

University of Windsor

## Scholarship at UWindor

---

Electronic Theses and Dissertations

Theses, Dissertations, and Major Papers

---

1986

### Administrative skills possessed by upper level managers in human service organizations in southwestern Ontario.

John F. Dobrowolsky  
*University of Windsor*

Follow this and additional works at: <https://scholar.uwindsor.ca/etd>

---

#### Recommended Citation

Dobrowolsky, John F., "Administrative skills possessed by upper level managers in human service organizations in southwestern Ontario." (1986). *Electronic Theses and Dissertations*. 898.  
<https://scholar.uwindsor.ca/etd/898>

This online database contains the full-text of PhD dissertations and Masters' theses of University of Windsor students from 1954 forward. These documents are made available for personal study and research purposes only, in accordance with the Canadian Copyright Act and the Creative Commons license—CC BY-NC-ND (Attribution, Non-Commercial, No Derivative Works). Under this license, works must always be attributed to the copyright holder (original author), cannot be used for any commercial purposes, and may not be altered. Any other use would require the permission of the copyright holder. Students may inquire about withdrawing their dissertation and/or thesis from this database. For additional inquiries, please contact the repository administrator via email ([scholarship@uwindsor.ca](mailto:scholarship@uwindsor.ca)) or by telephone at 519-253-3000ext. 3208.



National Library  
of Canada

Bibliothèque nationale  
du Canada

Canadian Theses Service

Services des thèses canadiennes

Ottawa, Canada  
K1A 0N4

## CANADIAN THESES

## THÈSES CANADIENNES

### NOTICE

The quality of this microfiche is heavily dependent upon the quality of the original thesis submitted for microfilming. Every effort has been made to ensure the highest quality of reproduction possible.

If pages are missing, contact the university which granted the degree.

Some pages may have indistinct print especially if the original pages were typed with a poor typewriter ribbon or if the university sent us an inferior photocopy.

Previously copyrighted materials (journal articles, published tests, etc.) are not filmed.

Reproduction in full or in part of this film is governed by the Canadian Copyright Act, R.S.C. 1970, c. C-30.

THIS DISSERTATION  
HAS BEEN MICROFILMED  
EXACTLY AS RECEIVED

### AVIS

La qualité de cette microfiche dépend grandement de la qualité de la thèse soumise au microfilmage. Nous avons tout fait pour assurer une qualité supérieure de reproduction.

S'il manque des pages, veuillez communiquer avec l'université qui a conféré le grade.

La qualité d'impression de certaines pages peut laisser à désirer, surtout si les pages originales ont été dactylographiées à l'aide d'un ruban usé ou si l'université nous a fait parvenir une photocopie de qualité inférieure.

Les documents qui font déjà l'objet d'un droit d'auteur (articles de revue, examens publiés, etc.) ne sont pas microfilmés.

La reproduction, même partielle, de ce microfilm est soumise à la Loi canadienne sur le droit d'auteur, SRC 1970, c. C-30.

LA THÈSE A ÉTÉ  
MICROFILMÉE TELLE QUE  
NOUS L'AVONS REÇUE

Administrative Skills Possessed by Upper Level Managers  
in Human Service Organizations in  
Southwestern Ontario

by

© John F. Dobrowolsky

A Thesis  
presented to the University of Windsor  
in partial fulfillment of the  
thesis requirement for the degree of  
Master of Social Work  
in  
The School of Social Work

Windsor, Ontario, 1988

Permission has been granted to the National Library of Canada to microfilm this thesis and to lend or sell copies of the film.

The author (copyright owner) has reserved other publication rights, and neither the thesis nor extensive extracts from it may be printed or otherwise reproduced without his/her written permission.

L'autorisation a été accordée à la Bibliothèque nationale du Canada de microfilmer cette thèse et de prêter ou de vendre des exemplaires du film.

L'auteur (titulaire du droit d'auteur) se réserve les autres droits de publication; ni la thèse ni de longs extraits de celle-ci ne doivent être imprimés ou autrement reproduits sans son autorisation écrite.

ISBN 0-315-31954-2

(c) John F. Dobrowolsky, 1986

### Abstract

This quantitative-descriptive study reports data from a survey of upper level managers in human service organizations (HSOs) located in Southwestern Ontario. It assesses the administrative tasks they performed and the related administrative skills they used. The sub-population was composed of 71 upper level managers employed in HSOs in Southwestern Ontario between May 22, 1986 and July 3, 1986. Data were collected by means of a mailed, self-administered, structured questionnaire. Three categories of technical, interactional and conceptual administrative skills, and combinations of them, formed the conceptual base for the study.

Analyses indicated that in regard to socio-demographic characteristics, there was an equal number of female and male managers, and they had a relatively even age distribution ( $\bar{x}$ =42.4 years). In addition, over 50% had a master's degree or more, 37.5% were from the social work discipline, and 21.4% specialized in administrative studies. These data enhanced the study's generalizability. The HSOs where the sub-population were employed, were predominantly funded by the Provincial Government and the United Way, were mostly small and treatment orientated, and had a median yearly operating budget of \$450,000.

The sub-population reported staff supervision and development as the most frequently performed and most important administrative task. An administrative skill inventory (ASI), a measurement instrument which had a high degree of internal consistency, reliability and validity, revealed that interactional type administrative skills were the most frequently used. Factors influencing both tasks and skills included: 1) gender of the individual; and 2) budget size of the HSO. The contention that administrative skill use could be determined by analyzing administrative task behaviour was also confirmed. Implications of the study are directed toward future research, social work curricula and the social work profession in general.

### Acknowledgements

I would like to thank my supervisor, Dr. Michael J. Holosko, whose high level of professionalism and standards of excellence made this an exciting and rewarding learning experience. His enthusiasm, and genuine interest in my professional development are greatly respected and appreciated. I would also like to thank my two readers, Dr. Eli Teram, who provided me with conceptual input and useful references, and Dr. Jim Winter. Finally, I would like to thank my family and friends, particularly my father and my good friend, Sandra Glass.



## List of Tables

Table	Page
1. Education Background of the Sub-Population ( <u>n</u> =61) . . . . .	44
2. The Types of HSOs in which the Sub-Population were Employed ( <u>n</u> =69) . . . . .	52
3. Selected HSO Characteristics of the Sub-Population ( <u>n</u> =67-71) . . . . .	54
4. Actual Funding Sources and the Average Proportions by Percentage of Funds Received and the Actual Percentage and Amount of Funds Received by each HSO ( <u>n</u> =69) . . . . .	56
5. A Comparison of the Actual Percentage of Time Spent by Upper Level Managers in Performing Administrative Tasks, In Files (1981) Study ( <u>n</u> =103) and the Southwestern Ontario Administrative Skill (SOAS) Study Sub-Population ( <u>n</u> =71) . . . . .	61
6. The Relative Priority in Importance of Administrative Tasks by Frequency and Percentage ( <u>n</u> =71) . . . . .	63
7. The Ranked Mean Scores of the 27 Most Frequently Used Administrative Skills on the ASI ( <u>n</u> =68-71) . . . . .	71
8. The Ranked Mean Scores of the 26 Least Frequently Used Administrative Skills on the ASI ( <u>n</u> =68-71) . . . . .	73
9. The Ranked Mean Scores of the Sub-Scale Categories of the Administrative Skills Inventory (ASI) ( <u>n</u> =68-71) . . . . .	76
10. Item Factor Loadings for 3 Factors of the ASI (F1,F2,F3) ( <u>n</u> =67) . . . . .	78


## List of Figures

Figure		Page
1.	Southwestern Ontario. . . . .	35
2.	Statistical Analyses of Socio-Demographic Variables with HSO background Variables . . .	86
3.	Statistical Analyses of Independent Variables (IV's) (Socio-Demographic and HSO Background Variables) with Dependent Variables (DV's) (Tasks and Skills). . . . .	89

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

Abstract . . . . .	1
Acknowledgements . . . . .	vi
List of Tables . . . . .	vii
List of Figures. . . . .	viii
INTRODUCTION . . . . .	1
Statement of Purpose . . . . .	6
The Concepts . . . . .	9
REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE . . . . .	11
Activities of Administrators and Managers . . . . .	11
Early Research Findings . . . . .	13
Mintzberg and Beyond . . . . .	16
Administrative Skills . . . . .	17
Conceptualizing Administrative Skills . . . . .	19
Education and Training of Administration Skills . . . . .	23
Business administration . . . . .	26
Social work . . . . .	29
Summary . . . . .	31
RESEARCH QUESTIONS . . . . .	33
METHOD . . . . .	35
The Setting . . . . .	35
The Population . . . . .	37
The Procedure . . . . .	38
The Questionnaire . . . . .	39
Pre-testing of the questionnaire . . . . .	41
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION . . . . .	43
I. Socio-demographic Data . . . . .	43
II. The MSOs in the Sub-Population . . . . .	50
III. Administrative Task Data . . . . .	60
IV. Administrative Skill Data . . . . .	70
V. Other Statistical Analyses . . . . .	84
CONCLUSIONS . . . . .	95
Conclusions related to the Literature Review . . . . .	95
Findings of the Study . . . . .	96
Limitations . . . . .	100
Recommendations . . . . .	102

Appendix A: COVER LETTER . . . . .	105
Appendix B: QUESTIONNAIRE . . . . .	107
Appendix C: METHODOLOGY . . . . .	113
A. The Study Population . . . . .	113
B. Measurement Properties of the ASI . . . . .	113
REFERENCES . . . . .	117
Vita Auctoris . . . . .	124



## INTRODUCTION

Since social work's inception in the USA and Canada in the late 1800's, members of the profession have managed and administered human service organizations (HSOs), and since this time, the purpose, usefulness and administration of HSOs has been subject to much public scrutiny. In general, managers or administrators of HSOs have been accountable to larger social, legitimized political and economic structures, which either sanctioned or mandated their operations. Over time, these structures have influenced the way in which HSOs have evolved from a number of perspectives.

The first institution to become involved in social welfare was the Judaic Church which from Biblical antiquity, encouraged charity as a foremost religious obligation (Mandel, 1982). Subsequently, the Elizabethan Poor Laws of 1601 marked the first formal and legitimized recognition of the poor in society (Titmuss, 1968) and as a result, contributed to the establishment of institutionalized welfare in the form of charity schools and workhouses. As stated by Wilensky and Lebeaux (1966), it was the Industrial Revolution of the 18th and 19th centuries which primarily contributed to the development of social welfare institutions in the Western World. The Industrial

Revolution stimulated the undertaking of new jobs and opportunities and this trend evolved from Europe to North America. The consequent evolution of social welfare and its respective institutions paralleled this trend.

In Canada, social welfare did not develop until after 1900. For example, from 1900-1920, custodial institutions for the mentally ill and criminals, and voluntary welfare organizations (e.g. Children's Aid Societies, Red Cross, Victoria Order of Nurses, etc.) grew in size and number (Armitage, 1975). In the post World War I and Depression era, the provincial and federal governments became more actively involved in helping their respective municipalities. This generally resulted in the emergence of a variety of forms of social welfare legislation and the establishment of institutions needed to serve those in need.

The period from 1940-1950 was considered a time during which the foundations of the modern structure of Canadian social welfare institutions were created (Armitage, 1975, p. 216). During this time, Canadian society became increasingly benevolent, the number of social welfare legislation and institutions increased, and the character of Canadian social welfare developed as we know it today. The changing political, economic and social climate of the World War II era in the USA and Canada, and the increase in social welfare needs and social problems coupled with fewer available funds to deliver services, caused the government

to become more actively involved in social welfare institutions or HSUs. Over time, differences in service delivery and the administration of social welfare services between public and private HSUs became less obscure (Fottler, 1981).

From the 1950's to the early 1970's, three significant occurrences influenced how HSUs evolved and were administered. These were: 1) deinstitutionalization; 2) the evolution of the generalist administrator; and 3) the development of task-function criteria for hiring human service personnel (Baker and Northman, 1978). As a result, HSUs hired a variety of human service personnel who had different educational and training backgrounds.

The social welfare climate in the past decade has been primarily influenced by both public accountability and political conservatism. More specifically, the energy crisis of the 1970's, governmental budget deficits and the shift to more of a conservative focus have had an effect on the present state of social welfare. As a result, a call for increased accountability and for HSUs to be administered in a more business-like or corporate fashion, has become an apparent and current trend in the social welfare field. For example, concerns for financial outcomes, program evaluations or program justifications, detailed budgets, and/or accountability mitigate the usefulness of old HSU administrative ways which were

generally more informal and more generalist in orientation (Newman and Turem, 1974). Social work as a profession has been generally slow to respond to the education and training needs of administrators of HSOs in the 1980's (Blostein, 1985).

Social work has influenced, however, how administrators are perceived both within and outside the profession. For example, social work educational institutions have been training HSO administrators since the end of the nineteenth century (Blostein, 1985). Coupled with the fact that social workers have dominated HSO administration, it seems safe to assume that all social work administrators have received adequate training in this specialization and the profession has organized curricula for training these individuals; unfortunately, such is not actually the case.

It is only since the 1940's, for instance, when social work was maturing as a profession, that concentration on micro-level intervention (its primary focus) evolved (Morris, 1962). With the majority of undergraduate and graduate curricula attention drawn to this area, the macro-areas, namely policy, planning, administration and research have been virtually ignored until recently (Blostein, 1985).

It is currently estimated that 50% of HSOs are administrated by social workers who possess at least an MSW (Alexander, 1982). Scurfield (1980) cited a study which revealed that 80% of graduating MSW students specialized in



direct practice. Consequently, one may speculate that most MSW's administering HSUs do not have the formal education and training in basic human service administration. Rather, they are most likely to be direct service specialists using skills learned in client intervention adapted for administrative practice (Scurfield, 1980).

Some authors, namely Blostein (1985), Scurfield (1980) and Fram (1982), have maintained that Master's level social work administration curricula are limited, varied and produce different types of graduates. Others, such as Harbert (1981), have stated that even when trained in administration, social work graduates are not provided with the full range of administrative skills needed to effectively manage an HSU. Two main areas of deficiency which have been noted include financial management (Blostein, 1985), and personnel management (Morris, 1982). Although social work produces administrators with a wide range of skills, it is clear that if the profession desires to maintain itself in managing HSUs, changes in education and training are inevitable.

As intimated, social work is no longer the exclusively preferred profession for HSU administration (Gummer, 1979). The combination of the factors previously indicated have caused those who preside and govern HSUs (or those who have power over them), to look elsewhere for administrative managers (Holosko, 1985). Further, based on the increasing

6

demand for services, resource constraints and increased attention focused on the financial management of HSOs, professionals trained in both public and business administration are, currently being considered as potential HSO managers.

### Statement of Purpose

The issue related to who is better qualified to administer HSOs seems relevant and has many sides to it. One side of the issue is that non-social work professionals in upper level management positions may possess a 'marketplace mentality' with a profit and competition motive, rather than cooperation and a commitment to client service (Alexander, 1982). Implicit in this perspective is that such administrators would perpetuate mechanistic HSOs which may result in less of a focus on the needs of those who are served by HSOs. With the same results, another side of the issue relates to accountability, in that HSOs are becoming more accountable to those who provide the necessary resources for their survival. Thus, accountability contributes to perpetuating administrators who are better able to meet the demands of their funding organizations, rather than the demands of the clients they purport to serve.

This way of thinking suggests that the administrator's high level of attention placed on the needs of clients is a primary reason for the limited growth in administrative skills and education previously noted. The contention here is that by shifting the focus to HSO operational dynamics, and political and economic influences, effective HSO administration may be attained. This, in turn, may provide the opportunity to have financial control and exercise optimum financial restraint within HSOs. Consequently, the number of non-social work professionals in HSO administration seems to be steadily increasing. At the same time, however, there is no general consensus as to what upper level managers in HSOs need in order to manage these organizations effectively. The important question thus changes from who is better qualified to manage HSOs, to what administrative/ management skills are needed to effectively manage HSOs?

The purpose of this study is to assess administrative skills used by upper level managers in a sample of HSOs in Southwestern Ontario. This study seeks to assess: 1) the skills possessed by these managers; 2) their education and training related to these skills; and 3) the importance of these skills to overall organizational functioning. The research strategy is a quantitative-descriptive investigation which will use a mailed survey approach, and is directed at determining the relationship between specific

variables, namely, administration skills, time spent in the performance of these skills and factors influencing them. The emphasis of this study is on identifying the extent and nature of the relationship between these variables.

Rationale for study. There are a number of reasons why this subject seems relevant for study. First, it appears to be a timely issue. For example, in recent years, an increasing number of professionals from other disciplines have assumed administrative positions held traditionally by social workers and, as previously noted, there is some concern regarding what skills are needed to effectively manage HSOs. Second, social workers are sanctioned to work in HSOs and are trained for HSO administration. Thus, the findings of this study may have implications for social work education and training.

Third, there is a paucity of research in this area. This study will draw attention to the limited information and empirical data in this area and hopefully contribute to this void. Finally, administrators are presumably hired on the basis of personal suitability, professional qualifications, skills and expertise, criteria which are considered to be beneficial in managing HSOs. This study will attempt to test out the validity of this assumption.

## The Concepts

HSOs are defined by Hasenfeld (1983) as "that set of organizations whose principle function is to protect, maintain or enhance the personal well-being of individuals by defining, shaping or altering their personal attributes (p. 1)". They are many and varied and encompass a vast organizational welfare system which are primarily focused on the general areas of health, corrections, education, recreation, justice, personnel and social services, and mental health.

Alexander (1982) stated that administration in its limited definitional sense contains the functions of organizational design, policy formulation, decision processes, personnel direction and supervision, financial and program planning, and budgeting (p.14). A skill is defined as a proficiency or ability in a specific art, trade or technique (Funk & Wagnalls, 1982, p. 1258). Administrative skills, therefore, are those skills used in administration. These include the skills of staff supervision, goal and objective setting, evaluation, social policy development and analysis, problem solving, evaluation research, financial management, communication/negotiation/collaboration, community liaising and personnel management (Holosko, 1985).

For the purpose of this study, upper level managers (ULMs) are those administrators who are responsible for a

combination of service delivery, and financial, and/or personnel management within an HSO. ULMS use administrative skills to direct and control an organization's functioning. In small HSOs (those which have small numbers of staff and clients), administrative functions are usually the responsibility of one person, namely, the executive director. In larger HSOs, these functions may be delegated in two different ways: 1) those managers who concentrate on one primary function such as a director of finance, or a director of personnel; and 2) general managers who concentrate on many functions such as a director of residential care, supervisor of clinical services or a supervisor of protection services. Both of these sorts of ULMS will be considered in this study.

## REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

There is a scarcity of literature specifically addressing this area. In fact, there is a minimal amount of research on what ULMS do in HSOs and even less on the administration skills needed to effectively run an HSO.

In order to enhance understanding of the administrative skills used by ULMS in an HSO, the related literature will be reviewed according to: 1) activities of administrators and managers; and 2) administration skills.

### Activities of Administrators and Managers

Human beings have the tendency to live in groups for the benefits they provide (e.g. safety and security). The earliest forms of these groups were informal, and represented the infancy stage of organizations. Over time, organizations developed into more formal, complex and sophisticated entities, and were used for an increasing number of varied purposes (Perrow, 1979).

Related to the evolution of organizations was the emergence of knowledge on how to manage them more efficiently (Atchison & Hill, 1978). The late 1800's marked the beginning of the rapid growth period in the development of theories used to run organizations. Management theory pioneers such as Taylor (1911), Mooney (1947), Fayol (1949)

and Simon (1960) are a few of the many theorists who have contributed to this growing body of knowledge (Burrell & Morgan, 1979).

Since the late 1960's, there was the realization that management theory and principles could be used in various organizations and that the natures of organizations were becoming similar due to increased intervention from the government (Murray, 1975; Cyert, 1975). These issues have had a significant impact not only on how organizations are managed or administered, but also on who the administrators are. For example, one belief currently emerging suggests that a well qualified administrator has the ability to run any organization (e.g. an administrator in a bank can also run a manufacturing firm) (Fottler, 1981).

Further, there has been an abundant amount of information developed regarding how organizations should be managed (e.g. planning, coordination, organizing, etc.). However, there has been a paucity of knowledge developed related to the actual nature of administrative activities. In simpler terms, we seem to know a considerable amount about what administrators and managers should do but not much about what they actually do or how they do it. For example, information is needed about how administrators need to be trained, what knowledge, abilities and skills they possess, and the transferability of one administrator to any organization.



The limited research that has been conducted in this area predominantly consists of studies which assess the various aspects of tasks, activities and functions of administrators and managers. An overview of the related literature in this area could be broken down chronologically into: 1) early research findings; and 2) Mintzberg and beyond.

### Early Research Findings

Information about organizations, and how administrators and managers functioned in them, was initiated by examining formal groups within organizations. Homans (1950), by studying the activities of a British street gang and its hierarchical leadership structure, reported two main findings among others. These were: 1) the higher a man's social rank in the gang, the greater the number of persons with whom he initiates interaction, either directly or through intermediaries, and; 2) the higher a man's social rank in the gang, the more frequently he interacts with persons outside of his own group. His conclusion, that administrative level in any organization determines job activities, was later supported by other researchers (Hemphill, 1959; Mahoney, Jerdee & Carroll, 1965; Haas, Porat & Vaughan, 1969; Allan, 1981).

In another study, Hemphill (1959) examined the three levels of management (lower, middle and upper) in five

different private organizations in industry. Although no statistically significant conclusions could be reached, he did isolate ten similar factors affecting executives, such as business control and the preservation of assets. Of these factors, he reported that ULMS ranked highest on human affairs, planning and power (long term concerns) factors. Conversely, the lower level managers ranked highest on staff services, work supervision and technical products (day to day concerns) factors.

Mahoney, Jerdee and Carroll (1965) and Haas, Porat and Vaughan (1969) conducted two similar studies that also assessed the three levels of management from a somewhat different perspective. These were accomplished by obtaining data about executive's estimates of how much time they spent in various types of activities. Both of these studies used variations of 'POSDCORB' (planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting and budgeting), an acronym devised by early management theorists that is widely used in the administration and management literature. These authors found differences in managerial responsibility at all administrative levels. At this time, it was concluded and widely supported, that ULMS were more involved in planning and coordinating, while lower level managers were more involved in supervising.

A subsequent study of the specific activities of upper level management (i.e. chief executive officers), was

conducted by Stieglitz in 1970. Although eight common duties of ULMS were devised, a closer examination of them revealed that they were alternative ways of expressing POSDCORB. For example, the activity of determining overall objectives was another way of indicating the activity of planning.

While these researchers focused on tasks or activity similarities of administrators, others were assessing the behavioural or personality characteristics of administrators. For example, Carlson (1951) set out to find common executive behavioural patterns in a number of organizations. He concluded that there were three similarities in executive behaviour: 1) working time - uninterrupted time was a rarity; 2) communication patterns - more letters were received than generated; and 3) work content - the main problem was staying informed of what was going on in the organization.

In an unrelated, but more complex investigation of executive behaviour, Hodgson, Levinson and Zalesnik (1965) revealed that the executive incorporated organizational requirements with his personal needs. Referred to as role-task work, these authors found that executives became involved in tasks that would also fulfill their own needs.

### Mintzberg and Beyond

Mintzberg (1973), in his seminal study conducted in 1967-68, synthesized the knowledge gained about management activities with the knowledge gained about executive behaviour. His research is generally recognized for its comprehensiveness, methodology, and unique perspective and as a result, has been used in different ways by many contemporary researchers (see for example, Lau & Pavett, 1980; Allan, 1981; Kurke & Aldrich, 1983). The purpose of Mintzberg's study was to assess what managers do by examining the similarities of their jobs. For example, he determined that ULMS play various roles in the organization. They play interpersonal roles (e.g. figurehead and leader), informational roles (e.g. monitor, disseminator and spokesman) and decisional roles (e.g. entrepreneur, disturbance handler and negotiator).

As a result of this study, there was an advancement in knowledge about the similar nature of administration and management tasks and activities, and about the differences of these tasks and activities within the particular levels of management. For example, Stewart (1967) found similarities between administrators in the amount of time they spent in discussions and in the office. He also concluded that five distinct groups of managers exist, which are: 1) emissaries (spent time away from the company); 2) writers; 3) discussers; 4) trouble shooters; and 5)

committee persons. Penfield (1974) discovered similar findings when he studied lower level managers.

Lau and Pavett (1980) used Mintzberg's various role typologies to compare ULMS in public and private sector jobs. These authors showed that private sector, more so than public sector ULMS, spent more time in crisis management and scheduled meetings, and relied much more on networking than on the formal information system. Files (1981) integrated the methodology developed by Mahoney et al. (1965), Haas et al. (1969), and Penfield (1974), who compared managers in HSOs, business, construction and banking, to compare managers in HSOs. She concluded that HSO ULMS devoted more time to planning and interorganizational coordination, and less time to staff motivation and supervision than the managers in other areas. The reason cited for this was attributed to the turbulent organizational environment, multiple constituencies and professional traits of staff, all of which seem to be associated with HSOs.

#### Administrative Skills

During the 1950's, the selection and training of competent administrators was widely recognized as one of North American industry's most pervasive problems. Katz, in his seminal article published in 1955 in The Harvard Business Review, entitled "Skills of an Effective

Administrator", stated that effective performance of administrators in business and industry depended on fundamental skills rather than the personality traits of these individuals. This perspective, which changed the way industry perceived administrators, continues to this day.

The study of skills in general is tedious and complex, and major advances in acquiring knowledge about administrative skills have been slow to develop. One reason for this is that the most accepted method used in studying administrative skills is to analyze task behaviour of administrators on the job (Mintzberg, 1973; Singleton, 1978, 1979, 1981). In this regard, specifically observed behaviours by administrators connote a number of skills that overlap, interact, complement one another, or are idiosyncratic to specific organizations, and thus cannot be easily generalized (Singleton, 1978). Consequently, most advances in the knowledge related to administrative skills have been theoretical in nature. More specifically, administrative skill research, which emerged in the mid 1970's and is apparent today, attempts to identify specific skills used in organizations to enable closer examination of them, and assists in the further development of skill knowledge.

### Conceptualizing Administrative Skills

As previously indicated, administrative skills have many different dimensions to them. Waters (1980) conceptualized the nature of these skills and charted skills on continuums ranging from specific to non-specific, and from short to long term. For example, skills such as budget analysis are specific and can be learned over a short period of time. Other skills such as gaining power in an organization, are advanced skills which are non-specific and are usually learned over longer periods of time.

Presently, there is a dearth of knowledge available related to what constitutes advanced administrative skills (e.g. politicizing in the organization, gaining power, etc.). As a result, advanced administrative skills are envisioned as having some mystique to them. This observation was highlighted by Livingston<sup>et al</sup> (1971), and later Glenn (1980), who stated that chief executive officers are the only individuals who fully understand the skills they possess. Therefore, an examination of the knowledge of their skills, specific to their organizations, would not necessarily enhance an understanding of advanced administrative skills in general, as only a few people know what they are, and/or how to do them. Conversely, the knowledge gained of basic administrative skills (e.g. those skills that are more specific and short term), can be more easily identified. The literature clearly perpetrates the

f

discussion of basic administration skills and purposefully avoids the analysis of advanced administrative skills.

It is generally acknowledged that there are three main categories of basic administrative skills. They are: 1) technical; 2) conceptual; and 3) interactional level skills (Katz, 1955; Sheriff, 1968; Neugeboren, 1971; Pflanczer, 1978; Kiel, 1982; Perlmutter, 1984). Although there is general consensus as to what constitutes each skill category, some skills overlap into each other. As well, although there is some agreement on these categories, different authors bring different emphasis to each skill category.

Technical skills are specific administrative skills needed to perform day to day organizational tasks, and several are needed to administer an organization effectively. They can be categorized into two types: 1) general technical; and 2) specialized technical. General skills include: budget analysis; finance; and personnel management skills. There are also specialized technical skills required in specific organizations. For example, in a private, for-profit, business organizations such as manufacturing firms, sales, production control, and/or marketing are some of the skills which are required (Drucker, 1974). Similarly, in a public, non-profit, MSO such as a child protection agency, case management technology, community liaising, and evaluation research are



examples of specialized technical skills required for administrators to be effective in these organizations (Patti, 1976). Although general and special technical skills are needed at all administrative levels, they are used more at the lower administrative levels in organizations than they are at the middle and upper management levels (Kiel, 1982).

Conceptual skills, also referred to as analytical skills, are the skills needed to administer the organization as a whole. For example, these skills are integral to understanding, and shaping the inter- and intra-organizational environments in which the organization functions. Conceptual skills include: decision-making; entrepreneurial (i.e. innovation); and organizational skills. These skills are used at all levels of administration and tend to be more important at higher levels of administrative responsibility (Katz, 1955). For example, ULNs responsible for organizing the administrative structures for decision-making and policy, may use skills such as organizational analysis, policy-making and decision-making to construct a functional organizational structure for task performance.

Thus, conceptual skills are used in all types of organizations, from private, for-profit, to public, non-profit. However, when used by different administrators in different organizations, these skills are directly tied to

the value base and the purpose the administrator uses them for. For example, the administrator of an insurance agency, where the mission of the organization is to optimize profits, might implement a monetarily based incentive system in order to motivate sales agents to increase agency outputs. Thus, this administrator views the organization from a production and profit perspective. By contrast, the administrator of a shelter for battered women, where the mission of the organization is to provide a safe environment for rehabilitation, might implement a twenty-four hour crisis line. Thus, this administrator views the organization from a service, effectiveness perspective.

Interaction skills also referred to as human or social skills, are those administrative skills needed for social interaction and for influencing others in the organization. These skills are used in all levels of administration and in all types of organizations because interactive behaviour between organizational members is a necessary ingredient for tasks to be managed and completed (Metcalf, 1982). Interaction skills are referred to by many authors as being the most important skills needed by an administrator to effectively and successfully run an organization (Mintzberg, 1973; Koenigs, 1982; Metcalf, 1982; Wolk, Way & Bleeke, 1982). They include basic communication, and/or human relations skills. For example, ULMS need to delegate authority, and in order to do this properly, they must

communicate their request to subordinates (middle level managers) in a way that will result in the tasks being effectively completed.

### Education and Training of Administration Skills

There are two criteria that are generally recognized as essential in administration skill education and training. One is that an effective administrator must be well rounded in all three skill categories (Katz, 1955; Kiel, 1982); the other, is that the best way to learn administrative skills is to simultaneously blend theory (e.g. formal learning) with practical application (e.g. on-the-job training or a simulated work environment) (Waters, 1980; Randell, 1981).

The actual education and training of administrators varies from the perspective each discipline brings to the knowledge base. The disciplines of health, education, public administration, business administration and social work are foremost in education and training in this area (Godwin, 1975). As one might assume, within these various disciplines, there are discrepancies as to which administrative skill categories are favoured or focused on, and how these skills are taught. However, in light of these differences, strides are being made to consolidate the advancements achieved in the education and training of administration within the various disciplines.

Business administration. Business administration education and training have grown increasingly since the 1940's. In this regard, emphasis has been placed on the development of technical skills geared predominantly toward private, for-profit organizations (Bickerstaffe, 1981). For example, accounting, financial management, marketing and personnel management are a few of the technical skills which usually shape business administration curricula. Although these skills are essential to the effective functioning of an organization, the business administration profession has been criticized as being too narrow in its educational focus. For example, MBA's develop some conceptual skills such as organizational theory and design, but Bickerstaff (1981) stated that, in the field, MBA's are too short-term in their thinking and do not have the full range of conceptual skills desired by those organizations seeking effective administrators (p. 22). The weakness in conceptual skill development in MBA programs has been cited by numerous authors (Gordon & Howell, 1959; Macker, 1981; Barbash, 1982; Behrman & Levin, 1984; Kaus, 1986). These authors generally conclude that too much emphasis is placed on technical skills and too little is placed on conceptual and interactional skills.

Ouchi, an authority on Japanese management, similarly stated that business administration in North America is focused too much on technical skills and not enough on

interaction skills (Koenigs, 1982). He attributed this to the inability of these administrators to envision organizations as socio-economic bodies. He considered the initial adoption of Japanese management techniques by North American industry in the 1970's, which still continues today, to be indicative of this fact. The views of these authors were suggested some 20 years ago by Sheriff (1968), who advocated that business administration should concentrate more on interaction and conceptual skills, because although technical skills are extremely valuable and necessary, the need for them decreases as the administrator moves to higher levels.

The education and training process in business administration is a theoretical approach, with a minimum of practical experience offered. Bickerstaffe (1981) suggested that this is concomitant with the emphasis on technical skills because these type of skills can be learned quickly in a classroom setting. By contrast, interaction and conceptual skills take longer to learn and require practical experience. However, business administration education and training needs to place more emphasis on the development of interaction and conceptual skills for their graduates to be more effective in organizations.

Social work. Social work administration education and training has been formally provided in the profession since the 1960's. The reluctant adoption of administrative skill

education by the profession, is an indication of the delayed focus on accountability and the delayed growth in the complexity of HSOs. For example, in a recent article in Administration in Social Work, Perlmutter (1984) justified and abdicated the need for administrative curricula to be separate from direct service curricula, a delineation made years ago by other professions.

As stated by Macarov (1977), the most crucial area of concern of the profession is in the assumed give and take between technical methodology and conceptual ideology (p. 141). There is some fear by those in the profession that increased technical administrative sophistication will draw the profession away from its ideological focus on, and concern for, the client (Lewis, 1977; Klepinger, 1978; Wilson, 1980; Patti, 1985). Consequently, standard-setting in education curricula and training for social work administration has not formally evolved (Sarri, 1982; Blostein, 1985). Currently, curricula range from the more numerous, unstructured administrative programs, which include an administrative practicum, one or two courses in administration, and/or courses in social policy analysis and evaluation research, to the less numerous, structured administrative programs, which include the courses mentioned above and courses in specialized administrative skills, such as organizational theory, budget analysis, grant proposal preparation etc. The predominant focus presently found in

most social work programs however, is more of a focus on the client and less of a focus on the organization.

When examining the needs of HSO administrators, most emphasis is placed on interaction skills. In this regard, social work administrators usually have a wide range of interaction skills because they are educated and trained in areas such as: 1) communication skills; 2) human behaviour; 3) interpersonal sensitivity; etc., and these skills adapt readily to organizational settings and are usually referred to as communication, collaboration and/or interpersonal skills.

Skills in the conceptual and technical categories are mostly offered as an adjunct to interpersonal skills in social work education and training curricula. Conceptual skills include the social work value base, systems analysis and problem-solving (Fauri, 1976). Technical skills include direct service technology and community liaising. In addition, administrative skills that are specifically geared to HSOs such as program evaluation, social policy evaluation and analysis, and staff supervision have also been recent developments in social work curricula.

There are, however, areas within the conceptual and technical skill categories, where social work administrators are not being adequately trained. These technical skills are the ones that seem crucial to the effective operation of an organization, namely finance and personnel management

skills. Some authors have singled out financial management as the most critical of the skills that is missing in social work administration (Neugeboren, 1971; Hairston, 1981b; Blostein, 1985). The lack of this skill is becoming increasingly illuminated because of its highly visible relationship to accountability. In addition, some conceptual skills such as organization and administration theory are also not emphasized enough for social work administrators (Fauri, 1976; Scurfield, 1980).

It has also been suggested that political skills, which overlap all three administrative skill categories, is another area where social work administrators are not being adequately trained (Fry, 1980). Although the political economy is acknowledged as a unique feature of HSUs when compared to other types of organizations (Austin, 1983; Mullen, 1983), there has not been much emphasis placed on the development of the political skills needed to adequately function in this environment. For example, Finch (1982) suggested that the increase in resource scarcity currently being experienced by HSUs, increases the need for greater political skills among social work administrators.

The education and training process in social work administration is an intermixed theoretical and practice approach, idiosyncratic to the curricula and placements in which it is offered. Although it is useful to have a blend of theory and practice, there are some additional changes




needed in social work education and training in this area. For example, in separate studies, Scurfield (1980) and Hairston (1981a) illustrated how social work administrators without specialized administrative skill training have conceptualized their administrative responsibility from a direct service perspective rather than an administrative focus -- two entirely different frames of reference. In order to prepare social work administrators with adequate specialized education and training for administrative skill development, Patti (1976), Dolgoff (1979-80) and Perlmutter (1984) recommended that experience in social work should be a prerequisite in social work administration education and training. The assumption put forward by those authors is that an experienced social worker would have: 1) more life experience; 2) more likelihood of having observed social work administration; 3) more of a commitment to learn administration; and 4) a deeper understanding of the complexities and the broad nature of social work administration.

The view of the administrator's role as that of a multi-specialist, has resulted in the realization that a broad range of skills are needed to be an effective, well-rounded social work administrator (Patti, 1977; Files, 1981). As a result, three formats have been recommended to provide social workers with the broad range of administrative skills necessary to be competent in this

area. The first recommendation is for an interdisciplinary format between social work, business administration, and/or public administration (Griffin, 1976; Klepinger, 1978; Austin, 1983; King, 1983; Mullen, 1983). One reservation about such an arrangement comes from Patti (1985) who noted conflicting conceptual ideological skills. He stated that social work should not adopt the business objective of productivity because of its potentially damaging effect on the provision of service and on the value base of the profession.

The second recommendation is for an autonomous social work curricula where the broad range of administration skills will be offered by the social work school (Sarri, 1982; Perlmutter, 1984; Blostein, 1985). This format would preserve the ideological perspective of social work but might not provide advanced levels of expertise for particular types of skills (e.g. financial and personnel management). The final recommendation is for postgraduate, continuing education in social work administrative skill development. This is generally recognized as an immediate priority, and is needed by a variety of individuals in HSUs (Fauri, 1976; Patti, 1976, 1977). As an initial step towards broadening the range of administrative skills in regard to any of these three recommendations, it is advised that more research be conducted to determine the elements that are common in administrative practice so that relevant



and useful social work programs can be constructed (Kazmerski and Macarov, 1976; Cashman, 1978).

### Summary

The previous literature review outlined: 1) the activities of administrators and managers; and 2) issues related to administrative skills in business and social work.

An examination of the activities of administrators and managers revealed that knowledge developed in this area primarily emerged from observing what administrators and managers actually do in various organizations. Although there was a minimal amount of research conducted in this area, the studies reviewed focused on specific activities, behaviours, functions, roles and tasks of various administrators and managers. Even less research was found related to the study of administration skills. More specifically, advancements in administrative skill knowledge were slow to develop, and more emphasis had been placed on theoretical rather than practical research. Although administrative skills do vary on different continuums (e.g. specific/non-specific, short-term/long-term), basic administrative skills were acknowledged by many authors and categorized as either technical, conceptual or interactional. These skill categories, although helpful for understanding information about administrative issues, were

complex, not as mutually exclusive as they appeared to be, more difficult to study, and were idiosyncratic to specific organizational settings.

An examination of business administration and social work administration curricula revealed the similarities and differences between these two disciplines. From the standpoint of similarities, both disciplines focus on technical skills to some extent in their respective curricula. However, business administration curricula were far more advanced in teaching specific technical skills critical to organizational survival, most notably financial and personnel management. Social work curricula tended to focus more on person centred, or interaction administrative skills. From the standpoint of difficulties, each curricula had similar educational shortcomings both in the range of skills necessary to function in organizations and to respond to the demands of organizations from an administrative perspective. For curricula to be constructed that will contribute to the development of well-rounded and effective administrators of HSUs, more systematic study needs to be done in this area.

## RESEARCH QUESTIONS

As previously indicated in the literature, minimal research has been conducted about administrators and managers in general. Further, administrative skills used at all managerial levels of MSOs, have been generally researched in relatively few studies, and seem adjunct to other administration features (e.g. activities, behaviours, knowledge, etc.) (Godwin, 1975; Patti, 1976). More specifically, no known research has sought to extensively study the administration skills needed in MSOs at one managerial level.

This quantitative-descriptive study represents the first known formal research effort directed at assessing the administration skills possessed by ULMS in MSOs. As there are a number of other variables which will be examined in relation to administration skills, a number of research questions are posed in lieu of formal hypotheses. These questions, therefore, provide a framework for the ensuing method and data analyses. They also attempt to reflect relevant issues derived from the previous literature review.

1. What are the socio-demographic characteristics of ULMS in MSOs?
2. What are the major administrative tasks performed by ULMS in MSOs?

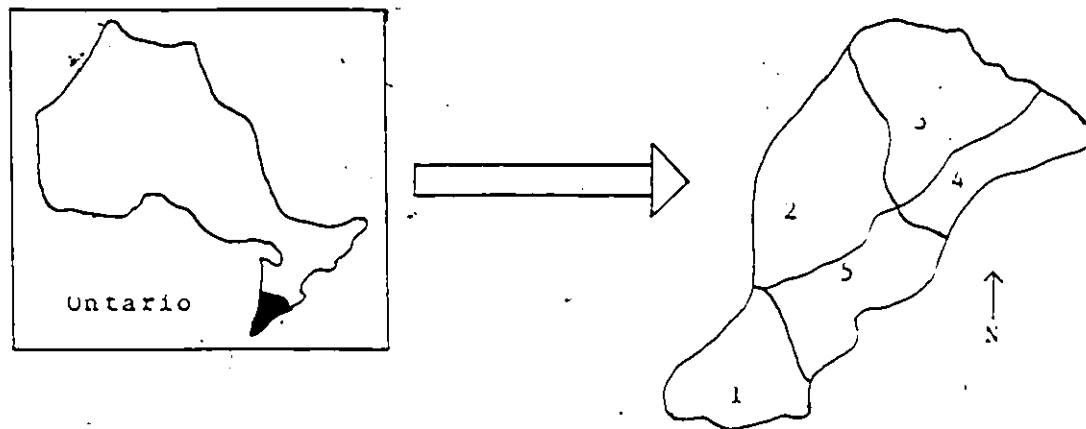
3. - What major administrative skills are used to perform the tasks of upper level management in HSUs?
4. What percentage of time is spent in performing the major administrative tasks of ULMS in HSUs?
5. What education, preparation or background learning has assisted ULMS in HSUs to develop administrative skills and knowledge?

## METHOD

### The Setting

Southwestern Ontario, which is comprised of Elgin, Essex, Kent, Lambton and Middlesex Counties, provided the setting for this study (see Figure 1).

Figure 1  
Southwestern Ontario



Counties:

- 1. Essex
- 2. Lambton
- 3. Middlesex

- 4. Elgin
- 5. Kent

This geographical region is predominantly surrounded by water, namely Lake Huron, the St. Clair River, Lake St. Clair, the Detroit River and Lake Erie. The north boundaries of Elgin and Middlesex Counties complete the outer perimeter of this region. The population of approximately 950,000 people, which grew by 4.6 % in the past 10 years, represents 3.7 % of the total population in Canada (Ontario Statistics, 1984).

There are four general sizes of communities within this geographic region. These are: 1) large sized cities with populations of over 150,000 people; 2) medium sized cities with populations between 50,000 and 150,000 people; 3) small sized cities with populations between 20,000 and 50,000 people; and 4) rural communities with populations less than 20,000 people.

London is the largest metropolitan area in category one (above) with a population of over 250,000. It is located at the north end of the region and serves as the hub of commerce for the larger southern Ontario region. Windsor, with a population of approximately 200,000, is located at the opposite, south end of the region. The economy of Windsor is largely derived from the automobile and related industries. Sarnia, with a population of over 82,000, is the only medium sized city in this region. Located on the mid west side of the region, this city's economic existence depends on the refining of petroleum.



Small sized cities include Chatham and St. Thomas. Chatham has a population of under 50,000, is located in the middle of the region, and serves as a farming and manufacturing centre. St. Thomas, with a population of almost 30,000 is located in the northeast, and is the site of an automobile manufacturing plant and a large psychiatric hospital which serves the region. Finally, are the rural communities that are comprised of small towns and farming communities. These are fairly evenly dispersed throughout this region. Approximately 210,000 or 30% of this population resides in these types of communities ( The Financial Post, 1983).

#### The Population

The population sampled for this study was composed of most of the ULNs of HSUs located in this area. The HSUs studied included those organizations, departments and units which predominantly served the social welfare needs of clients or were related to other aspects of social welfare. This numbered 171 HSUs or 27% of those in the region. The population for the study numbered 191 ULNs (almost a 1:1 ratio of ULNs to HSUs), 23% of the total number of ULNs in this region. Excluded from the population were HSUs that do not primarily serve clients in the social service delivery system. The HSUs excluded were those who were unlikely to have social workers employed in them and were unlikely to

have social workers as ULMS (e.g. school boards, recreational facilities and libraries). This numbered 454 HSUs with approximately 635 ULMS.

The HSUs in which the ULMS worked, were predominantly situated in the five cities located in the region, as previously described. The distribution of HSUs was as follows: 35% were in London; 32% in Windsor; 9% in Sarnia; 7% in Chatham; and 6% in St. Thomas. Rural communities contained 11% of the HSUs. As one would assume, when compared to population distribution, the urban centres in the region had a higher concentration of HSUs than did the rural communities. The population was sampled and a sub-population, rather than a sample, was used as the basis for data analyses (see appendix C).

### The Procedure

A pre-tested questionnaire was mailed to the 191 ULMS who comprised the study population. Current addresses were obtained from the regional community directories which included recent versions of 1) the Directory of Community Services for London; 2) the Directory of Community Services for Greater Windsor; 3) the Directory of Community Social Services of Sarnia-Lambton; 4) the Chatham-Kent Events -- Spring '86; 5) the Chatham-Wallaceburg Bell Telephone book; and 6) the Directory of Community Social Services of St. Thomas and Elgin County. Consequently, each HSU in the

region was listed and cross-referenced to ensure inclusion in the population.

An attached cover letter (see Appendix A), outlining the study purpose, assurances of confidentiality and a human subject consent form, was also enclosed. A stamped self-addressed envelope, (with the return address of the School of Social Work, University of Windsor) was mailed with each questionnaire. All questionnaires were mailed out on May 22, 1980. A six week return rate was deemed the cut-off date for receipt of the questionnaire.

All data analyses were programmed through the IBM 4381 at the University of Windsor Computer Centre. All analyses utilized the Statistical Analysis System (SAS) (1983), and the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences-X (SPSS-X) (1980).

### The Questionnaire

Questions asked on the survey instrument came from three sources. One was from instruments used in other similar studies (see Godwin, 1975; Patti, 1976; Scurfield, 1980; Files, 1981). Another source was from instruments used in other studies in the human service field (O'Flaherty, 1983). The final source was from adaptations of instruments developed by the researcher and his supervisor at the School of Social Work.

The questionnaire had five sections that contained a total of 16 questions, most of which were closed ended or fixed choice. These sections were as follows:

1. Background Information about the Respondent: i) demographic variables age and sex; ii) employment experience, including job title, major responsibilities, years of employment, and previous administrative/management experience; and iii) current membership in professional associations and/or organizations.
2. Background Information about the HSO in which the Respondent was Employed: i) percentage of funds received from funding sources; ii) annual operating budget; iii) size and composition of HSO staff; iv) number of administrative/managerial subordinates; v) size of community served; and vi) social services provided.
3. Administrative Tasks Performed: A list of administrative tasks, devised by Files (1981), was used to determine the percentage of time respondents spent performing those or other tasks. A rank ordering of the most important tasks was also asked.
4. Administrative Skills Inventory: A 53 item administrative skills inventory was developed, which listed administrative skills according to technical, conceptual, and interactional qualities, or

combinations of these. It was scored on a five point interval scale where '1' = 'never or almost never used' and '5' = 'always or almost always used'.

5. Educational Background Information: i) formal education included degree, discipline, specialization and year received; ii) entry level education and training was asked as well as related skill or task competencies and incompetencies; iii) continuing education experience; and finally, iv) individuals were asked to describe characteristics of the ideal upper level manager.

This instrument as well as the human subject consent form are appended in Appendix B of this report.

Pre-testing of the questionnaire. The questionnaire, in a less refined form, was pretested on May 14, 15 and 16, 1980. It was administered to 14 administrators/managers who were actively employed in HSOS in proximal distance to this region. The purpose of the questionnaire and study were not disclosed to the respondents until after completion of the pre-test.

The pre-test was individually administered by the researcher, who remained present during its completion. During that time period, respondents were asked to note any observations, concerns or areas which needed clarification. These issues were reviewed and discussed when the questionnaire was completed.

The participants completed the questionnaire in an average time of 23 minutes. The shortest completion was 16 minutes and the longest was 45 minutes. The results of the pre-test provided information which led to the refinement of the questionnaire to its final form.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results and discussion of data are presented in the following sub-sections: 1) Socio-Demographic Data; 2) The HSO'S in the Sub-Population; 3) Administrative Task Data; 4) Administrative Skill Data; and 5) Other Statistical Analyses.

### 1. Socio-Demographic Data

Of the 71 DLMS who comprised the sub-population, 58.8% were male and 41.2% were female. Their ages ranged from 23 to 63 years. The mean age was 42.4 years and the mode, or most frequently reported age, was 43 years.

As indicated in Table 1, the educational backgrounds of respondents were diverse and ranged from an incomplete high school education to the completion of doctoral degrees.

~~~~~

All analyses of all data were programmed through the University of Windsor Computer Centre using the IBM 4301. All analyses utilized the Statistical Analysis System (SAS) (1983) or the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences-X (SPSS-X) (1980). Missing data were excluded from the analyses by item. Thus sub-population sizes in the various tables are adjusted accordingly.

Table 1

Educational background of the Sub-Population  
(n=61)

| Degree/Diploma                  | Number | Relative<br>Frequency (%) |
|---------------------------------|--------|---------------------------|
| 1. Master's Degree              | 29     | 47.5                      |
| 2. Bachelor's Degree            | 14     | 23.0                      |
| 3. Community College Diploma    | 7      | 11.5                      |
| 4. Doctorate Degree             | 3      | 4.9                       |
| 5. Incomplete Master's Degree   | 2      | 3.3                       |
| 6. Honours Degree               | 2      | 3.3                       |
| 7. Incomplete Bachelor's Degree | 2      | 3.3                       |
| 8. Incomplete High School       | 2      | 3.3                       |
| Totals                          | 61     | 100.0                     |



Further, over 50% of the sub-population attained more than a bachelor's degree, and the most frequently reported educational level attained was a master's degree, held by 47.5% of the sample.

Of those who obtained degrees or diplomas, 89.2% were attained in the human services field. More specifically, the most frequently reported disciplines were social work (37.5%); education (15.0%); and sociology (12.5%). The remaining 10.8% of the sub-population indicated they had degrees or diplomas in non-human service disciplines, more specifically, business, journalism, art, and/or history. Within all of these disciplines, 39% of the sub-population indicated they had specialized in casework methods or clinical intervention, 21.4% specialized in administration, and 21.4% cited no particular specialization in their degrees/diplomas.

When further queried about their previous administrative/management education and training, the most frequent response was that they had "more than some" administrative/management education at the time of entry into their initial administration/management position. By contrast, the sub-population also revealed that they had "less than some" administrative/management training at the time of entry into their initial administration/management position.

The length of time individuals held their present positions ranged from 6 months to 30 years. Within this range, the average length of time was 7.3 years and the mode was one year. More specifically, 18.8% of the sub-population revealed they held their present position for one year. Eighty percent of the sub-population reported they were executive directors (i.e. CEO's, chief administrators, etc.), and the remaining 20% were specialized directors (e.g. program directors, personnel directors, etc.) who reported directly to an executive director. Within this context, 82.8% of the sub-population reported they had a full range of administrative responsibilities, while 13% reported they were solely responsible for program administration, 2.9% reported they were solely responsible for personnel administration and 1.4% were responsible for policy, planning and research administration. As well, over 70% of the entire sub-population indicated previous administrative/management experience before taking their current position.

Membership in professional associations was frequent for members of the sample, with 76.1% reporting they belonged to one or more associations. Of this group, 45.1% were members of non-administrative associations only, and 3.0% were members of administrative associations only. Over 19% were members in both non-administrative and administrative professional associations.

Discussion of socio-demographic data. Patti's (1976) study of human service managers employed at all administrative levels, revealed that females were minimally represented, particularly at upper management levels. He attributed this finding to discriminatory hiring and promotion practices, a condition that was exposed during the 1970's by the consciousness raising efforts of the women's liberation movement. In this study, there was an equal representation of males and females at upper management level positions. Although speculative, this finding may suggest that personnel practices have changed in the past decade and women are being hired in administrative capacities in HSUs. However, even with such advances, the fact that there were still slightly more male vs. female units among this sample, compounded by the reality that more women are disproportionately employed in HSUs than men, suggests that equity has not yet been fully realized in this regard.

Similarly, age ranges were evenly distributed for the sub-population, as revealed by the mean being only .0% less than the median. This was a slightly older sub-population than was noted in comparative studies (Patti, 1976; Cashman, 1976), in which approximately 50% were in their 30's, and 33% were in their 40's. One reason for this slight difference in findings (between this study and these other two), may be that it took this sub-population a somewhat

longer period of time to reach upper management levels, as the other studies tended to clump all management levels together (e.g. lower, middle and upper levels). Accounting for this factor, it would seem that the age distribution of administrators/managers in this sub-population paralleled the ages found in other comparative studies.

A master's degree was the most frequently reported educational achievement for this sub-population, a finding that was slightly lower, but comparable, to the educational achievement of samples studied by Patti (1976), Cashman (1970), and Files (1901). Upon examination of these comparative studies, one notes that the consistent finding of approximately 50% of the respondents with a master's degree, further parallels this study and, therefore, adds credence to the similarity of the demographic data.

The majority of respondents reported they had obtained a degree in a human service discipline. Not surprisingly, this particular sub-population was selected because the target group of this study was social workers and these individuals were most likely to be employed in the HSUs selected. It was surprising, however, to find fewer social workers than was expected. Interestingly, the large number of respondents who reported they had degrees in education, was at a ratio of almost one to every two social work degrees. This finding may be attributed to any one or combinations of the following factors: 1) that educators

possess administrative skills that are useful to HSUs; and/or 2) that educators have evolved into social welfare positions due to a saturated education market or job availability; and/or 3) that educators have been skillful in marketing themselves to HSUs; and/or 4) that educators have been more fortunate in finding these jobs; and/or 5) perhaps some HSUs prefer non-social workers to social workers in upper level management positions in HSUs (see Blostein (1985) p.40, for an interesting discussion of this issue). In any event, the large number of ULMS with education degrees causes one to speculate at length about such a finding which certainly has social work education implications.

Few of the ULMS had specialized educationally in administration, a finding that was consistent with Scurrield's (1980) study. One plausible explanation for this finding is that when individuals initially enter the human services, most are social workers who have been trained in casework methods, as was found in this study. Over time, such individuals evolve in career paths which are in the areas of supervision, administration and management. This was corroborated by the finding which indicated that at administrative/management entry level, few individuals perceived they had adequate education or training for such jobs.

Further, a relatively large number in the sub-population (36%), were promoted to ULM positions without prior managerial experience. Possible explanations for this finding are: 1) that previous management experience is not considered a prerequisite to administrative/management positions in MSOs; 2) there are few individuals to select from who have the education, experience, or expertise to fill such positions; 3) perhaps competence in casework or supervision are valued as required prerequisites to administration/management.

Finally, the sub-population revealed a high degree of affiliation with professional associations in general. Affiliation in administrative associations, however, was minimal, implying that most ULMs in such MSOs lacked a professional affiliated context in administrative/management related issues. On the other hand, there was substantial affiliation with professional associations in the human service field in general, which parallels the previous point relating to the fact these individuals were caseworkers/supervisors promoted to human service administrative/management positions.

#### 11. The MSOs in the Sub-Population

The MSOs in which the individuals in the sub-population were employed could be categorized according to 21 different types of MSOs. These ranged from an "other" category, which

was the mode at 21.7% and included specialized MSUs such as children's mental health services, planning/fundraising, alcohol/drug rehabilitation, hearing impaired services, and community planning services, to the education category which comprised 1.4% of the sub-population. These data are provided in Table 2.

Table 2

The Types of MSOs in which the Sub-Population  
were employed  
(n=69)

| Type of MSO                                                        | Number | Relative<br>Frequency (%) |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------|--------|---------------------------|
| 1. Other (children's mental health<br>planning/fund raising, etc.) | 15     | 21.7                      |
| 2. Child Welfare                                                   | 11     | 15.9                      |
| 3. Mental Health                                                   | 10     | 14.5                      |
| 4. Family Services                                                 | 9      | 13.1                      |
| 5. Correctional                                                    | 7      | 10.2                      |
| 6. Mental Retardation                                              | 5      | 7.3                       |
| 7. Rehabilitation                                                  | 4      | 5.8                       |
| 8. Income Maintenance                                              | 3      | 4.4                       |
| 9. Medical                                                         | 2      | 2.9                       |
| 10. Vocational/employment                                          | 1      | 1.4                       |
| 11. Services for the Aged                                          | 1      | 1.4                       |
| 12. Education                                                      | 1      | 1.4                       |
| Totals                                                             | 69     | 100.0                     |



Further, Table 3 provides some selected HSO characteristics which include: 1) full-time professional staff; 2) part-time professional staff; 3) full-time clerical staff; 4) part-time clerical staff; and 5) administrators that report directly to you.

Table 3

Selected HSO Characteristics of the Sub-Population  
(n=67-71)

| HSO<br>Characteristics                              | Range |     | Mean<br>( $\bar{x}$ ) | Median | Standard<br>Deviation<br>(S.D.) |
|-----------------------------------------------------|-------|-----|-----------------------|--------|---------------------------------|
|                                                     | High  | Low |                       |        |                                 |
| 1. Full-Time<br>Professional<br>Staff               | 789   | 0   | 39.1                  | 4      | 122.1                           |
| 2. Part-Time<br>Professional<br>Staff               | 91    | 0   | 4.7                   | 0      | 14.2                            |
| 3. Full-Time<br>Clerical<br>Staff                   | 99    | 0   | 5.0                   | 1      | 14.9                            |
| 4. Part-Time<br>Clerical<br>Staff                   | 22    | 0   | 1.0                   | 0      | 2.8                             |
| 5. Administrators<br>that Report<br>Directly to You | 21    | 0   | 2.5                   | 0      | 3.4                             |

The total sum of monies received by all of the HSUs in the sub-population was \$143,016,574. The average annual operating budget in the last fiscal year per HSU was \$2,134,606, with the actual budgets ranging from \$23,000 to \$40,000,000, with a median of \$450,000. Table 4 reveals all of the funding sources, the average proportions by percentage of funds received and the actual percentage and amounts of funds received by the HSUs in the sub-population.

Table 4

Actual Funding Sources, and the Average Proportions by Percentage of Funds Received and the Actual Percentage and Amount of Funds Received by each HSU ( $n=69$ )

| Funding Sources                          | Mean ( $\bar{x}$ ) of Proportion Received | Percentage (%) of HSUs that Received Funds | Sums of Funding Received from Sources (\$) | Mean ( $\bar{x}$ ) received per HSU from Sources (\$) |
|------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------|
| 1. Provincial Government                 | 54.1                                      | 80.0                                       | 77,373,047                                 | 1,381,061                                             |
| 2. United Way                            | 17.9                                      | 44.3                                       | 25,000,325                                 | 825,010                                               |
| 3. Municipal Government                  | 6.0                                       | 35.7                                       | 9,439,220                                  | 377,569                                               |
| 4. Other (Bingo, Fund Raising, etc.)     | 6.3                                       | 27.1                                       | 9,010,170                                  | 474,219                                               |
| 5. Federal Government                    | 5.5                                       | 25.4                                       | 7,886,022                                  | 437,001                                               |
| 6. Direct Fees for Service               | 3.0                                       | 30.0                                       | 5,434,700                                  | 258,795                                               |
| 7. Private Donations from Charity Groups | 3.4                                       | 27.1                                       | 4,062,031                                  | 255,927                                               |
| 8. Third Party Payments                  | 1.5                                       | 7.1                                        | 2,145,278                                  | 429,055                                               |
| 9. Private Donations from Individuals    | 0.9                                       | 21.4                                       | 1,287,167                                  | 65,811                                                |
| Relevant Totals                          | 100.0                                     | ----                                       | 143,010,574                                | ----                                                  |

Of the HSUs in this sub-population, 57.7% reported they served their immediate communities, 39.4% served their regional communities and only 2.8% reportedly served their provincial or national communities. Over 95% of the HSUs were located in urban communities with the highest proportion located in Windsor and London with 36.6% and 33.8%, respectively.

Discussion of HSUs in the sub-population. There was a wide range of different types of HSUs represented in the sub-population, which provided an adequate cross-section of representation of HSUs in this region. However, there seemed to be an over-representation of HSUs that were predominantly oriented toward the social functioning of the individual and the family unit (e.g. family services, mental health, child welfare and children's mental health, as indicated in Table 2). Although speculative, two of the possible reasons for this may be: 1) these areas are where most social problems originate; and/or 2) the Federal and Provincial Governments focus on the direct treatment of the effects of social problems, rather than other areas as prevention, social planning, community organization, etc.

As well, the sub-population were primarily employed in small HSUs, as indicated in Table 3. More specifically, the proportion of professional staff to clerical staff was at the ratio of 0:1. Consistent with these data, the anticipated small number of administrative subordinates who

reported to the ULMS in the sub-population was also found to be. These data indicate that there may not be many lower or middle level management positions in HSUs in southwestern Ontario, a consideration which further explains why such a large number of the ULMS were hired without previous managerial experience.

The large number of small HSUs was also associated with their small budget sizes. As expected, it was statistically determined that large HSUs had larger budget sizes.

In human service systems, as in most organizational systems, decision-makers who hold power are those who control the funds. It has been shown that the amount of power held is directly proportionate to the amount of funds held by the funding source (Van de Ven, 1976; Whetter, 1981). Within this context, and as was shown in Table 4, two funding sources tended to possess most of the power in this sub-population of HSUs. One was the Provincial Government, which was, by far, the most powerful decision-maker. The other, was the United Way.

A closer examination of the Federal and Provincial Governmental political structure reveals that the Federal Government, predominantly through Health and Welfare Canada, cost shares approximately 50% of the funding provided by the Provincial Government. Therefore, the power which appears to be exclusive to the Provincial Government, is in reality shared by both the Federal and Provincial Governments.

Thus, federal power seems directed more toward national, policy, regulatory issues, whereas Provincial power in terms of the provision of HSUs seems directed toward more of a regional and community operations level. As a result, the Federal Government's covert power, in this sense, indirect funding through the Provincial Governments, coupled with its overt power, direct funding to selected HSUs in the provinces, places them as the most powerful, yet least visible administrative structure which provides funds to HSUs. Therefore, as the data indicated, the Provincial Government delegates larger proportions of funds to respective HSUs and tends to have a higher visible profile in respective communities.

The United Way, which is primarily a fund raising/fund allocating organization, was another prominent source of funds for HSUs in the sub-population (see Table 4). The very low percentage of funds donated to the HSUs in the sub-population from individuals and corporations, leads one to speculate that the donations from these two sources may have been previously accessed through the United Way.

Almost all HSUs were located in urban settings. This large urban to rural proportion was not expected and significantly differed from the population distribution which was surveyed (see pg.37). This issue was examined from a variety of perspectives and no reasonable conclusion could be reached about this finding.

### III. Administrative Task Data

The respondents in the sub-population were asked to designate the amount of time spent in a variety of administrative tasks. These data were then compared to the original study by Files (1981), who developed this instrument and sampled 103 ULMs. These data are reported in Table 3.



Table 5

A Comparison of the Actual Percentage of Time Spent by Upper Level Managers in performing Administrative Tasks, In Files (1981) Study (n=103) and the Southwestern Ontario Administrative Skill (SOAS) Study Sub-Population (n=71)

| Administrative Tasks                           | Files Study<br>(n=103) | SOAS Study<br>(n=71) |
|------------------------------------------------|------------------------|----------------------|
| 1. Intergovernmental Relations                 | 13.1                   | 4.0                  |
| 2. Staff Supervision and Development           | 11.5                   | 13.3                 |
| 3. Budget Management                           | 11.4                   | 7.4                  |
| 4. Goal Setting                                | 8.4                    | 7.7                  |
| 5. Services Development and Improvement        | 7.0                    | 8.2                  |
| 6. Program Planning                            | 7.4                    | 9.0                  |
| 7. Board Relations                             | 6.2                    | 9.1                  |
| 8. Program Monitoring and Evaluation           | 6.0                    | 8.2                  |
| 9. Securing Funds                              | 6.0                    | 5.0                  |
| 10. Community Relations                        | 5.9                    | 5.7                  |
| 11. Inter-Agency Relations                     | 6.9                    | 5.0                  |
| 12. Needs Assessment                           | 4.0                    | 2.1                  |
| 13. Securing Manpower                          | 4.2                    | 2.9                  |
| 14. Recruiting Clients                         | 1.2                    | 2.0                  |
| 15. No response                                | 0.0                    | ---                  |
| 16. Other (e.g. casework, miscellaneous, etc.) | ---                    | 5.0                  |
| 17. Other                                      | ---                    | 0.0                  |
| 18. Other                                      | ---                    | 0.4                  |
| Totals                                         | 100.0                  | 100.0                |

An inspection of Table 5 reveals that outside of intergovernmental relations and budget management, there wasn't much discrepancy in the percentages in Files (1981) study and the Southwestern Ontario Administrative Skill (SOAS) study (using criterion that  $\geq 4.0\%$  was a significant difference). In terms of the actual frequencies, in the SOAS study, of task performance: 1) 13.5% of time was spent performing staff supervision; 2) 9.1% of time was spent performing board relations; 3) 9.0% of time was spent performing program planning; and 4) 8.2% of time was spent performing services development and improvement. Similarly, 4.0% of the sub-population reported they were involved in intergovernmental relations.

Further, a total of 23 OLMS, or 52.4% of the sub-population, reported they spent more than 25% of their time performing one particular task. Of these, 7 (9.9%) of the respondents were performing staff supervision, while 5 (1%) of the respondents were performing tasks in the 'other' category. Interestingly, all 5 of these 'other' tasks were the same activity, casework.

Respondents were then asked to examine the 14 tasks represented in Table 5, and rank order the 5 most important tasks they performed. Not surprisingly, the reported prioritized importance of tasks was similar to the reported percentage of time spent performing the tasks. These data are reported in Table 6.

Table 6

The Relative Priority in Importance of Administrative  
Tasks by Frequency and Percentage  
(n=71)

| Administrative Tasks                              | Number that<br>Considered this<br>Task a Priority | Relative<br>Percentage<br>(%) |
|---------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. Staff Supervision and<br>Development           | 43                                                | 13.0                          |
| 2. Board Relations                                | 37                                                | 11.2                          |
| 3. Program Planning                               | 36                                                | 10.9                          |
| 4. Goal Setting                                   | 34                                                | 10.3                          |
| 5. Services Development<br>and Improvement        | 32                                                | 9.7                           |
| 6. Inter-Agency Relations                         | 26                                                | 7.9                           |
| 7. Program Monitoring<br>and Evaluation           | 25                                                | 7.0                           |
| 8. Budget Management                              | 23                                                | 6.9                           |
| 9. Community Relations                            | 22                                                | 6.0                           |
| 10. Intergovernmental Relations                   | 14                                                | 4.2                           |
| 11. Other (e.g. casework,<br>miscellaneous, etc.) | 9                                                 | 2.7                           |
| 12. Recruiting Clients                            | 8                                                 | 2.4                           |
| 13. Securing Funds                                | 6                                                 | 1.0                           |
| 14. Securing Manpower                             | 6                                                 | 1.0                           |
| 15. Needs Assessment                              | 5                                                 | 1.5                           |
| 16. Other                                         | 3                                                 | 0.9                           |

The three tasks which reportedly took the highest percentage of time to perform (in Table 5) were prioritized the same way as being the most important to the effective operation of the MSO (in Table 6). Further, all but one of the administrative tasks in Table 6, were prioritized within two rank ordered positions or how they were listed in Table 5. The one exception to this was the task "securing funds", which ranked 13th in importance in Table 6, but was ranked 10th in terms of amount of time spent actually performing the task in Table 5.

Discussion of administrative task data. A comparison of the actual percentage of time spent by CLMS in performing administrative tasks between Files (1981) study and the SOAS study, revealed that both sub-populations spent time performing similar tasks. Further, not one task was performed more than an average of 13.5% of the time. It was surprising to find that both sub-populations were comparable not only in the tasks performed, but also in the amount of time spent performing these tasks.

However, there were two significant discrepancies between these studies as indicated in Table 5. The largest discrepancy was the item intergovernmental relations. This task consumed the largest amount of time in Files (1981) study, but was ranked twelfth in the SOAS study, a difference of 0.5%. The other discrepancy was with budget management. It was ranked third in Files (1981) study, but ranked seventh in the SOAS study, a difference of 4%.

One reason for these discrepancies may relate to aspects of the respective sub-populations. One of these was that Files (1981) study was comprised of ULMS from health, mental health and social service HSUs. Comparatively, this study was comprised of ULMS predominantly from mental health and social service HSUs. As a result, the unknown number of health HSUs in Files (1981) study may have contributed to the difference in these findings. For example, 80% of that sample may have been from health HSUs, whose administrators/managers spend a large percentage of time performing intergovernmental relations and budget management tasks. Other interpretations for this discrepancy will be offered later on.

Another aspect of the sub-population was their geographical locations. The sample in Files (1981) study was from the state of North Carolina in the U.S.A., while the sub-population in the SOAS study was from the province of Ontario, Canada. The differences in the geographical regions and the respective governments appeared to have also had differing effects on the findings. For example, the North Carolina and U.S. governments may have had a system which encouraged or even mandated more intergovernmental relations and stringent budget management procedures than the Ontario and Canadian Governments. Therefore, one cannot dismiss the governmental structures as influencing these findings.

Another reason may have been the actual time periods when the studies were conducted. Files (1981) study was conducted in March 1978, a period when economic recession, governmental budget restraint and increased pressure for accountability may have caused the sample to spend more time performing intergovernmental relations and budget management tasks. The SOAS study was conducted in the spring and summer of 1980, a period when there was economic growth, stable government spending and familiarity with accountability pressures. Again, time periods must be considered when interpreting these discrepancies. Apart from such differences, there was a surprising degree of congruence which overshadows these discrepancies.

As discussed, the percentage of time that ULMS spent performing administrative tasks in this study, as noted in Table 5, paralleled the findings of Files (1981) study with two notable exceptions, intergovernmental relations and budget management. One reason why staff supervision and development may have been overwhelmingly reported as the most performed (Table 5), and prioritized as the most important administrative task (Table 6), may be related to both the nature of the HSUs and the ULMS in this sub-population. More specifically, the primary responsibility of ULMS is to ensure that their HSUs are running effectively and efficiently. Consequently, ULMS must initiate activities with employees in their HSUs to achieve this

goal. The many dimensions that enter into running an effective HSO appear to be related to staff supervision and development for the most part. For example, when a new program becomes operational, the ULM, among many other things, must interact with staff (administrative subordinates, and/or front line staff) to implement the program goals and objectives, outline operating procedures, resolve a wide variety of major programming problems, receive feedback on program performance, and seek professional advice on how to improve the program. If such interaction does not take place, the expected results could be devastating to the program, and/or the HSO. Therefore, it appears as though staff supervision and development, for this sub-population, was the primary administrative task that facilitated the successful day to day operations in HSOs.

To further determine the relevance of this task, subsequent statistical analyses involving this variable were performed. A cross tabulation of the time spent performing staff supervision and development, with the number of years the sample had been employed at their current job was conducted. The chi-square test statistic was calculated to be 3.77, 1 d.f., and indicated that ULMS who were employed in their current positions for longer periods of time spent more time performing staff supervision and development. Similarly, it was also found that those with a degree for a

longer period of time, also performed staff supervision and development more often ( $t=2.17$ ,  $p=.08$ ). Both of these findings seem to suggest that those who have acquired practical experience after receiving formal education, value the importance of staff supervision and development, and use it accordingly. One possible reason for this is that they have seen, first hand, the social nature of NSOs and realize the importance of, and the many benefits that result from, staff supervision and development.

'Board relations', reported as the second most performed administrative task in Table 5, was also prioritized as the second most important administrative task in Table 6. It is interesting to note that, similar to staff supervision and development, board relations is an administrative task which entails interacting with individuals who have the greatest potential effect on day to day operations of the NSO. Thus, ULMS perform staff supervision and development to predominantly interact with their subordinates, whereas they perform board relations to predominantly interact with their superiors. Therefore, it seems as though the same rationale for the importance of staff supervision (e.g. day to day operational functions such as reporting, coordinating, monitoring, and troubleshooting), also applies to board relations.

Unlike other administrative tasks that were listed, board relations can obviously only be performed in NSOs that



have boards. In order to test this, a crosstabulation of time spent performing board relations and type of MSO resulted in  $\chi^2 = 0.42$  (2 d.f.). This indicated that more time was spent in board relations in child welfare and family service agencies, and further suggests that these are the types of MSOs that tend to have active boards.

Program planning and goal setting were the next two administrative tasks which were considered to be most important (see Table 6). These two tend to complement each other and appear to be used in conjunction with one another because they may have significant impact on the future directions of the MSO. Consequently, importance to the future of the MSO seems to be almost as important as staff supervision and development, and board relations.

The sample reported that they did not spend much time performing tasks other than those listed. However, the number of respondents who did spend a great amount of time performing 'other' tasks, spent it performing casework tasks. This may suggest that: 1) this activity occurred in small MSOs where the ULM had to maintain a caseload due to budget restraints; and/or 2) these ULMs had caseloads to maintain close contact with client and service issues; and/or 3) these ULMs were trained and educated to perform casework tasks and consequently, perform tasks they are most comfortable with.

In total, the relative prioritized importance of administrative tasks was reported by the sub-population in approximately the same order as the time spent performing them. This suggests that ULMS have a high degree of autonomy, and spend their time, for the most part, as they see fit. Perhaps more importantly, this suggests that ULMS spend their time performing tasks which are perceived to be the most important to the HSO.

#### IV. Administrative Skill Data

Each administrative skill used by the sample was scored on the Administrative Skill Inventory (ASI) in a range from '1=never or almost never used' to '5=always or almost always used' (see Appendix B). A list of the 27 most frequently used administrative skills is reported in Table 7.

Table 7

The Ranked Mean Scores of the 27 Most Frequently Used  
Administrative Skills on the ASI  
(n=68-71)

| Administrative Skill                                                      | Frequency of Use   |                    |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------|--------------------|
|                                                                           | Mean ( $\bar{x}$ ) | Standard Deviation |
| 1. Verbal Communication                                                   | 4.7                | 0.6                |
| 2. Decision-Making                                                        | 4.6                | 0.5                |
| 3. Human Relations                                                        | 4.6                | 0.6                |
| 4. Co-operation                                                           | 4.5                | 0.5                |
| 5. Leadership                                                             | 4.5                | 0.5                |
| 6. Team Work                                                              | 4.3                | 0.7                |
| 7. Written Communication                                                  | 4.3                | 0.7                |
| 8. Problem Solving                                                        | 4.3                | 0.7                |
| 9. Informal Communication/Networking                                      | 4.2                | 0.7                |
| 10. Motivating Others                                                     | 4.2                | 0.6                |
| 11. Understanding Front-line Social<br>Service issues in the Organization | 4.2                | 1.0                |
| 12. Interpersonal sensitivity                                             | 4.1                | 1.0                |
| 13. Human Behaviour                                                       | 4.0                | 1.1                |
| 14. Goals and Objective Setting                                           | 4.0                | 0.6                |
| 15. Personnel Management                                                  | 3.9                | 0.9                |
| 16. General Staff Supervision                                             | 3.9                | 0.9                |
| 17. Innovation                                                            | 3.9                | 0.8                |
| 18. Community Liaising                                                    | 3.9                | 0.9                |
| 19. Program Planning                                                      | 3.8                | 0.6                |
| 20. Staff Development                                                     | 3.8                | 0.6                |
| 21. Formal Communication                                                  | 3.7                | 1.0                |
| 22. Staff Training/Teaching                                               | 3.6                | 0.8                |
| 23. Financial Management                                                  | 3.5                | 1.0                |
| 24. Counselling                                                           | 3.5                | 1.2                |
| 25. Interorganizational Relations                                         | 3.5                | 0.9                |
| 26. Consultation                                                          | 3.4                | 1.1                |
| 27. Collaboration                                                         | 3.4                | 1.0                |

Note. \*The ASI scores ranged from '1=never or almost never used' to '5=always or almost always used'.

The complete list of the 26 least frequently used administrative skills is shown in Table 6.

Table 8

The Ranked Mean Scores of the 20 Least Frequently Used  
Administrative Skills on the ASI  
(n=68-71)

| Administrative Skill                           | Frequency of Use    |                    |
|------------------------------------------------|---------------------|--------------------|
|                                                | Mean ( $\bar{x}$ )* | Standard Deviation |
| 1. Understanding of the Casework Process       | 3.4                 | 1.3                |
| 2. Strategic Planning                          | 3.4                 | 0.8                |
| 3. Group Work Techniques                       | 3.4                 | 1.2                |
| 4. Budget Analysis                             | 3.3                 | 1.0                |
| 5. Policy Development and Analysis             | 3.3                 | 1.0                |
| 6. Front Line Social Service Staff Supervision | 3.3                 | 1.4                |
| 7. Negotiation                                 | 3.2                 | 1.2                |
| 8. Resource Development                        | 3.2                 | 1.1                |
| 9. Management Theory                           | 3.1                 | 1.0                |
| 10. Organizational Behaviour                   | 3.1                 | 1.0                |
| 11. Community Planning                         | 3.1                 | 1.1                |
| 12. Organizational Structure                   | 2.9                 | 1.0                |
| 13. Management Information Systems             | 2.9                 | 1.0                |
| 14. Organizational Theory                      | 2.8                 | 1.1                |
| 15. Systems Analysis                           | 2.7                 | 1.2                |
| 16. Evaluation Research                        | 2.6                 | 1.1                |
| 17. Political                                  | 2.5                 | 1.2                |
| 18. Marketing                                  | 2.5                 | 1.2                |
| 19. Legal/Legislation                          | 2.5                 | 1.2                |
| 20. Entrepreneurial                            | 2.4                 | 1.2                |
| 21. Social Welfare Theory                      | 2.3                 | 1.0                |
| 22. Fund Raising                               | 2.3                 | 1.4                |
| 23. Basic and Applied Research                 | 2.2                 | 1.0                |
| 24. Labour Relations                           | 2.2                 | 1.3                |
| 25. Computer Technology                        | 2.1                 | 1.1                |
| 26. Management Union Relations                 | 1.7                 | 1.2                |

Note. \*The ASI scores ranged from '1=never or almost never used' to '5=always or almost always used'.

14

According to the findings by Katz (1955), Neugegoren (1971), Perlmutter (1964), and others, the skills in the ASI were then theoretically constructed into three main categories, technical, conceptual and interactional, and three combinations of these categories, advanced, technical/conceptual and technical/interactional. The revised items were then analyzed and placed in respective sub-scale categories.

The following defines the respective sub-scale categories: 1) technical skills included understanding front line social service issues in the HSO, financial management and evaluation research; 2) conceptual skills included management theory, organizational theory and social welfare theory skills; 3) interactional skills included written communication, team work and skill in motivating others; 4) advanced skills included those skills which have elements of the basic three administrative skills (technical, conceptual and interactional) and included leadership, decision-making and political skills; 5) technical/conceptual skills which combine elements of technical and conceptual skills and included program planning, understanding of the casework process, and policy development and analysis; and 6) technical/interactional skills which combined elements of technical and interactional skills and included community liaising, counselling and labour relations skills.

The ASI was then psychometrically scrutinized for determining its empirical reliability and validity. The following psychometric tests were conducted on the ASI: 1) inter-correlational matrix was determined; 2) factor analyses were conducted; 3) reliability tests were determined; and 4) validity tests were assessed. These tests, which are discussed in more detail in Appendix C, revealed that the ASI was both reliable and valid.

The computed mean scores of the respective sub-scales of the ASI were determined. These means are reported in Table 9.

Table 9

The Ranked Mean Scores of the Sub-Scale Categories of  
The Administrative Skills Inventory (ASI) (n=66-71)

| Administrative Skill<br>Category | Mean<br>( $\bar{x}$ )* | Standard<br>Deviation |
|----------------------------------|------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. Interactional                 | 4.2                    | 0.4                   |
| 2. Advanced                      | 3.0                    | 0.5                   |
| 3. Technical/Interactional       | 3.4                    | 0.5                   |
| 4. Technical/Conceptual          | 3.3                    | 0.6                   |
| 5. Conceptual                    | 2.9                    | 0.7                   |
| 6. Technical                     | 2.0                    | 0.6                   |

Note. \*The ASI scores ranged from '1=never or almost  
never used' to '5=always or almost always used'.



In addition, the ASI was factor analyzed to determine whether the theoretical factors (i.e. the criteria used to create the sub-scale categories) coincided with the empirical data collected (see Appendix C for a more detailed discussion). These factors and their respective item loadings are reported in Table 10.

Table 10

Item Factor Loadings for 3 Factors of the ASI (F1, F2, F3)  
(n=67)

| Factors  | Percentage<br>of Variance<br>Accounted<br>For (%) | Items Loading<br>on the ASI                         | Item-<br>Factor<br>r's |
|----------|---------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------|------------------------|
| Factor 1 | 2.3                                               | 1.Team Work                                         | .80                    |
|          |                                                   | 2.human Relations                                   | .78                    |
|          |                                                   | 3.Motivating Others                                 | .78                    |
|          |                                                   | 4.Problem Solving                                   | .42                    |
| -----    |                                                   |                                                     |                        |
| Factor 2 | 4.4                                               | 1.Understanding of<br>Casework Process              | .80                    |
|          |                                                   | 2.Front Line Social Service<br>Staff Supervision    | .74                    |
|          |                                                   | 3.Understanding Front Line<br>Social Service Issues | .80                    |
|          |                                                   | 4.Counselling                                       | .61                    |
|          |                                                   | 5.Staff Training/Teaching                           | .50                    |
|          |                                                   | 6.Personnel Management                              | .47                    |
| -----    |                                                   |                                                     |                        |
| Factor 3 | 5.5                                               | 1.Management/Union Relation                         | .89                    |
|          |                                                   | 2.Labour Relations                                  | .79                    |
|          |                                                   | 3.Legal/Legislation                                 | .59                    |
|          |                                                   | 4.Negotiation                                       | .40                    |

An inspection of Table 10 resulted in three distinct factors in which there appeared to be much commonality among the items. These factors were labelled as Factor 1 = 'interactional', Factor 2 = 'Technical/interactional', and factor 3, = 'Labour/Legal' type skills.

The sub-population was asked to examine the task inventory (Table 5) and the ASI (Tables 7 & 8), and then report on the tasks or skills they were most competent in performing when they first became administrators/managers. Fifty seven different tasks and skills were recorded. The results of the 192 responses (each respondent could list three skills or tasks) were as follows: 1) 10 reported they were most competent in performing general staff supervision at entry level; 2) 9 reported communication; 3) 9 reported community liaising; 4) 8 reported human relations; and 5) 7 reported organizing in general.

Similarly, using the same task and skill inventories, the sub-population reported 37 different tasks and skills which they considered themselves least competent in performing when they first became administrators/managers. The results of the 177 responses (again not mutually exclusive) were as follows: 1) 24 reported they were least competent in performing budget analysis; 2) 14 reported financial management; 3) 11 reported budget management; 4) 10 reported labour relations; and 5) 7 reported general staff supervision.

In regard to administrative skill development since becoming an administrator/manager, over 80% indicated they were primarily involved in on-the-job training. More specifically, almost 40% chose specialized seminars, courses, etc., as the activity they were primarily involved in, while 26.1% were primarily involved in administrative skill development with continuing education from professional associations being the most frequent activity. Community college and correspondence study were ranked as the learning sources used none of the time by 67.2% and 75.4% of the sub-population, respectively.

When respondents were asked, in open-ended fashion, to describe characteristics of the ideal ULM, over 31% (the highest percentage recorded) listed personality traits such as a sense of humour, maturity, and flexibility as the ideal characteristics. The second most reported set of characteristics (as a cohort) were interactional skills such as interpersonal sensitivity, and the ability to communicate with and motivate others, which was stated by 16.9% of the sub-population. Fewer than 5%, which was the lowest percentage for any set of ideal characteristics, reported educational characteristics such as graduate or undergraduate education in social work or business administration, and training as being ideal.

Discussion of ASI data. As shown in Table 7, seven of the ten most frequently used administrative skills were

interactional, with the top three interactional skills being verbal communication, human relations and cooperation. When all interactional skills were considered as a group or subscale, as shown in Table 9, the mean was 4.2 (S.D.=0.4). This indicated, fairly convincingly, that interactional skills were more frequently used in HSOs than any other category of administrative skills. In fact, all of the interactional skills were ranked in the top two quartiles of all the items on the ASI. This finding clearly suggests, and reinforces the observations made in the previous discussion of administrative tasks (pp.66 to 69) that interactional administrative skills are the most frequently used, most frequently needed and perceived most frequently to be important skills in HSO administration. One may interpret this finding as a result of the social environment of HSOs. In simpler terms, interaction, and most likely positive interaction, must be initiated and operationalized by an ULM for an HSO to run effectively.

Advanced administrative skills (Table 9) were found to be the second most used with a mean of 3.6 (S.D.=0.5). Seven of the 20 most frequently used administrative skills in fact (Table 10), were advanced administrative skills, with the top three, which were also in the top ten overall, being decision-making, leadership and problem solving. Because of the complexity and sophistication of such skills, advanced administrative skills were anticipated to be used the most,

however, they were not used as much as interactional skills. This seems to indicate that advanced administrative skills may be used as an adjunct to interaction skills. For example, NSO administrators continually make day to day decisions, however, the interactional processes of communication and feedback from staff, both formally and informally, provide the administrator with information that may have an impact on the decisions to be made.

The third and fourth most used types of administrative skills were technical/interactional and technical/conceptual, respectively (Table 9). Technical/interactional skills had a mean of 3.4 (S.D.=0.5) and technical/conceptual skills had a mean of 3.3 (S.D.=0.6). One reason for their use, more than conceptual and technical skills (which were the least used), may be related to the fact that they possess two of the three basic administrative skill elements as opposed to one central one. That is, a combination of such skills is more relevant and used, than sole expertise of one particular skill category.

When the ASI was factor analyzed, it was interesting to note that two of the three factors, Factors 1 and 2, were predominantly comprised of skills from the same sub-scale categories which were constructed from the theoretical framework for the ASI. For example, Factor 1 was composed of interactional-type skills, therefore, paralleling the theoretical category of interactional skills. Similarly,

Factor 2 was composed of technical/interactional types of skills, therefore, paralleling the theoretically based technical/interactional skill category.

A somewhat surprising finding in the factor analysis emerged with factor 3. This factor was comprised of labour/legal types of skills, a category not discussed in the literature or considered by the researcher. This finding suggested the existence of another dimension to the ASI which was previously not considered, but was apparently relevant for this sub-population.

Given that the educational backgrounds of the sub-population were mostly from human service disciplines with either a general or micro specialization, it was not surprising that when entering their first administrative/management positions, the respondents perceived they were most competent in using interactional skills and performing tasks such as staff supervision and human relations. For the same reason, but with different and more frequently reported results, the sub-population felt least competent with abilities in technical skills and tasks, most notably, those of a financial nature such as budget management, financial management and budget analysis. One reason for this, which was also supported by Scurfield's (1980) study, may be attributed to the fact that educational curricula in ~~human service~~ disciplines, including those with an administrative specialization, do not provide

opportunities for administrators/managers to develop the financial skills needed to meet the fiscal demands such positions hold. As a result, it seems as though most of the financial skill development takes place after ULMS are hired. This notion fits in with the previous finding in this study that administrative skill development took place on-the-job.

Personality traits were mentioned, most frequently, as the characteristics the ideal ULM should possess. This finding is contrary to Katz' (1955) statement that specific administrative skills were becoming increasingly preferred to personality traits. It may also suggest that the trend cited by Katz has reversed itself in time (1955-1980), so that now, personality traits are more valued in HSUs than administrative skills.

#### V. Other Statistical Analyses

Following the analyses of the descriptive data, specific trends in these data were used to determine combinations of variables that could be statistically tested. Three types of tests were primarily used to scrutinize the data at this level: 1) the Pearson Product-Moment (PPM) correlational coefficient ( $r$ ) was used to determine the strength of association between variables; 2) the Student's  $t$ -test was used to determine between group differences; and 3) chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) was used to determine the



association between variables. All variables on the questionnaire were construed as independent variables with the exception of the two main dependent variables, tasks and skills. Thus, analyses are presented according to: 1) independent variables with independent variables; and 2) independent variables with dependent variables. Although many variables were tested, only those that provided meaningful and significant results will be outlined.

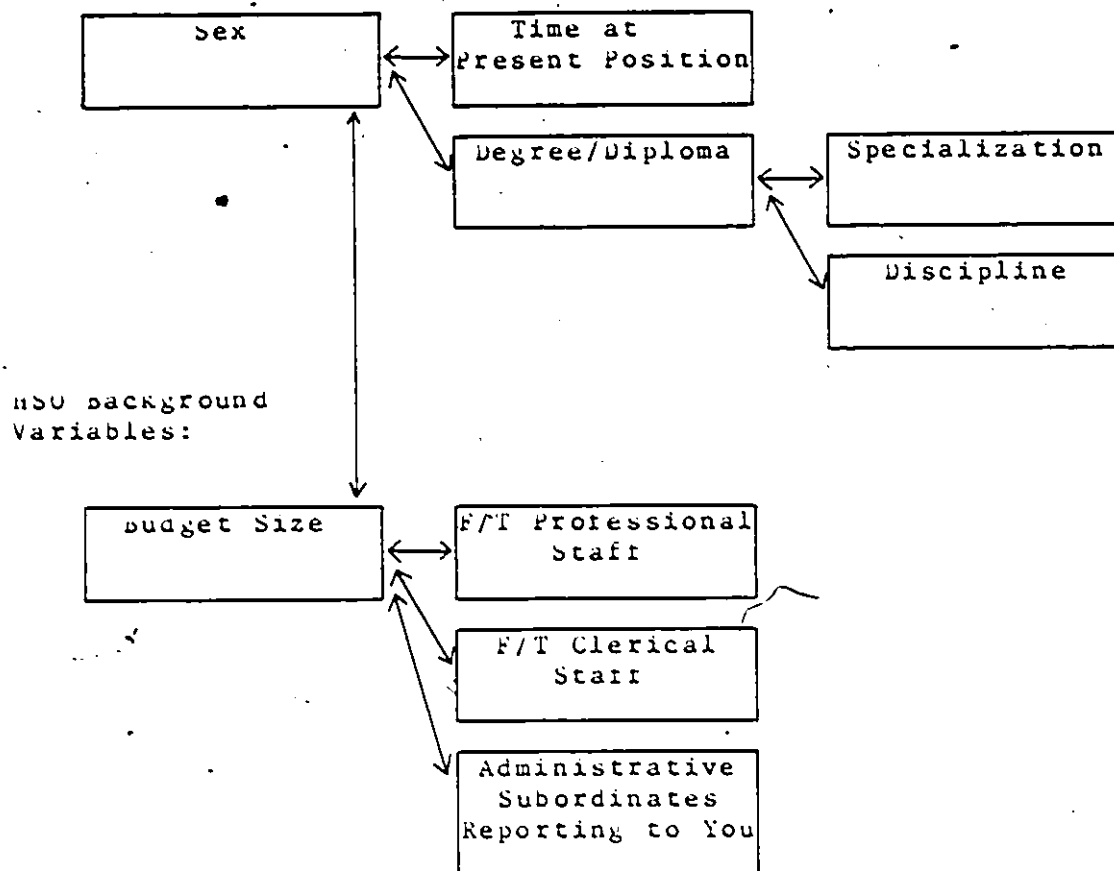
Independent variables with other independent variables.

The two main groups of independent variables, socio-demographic and HSO variables, yielded significant relationships between one another, and are schematically presented in Figure 2.

Figure 2

Statistical Analyses of Socio-Demographic Variables  
with HSU Background Variables

Socio-Demographic  
Variables:



Within the socio-demographic variables, the educational degree held by individuals in the sub-population yielded a significant number of statistical relationships. More specifically, the ULMS in the sub-population with a master's degree or more tended to have micro specializations (e.g., casework, counselling, and group work) as compared to a general, or macro specialization (e.g., administration, research and planning) ( $\chi^2=22.45$ , 2 d.f.). They were also likely to have their degrees in the discipline of social work as opposed to the disciplines of sociology, psychology and education ( $\chi^2=9.35$ , 2 d.f.).

Sex was another socio-demographic variable which had a significant number of statistical relationships with other variables. Results showed that males were likely to have a master's degree or more, while females were likely to have less than a master's degree ( $\chi^2=4.56$ , 1 d.f.). In addition, the males in the sub-population were inclined to be in their positions for longer periods of time than were females ( $\chi^2=3.07$ , 1 d.f.).

Among the MSU background variables, budget size figured in 9 of the significantly tested relationships. Five of these relationships were with: 1) full-time professional staff ( $r=.95$ ,  $n=67$ ,  $p<.001$ ); 2) full-time clerical staff ( $r=.09$ ,  $n=67$ ,  $p<.001$ ); 3) the number of administrative/management subordinates who reported to the respondents ( $r=.08$ ,  $n=64$ ,  $p<.001$ ); 4) males were inclined to

be responsible for larger sized budgets ( $\chi^2=3.3$ , 1 d.f.); and  
5) ULMS who had their degree for ten years or less were  
likely to be responsible for smaller sized budgets ( $\chi^2=7.15$ ,  
1 d.f.).

Independent variables with the main dependent variables  
(administrative tasks and skills). These relationships were  
determined as follows: 1) socio-demographic variables with  
administrative task and skill variables; and 2) HSU  
variables with administrative task and skill variables. The  
relationships between the independent (IV) and dependent  
(DV) variables is schematically presented in Figure 3.

Figure 3

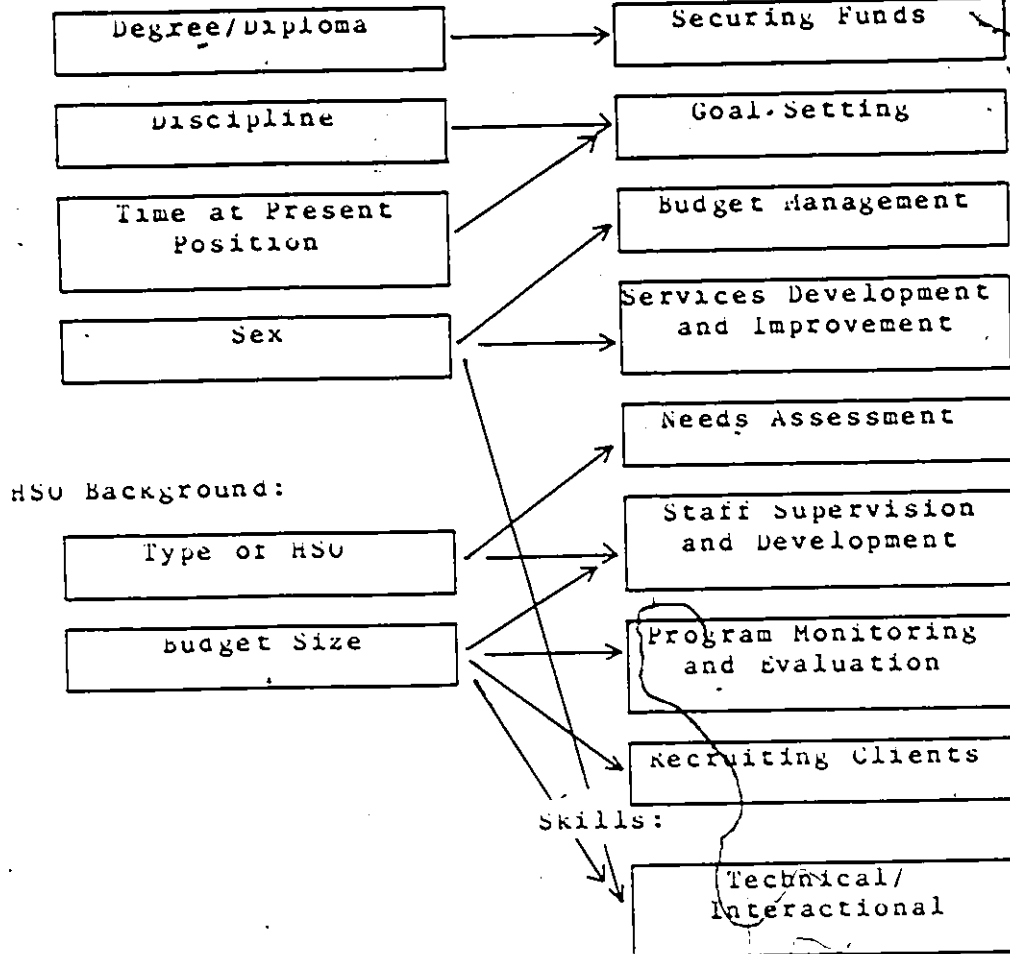
Statistical Analyses of Independent Variables (IV's)  
(Socio-Demographic and HSO Background Variables) with  
Dependent Variables (DV's) (Tasks and Skills)

IV's

DV's

Socio-Demographic:

Tasks:



There were eight significant statistical relationships between socio-demographic variables and the administrative task and skill variables. Three of these relationships involved the variable sex. The results showed: 1) that females spent more time performing budget management tasks ( $\chi^2=3.70$ , 1 d.f.); 2) used technical/interactional skills more frequently ( $t=3.00$ ,  $n=64$ ); and 3) spent less time performing services development and improvement tasks than males ( $t=2.05$ ,  $n=66$ ).

The goal setting task (Table 5) was performed least often by those from the social work discipline ( $\chi^2=12.07$ , 2 d.f.) and least often by those who were in their present positions for more than five years ( $t=2.04$ ,  $n=67$ ). Those with less than a master's degree tended to spend more time performing tasks to secure funds ( $t=2.04$ ,  $n=59$ ).

There were six significant statistical relationships between the HSO variables and the administrative task and skill variables. Four of these involved the variable budget size. The results showed that those with responsibility for larger budgets were likely to spend less time performing tasks to recruit clients ( $t=2.36$ ,  $n=65$ ) and to use technical/interactional skills less frequently ( $t=2.20$ ,  $n=63$ ). Conversely, this same group tended to spend more time performing program monitoring and evaluation tasks ( $t=2.05$ ,  $n=65$ ), and staff supervision and development tasks ( $t=2.33$ ,  $n=65$ ).

The remaining two significant relationships between HSO variables, and task and skill variables involved the types of HSO in which the sub-population were employed. These results indicated that those employed in family service and child welfare HSOs tended to spend more time performing staff supervision and development tasks ( $\chi^2=6.4$ , 2 d.f.) and less time performing needs assessment tasks ( $\chi^2=7.8$ , 2 d.f.).

Discussion of these variable relationships. These findings indicated that those from the social work discipline were most likely to be better educated and to have micro specializations in their educational backgrounds. As cited by Scurfield (1980) and Blostein (1985), this seems to add credence to the fact that graduate social work curricula are predominantly micro focused and do not concentrate enough on developing social workers with macro specializations.

The findings that males in the sub-population tended to be better educated, were in their positions for longer periods of time, and were responsible for larger sized budgets seems to suggest the possibility that females do not have the personal qualities that enable them to achieve these levels. However, developments in knowledge gained about male/female differences, coupled with the fact that the ratio of females to males who graduate with a master's degree in social work is approximately 8 to 1, and that females appear to maintain commitments longer, and are

capable to manage large financial interests as well as males, reveal that this is an unrealistic consideration. Instead, these findings suggest that females do not acquire upper level management positions due to: 1) gender bias; and/or 2) a lack of initiative to seek ULM positions; and/or 3) a desire to pursue micro issues more than macro issues; and/or 4) an inability to enter the established ULM network; and/or 5) career interruption; and/or 6) some unknown gender difference.

In addition, other male/female differences were found in performing budget management and services development tasks, and in using technical/interactional skills. The possible reasons for these differences are not known at this time, but it is possible to assume that the reasons may be similar to those mentioned above.

As expected, budget size was associated with the variables related to staff size. This suggests that staff size is probably the major criterion for budget size.

The fact that those in the sub-population with large budget sizes spent less time recruiting clients suggests that their budget size seems to ensure a constant supply of clients, while the minimal use of technical/interactional skills suggests that large budget responsibilities result in less involvement in the front line activities in the NSU such as counselling, group work and community liaising. Conversely, the large budget size required the sub-



population to spend more time performing program monitoring and evaluation, and staff supervision and development tasks. This finding may suggest that because ULMS with large budgets are removed from the front line, they use these tasks to stay informed of front-line issues, activities and performance.

In the sub-population, both social workers and those in their present positions for a long period of time appear to be related in that they both performed goal setting the least amount of time when compared to their within group cohorts. This similarity seems to indicate that both may have: 1) developed, and therefore possess, advanced goal setting skills which may be performed in short periods of time; and/or 2) established long term goals which greatly influence, and therefore minimize the amount of time spent performing short term goal setting; and/or 3) focused their attention on tasks other than goal setting.

Family service and child welfare HSUs in the sub-population spent more time performing staff supervision. This seems to indicate that: 1) the nature of their client populations demands it; and/or 2) these are larger sized HSUs where the ULMS are far removed from the front line and need to stay informed; and/or 3) these HSUs utilize complex treatment techniques that must be constantly assessed. Also, the fact that ULMS in these two types of HSUs spent less time performing needs assessments suggests that: 1)

their policies and target groups are determined for them (e.g. by boards, funding sources, etc.); and/or 2) these MSUs are specialized, therefore, service needs are easily identifiable; and/or 3) due to budget restraints and large workloads, there is not enough time to do so (e.g. the children's aid societies).

?

0

## CONCLUSIONS

The findings of this study will be organized according to: 1) conclusions related to the literature review; 2) findings of the study; 3) limitations; and 4) recommendations.

### Conclusions Related to the Literature Review

This study reviewed how organizations have become increasingly complex. Within the realm of administration, it was generally agreed that management theory and principles could be used in all organizations, including MSOs, and that different tasks and skills could be utilized at different administrative levels (e.g. lower, middle, and upper). This study reviewed the nature and development of administrative skills and noted that major advances in acquiring knowledge about administrative skills have been slow to develop because of their overlapping features making them difficult to readily identify and generalize.

This study is the first known research specifically assessing administrative skills possessed by OLMS in MSOs. A review of the limited amount of research conducted into the activities of administrators and managers (pp.11 to 17),

resulted in the generally accepted notion that the observation of task behaviour was the best way to determine skill use.

As a result, the ASI was constructed for use in conjunction with other instruments, namely Files (1981) task inventory. The ASI was a 5 point, interval scale, which determined the frequency of administrative skill use in the performance of administrative tasks. It enabled specific administrative skills to be isolated for assessment and scrutiny.

The three types of basic administrative skills which emerged from the literature review (technical, conceptual and interactional), formed the theoretical base for the ASI. These skill categories were utilized separately and in specific combinations with one another (e.g. technical/interactional and technical/conceptual). In this regard, it was found that ULNs from different disciplines, most notably, social work and business administration, were taught different types of administrative skills.

#### Findings of the Study

This study had similar socio-demographic findings to other related studies (Patti, 1976; Cashman, 1978; Scurfield, 1980; Files, 1981). Those findings included: 1) an equal representation of females and males; 2) an even age distribution; 3) a high level of education with most

possessing a master's degree or more; and 4). a low number who specialized in administration. As a result of these findings, the data seem generalizable.

In addition to the low number in the sub-population who specialized in administration, a number of other findings in this study also indicated that ULMS had a minimal professional affiliation to administration in general. For example, most of the sub-population had a specialization in casework and consequently, perceived they did not have adequate administration/management education or training at their administration/management entry level. Further, the career paths into ULM positions were either from a front-line to a supervisory and then to an ULM position, or from a front line to an ULM position. Therefore, as revealed by the few ULMS who were affiliated with professional administrative associations, the predominant development of administrative skills was on-the-job training. The ULMS in this study apparently occupy macro-orientated positions, however, they do not possess, nor do they seem to want nor have the opportunity, to develop macro-level administrative skills.

The NSOs in the sub-population were mostly treatment oriented, were comprised of small staffs (both professional and clerical), operated with small budgets and were administered by a few managers. In addition, they were mainly funded by the Provincial Government, which was also

the most visible funding source, and then the United Way. Both of these operated under a unique funding structure which was discussed earlier in the study (p.58).

In regard to administrative task performance and its related importance, the findings in this study were similar to those of Files' (1981) study, which was comparable to the earlier studies of Mahoney et al. (1965), Haas et al. (1969), and Penfield (1974), thus further enhancing the generalizeability noted in the socio-demographic data. The discrepancies between these two studies (Files (1985) and this one), intergovernmental relations and budget management, were probably attributed to differences in sample selection and setting. The finding that staff supervision and development, and board relations were the most frequently performed and important administrative tasks, indicated that interaction with individuals who have the greatest potential effect on day-to-day operations of the HSO was critical in these HSOs. This finding may also be directly related to the educational background of the ULMS. Hodgson's (1965) finding that ULMS tend to occupy themselves in tasks that they are most comfortable or expert in performing seems applicable in this context.

The performance and importance of interactional types of administrative tasks paralleled the analyses of the ASI (that interactional skills were the most used administrative skills by ULMS in HSOs). Perhaps more importantly, this

finding also confirmed the assertion of Mintzberg (1973) and later Singleton (1981), that the analysis of task behaviour reveals related skill use. In simpler words, managers involve themselves in tasks that they have skills in.

As a measurement instrument, the ASI was found to be highly reliable with a Guttman split-half or  $r=.86$ , and valid, with four concepts converging on skill items. The factor analyses, which were performed on the ASI, revealed that the theoretical base used in its development (technical, conceptual and interactional type skills), was appropriate in accounting for the explained variance between items. Unexpectedly however, a labour/legal skill category, which was not discussed in the literature or considered by the researcher, also proved to be a significant factor in accounting for explained variance in the ASI.

The two independent variables that had the most significant relationships with the major dependent task and skill variables were gender and budget size. In addition to also having numerous significant relationships with other independent variables, gender and budget size also had significant relationships with one another.

In regard to gender, there were significant relationships with many different variables including: 1) educational level; 2) time at present position; 3) time spent performing budget management and services development tasks; and 4) the use of technical/interactional skills.

Although this study was conducted at a time when, among other factors, gender bias was rapidly decreasing and awareness of gender differences were becoming maximized, the findings illustrated that there were still significant differences between females and males who were ULMs in HSUs.

In regard to budget size, this study revealed that it was positively related to all aspects of staff size. The significant relationships between budget size and the time spent performing staff supervision, program monitoring, and recruiting clients, and the use of technical/interactional skills, indicated that the responsibilities, tasks, and skills associated with ULM's, change directly with the size of the budget.

#### Limitations

There are inherent problems with all pencil and paper research studies which have implications for this study. One problem relates to the accuracy of the reported information which involved recalling long and short term information. The obvious problem with recalling long term information is that perceptions of experiences 10 to 30 years earlier may be distorted. Similarly, but less obviously, recalling short term information may be distorted by most recent experiences. For example, budget sizes and figures, and time spent using these tasks and skills may have been inflated due to recent intensive involvement with



them (the fiscal year for most HSOs ends April 1, while the data for this study were collected in June).

Another problem, related to the accuracy of the information, involves the regional sub-population size. Given the high community and professional profiles that accompany ULM positions in HSOs, some responses may have been influenced by fears that the respondent could be identified. All of these data could be suspect in relation to these concerns, and, therefore, should be viewed as a first step in developing a data base in this subject area.

Substantiating these data with other data collection techniques such as diaries, observation and qualitative one-to-one interviews, may have provided a more substantial empirical base that would provide more credence to the data collected in this study. For example, a discussion with each of the respondents regarding the types of skills they used and their reasons for performing staff supervision and development tasks, would have greatly added to the validity of these findings. Limitations of time and resources minimized the feasibility of these alternative methodological strategies.

Another limitation in this study was with the particular concepts that were associated with items in the questionnaire. For example, an ULM from a non-human service discipline might interpret 'needs assessment' as meaning the singular assessment of the needs of the HSO, whereas an ULM

from a human service discipline might interpret 'needs assessment' as meaning the singular assessment of the needs of the client.

Finally, the sub-population size was limited in regard to certain sub-groups, most notably, ULMS from non-human service disciplines and those who possess administrative specializations. The low number of respondents from these two sub-groups meant that the results were predominantly from ULMS from human service disciplines and those without administrative specializations. Due to the fact that ULMS have the tendency to perform tasks and use skills they are most familiar with (Hodgson, 1965), the data may not accurately reflect the administrative tasks and skills that are most important to the effective and efficient operation of HSUs.

### Recommendations

Future research should be undertaken to corroborate the findings and to build on this data base. In particular, the ASI should be further scrutinized and refined as a methodological instrument, while other data collection techniques such as diaries, observation and one-to-one interviews should also be utilized. Proportionately larger sub-groups of ULMS from non-human service disciplines and with various administrative specializations should also be included in future research.

There are two other areas that require future research. One is the labour/legal skill category which emerged from factor analyses. Future research in conjunction with theoretical interpretations of this discussion of administrative skills should be undertaken to determine the extent and importance of this skill category. The other area is the numerous female/male differences found in the data. Future research should be undertaken to determine the nature of these differences in order for a better understanding of females and males, and where possible, to facilitate equity.

In regard to education, efforts should be made in human service curricula, particularly in schools of social work, to meet the learning needs, that were reported in the data, of ULMS in MSOs and of future ULMS. These learning needs were apparent in both their administration/management education and training, and in relation to financial capabilities at their entry level administration/management position. In addition, most of the administrative skill development took place on-the-job. In general, these findings indicate that schools of social work should develop and offer opportunities for participation in curricula that develop a wide range of administrative skills. More specifically, and perhaps of more critical importance at this point in time, the School of Social Work at the University of Windsor, which is the only school of social

work in this region that offers graduate level education in social work, should, at the very minimum, provide a curriculum of administrative courses (including financial management) at convenient time slots, to ULMS in HSUs who are currently employed (e.g. night classes, community outreach, etc.). Also, creative educational initiatives should be undertaken with the intent to enrich administrative skill development on-the-job. These recommendations would not only result in more qualified ULMS in the region, but they would ultimately result in better services for clients. For example, an ULM with advanced financial expertise might be able to secure and allocate funds in a way that would result in a greater number of clients receiving better quality of service.

Finally, the preference by the social work profession to practice and promote administration from a micro-centred orientation should be re-evaluated. It would be of value if more emphasis were to be placed on a macro-orientation for those interested in administration, that could be used jointly with a micro-orientation. This more pervasive infrastructure would enable the profession to maximize its positive effect on the quality of life of the clients it serves.

Appendix A  
COVER LETTER

Appendix B  
QUESTIONNAIRE

## INFORMED CONSENT FORM FOR RESPONDENTS

## SURVEY OF ADMINISTRATORS AND MANAGERS

I, the undersigned, understand that the purpose of this research being conducted is to collect data and information about the characteristics of Human Service Organization (HSO) administrators and upper level managers.

I understand that the information collected from me will only be used as a part of a large amount of similar information provided by other equally anonymous individuals and reported in group numerical or statistical form only. Thus, confidentiality will be safeguarded.

I agree to voluntarily participate in this study by completing the attached questionnaire and returning it to the investigator no later than 3 weeks after receiving it.

I understand that this survey is a research undertaking being supervised through the School of Social Work and the School of Graduate Studies at the University of Windsor.

Date\_\_\_\_\_

Signature\_\_\_\_\_

(Print) Name\_\_\_\_\_

Organization,  
Department,  
or Unit Name\_\_\_\_\_

Thank You

Please check ☒ for receipt of the published results. ☐

\*\*Please note that this sheet will be detached from the rest of the questionnaire upon receipt of the information.

# SURVEY OF ADMINISTRATORS/UPPER LEVEL MANAGERS

109

## DIRECTIONS

- The purpose of this study is to assess the characteristics of HSD administrators/upper level managers.
- Please try to complete all of the questions to the best of your ability.
- The information will be held in STRICTEST CONFIDENCE
- and will be collected in group data form only.

## GENERAL BACKGROUND

1. Year you were born: \_\_\_\_\_ 2. Sex: 1 - male 2 - female
3. Employment Experience: Please start with your present position and list.

| Job Title | Major Responsibilities (only) | Number of Years | Was this an administrative/management position?<br>(yes) (no) |  |
|-----------|-------------------------------|-----------------|---------------------------------------------------------------|--|
| 1.        |                               |                 |                                                               |  |
| 2.        |                               |                 |                                                               |  |
| 3.        |                               |                 |                                                               |  |

4. What professional associations/organizations do you currently belong to? (Please list)

1. \_\_\_\_\_
2. \_\_\_\_\_
3. \_\_\_\_\_

## CHARACTERISTICS OF ORGANIZATION, DEPARTMENT OR UNIT YOU ARE CURRENTLY RESPONSIBLE FOR

5. The following represent sources of funds for HSD's. Please specify the percentage of funds the organization, department or unit you are responsible for, receives from these sources.

1. Federal Government \_\_\_\_\_%
2. Provincial Government \_\_\_\_\_%
3. Municipal Government \_\_\_\_\_%
4. United Way \_\_\_\_\_%
5. Direct Fees for Services \_\_\_\_\_%
6. Third Party Payments \_\_\_\_\_%  
(e.g. from government, corporations)
7. Private Donations from Individuals \_\_\_\_\_%
8. Private Donations from Charity Organizations or Corporations \_\_\_\_\_%
9. Other (please specify) \_\_\_\_\_%

Total \_\_\_\_\_%

6. The size of the annual operating budget last year, that you were directly responsible for was: \$ \_\_\_\_\_

7. Number of paid employees in your organization, department or unit that you are responsible for:

- |                                 | Actual number<br>full-time | part-time |
|---------------------------------|----------------------------|-----------|
| 1. Professional Staff           | ----                       | ----      |
| 2. Clerical Staff               | ----                       | ----      |
| 3. Other (please specify) _____ | ----                       | ----      |



- 6
8. How many administrators/managers/supervisors report directly to you? \_\_\_\_\_ (actual number)
9. Which of the following best describes the relationship between the organization, department or unit you are responsible for, and the community you serve? (please circle appropriate number)
- 1 - you primarily serve the immediate community.
  - 2 - you primarily serve the regional community or area.
  - 3 - you primarily serve the provincial or national community.
10. Which type of organization, department or unit are you directly responsible for? (please circle the one most appropriate number)
- |                     |                           |                      |
|---------------------|---------------------------|----------------------|
| 1 - child welfare   | 5 - mental health         | 11 - education       |
| 2 - family services | 7 - vocational/employment | 12 - rehabilitation  |
| 3 - correctional    | 8 - mental retardation    | 13 - legal           |
| 4 - recreational    | 9 - services for the aged | 14 - other (specify) |
| 5 - medical         | 10 - income maintenance   | _____                |

MAJOR ADMINISTRATIVE TASKS PERFORMED BY YOU IN THE PAST YEAR

11. The following is a list of tasks performed by administrators/upper level managers in HSD's. Please review all tasks then indicate the approximate percentage of time you spent performing these tasks during the past year (the summed total should = 100%).
- \*Note: Also include administrative tasks which are not listed, but that take over 5% of your time, in the spaces listed below. (15-17)

| Administrative Task                                                                     | Time Spent |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------|
| 1. Board relations (working with agency governing body)                                 | _____%     |
| 2. Budget management                                                                    | _____%     |
| 3. Securing funds                                                                       | _____%     |
| 4. Goal setting (developing, clarifying, prioritizing agency objectives and goals)      | _____%     |
| 5. Recruiting clients                                                                   | _____%     |
| 6. Services development and improvement                                                 | _____%     |
| 7. Securing manpower                                                                    | _____%     |
| 8. Program planning                                                                     | _____%     |
| 9. Intergovernmental relations (dealing with local, provincial and federal governments) | _____%     |
| 10. Needs assessment                                                                    | _____%     |
| 11. Inter-agency relations (dealing with other service agencies)                        | _____%     |
| 12. Program monitoring and evaluation                                                   | _____%     |
| 13. Staff supervision and development                                                   | _____%     |
| 14. Community relations (including dealing with advocacy groups)                        | _____%     |
| 15. Other (please specify) _____                                                        | _____%     |
| 16. Other (please specify) _____                                                        | _____%     |
| 17. Other (please specify) _____                                                        | _____%     |
| Total                                                                                   | 100%       |

12. From the list (above), rank or prioritize 5 administrative tasks you perceive as being the most important to the effectiveness of the organization, department or unit you are responsible for. You can simply place the number of the corresponding list in the spaces provided below (e.g. "Securing funds" = "3").

|          |          |          |
|----------|----------|----------|
| 1. _____ | 2. _____ | 3. _____ |
| 4. _____ | 5. _____ |          |

# ADMINISTRATIVE SKILLS INVENTORY

111

13. Directions: The following is a list of a number of administrative skills used by administrators/upper level managers in KSO's. Next to each one is an empty box. Please rank each skill that you use on the scale from '1' to '5' and place the number in the corresponding box.

For example:

|              |   |
|--------------|---|
| fund raising | 2 |
| negotiation  | 4 |

|                  |   |
|------------------|---|
| systems analysis | 5 |
| budget analysis  | 1 |

Describe the Administrative Skills You Use Accordingly

1 2 3 4 5  
 never or almost never used sometimes but infrequently used occasionally used often used always or almost always used

|                                 |  |                                     |  |                                                                     |  |
|---------------------------------|--|-------------------------------------|--|---------------------------------------------------------------------|--|
| budget analysis                 |  | strategic planning                  |  | staff development                                                   |  |
| verbal communication            |  | negotiation                         |  | front line social service staff supervision                         |  |
| management information systems  |  | labour relations                    |  | general staff supervision                                           |  |
| decision-making                 |  | organizational structure            |  | inter-organizational relations                                      |  |
| personnel management            |  | resource development                |  | legal/legislation                                                   |  |
| organizational theory           |  | team work                           |  | collaboration                                                       |  |
| financial management            |  | understanding of casework processes |  | community planning                                                  |  |
| human relations                 |  | staff training/teaching             |  | management/union relations                                          |  |
| policy development and analysis |  | community liaising                  |  | consultation                                                        |  |
| social welfare theory           |  | management theory                   |  | understanding front-line social service issues in your organization |  |
| marketing                       |  | evaluation research                 |  | co-operation                                                        |  |
| human behaviour                 |  | written communication               |  | informal communication/networking                                   |  |
| goals and objectives setting    |  | systems analysis                    |  | political                                                           |  |
| leadership                      |  | problem-solving                     |  | basic and applied research                                          |  |
| group work techniques           |  | counselling                         |  | formal communication                                                |  |
| entrepreneurial                 |  | organizational behaviour            |  | innovation                                                          |  |
| fund raising                    |  | computer technology                 |  |                                                                     |  |
| motivating others               |  | interpersonal sensitivity           |  |                                                                     |  |
|                                 |  | program planning                    |  |                                                                     |  |

# EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND

112

14. Education: Please list your educational degree/diploma starting with the most recent.

| Degree/<br>Diploma | Discipline<br>(e.g. Psychology,<br>Business, Medicine,<br>Social Work, etc.) | Specialization<br>(e.g. accounting,<br>casework, finance,<br>administration, etc.) | Year<br>Received |
|--------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------|
| 1.                 |                                                                              |                                                                                    |                  |
| 2.                 |                                                                              |                                                                                    |                  |
| 3.                 |                                                                              |                                                                                    |                  |

15. Which of the following best describes your entry level education and training in administration/management when you took your first position in administration/management? (please circle one in A and one in B)

A. Education:

- 1 - I had no education.
- 2 - I had some education.
- 3 - I had much education.

B. Training:

- 1 - I had no training.
- 2 - I had some training.
- 3 - I had much training.

16. Based on your experience when you first became an administrator/manager:

A. What 3 skills or tasks did you feel most competent in performing?

- 1. \_\_\_\_\_
- 2. \_\_\_\_\_
- 3. \_\_\_\_\_

B. What 3 skills or tasks did you feel least competent in performing?

- 1. \_\_\_\_\_
- 2. \_\_\_\_\_
- 3. \_\_\_\_\_

17. Since your initial entry into the administration/management level, to what extent have you been involved in administrative skill development due to: (check [✓] one column (none, somewhat, very much) for each learning source)

|                                                                         | None | Somewhat | Very Much |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------------|------|----------|-----------|
| 1. On the job training.                                                 | --   | --       | --        |
| 2. Continuing education from a professional association.                | --   | --       | --        |
| 3. Specialized seminars, courses, etc. (e.g. finance, systems analysis) | --   | --       | --        |
| 4. Community College courses.                                           | --   | --       | --        |
| 5. University courses.                                                  | --   | --       | --        |
| 6. Correspondence study.                                                | --   | --       | --        |
| 7. Personal study in specialized areas. (e.g. accounting, computers)    | --   | --       | --        |

18. List specific characteristics (e.g. education, training, age, experience, qualities, etc.) that the ideal administrator/upper level manager should possess.

- 1. \_\_\_\_\_ 4. \_\_\_\_\_
- 2. \_\_\_\_\_ 5. \_\_\_\_\_
- 3. \_\_\_\_\_ 6. \_\_\_\_\_

Thank you very much for your co-operation. If you would like to make any further comments about this questionnaire or anything else, please do so below or attach them. When you have finished, please return the questionnaire in the enclosed envelope.

## Appendix C

### METHODOLOGY

#### A. The Study Population

The population domain was oversampled to get a sizeable n. In addition, the response rate to the mailed questionnaire was 38%. Subsequent efforts of follow-up to increase the response rate, which included informal telephone contacts mostly in the Windsor area, were unsuccessful. As a result of not having actual population parameters to compare whether the sample was a population, the sample was treated as a sub-population in the analyses of data.

#### B. Measurement Properties of the ASI

A content analysis of the literature resulted in a list of some 129 administrative tasks, activities, functions and skills that individuals referred to as "administrative skills" in general. Through independent ratings of these items, those that were redundant or repetitive were eliminated from this list. Also, synonymous items were put together in single item form (e.g. obtaining funds and procuring funds = fund raising).

According to the findings by Katz (1955), Neugeboren (1971), Perlmutter (1984), and others, the skills in the inventory were then theoretically constructed into three main categories, technical, conceptual and interactional, and three combinations of these categories, advanced, technical/conceptual and technical/interactional. The revised items were then analyzed and placed in respective sub-scale categories (see p.74 for a detailed description of each sub-scale category).

Two independent raters then scrutinized the items according to these definitions and placed items in the respective sub-scale categories. The subsequent degree of congruence between the 33 items, and the respective sub-scale categorizations was 91%. The following psychometric tests were conducted on the ASI: 1) inter-correlational matrix was determined; 2) factor analyses were conducted; 3) reliability tests were determined; and 4) validity tests were assessed.

Inter-correlational matrix. First, the computed mean scores of the respective sub-scales of the ASI were determined (see Table 9). Two correlational matrices were then computed. The first inter-correlational matrix of the 33 items in the scale was computed. The number of  $r$ 's in the matrix were generally low and non-significant. Further, there appeared to be no pattern to the relatedness of these  $r$ 's with all the sub-scale categories possessing approximately the same number of interrelationships.

The second inter-correlational matrix assessed the six sub-scales of the ASI with one another. The correlations of these sub-scales were all significant, all positive and were all  $>+.40$ . The highest  $r$  in this matrix was  $.69$  ( $n=60$ ,  $p<.001$ ), between technical and conceptual skills suggesting a high linear degree of association between these two sub-scales.

Factor analyses. Based on an inspection of these matrices, the ASI was factor analyzed to determine whether the theoretical factors coincided with the empirical data collected. The ASI was factor analyzed by using principle component factors with an orthogonal transformation and a varimax rotation. Nine factors with an eigen value of  $>1.0$  were retained. Cumulatively, these explained 28.9% of the variance among the items on the ASI.

From this group, three factors emerged as explaining the most variance. Factor 1 accounted for 12.3% of the explained variance, Factor 2 accounted for 4.4% of the explained variance, and Factor 3 accounted for 3.3% of the explained variance. Cumulatively, Factors 1, 2 and 3 accounted for 20% of the explained variance in the ASI.

Fourteen mutually exclusive items loaded on these three factors. All item factor  $r$ 's were positive and the criterion of  $r \geq +.40$  was used as the criteria for factor correlational loadings (see Table 10).

Reliability. Two tests of reliability were conducted on the ASI. One was an internal consistency reliability test which determined the Cronbach Alpha ( $\alpha$ ). This test yielded an alpha of .92 ( $n=64$ ). The second reliability test was a Guttman split-half where the ASI items were split in half, and every other item was placed in one of two separate groups, then summed and correlated. This yielded an  $r$  of .86 ( $n=64$ ).

Validity. Convergent validity tests were performed by correlating items on the task scale with items on the ASI which paralleled each other. These resulted in the following: 1) the budget management task correlated with the budget analysis skill ( $r=.40$ ,  $n=70$ ,  $p<.001$ ); 2) the securing funds task correlated with the fund raising skill ( $r=.02$ ,  $n=09$ ,  $p<.001$ ); 3) the inter-governmental relations task correlated with the political skill ( $r=.30$ ,  $n=00$ ,  $p<.001$ ); 4) the securing manpower task correlated with the management/union relations skill ( $r=.31$ ,  $n=07$ ,  $p<.001$ ).

## REFERENCES

- Alexander, C.A. (1982). An overview of administration, policy and planning as specializations in social welfare practice. Administration in Social Work, 6(2), 7-18.
- Allan, P. (1961). Managers at work: a large scale study of the managerial job in New York city government. Academy of Management Journal, 24(3), 613-619.
- Armitage, A. (1975). Social Welfare in Canada: Ideals and Realities. Toronto: McClelland & Stewart.
- Atchison, T.J., & Hill, W.W. (1978). Management Today. New York: Harcourt, Brace, Jovanovich.
- Austin, B.H. (1983). Administrative practice in human services: future directions for curriculum development. The Journal of Applied Behavioural Science, 19(2), 141-152.
- Baker, F., & Northman, J.E. (1978). The ideology and education of the future human service executive. In J. Chénault & F. Burnford (Eds.), Human Services Professional Education: Future Directions (pp. 155-175). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Barbash, J. (1982, March-April). The guilds of academe. Challenge Magazine, p. 50.
- Bernman, J., & Levin, N. (1984). Are business schools doing their job? The Harvard Business Review, 62(1), 140-147.
- Bickerstaffe, G. (1981). Crisis of confidence in the business schools. International Management, 30(6), 19-23.
- Blostein, S. (1985). A day late and a dollar short: a national survey of the teaching of financial management in schools of social work. Journal of Social Work Education, 4 (2), 34-42.
- Burrell, G., & Morgan, G. (1979). Sociological Paradigms and Organizational Analysis: Elements of the Sociology of Corporate Life. London: Heinemann.
- Carlson, S. (1951). Executive Behaviour: A Study of work Load and the Working Methods of Managing Directors. Stockholm: Stromberg.



- Cashman, J.F. (1978). Training social welfare administrators: the activity dilemma. Administration in Social Work, 2(3), 347-358.
- Cyert, R.M. (1975). The Management of Non-Profit Organizations. Lexington, MA: D.C. Heath.
- Drucker, P.F. (1974). Management: Tasks, Responsibilities, Practices. New York: Harper & Row.
- Dolgoft, K. (1979-80). Learning and teaching administration in field instruction: an Israeli example with implications for American Jewish communal service. Journal of Jewish Communal Service, LVI(2), 157-164.
- Fauri, D.P. (1976). Social work education for leadership roles in state government. Journal of Education for Social Work, 12(1), 44-49.
- Fayol, H. (1949). General and Industrial Management. London: Pittman & Son.
- Files, L.A. (1981). The human services management task: a time allocation study. Administration Review, 41(6), 686-692.
- Finch, W.A. (1982). Declining public social service resources: a managerial problem. Administration in Social Work, 6(1), 19-28.
- Fottler, M.D. (1981). Is management really generic? Academy of Management Review, 6(1), 1-12.
- Fram, E.H. (1982). Do human services executives need management education? Administration in Social Work, 6(4), 69-81.
- Fry, D.R. (1980). Disciplinary perspectives on social work administration: the view from public administration. Arete, 6(1), 29-37.
- Funk and Wagnells (Eds.) (1982). Standard College Dictionary. Toronto: Fitzhenry & Whiteside.
- Glenn, T. (1985). Executive development: the vital shift. Training and Development Journal, 39(5), 58-62.
- Godwin, F.P. (1975). An analysis of knowledge and skills needed by administrators of social service systems. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The Catholic University of America, Washington, D.C.

- Gordon, R.A., & Howell, J.E. (1959). Higher Education in Business. New York: Columbia University Press.
- Girrin, J.E. (1970). Interprofessional issues and problems in management education. In M.J. Kelly & M.L. Lauderdale (Eds.), Social Work Continuing Education Yearbook 1974-75 (pp. 80-86). The University of Texas at Austin: Center for social work research.
- Gummer, S. (1979). Is the social worker in public welfare an endangered species? Public Welfare, 37(4), 12-21.
- Haas, J.A., Porat, A.M., & Vaughan, J.A. (1969). Actual vs. ideal time allocations reported by managers: a study of managerial behaviour. Personnel Psychology, 22(1), 61-75.
- Hairston, C.F. (1961a). A comparison of the work experiences of social work administrators with different education preparation. Arete, 6(3), 11-22.
- Hairston, C.F. (1961b). Financial management in social work education. Journal of Education for Social Work, 17(2), 113-118.
- Handel, G. (1962). Social Welfare in Western Society. New York: Random House.
- Harbert, A.S., Jones, P.Jr., & Schupp, D.C. (1981). An organizational development model for retooling social welfare administrators. Administration in Social Work, 5(1), 1-13.
- Hasenfeld, Y. (1983). Human Service Organizations. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- Helwig, J.L. (1983). SAS Introductory Guide. North Carolina: SAS Institute Inc.
- Hemphill, J.K. (1959). Job descriptions for executives. Harvard Business Review, 37(5), 55-67.
- Hodgson, R.C., Levinson, D.J., & Zaleznik, A. (1965). The Executive Role Constellation: An Analysis of Personality and Role Relations in Management. Boston: Harvard Business School, Division of Research.
- Holosko, M.J. (1985, November). A rationale for marketing social work administration and management skills: The MBA vs. the MSW. Paper presented at the APHA Conference, Washington, D.C.

- Homans, G.C. (1950). The human Group. New York: Harcourt, Brace, Jovanovich.
- Katz, R.L. (1955). Skills of an effective administrator. Harvard business Review, 33(1), 33-42.
- Kaus, H. (1980, April). The MBA dilemma. Rolling Stone, pp. 77, 78, 126 & 127.
- Kazmerski, R.J., & Macarov, D. (1976). Administration in the Social Work Curriculum: Report of a Survey. New York: Council on Social Work Education.
- Kiel, H. (1982). The concept of skill in social work education: a review of the literature. Contemporary Social Work Education, 5(1), 43-57.
- King, D.C., & Correa, M.E. (1983). Additional comments on "administrative practice in human services: future directions for curriculum development". The Journal of Applied Behavioural Science, 19(2), 157-159.
- Klempinger, B.W. (1978). Interdisciplinary education for social work administration: problems and promises. Administration in Social Work 2(2), 137-148.
- Koenigs, K. (1982). An interview with Dr. William Ouchi. Training and Development Journal, 36(3), 38-40.
- Kurke, L.B., & Aldrich, H.E. (1983). Mintzberg was right! A replication and extension of the nature of managerial work. Management Science, 29(8), 975-984.
- Lau, A.W., & Pavett, C.M. (1980). The nature of managerial work: a comparison of public and private-sector managers. Group and Organization Studies, 5(4), 453-466.
- Lewis, H.L. (1977). The future of the social service administrator. Administration in Social Work, 1(2), 115-122.
- Livingston, J.S. (1971). Myth of the well-educated manager. Harvard business Review 49(1), 79-89.
- Macarov, D. (1977). Management in the social work curriculum. Administration in Social Work, 1(2), 135-140.
- Macker, A. (1981, October). The shame of professional schools. Harpers, p. 22.
- Manoney, T.A., Jerdee, T.H., & Carroll, S.J. (1985). The job(s) of management. Industrial Relations, 4(2), 97-110.

- Metcalf, B.M.A. (1982). Leadership: extrapolating from theory and research to practical skills training. Journal of Management Studies, 19(3), 295-305.
- Mintzberg, H. (1973). The Nature of Managerial Work. New York: Harper & Row.
- Mooney, J.D. (1947). Principles of Organization. New York: Harper & Row.
- Morris, K. (1982). Persistent issues and elusive answers in social welfare policy, planning and administration. Administration in Social Work, 6(3), 33-47.
- Mullen, E.J. (1983). Additional comments on "administrative practice in human services: future directions for curriculum development". The Journal of Applied Behavioural Science, 19(2), 154-156.
- Murray, M.A. (1975). Comparing public and private management: an exploratory essay. Public Administration Review, 35, 364-371.
- Neugeboron, B. (1971). Developing specialized programs in social work administration in the master's degree program: field practice component. Journal of Education for Social Work, 7(3), 35-47.
- Newman, E., & Turem, J. (1974). The crisis of accountability. Social Work, 19(1), 5-17.
- O'Flanerty, R.O. (1983). A follow-up study of bachelor of social work graduates at Memorial University of Newfoundland. Unpublished master's thesis, Memorial University, St. John's, Nfld.
- Ontario Statistics (1984). Ontario Ministry of Treasury and Economics.
- Patti, K.J. (1978). Educating for Management in Social Welfare: A Report of the Social Welfare Management Curriculum Development Project - Conducted Under the Joint Auspices of the School of Social Work and the Graduate School of Business Administration, University of Washington.
- Patti, K.J. (1977). Patterns of management activity in social welfare agencies. Administration in Social Work, 1(1), 5-10.
- Patti, K.J. (1983). In search of purpose for social welfare administration. Administration in Social Work, 9(3), 1-14.

Penfield, K.V. (1974). Time allocation patterns and effectiveness of managers. Personnel Psychology, 27(2), 245-255.

Perlmutter, F.D. (1984). Social administration and social work education: a contradiction in terms? Administration in Social Work, 8(3), 61-69.

Perrow, C. (1979). Complex Organizations: A Critical Essay. Glenview, Illinois: Scott, Foreman & Company.

Pflanzner, S.L., & Miringoff, M.L. (1978). Toward management training in social welfare. Journal of Education for Social Work, 14(3), 93-99.

Randell, G.A. (1981). Management education and training. In W.T. Singleton (Ed.), Management Skills (pp. 239-253). Baltimore: University Park Press.

Sarri, R.C. (1982). Management trends in the human services in the 1980's. Administration in Social Work, 6(1), 19-30.

Scurfield, R.M. (1980). Educational preparation for social work administrators: a survey. Journal of Education for Social Work, 16(1), 49-50.

Sheriff, D.K. (1983). Leadership skills and executive development. Training and Development Journal, 22(3), 29-36.

Simon, H. (1980). The New Science of Management Decision. New York: Harper & Row.

Singleton, W.T. (Ed.) (1970). The Analysis of Practical Skills. Baltimore: University Park Press.

Singleton, W.T. (Ed.) (1979). Compliance and Excellence. Baltimore: University Park Press.

Singleton, W.T. (Ed.) (1981). Management Skills. Baltimore: University Park Press.

Stewart, R. (1967). Managers and Their Jobs. London: MacMillan.

SPSS-A Users Guide: Edition 2, (1986). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Taylor, F.W. (1911). Principles of Scientific Management. New York: Harper & Bros.

The Financial Post (1983). Canadian Markets 1984. Toronto: Maclean Hunter.

Titmuss, R.M. (1968). Commitment to Welfare. London: George Allen & Unwin.

Van de Ven, A.H. (1976). On the nature, formation and maintenance of relations among organizations. The Academy of Management Review, 1(1), 24-36.

Waters, J.A. (1980). Managerial skill development. Academy of Management Review, 5(3), 449-453.

Whetten, D.A. (1981). Interorganizational relations: a review of the field. Journal of Higher Education, 52(1), 1-20.

Wilensky, H.L., & Lebeaux, C.N. (1966). Industrial Society and Social Welfare. New York: The Free Press.

Wilson, S.M. (1980). Values and technology: foundations for practice. In F.D. Perlmutter & S. Slavin (Eds.), Leadership in Social Administration: Perspectives for the 1980's (pp. 105-122). Philadelphia: Temple University Press.

Wolk, J.L., Way, I.F., & Bleeke, M.A. (1982). Human service management: the art of interpersonal relationships. Administration in Social Work, 6(1), 1-10.

#### Vita Auctoris

John F. Dobrowolsky was born in Windsor, Ontario on September 5, 1954. In Windsor, he attended Princess Elizabeth Public School, and graduated from Edith Cavell Junior High School in 1968, and Riverside Secondary School in 1973. He received a Bachelor of Social Work degree from the University of Windsor in 1978. Following employment as a social worker, in Children's Aid Societies in Kenora in 1978, and Windsor in 1979, he was a co-owner/manager in the food service industry from 1980 to 1983. He was a caseworker in 1984, and a supervisor for the Work Activity Program in 1985, both for the Social Services Department in the City of Windsor.