance Appraisal

Selection & Succession

Training Needs

Career/ Succession Planning

RECOGNITION OF PRIOR LEARNING TOOLS

CUSTOMERS

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Purity Supermarkets could also use the profiling of an individual and a position to better focus the use of performance appraisals. With clear standards depicting performance requirements for a position appraisal processed focussed on confirming gaps between individual standards of performance and position requirements. They could enhance goal alignment between corporate, process and individual standards of performance, and enable individuals to identify personal development requirements.

Figure 46: Enterprise Competency Standards and Recognition of Attainment (Performance Appraisal and Review)

PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL AND SUPPORT SYSTEMS
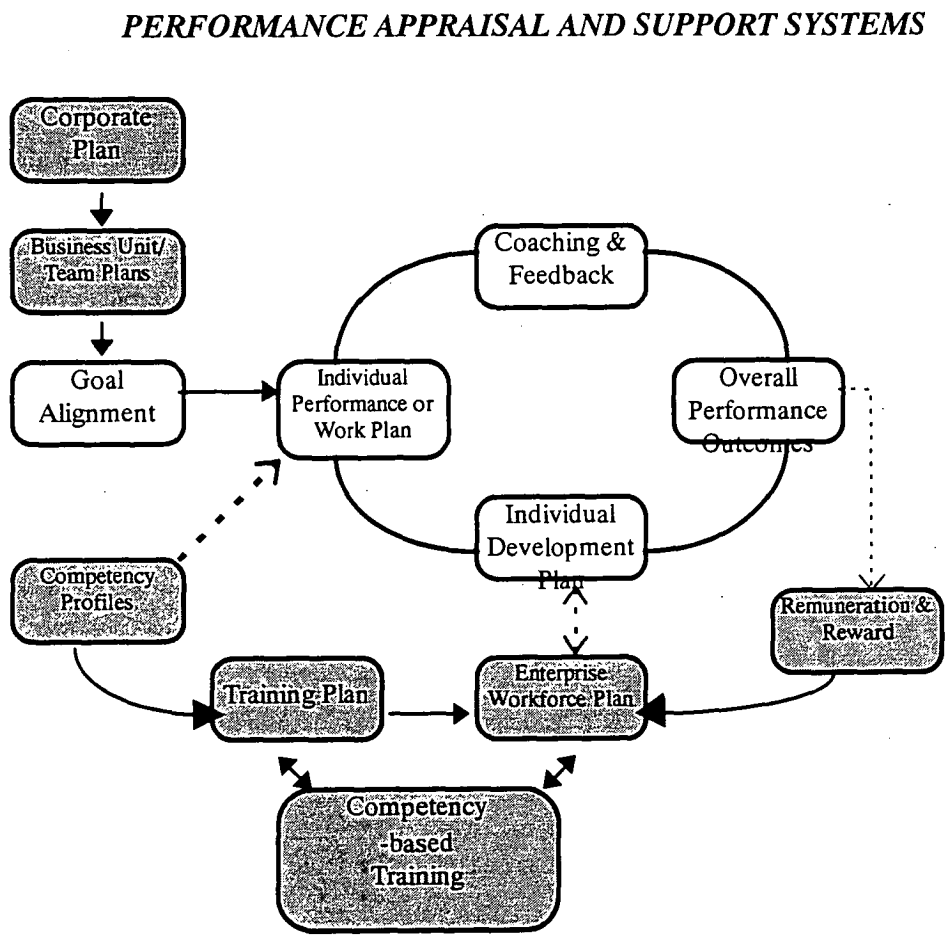
8.3. Implementation Framework for Competency-Based Management Education and Training

Purity Supermarkets Service Standards could be used as a strategic tool while also meeting the stated requirements for developing standards and curriculum as determined by the bodies administering national training reform. However the existing approaches to management development under this system had to be renewed.
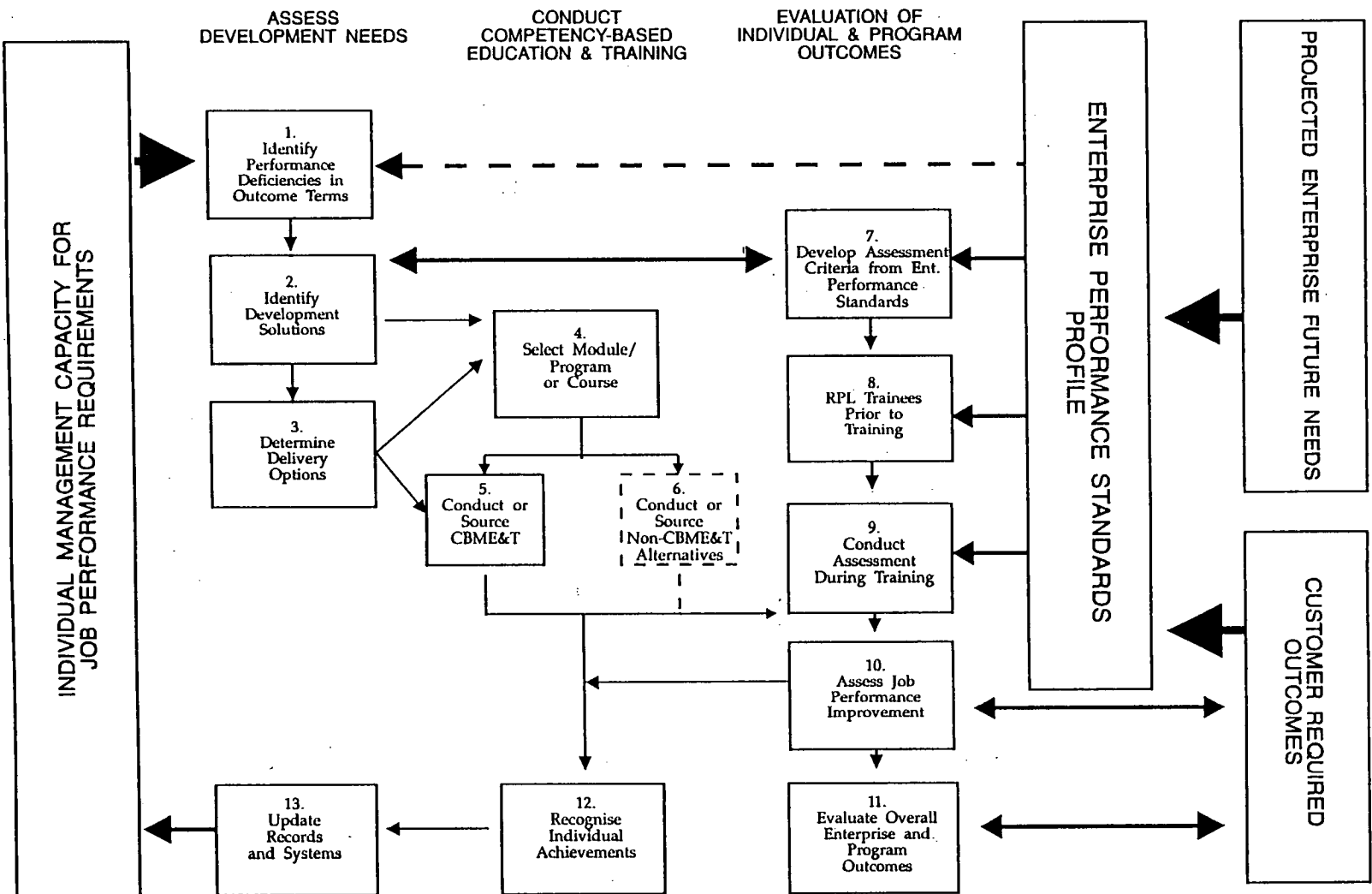
Translating the theory of what constitutes an effective manager and how to conduct competency-based management education and training became a major issue. The problem was resolved by reinventing existing approaches to competency-based management education and training.

What was determined was that any implemented Competency-Based Management Education and Training Model must have an assessment, delivery and evaluation process that was flexible and able to be adapted to different corporate or process outcomes.

Management performance requirements were clearly established once service standards were drafted. The differentiation of core, general and specific competencies then further refined the nature of the solution required if individual performance was not to the required or anticipated standard. Core competencies reflected broader functional roles of an effective manager, general competencies tended to not appear as these reflected very generic traits required by all managers regardless of the enterprise, and specific competencies tended to receive significant emphasis as they represented the competencies required to perform the tasks within particular job roles.

What eventuated was a model for competency-based management education and training that reflects the foundations outlined in the Chapter 7 study on reinventing competency-based management education and training, and was responsive to the enterprise's external environment.

ASSESS
DEVELOPMENT NEEDS

CONDUCT
COMPETENCY-BASED
EDUCATION & TRAINING

EVALUATION OF
INDIVIDUAL & PROGRAM
OUTCOMES

PROJECTED ENTERPRISE FUTURE NEEDS

ENTERPRISE PERFORMANCE STANDARDS PROFILE

INDIVIDUAL MANAGEMENT CAPACITY FOR
JOB PERFORMANCE REQUIREMENTS

CUSTOMER REQUIRED OUTCOMES

1.
Identify
Performance
Deficiencies in
Outcome Terms

2.
Identify
Development
Solutions

3.
Determine
Delivery
Options

4.
Select Module/
Program
or Course

5.
Conduct or
Source
CBME&T

6.
Conduct or
Source
Non-CBME&T
Alternatives

7.
Develop Assessment
Criteria from Ent.
Performance
Standards

8.
RPL Trainees
Prior to
Training

9.
Conduct
Assessment
During Training

10.
Assess Job
Performance
Improvement

11.
Evaluate Overall
Enterprise and
Program
Outcomes

12.
Recognise
Individual
Achievements

13.
Update
Records
and Systems

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8.3.1. Part 1: Assess Development Needs

1. Identify Performance Deficiencies

As examined in Step 6 of the overall CBMET approach, the individual can be profiled by comparing current personal competency and the job related competencies. Both sets of competency descriptions would be derived from the Enterprise Performance Standards Profile (EPSP). This may occur for new recruits or for a existing employees. It involves the skills of the individual being profiled against a given job or mix of required competencies in a Recognition of Prior Learning exercise. Such an exercise may be a one-off interview conducted by management nominees or human resource/training nominees.

More likely is the use, where they exist, of established performance appraisal mechanisms to identify development opportunities. These are derived from gaps between current competencies held by the individual and:

- existing performance requirements;
- future performance requirements identified by the enterprise; and/or
- future performance capabilities required by the individual for personal needs.

2. Identify Development Solutions

As part of a structured exercise, the second step in the Assessment of Development Deficiencies would require the individual and the person conducting the competency assessment to set development requirements for a given period. At this point, the identification of available development options and of their timing could be determined in conjunction with established organisational training systems.

If conducted as part of a formal appraisal process, the recording of development solutions and responsibilities for actions resulting from the agreed solutions would need to be recorded and confirmed.

Where development options exist outside current enterprise's capacity to resolve, these need to be flagged and forwarded to those responsible for designing, delivering and evaluating existing and future CBMET programs.

3. Determine Delivery Options

Delivery options for development strategies will vary. Some solutions identified in step 2 above will immediately indicate whether it is possible to complete the options on- or off-the-job.

13. Update Records and Systems

This is the final formal stage in the CBMET implementation model. It falls in the Assessment of Development Needs, because it signifies the 'signing off' of the original development need, and the acknowledgment that the specific development need has been satisfied.

At this point, the data base used should be capable of using the same set of data to record:

- individual competency acquisition top the described standard;
- personal, departmental, and enterprise competency profiles;
- existing training or competency needs;
- CBMET delivery (modules) actions;
- success of CBMET actions undertaken; and
- qualification gained by students.

8.3.2. Part 2: Conduct Competency-Based Management Education and Training

4.   Select Module/ Program or course

A fully integrated CBMET program will require existing competency-based training and education options and availability be communicated to those parties when they formally assess development needs (Part 1 above page 164).

The selection of modules or programs should reflect participants' knowledge of the competency outcomes achieved by the available variety of development options. It must be recognised that some options may not involve competency outcomes. As such, step 5 and 6 below may necessitate different measures of outcomes to be determined.

The choice of competency-based management education and training alternatives should ensure successful completion equates with the closure of the development outcomes formally identified in Part 1.

5.   Conduct or Source CBMET

At this step, CBMET is conducted in the enterprise or sourced in a structured manner from external providers that can provide the material and expertise requirements, to achieve the program or course outcomes.

6.   Source Alternative Development Option

Non- CBMET alternatives may be formally offered or structured for employees. Strategies which, for example, offer job rotations to provide an individual with novel work experiences, or exposure to philosophies of various management theories may be hard to frame in competency outcome terms. While not diminishing the value of these alternatives, where they

are not based on standards of performance, they may not provide explicit behavioural changes that can necessarily be mapped into strategic performance outcomes.

12. Recognise Individual Achievements

As established in Chapter 6, the recognition and rewarding of competency attainment provides a direct and powerful stimulant for many individuals undertaking workplace learning. While the conduct of CBMET, or the granting of recognition of prior learning (RPL) requires rigorous and consistent assessment as detailed in Part 3 of the model, the recognition of individual achievement can be based on the links between each CBMET module, program or course and formal qualifications.

Completion of development strategies can be integrated with credit, or with progression towards qualifications. Thus the assessment of CBMET can meet recognition requirements for an individual, the enterprise, the Australian National (Vocational Education and Training) Qualifications Framework, and, potentially, University qualifications.

In enterprise terms, recognition of competency attainment can underpin the progression towards full competency in a job role or at a level of employment, progression to another level of employment, or can become the basis for other rewards.

8.3.3. Part 3: Evaluate Individual and Program Outcomes

7. Develop Assessment Criteria from Enterprise Performance Profile

The overall evaluation of the CBMET Model requires a dual emphasis on the individual and the whole program. This is an acknowledgment that a failure to deliver individual outcomes to meet changing or established performance standards will, in effect, reflect the overall success of the development strategies adopted.

In the first step, the assessment criteria for individuals or CBMET options are directly based on the EPSP document. This ensures that the development of CBMET modules, programs or courses is based on identified development solutions required in the enterprise.

The subsequent design of CBMET options and associated delivery mechanisms is framed to ensure that they meet the outcomes identified in the development needs phase which are confirmed by the assessment phase.

8. RPL of Trainees Prior to Training

Where an individual already believes they hold a competency identified as a developmental need, they may seek to gain assessment against the criteria established in Step 7. and applied in Step 9. when CBMET outcomes are assessed.

Recognition of Prior Learning would enable the individual who successfully completes Step 9. and Step 10. to gain formal recognition of those competencies (Step 12.).

CBMET programs, modules or courses may not have to be formally commenced or completed in this situation.

Alternatively, this step may be applied to predetermine the levels of competency a future student or class may hold. This enables pre-training and post-training assessment to map real competency acquisition in individual and groups terms. Unnecessary training may also be avoided in favour of more targeted alternatives.

9. Conduct Assessment During Training

This step is included as an acknowledgment that assessment should be conducted during the training delivery cycle. This may be distinct from Step 10, where the workplace application

may be required prior to full competence being awarded. It may also be possible for an individual to obtain education-based outcomes without necessarily completing an associated action-based or applied learning component of a CBMET strategy.

10.   Assess Job Performance Improvement

This step reflects the over-all impact of CBMET strategies on job related outcomes. Assessment of individual competency is not seen in isolation from its impact on the achievement of customer required outcomes.

Evaluation in this step also provides critical feedback on the whole strategy/program. If the individual has achieved full competency as described by the assessment criteria, and these are accurately based on the EPSP, yet client outcomes are not being satisfied, the EPSP and the subsequent design of the course need to be revisited.

Step 10. provides that the basis for ensuring CBMET programs is a source of updating EPSP and development options in Step 11.

One approach to the formal assessment of job performance may be to integrate the assessment within a performance appraisal process.

11.   Evaluate Overall Program

Step 11 involves the formal review and renewal of the prevailing CBMET approach. The 'bottom line' contribution of CBMET to the enterprise, and changes to EPSP driven by shifting client needs or future needs, may require a conscious effort to realign the whole program.

Ideally this step recognises the need to integrate CBMET with surveys of customer needs and with available strategic data on market or operational performance.

8.4. Reinvented Competency-Based Management Education and Training - An Applied Study

This chapter confirms that enterprises can approach competency-based management education and training to improve their own strategic imperatives. Under such a focus National needs and considerations are not marginalised but integrated as part of the search to maximise resource utilisation and access the most appropriate competency-based education and training available.

Under a reinvented approach to competency-based management education and training the foundations are already laid for training reform to replace many activities already undertaken in an enterprise. However as Purity Supermarkets/ Woolworths have done, the concept of standards as a Performance Profile actually places the formation of national management standards into mainstream strategic management of an enterprise. Recognition of current performance capacity resulting from competency-based education and training or previous learning serves to confirm performance standards and identify future development needs.

The Purity Supermarkets example confirms that training reform can be integrated into how businesses operate and succeed. Critically such efforts need to address how competency-based management education and training supports and promotes the change process. The eight 'drivers' suggest reinventing competency-based management education and training should not happen in isolation but be used to forge a collaborative relationship. A relationship that can advantage both the enterprises and the national search to improve business performance.

9.   Conclusion

This thesis has highlighted how reinventing competency-based management education and training can give cause for collaboration between specific enterprises executives and those bodies implementing national training reform.

Through the study of the elements impinging upon competency-based management education and training, and an examination of the relationship between these elements, it is possible to see the wider significance of strategic alliances. The eight principles for reinventing competency-based management education and training are embedded in the changed concept of management and a fundamental revision of what competency-based management education and training involves. By confirming the links between learning and enterprise business success the eight points serve to reinforce, rather than undermine, existing training reform. However the current emphasis on the national search for world competitiveness will not convince enterprises to make the effort to translate training reform into an enterprise's efforts to achieve their strategic imperatives.

Effort has to be expended to delineate between what aspects of training reform can best be targeted to support the enterprise drive to succeed. The use of traits, role and specific task competencies distinguishes the education and training options that can be used to develop a manager. Under a reinvented approach to competency-based management education and training this presages the need to use approaches to management and leadership development that spans at least national, industry, occupational, function and enterprise specific levels. No approach to develop a manager at one level should exist in isolation from the other. Nor should responsibility for management development at all levels reside within just the enterprise.

Task competencies cede unique competitive advantages to the enterprise-specific performance context. Yet the wider roles held in common or core to occupations and functions (Human Resource Managers, Operations Managers, etc.) need to also be developed. In addition the 'higher' level general traits of management, such as identified by The Industry Taskforce on Leadership and Managements desire to develop "The Leader/ Enabler" (1995:22-23), can be sponsored by a nation to re-orientate current perceptions or paradigms influencing how management competencies are identified.

NATIONAL APPROACH	ENTERPRISE SPECIFIC RESPONSE	BARRIERS TO ENTERPRISE PARTICIPATION
Broad - General, Generic and Common Competencies	Specific - Core to Operations or Specific Competencies	National or industry standards do not reflect specific performance context
Investment in identified Occupational and Functional (Labour Market) Skills	Investment in Training for Performance Needs within Jobs determined in specific workplace	Cost of developing staff then loosing them to competitors
Sector or Functional Focus	Customer/ Process Outcomes Focus	Reflects past practices and old training and industrial award approaches
World Competitive	Market Advantage	Absence of measures linking training to competitiveness through performance improvement
Portability and mobility require public access and use of standards and curriculum	Standards reflect competitive practices	Cannot 'own' standards and curriculum as commercial property
Administrative consistency	Ownership of process	Process seen as vested in bureaucracy or too bureaucratic for small enterprises to risk involvement
Consistent approach and methods to derive competency standards	Flexibility of determining 'standard' in job duties within performance context of the enterprise	Lead time on jargon and understanding flexibility inherent in the national reforms
Flexible training	Consistency with own practices	Cost of developing new materials and approaches
Increased Training Market	Available skilled staff to recruit	Cost of developing staff then loosing them to competitors
New national training resources and material	Customise relevant training to needs and save development costs	Understanding of flexibility and existing investments in materials and support structures.
Access and equity	Managing Diversity	Cultural change required
Training and education philosophy	Tools & Techniques	Lead time to develop relevant tools and material around prevailing management (not training) approach
Career Pathways	Remuneration, Recruitment and Selection	Investment in staff could be lost to competitor

What the above chart does not suggest is the use of Competency Based Training Systems to underpin national reform is wrong. However, for a national approach to competency based

training to be accepted the cost of introducing training into an enterprise should have a net strategic benefit to that enterprise. In reality this net strategic benefit will usually be measured by an enterprise, especially those with less than 20 employees, through performance improvement achieved in the short term. This emphasises education and training delivering specific competencies.

The dichotomy outlined within this thesis is clear. The national perspective is very much focussed on general (trait) competencies and core (role) competencies. From the enterprise perspective these reflect the national drive for consistency and administrative control. Yet few enterprises are large enough or possess the resources necessary to sponsor training and education that can integrate specific performance requirements with programs targeting the roles and traits that enhance a manager's broad capacity.

The thesis identified eight drivers that can unite how enterprises and national administrators and policy diviners can reinvent existing approaches to competency-based management education and training.

The enterprise achieving competency-based management education and training need to address:

The First Driver -   **Continuous improvement** and quality emphasise the transformation of management to achieve world's best practices

The Second Driver -   **Organisations as open systems** necessitate managers possess skills beyond those required for just controlling variables within the organisation

The Third Driver -   In an era where knowledge - based economies grow, competitive advantage will be determined by managers anticipating ambiguity and removing discontinuities that hinder **responsiveness to change**

The Fourth Driver -   Emphasising the **value of human knowledge** in the Information Age

National competency-based management education and training can be enabled by:

The Fifth Driver -   **Creating Economies of Scale and Critical Mass**

The Sixth Driver -   **Promoting Learning for New Skills and Technologies**

The Seventh Driver - **Shaping Industry Evolution**

The Eighth Driver -   **Reducing Risk**

The above drivers suggest a balanced approach to training reform can be achieved. A balance based on agreed drivers and collaboration across the range of competencies required to achieve the competency-based management education and training as defined within this thesis.

At the enterprise level the search for the effective manager necessitates institutional support. But it is little use encouraging involvement from enterprises of all sizes in the national process of training reform if the focus is solely on broad education and training. This must be balanced against the capacity to enable the development and customisation of the trait and role based education that can deliver standards of competence required by managers in an enterprise performance context. To an enterprise seeking the effective manager the education and training framework should promote the general and core while still permitting unique competitive advantage to be derived from how they are accessed and integrated with training delivering specific task competencies.

Increased competitiveness at the national level and market advantages at the enterprise level are inextricably linked. Creating economies of scale in the training and education marketplace, encouraging learning to support new skills and technologies, shaping and supporting evolution of enterprises into new opportunities, and reducing the risk that may hinder business undertaking relevant education and training require a national approach that is sensitive to enterprise needs. These drivers reorientate current practices and refocus them on outcomes that

specific enterprises can appreciate. They also inextricably link with the move to obtain competitive advantages through continually improving, being open, responsive to change, and valuing human knowledge.

Placing national competency-based management education and training reform into such a quest for competitive advantage constitutes a logical basis for forging alliances.

Competency-based management education and training systems must meet standards of performance required by enterprises. The systems must also enable enterprises to build a skills profile that can translate into competitiveness. It is only from applying the skills held by individuals within an enterprise that performance can be translated into competitiveness or market advantage. National recognition, portability of skills and materials to support general and core industry and cross-industry competencies all can be sourced by an enterprise accessing improvements sponsored by national training reform. While they may not be perceived as direct benefits, expanded training markets and labour markets, increased employment for young people and greater equity and access represent the wider achievements that enable enterprises to grow and prosper.

Under a reinvented approach to competency-based management education and training the effective manager can be seen as a unique amalgam of traits, roles and task competencies. As enterprises develop managers with raised competencies one would envisage broader education and training reform being demand driven. This would stem from the realisation that general and core competencies or traits and roles of managers do required development within the enterprise context. Equally the translation of such learning into an enterprise context can only be enhanced by provision of specific competency-based management education and training based on enhancing performance within the specific workplace context.

By it self competency-based management education and training are not ends. What this thesis has illustrated is how the poor focus on enterprises specific outcomes within the current reform process has promoted a vicious means and ends cycle. The lack of competency-based management education and training is resulting in enterprise executives that simply do not possess the means to demand improvements that can more direct advantage business. This failure further divorces competency-based education and training as a means to achieve such stated ends as Australian industry that is world competitive.

A national training reform 'agenda' that cannot provide the means to deliver relevant skills and support the search for more effective managers will quickly become marginalised within the enterprise's strategic operations. Nor should it deserve their support while it falls outside their direct responsibility for operational outcomes or their individual career aspirations.

Reinventing competency-based management education and training based on eight principles illustrates how enterprise and national policy imperatives can be integrated. Under a reinvented approach a basis can be establish for forging strategic alliances where training reform provides a means to achieve enhanced competitiveness. The success of a reinvented approach to competency-based management education and training goes beyond the act of collaboration. Success can be measured by how well Australia produces managers able to effectively lead enterprises towards levels of performance that are actually world competitive.

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EASY AID 3

CHECKLIST FOR DIAGNOSING YOUR COMPETENCY PROBLEM AREAS

There are no right or wrong answers to the following questions. They are an aid to prompt you to diagnose possible weak areas in your competencies.

Read through the questions and place a cross in the box next to any that you feel may refer to a weak or problem area. When all sections have been read, go through the items you have marked and make brief notes on your answers to these questions. Look for trends and analyse where you need to take action.

TASK ORIENTED MANAGEMENT COMPETENCIES

1. Servicing Customer or User Needs

- ☐ How well do you know the background of your major customers? Do you know if their industry is growing or in decline? At what speed is their technology advancing? What are their future needs for your services or products, etc?
- ☐ What are the key culture values of your major clients? Is your marketing approach consistent with these?
- ☐ How often do you turn down requests for assistance from users due to pressure of work? Can you offer a prompt service at short notice?
- ☐ How do others rate your area in terms of providing a professional service? How often do potential users choose outside consultants/services instead of yours?
- ☐ How good are your feedback mechanisms for monitoring your users' attitudes and need for your services?
- ☐ How frequently do you hear informal complaints through the grapevine? After errors or inefficiencies are corrected, do your users come back for your service with a positive attitude?
- ☐ Is your area continually generating better ways of operating/servicing your customers' or users' needs?

2. Achieving Outputs

- ☐ Do you have a good grasp of the Westpac Management System and how it can help you to achieve results?
- ☐ Does your team complain about pressure of work, yet the office is like a morgue every day at close of business?
- ☐ How much paperwork do you generate relative to the results you achieve? Are you recording information formally in type that could us easily be communicated with brief informal notes?
- ☐ When did you last analyse the way in which you and your team spend your time?
- ☐ How good are you at managing your time, setting realistic deadlines and meeting these?
- ☐ Do you prefer not to delegate because you know you can do a better job than the time yourself? Do your subordinates give you careless work because they know you are going to do it again yourself anyway?
- ☐ Would other areas you work with consider you and your team to be high output oriented or simply average?
- ☐ How often do jobs come off the rails because of poor prioritising, planning and liaison?
- ☐ Can you maintain a satisfactory output level without undue anxiety and stress? How does heavy pressure affect your ability to produce results?

3. Acting Proactively

- ☐ How often are you able to quote authoritative persons and events when talking about current affairs in your field?
- ☐ Do people seek your views on subjects which are not strictly within your work sphere? Do they perceive you as having something of value to contribute?
- ☐ How many times do problems catch you unaware? How is your contingency planning for major crises?
- ☐ Do you frequently decide that poor results and workflow in your area are due to someone else's inefficiency? What plans have you made to minimise the disruptive effects of poor inputs from others?
- ☐ Do you often feel that the "old way we did things" was better? Perhaps you are gaining fan behind and need to be more forward looking?
- ☐ When did you last approach another (similar) area to your own to discuss how they have solved problems you face?
- ☐ How good are you at coping with several tasks or problems at one time? What do you do if faced with apparently contradictory information or ideas? Can you make quick decisions successfully?
- ☐ Do other people seem to notice more than you do about what is going on around them?

4. Accepting Responsibility

- ☐ Do people approach you for help when the chips are down knowing that you can be depended on for a good contribution?
- ☐ Do you get overloaded because you are reluctant to turn down requests from others? Are you known as a "soft touch" when all the unpleasant jobs have to be done?
- ☐ Do you find it difficult to decline requests from customers or other persons which go against your better judgement?
- ☐ Do you procrastinate and hope that someone else will solve the problem? Is "tomorrow another day"?
- ☐ Are you cool headed and productive in a crisis? Can you and do you take the lead?
- ☐ Can you admit your mistakes, apologise to others and take a positive approach to correcting the situation?
- ☐ Are you aware of the needs of others around you? How often do you spontaneously offer your assistance?
- ☐ Do you volunteer for your fair share of extra tasks that have to be done?

5. Acting Analytically

- ☐ Do you assemble all the facts before making a decision or do you jump at the first viable solution?
- ☐ How often do people comment on how quickly you have grasped a problem and how clear and reasonable your proposed solution is?
- ☐ Do you use established decision making techniques to help you solve complex problems? How often do you deliberately apply "lateral" thinking? Are you familiar with such techniques?
- ☐ Do you normally anticipate the likely outcomes of your decisions and actions correctly?
- ☐ Do people get impatient with you during discussions because you get deflected by what they regard as unimportant details? How often do they indicate that you have missed the point?
- ☐ How sensitive are you to the "politics" of the organisation when you propose solutions? Do others frequently tell you that your ideas are good but out of step with personalities and the times?

6. Acting Entrepreneurially

- ☐ How many bright ideas have you had lately on doing things more productively and profitably?
- ☐ Are you good at implementing new ideas but generally rely on others to come up with the ideas in the first place?
- ☐ Do you identify and seek contact with people (both inside and outside Westpac) who are idea generators? How often do you tune in to them to stimulate your thinking on new approaches in your own area?
- ☐ Do you find it more comfortable and less threatening to "keep your head down" and let others come up with new approaches? Does the risk of being thought wrong disturb you unduly?
- ☐ Do you enjoy running with a new idea in planning its implementation, liaising with others and selling the load to get maximum commitment?
- ☐ Are you comfortable about applying policy rules flexibly within reasonable risk limits? How often have you tried?
- ☐ Are you good at reading the current organisational climate and persuading others to join your crusade for doing things differently?
- ☐ Do you understand the need for Westpac to generate profit and are you able to convey this clearly and persuasively to others?
- ☐ Does the thought of having to face unpredictable changes in your work environment cause you concern? Do you often feel it would be nicer to get out of the race rather than have to keep finding new ways of coping?

7. Initiating Self Development

- ☐ How good are you at squaring up to comments from others on your weaknesses? Do you rationalise these away or give careful, objective thought to them?
- ☐ How easy is it for you to change your mind and your behaviour? Does fear of losing self esteem stop you from making a change?
- ☐ Does the thought of putting effort into self development seem like a bore? Are you convinced it is necessary to get ahead?
- ☐ Do you enjoy learning new things, both work and non-work related? If not, are you in a rut? What effect would learning something absolutely different have on you?
- ☐ How often do you volunteer to tackle projects or activities that you know will be emotionally demanding but that will develop new skills and behaviours?
- ☐ Do you think that other people regard you as "dead wood" or as someone who is continually growing and developing?
- ☐ Do you have excellent intentions about doing self development but somehow find that it never happens? What are your priorities in life and what implications do these have for your future career advancement?

PEOPLE ORIENTED MANAGEMENT COMPETENCIES

8. Planning for a Team

- ☐ Do your team members all know what is expected of them and work harmoniously with each other and related work teams?
- ☐ Do you hold meetings frequently enough to satisfy your team's needs for communication and involvement? Are you in touch with their needs?
- ☐ Do you always have an agenda for meetings, stick to the agenda and keep to time? Do people often make excuses not to attend your meetings? Do your meetings usually start late?
- ☐ Do you prefer to tell people what is to be done rather than involve them in the decision making? Once objectives are agreed, do you adopt a monitoring and guiding role but let the person get on with the job in the way he or she sees it?
- ☐ Are your team members keen to accept challenging objectives or do they continually imply they are being asked to do more than their colleagues? What is your attitude to accepting a challenge?
- ☐ Do you often seem to be short of staff, time, equipment and anything else you need to get the job done? How good are you at flexibly using your people and other resources to maximum advantage?
- ☐ Are you unsure which decisions to take yourself and which decisions would best be made with the involvement of your team?
- ☐ Do you respond to pressures of the moment thus losing sight of longer term considerations? Do you and your team always seem to be "fire fighting"?

9. Providing Performance Feedback

- ☐ Do you feel uncomfortable about discussing others' unsatisfactory performance with them? Is this due to low confidence, fear of rejection or uncertainty about how to go about the task?
- ☐ Do you tend to get emotionally involved when giving negative feedback? Do you resurrect past failures or convey a general dislike of the person rather than dissatisfaction with some specific behaviour?
- ☐ Are you a bit "hit and miss" about giving encouraging and supportive remarks to others for work well done? Are your standards for your own work so high that you only give praise freely for what you consider to be exceptional performance in others?
- ☐ Do your team members seem comfortable about discussing their performance problems with you or are they defensive, silent or unduly anxious when you approach them?
- ☐ Do you discuss problem behaviour with the person as soon as it becomes evident? Do you always speak to the person privately and with sensitivity?
- ☐ If a colleague or team member has a negative attitude, do you try to understand the underlying reasons and respond accordingly?
- ☐ Do you gather objective information on others' performance on an ongoing basis to help you in giving sound, behaviour based performance appraisals?
- ☐ Are you willing to take time to help your colleagues with their own self development objectives? Will you spontaneously and sensitively "drop a word" in a colleague's ear if you see that he or she is unknowingly antagonising others or following an unproductive path?

10. Developing Subordinates

- ☐ Do you, by your words and deeds, clearly signal to your subordinates that you are interested in their development?
- ☐ Do you look for tasks to delegate to your officers that will give them developmental experience? Do you ever include them as observers in key decision making interviews or meetings?
- ☐ Do you give as much attention and encouragement to your poorer performers as to your better performers? Do you structure tasks for poorer performers in such a way that they will experience success and gradually gain confidence in themselves?
- ☐ Do you treat all your human resources equally, regardless of ethnic background or sex? Do you recognise and encourage those with ability to reach their full potential?
- ☐ Do you feel that development planning discussions with your subordinates are a waste of your time? What attitude do you think you convey to them in this regard? Is your attitude coloured by the experiences you have encountered in striving for your own career goals?
- ☐ Are you professional and competent in appraising your subordinates' performance and competencies? Are you able to evaluate their behaviour objectively against agreed standards and use the rating scales effectively?
- ☐ Do you help your subordinates to meet key people in areas that are of career interest to them? How well do you know the organisation and where to refer...

11. Rewarding Good Performance

- ☐ Are you aware of the specific rewards that motivate each of your team members? Do you ensure that good performance is communicated to the officer's peers and significant others?
- ☐ Do you take responsibility for bonus rewards by giving bonuses only to the best performers? Are you able to tell the others that their performance does not warrant a bonus?
- ☐ Are you willing to reward your best performers by seeking promotion for them outside your own team?
- ☐ Are you often tempted to pass off as your own original ideas and proposals generated by your subordinates? What impact can this be expected to have on them?
- ☐ Do you reward your people inappropriately out of a need to be seen as a likeable person? Would you get more respect and better results from your staff by being more discriminating?
- ☐ Are the standards you set for your staff realistic? Too stringent? Too easy to achieve? Do you appraise performance and allocate rewards in a way that is perceived as fair?

12. Gaining Commitment

- ☐ How often do others, over whom you have no direct control, offer to assist you or make an effort to help you solve a work problem?
- ☐ How willingly will members of your team take on ad hoc extra duties to eg. help out one of your new ideas, help out another area of your request?
- ☐ Do your team members often speak negatively about the organisation and its management? Could low morale, lack of loyalty and commitment be a reflection of what you are doing, or are not doing, as a team leader?
- ☐ Does your team "shine" through a crisis or peak pressure period? Do they emerge feeling that you and they have together achieved something important as a team?
- ☐ Do you put up with difficult or unsatisfactory behaviour from others rather than face possible conflict?
- ☐ How much hostility and conflict exists between members of your team or between your team and other teams? What role do you play in either generating this conflict or resolving it?
- ☐ How good is your informal contact network? How often do you find out about important developments well after everyone else has heard? Do people tap into you as an information source?
- ☐ Do you often stop to chat with team members about their family and personal interests? Do you know their general likes and dislikes? Do they know yours? How approachable are you as a person?

13. Communicating Clearly

- ☐ Does it take you a long time to put together a reasonable memo or letter? Where does the difficulty lie?
- ☐ Do others frequently have difficulty understanding what information you are conveying, or what you want from them, in your written and oral communications?
- ☐ Do people "hear" you at meetings or do you end up with little or no "air time". Why is this?
- ☐ Are you often asked to repeat yourself because your speech is unclear or your voice projection poor?
- ☐ Can you give a clear, informative presentation to a group which gets their interest and puts your emotional message across? How confident are you about speaking in front of other people?
- ☐ When concluding discussions, do you confirm what has been decided and who is responsible, or do you find that others have a muddled view of what you expect from them? Do your staff often seem to "miss the mark" and produce work different to what you believe you had requested?
- ☐ Can you "talk on your feet" in field difficult and unexpected questions directed at you during meetings or presentations?
- ☐ How good is your eye contact? Do you know how to interpret your own and others' body language? Are you a good listener?

14. Gaining Social Acceptance

- ☐ How confident are you in dealing with others eg. staff, peers, superiors, customers?
- ☐ Do other people regard you as shy, introverted or aloof? Do you have difficulty in making social small talk? Is business or can you speak about?
- ☐ Taking a candid look at yourself, how do you rate your dress and personal presentation? What impact do you think those with a similar style to yourself have on others? Is this consistent with the image presented by those who have already achieved the career goal you would like to achieve?
- ☐ Do you often put people "off side" by tactless, abrupt comments? Are others a little wary of you because they are uncertain of your prevailing mood or tendency to be unpredictable? Would you recognise the signs?
- ☐ Do people feel you are interested in them? Can you draw others out and make them feel interesting and special?
- ☐ Can you mix successfully with a broad range of people? Do you avoid speaking to senior management on official occasions or do you see these contacts as opportunities?
- ☐ If you are outward going and confident, do you help your colleagues and team members who are less adept to make key contacts and interact more successfully with customers or users?

PEOPLE ORIENTED MANAGEMENT COMPETENCIES	LOW	MEDIUM	HIGH
8. PLANNING FOR A TEAM	• Does not assist team members to set challenging, well written objectives with clear performance requirements. • Rarely holds team meetings; meetings poorly structured and unproductive. • Leads through threat and/or imposition of own views. • Teams are fragmented and there is conflict and/or poor communication amongst team members. • Does not consult subordinates on matters relating to their tasks or of general relevance to the work group. • Work is distributed inequitably amongst team members.	• Communicates clearly the standards of performance expected in all areas of the job. • Negotiates work goals and objectives that meet annual plan requirements and which team members accept as reflecting their capabilities; encourages members to achieve these. • Holds structured, productive team meetings on a regular basis. • Develops a co-operative environment where team members work together to achieve team objectives. • Manages team resources flexibly to achieve optimum results eg. people, equipment. • Encourages team input where appropriate. • Allocates work equitably.	• Negotiates highly challenging but attainable objectives with team members. • Consistently achieves an appropriate balance between team input and the taking of decisions and responsibility personally. • Co-ordinates the planning of the team's operations with those of other related areas of Westpac. • Leads by example; has an enthusiastic, positive attitude and encourages team members to use their initiative in achieving or exceeding their targets. • Allocates work equitably taking into account individual strengths and weaknesses and developmental needs of officers.
9. PROVIDING PERFORMANCE FEEDBACK	• Does not give feedback on a regular basis; gives little or no feedback to team members except at formal review discussions. • Avoids giving negative feedback even though performance problems are clearly evident. • Gives negative feedback in front of others. • Criticises attitudes and/or character traits instead of focusing on the work output. • Uses judgmental words to describe behaviour rather than explaining why the behaviour was not appropriate. • Confronts others with a list of transgressions rather than focusing on the behaviour or issue in question. • Does not use appropriate methods and channels when negative feedback is to be given to those outside their work team; engages in destructive criticism with others instead of seeking resolution.	• Gives timely feedback on a regular basis and ensures that it is understood. • Negative feedback is given privately and sensitively as soon as a performance problem becomes evident. • Suggests how performance could be improved. • Identifies officers with work problems and feels comfortable about approaching them. • Describes the specific behaviour that is presenting a problem when giving officers feedback about their performance; does not make sweeping generalisations which reflect on the individual's personality or past performance. • Goes through the appropriate channels when giving negative feedback to those outside his or her work team.	• Actively looks for opportunities to give positive feedback. • Actively collects information on each officer's job performance so as to be able to accurately assess their performance. • Objectively describes unacceptable behaviour, provides guidance and includes information on the impact of the behaviour on others. • When giving feedback, is ready to listen to the other person's point of view. • If approached, assists others willingly in achieving their development objectives through honest feedback and encouragement and by creating opportunities for colleagues to "practise" new skills. • When giving feedback, chooses a place where the other person feels comfortable.
10. DEVELOPING SUBORDINATES	• Avoids discussing performance problems with poor performers and does not initiate remedial or developmental action. • Does not give team members challenging tasks; attempts to do all the important or challenging tasks himself/herself. • Seldom offers suggestions for improvement unless specifically asked. • Gives highly detailed instructions to subordinates on how to do their jobs rather than encouraging them to use their initiative; monitors in detail how work is done and evaluates unimportant aspects without viewing the task as a whole. • Pays lip service to development planning discussions with subordinates; accepts subordinates' competency ratings without proper evaluation/amendment and shows little interest in the officer's development objectives. • Demonstrates little or no support for equal opportunity initiatives.	• Takes time to improve poor performance by team members rather than ignoring the situation or criticising. • Implements the principles of equal opportunity within his/her team and ensures subordinates are aware of Westpac's commitment to these principles. • Delegates challenging tasks/projects to subordinates. • Demonstrates commitment to the development planning process; discusses career aspirations with subordinates and suggests appropriate developmental activities.	• Ensures poor-performing subordinates have some successes by giving them tasks that they will be able to do well; motivates and builds self-esteem and does not give up attempts to lift the officer's performance. • Analyses the reasons for performance problems when these first become evident and counsels the officer regarding suitable remedial or developmental action. • Encourages subordinates to prepare challenging personal development plans; takes an active, ongoing interest in progress and creates opportunities for subordinates to "practise" new skills. • Encourages subordinates to talk to people in areas where they have career interests and establishes contacts for them as necessary. • Advises subordinates on the training and development opportunities that are available within Westpac or refers them to the appropriate source. • Continually active in seeking out opportunities in the workplace for developing subordinates; requests officers to "sit in" on key interviews/work discussions as developmental experiences.
11. REWARDING GOOD PERFORMANCE	• Criticises team members for poor performance but overlooks occurrences of good performance. • Does not reward good performance eg. praise "put in a good word" in front of others, allocate favoured tasks, give suitable monetary rewards. • Gives rewards too readily in order to build favour; does not reward competent performers differently to exceptional performers. • Retains high performing team members within his/her team rather than giving them opportunities for advancement.	• Recognises significant achievements of team members by praising them, thanking them, or giving them appropriate financial rewards. • Gives support and encouragement to team members at all times. • Only awards bonuses to team members who have achieved something significant; bonus amounts reflect individual effort and achievement. • Nominates top performing team members for promotion.	• Identifies the types of reward that motivate the different members of his/her team and applies these whenever possible eg. status markers, peer recognition, visual rewards, praise, bonuses. • Nominates and actively seeks promotion opportunities for top performers to more challenging positions both inside and outside his/her area. • Continually monitors the performance of team members in order to identify opportunities for rewarding good performance. • Gives team members full credit for their contribution to an output; ensures that superiors and significant others are made aware of members' contributions.
12. GAINING COMMITMENT	• When formulating action plans or tasks that require input from other parties, does not involve the other parties in the planning process. • Imposes his/her own will rather than resolving conflict. • Quickly gives up when difficulties are encountered in gaining the co-operation of parties whose assistance is required for the achievement of outputs. • Has a poor informal contact network and is unsure of how to obtain information/advice outside routine channels.	• Has access to information/advice as a result of effective networks and working relationships with people inside and outside the team. • Resolves conflicts promptly to the mutual satisfaction of all parties involved. • Gains co-operation from parties whose input is required for achievement of outputs. • Shows empathy for other people's feelings and the difficulties they face in achieving their outputs.	• Continually gives support and encouragement to team members. • Conducts research to anticipate the reactions of crucial parties to a proposal and then prepares an approach which will pre-empt their objections. • Develops a good rapport with parties whose input is regularly required for the achievement of outputs such that they volunteer to help or offer constructive suggestions in difficult situations. • Gains co-operation for the implementation of controversial/unpopular ideas; loyal and supportive of decisions ratified by the team even if personal views are not identical. • Team members and others will put in considerable efforts to assist the officer during periods of crisis/high pressure. • Demonstrates a high level of negotiating skill, frequently resolving differences so that both parties feel positive about the outcome.
13. COMMUNICATING CLEARLY	• Frequently produces written material which lacks internal organisation and is inappropriate in tone, language and coverage for the recipient. • Oral communication is hesitant; poor eye contact. • Does not listen to information being conveyed and interrupts others before they have made their point. • Oral communication is inappropriate in tone, language and coverage for the audience/listener; arguments are not presented in a logical manner.	• Consistently presents written material which is suitable in tone, language and coverage for the recipient. • Oral communication is appropriate for the audience/listener; presents arguments in a confident, clear, concise and logical way. • Consistently attentive when others wish to communicate a point of view; does not interrupt when others are speaking; maintains eye contact.	• Both orally and in writing, presents material in a fresh, innovative and effective manner using language that is personalised and has emotional appeal. • Achieves a high level of acceptance of communication presented, even when that communication may be unpalatable to those receiving it. • Ensures mutual understanding of information obtained/points of view offered by summarising what has been said and asking questions. • Replies in a clear, authoritative and logical manner when confronted with difficult or unexpected questions or issues.
14. GAINING SOCIAL ACCEPTANCE	• Lacks confidence in dealing with others. • Does not often initiate conversations. • Topic of conversation and use of humour are often inappropriate for the audience or situation. • Manner and dress frequently inappropriate for the occasion. • Impolite or conveys an attitude of disinterest in others' ideas or feelings. • Makes little effort to become socialised within his/her team; avoids social occasions whenever possible.	• Commands the attention and respect of officers at all levels. • Speaks confidently in social situations; initiates conversations. • Shows an interest in people; asks people questions about themselves and listens without interrupting. • Converses on a wide range of topics. • Polite and able to adapt his/her social behaviour to suit the circumstances. • Well presented; observes formal and informal guidelines on standard of dress within the team.	• Has the confidence to request feedback on the impression he/she gives in social situations; takes action to alter undesirable traits to improve acceptance and effectiveness. • Finds out the background of people who will be attending social functions so that he/she can be prepared with suitable topics of conversation. • Mixes confidently with a broad range of people. • Forms/broadens informal networks by participating in social occasions. • Shares work contacts with others and takes the initiative in assisting less socially adept colleagues whenever possible.