

**THE ASSOCIATION OF CHILD AND FAMILY SERVICES  
AGENCIES OF MANITOBA:  
PLANNING FOR CHANGE**

**BY**

**GORDON PETER LUY**

**A Practicum Report  
Submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies  
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements  
for the Degree of**

**Master of Social Work**

**Faculty of Social Work  
University of Manitoba  
Winnipeg, Manitoba**

**(c) April, 1991**



National Library  
of Canada

Acquisitions and  
Bibliographic Services Branch

395 Wellington Street  
Ottawa, Ontario  
K1A 0N4

Bibliothèque nationale  
du Canada

Direction des acquisitions et  
des services bibliographiques

395, rue Wellington  
Ottawa (Ontario)  
K1A 0N4

*Your file* *Votre référence*

*Our file* *Notre référence*

The author has granted an irrevocable non-exclusive licence allowing the National Library of Canada to reproduce, loan, distribute or sell copies of his/her thesis by any means and in any form or format, making this thesis available to interested persons.

L'auteur a accordé une licence irrévocable et non exclusive permettant à la Bibliothèque nationale du Canada de reproduire, prêter, distribuer ou vendre des copies de sa thèse de quelque manière et sous quelque forme que ce soit pour mettre des exemplaires de cette thèse à la disposition des personnes intéressées.

The author retains ownership of the copyright in his/her thesis. Neither the thesis nor substantial extracts from it may be printed or otherwise reproduced without his/her permission.

L'auteur conserve la propriété du droit d'auteur qui protège sa thèse. Ni la thèse ni des extraits substantiels de celle-ci ne doivent être imprimés ou autrement reproduits sans son autorisation.

ISBN 0-315-81698-8

Canada

THE ASSOCIATION OF CHILD AND FAMILY SERVICES

AGENCIES OF MANITOBA:

PLANNING FOR CHANGE

BY

GORDON PETER LUY

A practicum submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies  
of the University of Manitoba in partial fulfillment of the  
requirements of the degree of

MASTER OF SOCIAL WORK

© 1991

Permission has been granted to the LIBRARY OF THE UNIVERSITY  
OF MANITOBA to lend or sell copies of this practicum, to  
the NATIONAL LIBRARY OF CANADA to microfilm this practicum  
and to lend or sell copies of the film, and UNIVERSITY MICRO-  
FILMS to publish an abstract of this practicum.

The author reserves other publication rights, and neither  
the practicum nor extensive extracts from it may be printed  
or otherwise reproduced without the author's permission.

**TABLE OF CONTENTS**

	<b>Page</b>
INTRODUCTION	1
I. THE ASSOCIATION AS A COALITION	5
(A) A Definition of Coalition	5
(B) Coalitions and Human Service Organizations	6
(C) The Emergence of the Association	10
(D) Format for the Remainder of the Report	16
II. STRATEGIC PLANNING IN THE ASSOCIATION	19
(A) A Conceptualization of the Problem Areas Identified by the Association	19
(B) Towards Improved System-Wide Planning and Coordination	25
(C) Incorporating the Elements into a Strategy	32

	<b>Page</b>
III. ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE AND MODELS	40
(A) Definitions of Organizational Structure	40
(B) Analysis of Organizational Structure	
Within Early Organizational Theory	42
(1) Taylor's Scientific Management	43
(2) Weber and Bureaucracy	48
(3) Fayol's Process of Management	53
(4) Summary	59
(C) Organizational Typologies	61
(1) A Review and Analysis	
of Organizational Typologies	63
(i) Parsons (1962)	63
(ii) Katz and Kahn (1966, 1978)	65
(iii) Etzioni (1961)	67
(iv) Blau and Scott (1962)	71
Critical Analysis of these Typologies	74
(v) Haas, Hall and Johnson (1966)	
Pugh, Hickson and Hinings (1969)	76

	<b>Page</b>
(vi) Hasenfeld (1983)	81
Analysis of Hasenfeld's Typology	83
(vii) Mintzberg (1979)	84
Design of Positions	86
Design of Superstructure	89
Design of Lateral Linkages	91
Design of Decision-Making System	93
The Simple Structure	94
The Machine Bureaucracy	95
The Professional Bureaucracy	96
The Divisionalized Form	97
The Adhocracy	97
Analysis of Mintzberg's Typology	99
(D) Towards Organizational Models	
for the Association	101
(1) The Internal Structure of the Association	103
(i) Types of Positions	103
(ii) Design of Positions	105
(iii) Planning and Control Systems	108

	<b>Page</b>
(iv) The Decision-Making System	110
(v) Summary	112
(2) The Association and the Agencies	115
(3) Summary	120
 IV. PLANNING FOR THE FUTURE	 122
(A) Restructuring the Delivery of Public Services	122
(B) Resources Outside the Province	127
(C) Education and Training	128
 APPENDICES	
 BIBLIOGRAPHY	

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENT**

This report is substantially based on the direct input of members of the Association of Child and Family Services Agencies of Manitoba. In particular, Rachel Massicotte, President of the Association of Child and Family Services Agencies of Manitoba, and Board President of Child and Family Services of Eastern Manitoba, and Dave Waters, Secretary-Treasurer of the Association of Child and Family Services Agencies of Manitoba, and Executive Director of Child and Family Services of Eastern Manitoba, are recognized for consistently providing valuable insight and useful feedback to the author.

The author also gratefully acknowledges the support and direction provided by Professor Grant Reid of the Faculty of Social Work, University of Manitoba, throughout the writing of this report.



**PREFACE**

This report is based upon the practicum project with the Association of Child and Family Services Agencies of Manitoba. This project focussed primarily on three areas: short-term strategic planning; organizational structure and models; and, long-term strategic planning. The reader is introduced to the Association of Child and Family Services Agencies of Manitoba in Section I through an analysis of its evolution as an organization. A format for the remainder of this report is provided at the conclusion of this section. The remainder of the report focuses on the three areas of the practicum project outlined above.

## INTRODUCTION

The Association of Child and Family Services Agencies of Manitoba is an organization whose beginnings can be traced to the regionalization of Winnipeg's child and family services in 1985. To facilitate the development and implementation of community-based child and family services in Winnipeg at the time, a working group was formed consisting of the Board Presidents and the Executive Directors of the Agencies, the Deputy Minister and the Assistant Deputy Minister of the Department of Community Services, and the Director of the Child and Family Support Branch - often referred to as the "Directorate". This group came to be called the Implementation Working Group, or I.W.G. Members met regularly to attempt to coordinate the development of the various Agencies and their services, as well as to develop protocols, to set standards, and to resolve any immediate inter-agency glitches which surfaced as a result of the regionalization process.

A decision was made within the I.W.G. shortly after the "mechanics" of regionalization were completed to exclude the government representatives from future meetings. This decision was at least partially influenced by the desire of member Agencies for greater autonomy from direct government influence in the administrative issues affecting the newly-created community-based

Agencies. The remaining members continued to participate in what were relatively loosely structured and informal meetings. These meetings consisted mostly of information-sharing between the Agencies and general discussion. Meetings were chaired on a rotating basis, and decisions were made by consensus, if possible, by a majority vote of both Board Presidents and Executive Directors.

Members of the I.W.G. began to question the purpose of the group in late 1987 as it was felt that little was being accomplished within the existing structure. They began to question the investment of their time in a group which no longer had a central focus (the regionalization of services was complete). It was at this time that a decision was made to change the name of the group to the Association of Child and Family Services Agencies of Manitoba. Membership was expanded to include the two rural community-based Child and Family Services Agencies, and Jewish Child and Family Services in Winnipeg. The "Association" , as it came to be called, proceeded to develop terms of reference and organizational by-laws as part of an attempt to redefine its purpose. Members continued to meet regularly to discuss and attempt to more actively address issues and problems facing the member Agencies.

Though the above changes did occur, Association meetings continued to be plagued with a general sense of inertia as members dwelled on the issues and problems they were facing with few signs

of proceeding to their resolution. At the same time, however, there was a growing recognition within the Association that the group needed to become more cohesive and to speak with a unified voice on those issues affecting them. In other words, a recognition developed within the group that the internal structure of the Association needed to change.

Members began to articulate goals, and working committees were established. Also, voting privileges were changed to include only the Board Presidents to ensure that the Association reflected an emphasis on community control over policy development.\* Members began to recognize the potential for the Association to assume an array of tasks in the future. They began to realize the need to more closely examine the internal dynamics of the Association, and its relationship to the environment. It was also at this time (early 1990) that Northwest Winnipeg Child and Family Services withdrew its membership from the Association.

I was introduced to the Association in March, 1990, and subsequently, began to attend meetings regularly. I developed an interest in both the Association as an organization itself, and in the

\* See Appendix I

goals which had been articulated. This interest evolved into a project in which I would have the opportunity to work with the group to analyze its internal structure in relation to its goals, and to formulate a strategic plan. This project was completed on January 31, 1991, and this report is the culmination of this work. It is hoped that it will serve to assist the Association as it faces the many challenges laying ahead.

## **I. THE ASSOCIATION AS A COALITION**

### **(A) A Definition of Coalition**

A "coalition" is: " a temporary alliance of distinct parties for a limited purpose " , according to Boissevain (1974: 171). He distinguishes a coalition from a corporate group stating that the former is temporary in nature, while the latter is permanent. However, he acknowledges that the duration of a coalition varies as it can accumulate more tasks through time.

Boissevain (1974) uses the word "alliance" to indicate that there is a joint use of resources by the parties to achieve a goal. The amount of resources committed, though, and the degree of commitment of individual parties, can vary from member to member.

Boissevain (1974) maintains that a degree of coordination of action which gives the coalition a measure of organization is essential. He adds that while there is a sense of shared purpose within a coalition, each member retains a distinct identity:

The parties in coalition usually remain distinct, their individual identity within the alliance is not replaced by a group identity, nor is their individual

commitment replaced by an ideological commitment to a uniform set of rights and obligations, which is characteristic of corporate groups.

(1974: 172)

Thus, the retention of individual identity within the group combined with the temporary nature of its existence are what distinguish a coalition from what he refers to as a corporate group. The organizational structure of a coalition is less defined and less permanent than that of a corporate group. He notes, however, that this does not preclude the development of behavioral norms, shared rights and duties, and long life within a coalition which would transform it into a corporate group.

## **(B) Coalitions and Human Service Organizations**

Maria Roberts-DeGennaro (1986) has noted that because there is increased competition for dwindling resources, human service organizations are more frequently working together to survive. In some cases, this results in the formation of coalitions. Accordingly, she cites three major advantages for joining a coalition:

(1) political and economic events are making coordination and cooperation essential for human service organizations in their

attempts to acquire resources; (2) within a coalition, organizations are introduced to new ideas, perspectives, and technologies; and, (3) maintaining communication channels heightens organizations' understanding of the "bigger picture" (Roberts-DeGennaro, 1987).

Regarding the first advantage, she is implying that organizations are coalescing out of the realization that they may be more able to influence government decisions regarding resource allocation as a collective, as opposed to individually. This point highlights the fact that a coalition can be a mechanism by which organizations actively attempt to protect their individual interests. Similar to Boissevain, she points out that the maintenance of individual identity by member organizations is an important characteristic of coalitions:

A coalition provides a convening mechanism through which a set of organizations can interact and work around a common purpose . . . . (y)et . . . can maintain its own identity and autonomy. A coalition not only provides a basis for exchange, but it also requires a commitment to future joint decision-making.

(1987: 59)

An organization is relinquishing a degree of individual autonomy and authority over certain decisions to the group by making a commitment to joint decision-making. However, the organization's



investment is limited and directed to the goal(s) at hand.

Alternately, membership within a coalition has the latent benefits of increasing an organization's exposure to a broader range of perspectives on a variety of issues. The group becomes a resource base for each individual member regarding service and policy issues, and introduces a broader perspective to the group as a whole. These are described here as the "latent" benefits of belonging to a coalition as they could also occur between organizations without either the establishment of a dependence relationship, or a commitment to joint decision-making.

Roberts-DeGennaro (1987) describes three "patterns of exchange relationships" between organizations, each of which can lead to the emergence of a coalition. The first pattern she identifies is what she terms an organization-set. This consists of a focal organization around which numerous other organizations coalesce, and to or for which all of the other organizations provide essential resources. The common bond these organizations have with the focal organization and the similarity of service provision among them can lead to the formation of a coalition. Members, as part of a coalition, would attempt to exert greater influence over the decisions made by the focal organization which impact upon them. The formation and maintenance of such a coalition would depend upon minimal conflict between the member organizations.

The second pattern is the network. Citing Hage (1969), she defines this pattern as: " all of the groups and organizations associated with a particular production system designed to service some client " (1987: 63). A coalition can emerge from within a network if a subgroup of organizations identifies a particular issue affecting consumers and decides to address the issue as a collective. The recognition by certain organizations in the network of what they have in common would facilitate the emergence of a coalition. All of the Child and Family Services Agencies in Manitoba could be considered an example of a network.

The third pattern which could lead to the emergence of a coalition is what has been termed the action-set. Boissevain defines this as: " . . . a set of persons who have coordinated their actions to achieve a particular goal " (1974: 186). This pattern of relationships is goal-oriented and defined in terms of the goal pursued by the central figures of the group. These persons or organizations can be mobilized around an issue by a single leader or clique, or may emerge simply out of the realization of a common interest or interests. Leadership emerges after the coalition is formed in the latter case and serves to supervise and coordinate the tasks of the various members. Action-sets are usually temporary if the coalitions are issue-specific, but according to Roberts-DeGennaro (1987), can become permanent if members are dependant upon one another for goods and services, and are obligated to support one another's position on issues. This is similar to the coalition

emerging from a network except that an action-set: " . . . is not formally recognized as part of a larger group of organizations " (Roberts-DeGennaro, 1987: 63).

### **(C) The Emergence of the Association**

The patterns of relationships identified by Roberts-DeGennaro which could lead to the emergence of a coalition can be used to analyze the emergence of the Association of Child and Family Services Agencies of Manitoba.

The Implementation Working Group had been formed to facilitate the development and implementation of community-based child and family services in Winnipeg. However, the government representatives were no longer included in this group beginning around 1986. The remaining members continued to meet, but soon began to question the utility of regular meetings as there was no longer a focal issue among the group.

All of the Agencies who originally worked together within the Implementation Working Group were associated with a focal "organization" known as the Child and Family Support Branch of a provincial government department or the "Directorate". Their

common connection with this government department combined with the similarity of service provision between them are characteristics consistent with those of Roberts-DeGennaro's organization-set.

All of the Agencies operate under the authority of the "Directorate" and are thus subordinate in this relationship. Many Agencies arrived at the realization that their ability to exert influence over decisions made by the Directorate would be enhanced if they advocated as a group as opposed to individually. Their frustration with the Directorate provided an impetus to coalescing more closely with their colleagues. Of course, their frustration was not only with this branch of the Department, but also with elected officials. The point, however, is that a pattern of relationships consistent with that of the organization-set can be identified as having been one factor which facilitated the emergence of the Association as a coalition.

The Implementation Working Group, or I.W.G., consisted primarily of agencies responsible for the delivery of child and family services in Winnipeg. As such, they could have been considered part of a network of such agencies in the province of Manitoba. I.W.G. meetings presented the opportunity for these organizations to share information, and discuss common problems. Most importantly, involvement in the group heightened the awareness of individual

organizations that numerous problem issues were shared by most if not all agencies within the sector. This ultimately led them to consider the benefits of working together as a collective in the future. It was this realization that later encouraged the group to extend an invitation to the two rural agencies to join what came to be called the "Association". At present, the Association is, in fact, solely comprised of community-based Agencies who are part of a network of Child and Family Services Agencies in Manitoba. This fact supports Roberts-DeGennaro's assertion that a coalition of organizations can emerge from a pattern of relationships described as a network. Northwest Winnipeg Child and Family Services is the only such Agency which does not belong to this coalition as it withdrew its membership in early 1990.

It was the identification of specific issues of concern, however, and the establishment of an inner working group which ultimately "formalized" the Association as a coalition. Member Agencies began to identify specific issues, most notably inadequate funding, and subsequently agreed that a coordinated and concerted effort was needed to address these issues. While inadequate funding was not the only issue facing these agencies, it was the most immediate and serious issue around which members began to coordinate their actions. Working committees were established to begin to address

such issues as the current funding formula and workload measures\*. This pattern of relationships is similar to what Roberts-DeGennaro (1987) described as an action-set where the focus of organizations on a common goal or goals leads to the emergence of a coalition.

To summarize, Roberts-DeGennaro's analysis of patterns of relationships which can lead to the emergence of a coalition is helpful to the analysis of the formation of the Association. The emergence of the Association as a coalition was facilitated by: (1) the existence of a focal organization for which the Agencies provide essential services; (2) a similar service mandate among the Agencies; (3) the identification of specific problem issues common to the organizations; and, (4) the establishment of goals common to the organizations and an inner working group to begin working towards the goals. As is apparent, all three patterns of relationships identified by Roberts-DeGennaro are evident in this list.

\* For a description of the funding formula, see page 28 of this report. Workload measures refers to the amount of work being done by social workers delivering service to clients. The Association maintains that, at present, the actual work being done far exceeds a full caseload for most of the social workers in the Agencies.

The transformation of the I.W.G. into the Association was part of a move by Child and Family Services Agencies to distance themselves somewhat from direct government influence in service delivery and to join forces and work collectively: (1) to address problematic issues; (2) to attempt to secure greater government funding; (3) to increase their influence over government decision-making within this sector; and, (4) to begin to do short and long range planning within this sector. The Association is the embodiment of the belief by these Agencies that, in these areas, the potential to succeed is greater by working collectively as opposed to individually.

Many Agencies have begun to grapple with what seems to be a quandary of committing themselves to a coalition or what could be referred to as a "loosely-structured" organization. They recognize the benefit of working together as a group and speaking with a collective voice; however, there remains a corresponding desire by individual Agencies to operate autonomously and to maintain a separate identity from the other members and the Association itself. One Agency, Northwest Winnipeg Child and Family Services, chose to deal with this dilemma by withdrawing from the Association. This continues to be an unresolved issue for the member Agencies although a tighter structure has been established within the Association with the articulation of goals, the creation of by-laws, and the election of leadership.

The Association represents a belief shared by members in the strength of a common and united voice, community involvement in service development, and respect for the uniqueness and autonomy of member Agencies according to the present terms of reference (1989). This belief is consistent with the continuation of a "coalition" type of organizational structure in which the Agencies invest a limited amount of time and resources to accomplish specific time-limited goals.

The following goals have been articulated within the Association at the same time, however: (1) policy analysis and research; (2) advocacy with the provincial government and the public; (3) the sharing of information within the Association and with the public; (4) staff training and development; (5) resource acquisition; and, (6) short and long term planning within the sector. The identification of these goals reflects a perception which has developed within the membership that the Association has the potential to assume a greater number of tasks in the future on behalf of its membership. The accomplishment of these goals, however, will require much time and effort, and a greater amount of resources than are currently being expended. Also, the formal assumption of a greater number of tasks by the Association entails a greater commitment by member Agencies to joint decision-making regarding issues which are, at present, the sole responsibility of individual Agencies.



The Association is at a crossroads where members must decide what functions this "organization" is to assume, and how to structure activities to accomplish the goals. An attempt will be made to outline options available to the Association in both of these areas in this practicum report.

#### **(D) Format for the Remainder of the Report**

In the next section, the discussion will center around issues identified by the Association as problematic to its membership. These will be identified and their interrelationships will be explored. This will be followed by a brief discussion of which issues are already being addressed by the membership. They will be prioritized in terms of urgency and/or their importance to the goals of the Association, and various options for addressing them will be discussed. A general timetable will be proposed which will outline: (1) the order in which the issues can be addressed; (2) a timeframe within which to address the issues; and, (3) various means of addressing them.

The following section will focus on "organizational structure" and the Association. In particular, an attempt will be made to address the question of how to match the present and future goals of the Association with the structural means to achieve them. This issue

has already been peripherally introduced in the preliminary discussion in which the Association was analyzed as a "coalition". Further analysis will make reference to existing research on the formal structure of organizations. Specifically, existing organizational typologies will be reviewed and analyzed. The purpose is to arrive at organizational models to be considered by the Association.

This discussion will begin with a review of existing definitions of organizational structure in the literature. This will be followed by a brief discussion of three of the more notable early organizational theorists who pioneered the study of the formal structure of organizations. Their ideas on organizational structure and management as well as the existing professional criticism of their work will be summarized. Also, the applicability of their theories to human service organizations will be discussed. In all, this section is intended to introduce the reader to the beginnings of the study of the formal structure of organizations.

The core of this section will focus on existing organizational models or what will be referred to as organizational typologies. The definition of organizational typology will be explored and numerous existing typologies will be summarized. Also, the critical analysis of these typologies in the literature will be briefly discussed. The applicability of these typologies to the structure of the Association

will then be assessed. The purpose of this exercise is to identify those organizational characteristics which can be considered by the Association as it attempts to mesh its organizational structure and its goals.

The final section will focus on issues that may face the Association and Manitoba's Child and Family Services Sector in the future. This information will be derived from the literature, discussions with Association members, and any other relevant information which may surface during the time of this practicum. The purpose is to provide an overview of these areas for use as reference by the Association.

## **II. STRATEGIC PLANNING IN THE ASSOCIATION**

The Association has already begun to identify some problem areas facing member Agencies. These were documented and prioritized early in 1990, and working committees were formed. These problem areas will be reviewed and analyzed in this section. In addition, an attempt will be made to formulate a strategic plan which can be utilized by the Association as it attempts to resolve the problems currently facing its membership. This will be followed by a brief discussion of the issues and their interrelationships, of what has been done thus far to address them, and of what is left to be done. This last part will include some options regarding how to address the issues, as well as an approximate timetable within which they can be addressed.

### **(A) A Conceptualization of the Problem**

#### **Areas Identified by the Association**

The most serious issue affecting the Association, or more specifically, almost every member within the Association, is insufficient resources available from the government to fulfill the legal mandate. The public service sector has faced resource cutbacks

for a number of years, and the Child and Family Services Agencies have not been spared this phenomenon. The costs of delivering mandated child and family services have increased at the same time. This increase can in large measure be attributed to an escalation in demand for service which corresponded to the regionalization of child and family services in Winnipeg in 1985.\* Increased demand for service coupled with dwindling resources have led to the regular occurrence of annual budget deficits for all but a few momentarily-fortunate Agencies, and lately these yearly deficits have been growing in size. This has resulted in financial crises for most of the Agencies, and has forced many of them to consider staff lay-offs and service cutbacks to reduce their budget deficits.

It has been argued that this current crisis is in large part due to inadequate planning on the part of the provincial government at the time of, and subsequent to, the regionalization of these services in 1985. In 1987, it was noted in the External Review Into Matters Relating To The System Of Dealing With Child Abuse In Winnipeg (often referred to as the Reid/Sigurdson Report), an external review initiated by the provincial government, that:

\* See Mckenzie, 1986.

Even given all possible allowances for difficulty with the operation of a new system, the current lack of planning capacity within the Child and Family Support Branch is a critical flaw and must be rectified immediately.

(Reid/Sigurdson, 1987: 237)

It is fair to say that little has changed since this review was completed meaning that the system continues to suffer from a lack of planning.

Another system-wide problem identified in the Reid/Sigurdson Report (1987) was poor coordination of services between the Agencies. Certainly, coordination is a recognized difficulty of decentralized organizational structures like Manitoba's Child and Family Services system. While the Department has attempted to provide this function within this sector, it was also noted in the Reid/Sigurdson Report (1987) that the Department's approach has instead served to heighten mistrust between itself and the Agencies, which in turn has had the effect of decreasing coordination and communication throughout the system. The relationship between the individual Agencies and the government has been at best cordial over the past few years, and often antagonistic and confrontative as the Department's attempts to "enforce" coordination met with resistance from the Agencies. The point was made in an earlier discussion that the formation of the Association

was very much the result of the growing frustration of individual Agencies with elected officials and the government bureaucracy.

Most of the issues identified by the Association are, in fact, the direct result of inadequate planning and poor coordination throughout the system. This situation is made worse by the presence of an ill-defined and poorly executed financial management system. Referring to this system, Reid/Sigurdson stated in 1987 that:

The current system gives the Agencies control of their service and administration budget and the control of the child maintenance budget remains with the (provincial) Department . . . . In consequence of these procedures, the Agencies are in an untenable position as they are obliged to account for their budget and the behavior of their staff but they are not able to make decisions which are essential to the functioning of their organizations.

(Reid/Sigurdson, 1987: 240)

The point is that the current financial arrangement (it has not changed since the time of this review) which relies on the use of rigid procedures and constraining guidelines impinges on the ability of individual organizations to control their spending and manage other aspects of their work effectively. Use of a line-by-line

budgeting process, and the recent implementation of expenditure controls are part of a financial system whose purpose is to ensure financial accountability, but which actually serves to frustrate any attempt by individual Agencies to manage and deliver services in an effective and efficient manner.

In addition to a lack of financial resources in the system, the following areas have been identified as needing to be addressed by the Association:

- (1) Developing a management information system (Automated Service Information System) for use by all Child and Family Services Agencies in the province;
- (2) Exploring global budgeting as an alternative to the line-by-line budgeting process currently in use;
- (3) Developing a funding formula which is consistent with the service delivery structure;
- (4) Devising a system of measuring workloads in the Agencies to enable the Association to more effectively advocate for an increase in government funding;
- (5) Encouraging the government to cover the 1989-90 budget deficits; and,
- (6) Responding to the government's recently instituted expenditure controls.



(This list does not include issues which have been identified but are either no longer relevant or have already been addressed by the Association.) As is apparent, all of these areas are directly related to the problems of inadequate planning and poor coordination within the system, and a flawed financial management system.

Certainly, each of the areas identified is important in its own right. However, it is easy to overlook how all of the issues interrelate if each issue is addressed as separate from the others. Committees have been formed within the Association to address individual problem areas in the absence of an overall strategic plan. For example, an instrument for measuring and monitoring workloads had already been developed outside the Association. There was agreement within the Association to begin using this instrument, and some Agencies began to keep track of existing workloads. Data was collected and organized for the purpose of demonstrating to the government the need for more staff in the Agencies. Unfortunately, the Association has been unable to convince the government of the validity of this instrument. As a result, there has been no further progress in this area.

To address each of these areas individually is important; however, by itself it is of limited utility. Instead, each activity should be conceptualized as part of an overall strategy to improve services to children and families. Some objectives of such a

strategy would be: (1) to improve the financial management system in this sector; (2) to initiate a system-wide planning process; (3) to improve coordination of services within the Child and Family Services Sector and between the Sector and other agencies; and, (4) to secure an increase in provincial funding. Each activity or set of activities that is undertaken by the Association should be considered an element of an overall plan the purpose of which is to demonstrate to the government a better method of planning, coordinating and funding child and family services in this province.

**(B) Towards Improved System-Wide  
Planning and Coordination**

System-wide planning should be a main function of the Department. This point was noted in the Reid/Sigurdson Report of 1987. Planning would include: (1) identifying short and long term service needs of communities, and resource needs of the Child and Family Services System; (2) formulating short and long term goals of this service system; (3) determining objectives - deriving strategies aimed at accomplishing these goals (operationalizing the goals); (4) implementing the strategies; and, (5) evaluating the degree to which the goals were accomplished. The Department would need to work in cooperation with the community-based Agencies to do this effectively. An ongoing planning process of this sort would

serve to make the system more accountable to the government, and to the communities served.

Accurate and timely information is a necessary part of any attempt to plan effectively. This point highlights the need for a computerized information base. A comprehensive management information system could be used for: (1) the budgeting process; (2) case tracking throughout the province; (3) case management within and between the Agencies; (4) research; (5) evaluation; and, (6) short and long term planning within the sector. Of course, it would be essential for all of the Agencies to follow common budgeting and service planning procedures. Workload measures could certainly be included within such a system. The information system would need to accommodate both the service and financial components of the Agencies, and be able to integrate this information for the purpose of analysis. This would result in better coordination of services throughout the province. It was noted in 1987 that:

The absence of a viable management information system is the source of considerable difficulty in the current child abuse system. Budgets are still being prepared and administered in an unwieldy fashion and the case tracking techniques are not appreciably

different than those which have been in use for many years.

(Reid/Sigurdson, 1987: 254)

Unfortunately, little has changed since the time of this report, as a sector-wide management information system has yet to be implemented. While committees consisting of employees of both the Agencies and the Department have been formed (at least on paper) to implement such a system, meetings have seldomly occurred, and little has been accomplished to date.

Global budgets, which make use of what have been referred to as "service contracts", would also lead to improved planning within this sector. This budgeting process would allow each individual Agency to assume control of, and be responsible to the government for, financial and service administration within its jurisdiction. Thus, there would be a more clearly defined (contractual) relationship between the government and each Agency than what currently exists, with the latter partner having the necessary authority to make all of the important decisions concerning service to the community. The budgeting process would consist of the negotiation between the Agencies and the government of short and long term goals (within a broad priority direction set by the government) and resource requirements, and would include a method of evaluating the performance of each Agency during the previous

year. As such, global budgeting, or what has been referred to as Service Planning, would provide the Agencies and the government with a better method of analyzing any occurrence of budget deficits. It is maintained here that the introduction of global budgets is necessary for the improvement of short and long range planning in this service sector.

The development of a better funding formula could be included as part of the move towards global budgeting. Since 1985, funding for the Agencies has been determined through what has been referred to as a Universal Funding Formula. The Universal Funding Formula is a computation by cost component of the number of funded positions multiplied by the "approved unit cost" of the cost component. The approved unit cost is determined for salaries (and benefits) which account for most of the Agencies' budgets, and for other items such as office operations, office building and maintenance, board training, professional fees, travel and transportation, and other related costs.

A Funding Committee was jointly established by the Minister and the Association on October 25, 1988, as a result of a common recognition of and concern with the deficits being incurred by the Agencies since the regionalization of these services in Winnipeg in 1985. The Committee was comprised of the Executive Directors of some of the Agencies as well as of representatives from the Child

and Family Support Branch of the Family Services Department. The mandate of the Committee was to examine the method of funding and the adequacy of the rates attached to the Universal Funding Formula. The Committee further intended to examine more fundamental funding issues and make recommendations regarding the budget process.

The Committee identified a number of inadequacies of the Universal Funding Formula. In addition, some improvements to the funding formula were recommended. Unfortunately, there has been little progress on this issue since 1989 when the members of this committee last met, though some changes have since been initiated by the government. It is recommended that the Association work to complete the stated goals of this committee either with, or without the active cooperation of Child and Family Support, as the funding formula will prove to be an integral part of any plan designed to improve the funding relationship between the Agencies and the provincial government.

The Reid/Sigurdson Report (1987) advocated for the implementation of comprehensive service standards in place of guidelines and directives, which were being issued regularly by the Director. The authors pointed out that guidelines, or "suggestions for good practice" as they refer to them, are intrusive into the service delivery realm of each Agency, and do not specify any consequences for non-compliance. Alternately, directives, which are derived from

the authority of the Child and Family Services Act (1986), have tended to be issued irregularly - at times without input and consultation from the Agencies - and have had the effect of worsening an already tenuous relationship between the Department and the Agencies.

In adherence to this recommendation, comprehensive service standards have recently been developed. It is maintained here that comprehensive service standards are a superior coordinating mechanism to directives and guidelines. There is the need for uniform structural standards (such as personnel policies, and job descriptions), uniform procedural standards (expected procedures in the provision of service) and uniform outcome standards within this service system.\* Compliance with these standards could only enhance the coordination of services between the Agencies as there would be greater uniformity of service throughout the province.

The existence of comprehensive service standards is particularly relevant to the negotiation of global budgets. The reason for this is that the negotiation of service contracts is really the negotiation

\* This distinction between three types of standards was more thoroughly explained in the 1987 Reid/Sigurdson Report.

for greater autonomy for the Agencies from the direct influence of government officials. This "contractual" relationship would be undermined if the Department continuously issued "orders" to the Agencies regarding service and financial issues considered to be primarily the responsibility of the individual Agencies. Alternately, adherence to procedural standards issued under the authority of the Director is more in keeping with a specified contractual relationship between the government and the Agencies.

Of course, it is recognized that the Agencies have been unable to fully conform to these standards because the government has not provided adequate funding. This point does not refute the superiority of service standards over directives and guidelines as coordinating mechanisms, however. Instead, it emphasizes the need for more resources in this sector. A point to note is that it would be even more difficult to convince the government to rescind the expenditures controls which were recently implemented without the availability of a plausible alternative like service standards.

Most of the frustration of individual members has been with the inertia on the part of the Department, which has shown little initiative to begin addressing system-wide problems. There is a growing realization within the Association that, as this situation is unlikely to change, any initiative will have to come from the Association itself.



Certainly, many Association members have recognized the interrelatedness of the above problem areas. Unfortunately, this has not always led to a realization that any strategy meant to address these areas should also acknowledge these interrelationships.

There is little doubt that these problem areas need to be addressed and that changes need to be made, either with (preferably) or without the cooperation of the Department. However, a question arises as to how the government can be convinced to adopt any new approaches proposed by the Association. There is no "surefire" answer to this question, but there are some possibilities which have the potential to succeed.

### **(C) Incorporating the Elements into a Strategy**

The greatest progress among the issues which the Association has already begun to address has been in the area of workload measures. Some progress has also been made in the development of a comprehensive management information system. Certainly, these individual tasks must be completed. At the risk of stating the obvious, though, some important points must be made:

(1) It is imperative that a management information system contain both financial and service data, and be able to integrate this information. This point was made in the Reid/Sigurdson Report (1987). In addition, the collection of information and the use of this system must be uniform throughout the Child and Family Services Sector. This means that all Agencies must operate computerized systems which are at least compatible. It would be even better if all Agencies used identical systems. This latter point alludes to a related point - all Agencies should be using the same, or at least substantially similar, in-house accounting procedures.

(2) The strength of the "Association" depends on the ability of its membership to work cooperatively on these areas of concern, and to speak to government as a collective as opposed to as individual agencies. In other words, the influence that the Association is able to exert on its environment is contingent upon the level of commitment of each member Agency to improving the system through a collective effort. The corollary to this is that any individually-motivated actions by member Agencies, which are initiated primarily out of self-interest or without the consideration of possible effects on the group as a whole, reduce the influence of the Association by disintegrating the membership, and by giving the impression to outsiders that the group is neither cohesive nor are its members working in the same direction.

(3) The potential for the successful resolution of even some of the identified problems depends significantly on the long term commitment of members to the Association. The problems facing the Agencies certainly cannot be regarded as short term - therefore, neither can any plans to address these problems. In addition, policies and decisions must be flexible as the Association is operating in an unstable environment. Commitment and flexibility within the Association will not guarantee success, but a lack of either or both will guarantee failure.

A greater measure of responsibility will have to fall on the Association to address system-wide planning and coordination problems as the Department has shown little improvement in initiating strategies in these areas. The function of the Child and Family Support Branch of the Department should be called into question if it is shown that it fulfills neither its responsibility for system-wide planning nor its responsibility for coordinating services between the Agencies and throughout the province. The fact of the matter is that these areas desperately need to be addressed by someone. The Association can demonstrate that, in contrast to the Department, it (the Association) is at least making an effort to improve the Child and Family Services System, even though it has limited resources.

The credibility of the Association will depend on the quality of the proposals submitted to the government. Of greatest concern to elected officials is that publicly-funded social service organizations deliver services to the community in an effective and efficient manner. The government will have to be convinced that not only are the Association's recommendations sound from a financial standpoint, but that a better quality of service will result from their implementation.

Many of the advantages of global budgeting over the existing financial management system have already been discussed. That the institution of global budgets can lead to improved service and financial accountability in the system should be of particular interest to elected officials. Furthermore, the use of global budgets allows elected officials to remain at "arms length" from these services, a point which should be of political interest to these same officials. Certainly, there is no guarantee that the use of global budgeting will lead to a reduction in the cost of delivering the services, but neither is this the case with the existing financial system. At the service level, global budgeting should enhance the planning process within the individual Agencies, and standardize this process across the sector. More effective and consistent decision-making would result in a better quality of service to communities.

At present, the Association is only beginning to explore the process of global budgeting and the significance of service contracts. It is maintained here that greater effort should be made by the Agencies towards adopting this style of financial management as soon as practicable. The Association can consider launching a collective effort to attempt to convince elected and appointed officials to consider global budgets should the Department remain unresponsive to the idea of changing the budgeting process. One possibility is for all member Agencies to simultaneously submit proposals for service contracts to the government, and begin negotiating agreements.

It would be desirable for the Association to be at the point of considering the above option within the next few years (short term goal). This statement, however, alludes to a couple of related points: (1) All Agencies would need to have compatible management information systems in place by this time. The need to obtain a variety of information, and to be able to do complex procedures to integrate and analyze financial and service information, will require such a system; and, (2) the development of an alternate funding formula must also be completed by this time as it would be an essential component in the development of a Total Service Plan. Workload measures - as calculated by the existing instrument, or an alternate instrument - could be one method of analysis used in the creation of service contracts. These contracts should refer to the

service standards already developed as this will lend greater credibility to the demand for more resources by the Agencies. To restate an important point, all of the above projects would need to be completed prior to the negotiation of global budgets.

The development of a Total Service Plan for an agency is admittedly no small task. It is recognized that in the short term, Association members will be at various levels of understanding of this process. As it is vitally important that all members gain a thorough understanding of this type of "service planning", the best way to approach this task is to initiate a cooperative effort among the membership to develop a complete Service Plan for one or two of the Agencies at a time. This cooperative effort can continue until proposals for all of the member Agencies have been completed. In the end, the submission of thorough and standardized proposals by all of the Agencies simultaneously would be difficult for the government to ignore.

The time period of "a few years" has been proposed as the outside parameter within which these short term goals should be met. In fact, the "rule of thumb" for completion should be as soon as possible. The problems facing the Child and Family Services Agencies and the Sector are serious and immediate, and seem to be worsening. The lack of progress on the part of the government to address these problems indicates that either no one knows what to do to rectify the situation or that the political will to improve the

system is lacking. The strategy suggested throughout this section applies more to the former possibility, but is also relevant to the latter.

The point was made earlier that a lack of resources is a problem which plagues Manitoba's entire social service sector, and one which does not confine itself to this sector. At present, numerous social service organizations are in financial crisis, and many are looking for ways to convince the government to make services to communities a greater political priority. Organizations have had little success in influencing the government individually. It is maintained here that the principle that "there is greater strength in numbers" is as relevant to Manitoba's entire social service system as it is to the Child and Family Services Sector. There is a growing realization of this across the service system. A recent (1990) conference for social service organizations organized by Winnipeg's Social Planning Council and the emergence of such movements as the Coalition In Support Of Families And Children are evidence of this

fact.\* However, greater effort needs to be made to convince Manitoba's social service community that this is a worthwhile effort, and one which needs further development. It should be apparent that the Association can certainly play an important role in this cause.

\* This was a coalition of numerous Winnipeg agencies who organized to attempt to influence the priorities of Manitoba's three major political parties during an election campaign in August/September, 1990.



### **III. ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE AND MODELS**

#### **(A) DEFINITIONS OF ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE**

The literature on "organizations" contains a variety of definitions of organizational structure. Below is a sample of the existing definitions. This will be followed by the identification of the definition to be utilized for the purposes of the practicum.

Blau offers a general definition of organizational structure describing it as, ". . . the distributions, along various lines, of people among social positions that influence the role relations among these people " (1974: 12).

Hall (1982) takes this definition a step further to specify that within organizations are divisions of labour, and hierarchies which delineate certain types of behavior (to varying degrees) for certain positions.

According to Child (1972) and Galbraith (1977), organizational structure refers to the structuring of the elements of an organization which encompasses such things as division of labour, the administrative component, the distribution of power, and the departmentalization of the various work units.

Mintzberg summarizes that: " **The structure of an organization can be defined simply as the total of the ways in which it divides its labour into distinct tasks and then achieves coordination among them** " (his emphases)(1979: 2).

Ranson, Hinings and Greenwood stress that organizational structure influences the activities within an organization and is in turn shaped by these activities meaning that " . . . structures are (both) constituted and constitutive " (1980: 3).

Meyer and Rowan (1977) and Kamens (1977) consider structure to be the product of the social demands either within the organization itself (the former authors) or institutionalized in society (the latter author).

Clearly, there are a variety of definitions of organizational structure most of which sensitize us to one or more aspects and many of which overlap in content. The definition utilized for the purposes of this practicum, though, will be based upon the definitions of Blau, Ranson et al. and Mintzberg. Thus, organizational structure will refer to the division and coordination of labour, their influences on an organization's activities, and how they are in turn effected by these activities. Building on this, organizational structure can be seen to serve three basic functions: (1) producing organizational outputs; (2) minimizing individual variations within

organizations ensuring individuals conform to organizational requirements; and, (3) providing a setting within which power is exercised, decisions are made, and organizations' activities are carried out (Hall, 1982).

## **(B) ANALYSIS OF ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE WITHIN EARLY ORGANIZATIONAL THEORY**

According to Mintzberg (1979), early organizational theory focussed on the formal structure of organizations analyzing relationships among the membership. Notable theorists included Frederick Taylor (1947), Max Weber (1947), and Henri Fayol (1916). Taylor was associated with the "scientific management" movement which focussed on programming work operations for maximum efficiency. His normative theory of management led to the rise of the technocratic component of organizations. Alternately, Weber formulated a theory of "bureaucracy" to explain the interrelationships between various attributes of organizations which emerged from within the capitalist market system. He arrived at an ideal model consisting of a hierarchy of authority, limited authority, division of labour, technically competent participants, procedures for work, rules for incumbents, and differential rewards (Hall, 1982). Fayol began to write about the "principles of

management" school of thought in 1916. He focussed primarily on formal authority through direct supervision in the organization.

The ideas of the above theorists will not be discussed in any great detail as this practicum is not intended to be an exhaustive review of organizational theories. Instead, what will be attempted are: (1) a brief summary of their analyses and formulations as they relate to the formal structure of organizations; (2) a review of subsequent criticisms in the literature; and, (3) a discussion of the applicability of their theories to human service organizations. This is only intended to introduce what will be a more thorough analysis of the various organizational typologies or classification schemes which have emerged out of the study of organizational structure.

### **(1) Taylor's Scientific Management**

In 1911, Frederick Taylor published The Principles of Scientific Management in response to what he considered to be one of the most serious and "unappreciated" problems in Britain's and America's Industrial and Manufacturing settings, namely inefficiency in the day-to-day work activities. He is considered to be the father of "scientific management", a normative theory (prescriptive in nature) in which organizations are considered to be rational and efficient

tools for the production of goods and services if structured and controlled by scientifically-based principles.

Taylor was critical of what he referred to as management of "initiative and incentive" which was considered to be the "best type of management" in ordinary use at that time. Taylor describes the principles of this approach:

. . . in order to have any hope of obtaining the initiative of his workmen the manager must give some special incentive to his men beyond that which is given to the average of the trade.

(1967: 33)

The incentive can take the form of promotion, higher wages, shorter hours of work, or better working conditions, and should be accompanied by a genuine consideration for, and interest in, the workmen. There was the assumption in this style of management that workers would only be motivated to produce at a higher level by incentives, according to Taylor.

Taylor argued that this approach in fact rarely led to maximum worker productivity. Instead, it fostered what he termed "soldiering". Soldiering referred to the tendency by most workers, in his view, to work to the abilities of the least proficient worker. His belief was that in this management approach, too much

responsibility was placed on workers who must both plan and undertake their work activities. He argued that workers were generally cognitively incapable of effectively planning their work activities, and the result was inefficient work operations which reduced the overall productivity of the organization.

On the other hand, an organization under scientific management, or what has been called "task management", would be based upon the principle of cooperation between workers and managers as the latter would assume the responsibility for planning and coordinating all work activities. Taylor advocated that maximum productivity is best attained through adopting the practices of scientific analysis, experimentation, and the mathematical measurement of the efficiency of work activities.

Hasenfeld (1983) has reduced "scientific management" to four steps. These are: (1) defining the goals of the organization and operationalizing them into objective criteria to be optimized; (2) developing a model, based upon careful analysis and measurement of worker-machine activities, that identifies the processes required to achieve the goals; (3) testing the model by mathematically determining which combination of worker-machine activities maximizes goal attainment; and, (4) restructuring the organization's activities to accord with the best solution prescribed by the model. This process was meant to result in improved productivity which

would maximize the profitability of the organization. Higher profitability would, in turn, lead to higher wages for workers. Thus, adherence to the scientific principles is in the best interests of both managers and workers according to Taylor.

Taylor's prescriptive theory of management was instrumental in bringing about further study on organizations and management, particularly as it relates to the structuring of organizations to promote rationality. Worthy credits Taylor as one of the earliest to have worked through the problems of coordination and control which plagued American industry since the rise of the factory and which had resulted from the reduction of complex skills into smaller areas of specialization:

(Taylor's work) . . . went a long way toward bringing production out of the confusion in which he found it, and in doing so laid the foundations for a phenomenal increase in the productivity of American industry.

(1959: 64-71)

The "time and motion" study inaugurated by Taylor is still in existence. His continuing influence can also be seen in more recent management tools such as linear programming, program evaluation and review technique (PERT), statistical decision theory, and inventory analysis, to name but a few (Hasenfeld, 1983).

However, numerous criticisms have been levied against Taylor's theory not the least of which was that he expressed a rather simplistic and "machine-like" perspective of human beings and the job roles they fulfilled. His prescription advocated the removal of all "brain work" from non-managerial staff leaving only the most monotonous of drudgery for workers. Worthy argues that this " . . . has been fantastically wasteful for industry and society . . . (as) . . . management's most valuable resource: the complex and multiple capacities of people . . . " were not properly utilized; as a result of the destruction of personal initiative, workers " . . . had to be enticed by rewards and threatened by punishments " (1959: 64-71).

Recently, (1) the rising costs of human services; (2) dwindling resources; (3) the public demand for greater accountability; and, (4) the success of scientific management in solving problems in other sectors such as the military and industry, have led to an increased application of this approach to human service organizations.\* There is a growing insistence that human service organizations more clearly articulate goals and establish mechanisms for measuring the effectiveness and efficiency of

\*See Hasenfeld, 1983.



programs and services.

However, scientific management approaches have failed to recognize that the management of human service organizations involves normative choices - choices based upon values and ethical issues. Also, these organizations operate in an arena of competing and conflicting interests where goals are frequently ambiguous and often changing. For these and other reasons, it can be argued that the applicability of scientific management approaches to the human services sector is limited. Nevertheless, these approaches have profoundly affected the management of existing organizations and will likely continue to do so as resources remain relatively scarce and as the public demands greater accountability.

## **(2) Weber and Bureaucracy**

The origins of the theory of "bureaucracy" can be attributed to Max Weber (1946; 1947; 1962) who is considered by many to be the founder of the sociological analysis of organizations. Weber's interest was in articulating the societal processes which influence forms of organization and their influence in turn, on society itself. He was concerned with what he considered to be the increasing rationalization of modern life which accompanied the emergence of the industrial market economy. His theory grew out of the

realization of a connection between the rise of capitalism and the emergence of bureaucratic organizations.

According to Weber, the bureaucratization of society and of the workplace was the manifestation of the increasing rationalization of modern life that accompanied the emergence of larger and more complex structures within a growing market economy. He presented an analysis of the interdependence between the attributes of bureaucratic organization and rational/efficient administration in the workplace. He advocated that:

The decisive reason for the advance of bureaucratic organization has always been its purely technical superiority over any other form of organization. The fully developed bureaucratic mechanism compares with other organizations exactly as does the machine with the nonmechanical modes of production.

(Weber, 1946: 214)

Thus, he argued that the growing use of this form of organization was an inherent byproduct of the emergence of the industrial market economy whose purpose is the pursuit of maximum efficiency. This is not to say that he was uncritical of some of the negative effects of bureaucratic organization on individuals within these

organizations.\*

Bureaucracy is the manifestation of what Weber referred to as "legal-rational" authority, ". . . resting on a belief in the "legality" of patterns of formative rules and the right of those elevated to authority under such rules to issue commands " (Weber, 1947: 328). The assumptions of the bureaucratic model were: (1) process specialization of tasks; (2) standardization of role performance; (3) unity of command and centralization of decision-making; (4) uniformity of practices; (5) no duplication of function; (6) rewards for merit; and, (7) depersonalization of office. These attributes produce a system that is universalistic and governed by rules and regulations, and one in which all people are entitled to equal treatment under the law, according to Weber.\*\* He adds that such a system also maximizes rational decision-making and administrative efficiency.

Substantive critique of Weber's theory of bureaucratic organization has centered on two themes, according to Hasenfeld (1983). First, variations in the tasks that are performed within

\* See Mommsen, 1974.

\*\* See Katz and Kahn, 1978: 260-261.

organizations are not accounted for. Revisionists have argued that Weber's ideal model is most efficient and rational for routine tasks, but needs to be modified when nonroutine/nonuniform tasks are encountered (Litwak, 1978; Perrow, 1972; Dornbusch and Scott, 1975). Second, hierarchical authority and rules and regulations may not be the most effective means of maintaining control and staff compliance within an organization. For example, professionals who perform non-routine tasks often conform to professional norms as a guide to their behavior as opposed to (or in addition to) rules and regulations.

Weber's theory has also been criticized for ignoring the "informal relations" and "unofficial patterns" which develop within formal organizations (Selznik, 1948). According to Blau:

Many empirical studies of work groups in formal organizations have called attention to the importance of the informal organization that emerges in these work groups and that constitutes a dynamic force in the organization.

(1974: 32)

It is argued that informal social patterns within organizations complement formal patterns and are essential for operations (Barnard, 1938). These informal patterns can reorganize operations and often do control the production (output) of an organization

(Barnard, 1938; Roethlisberger and Dickson, 1939).

The structures of most organizations in modern Western Industrial Society, including those of human service organizations, continue to approximate Weber's ideal model of bureaucracy, in spite of the above criticisms. It can be argued that this structure promotes greater rationalization in services, increased efficiency (certainly not inevitably), and improved service technology. Hasenfeld (1983) argues that the bureaucratization of Health Services, Education Services, and Welfare Services, however, has often made these services less responsive to consumers, as the concentration of power and technical expertise in the hands of bureaucrats insulates the organization from outside influence. This had been a concern of Weber who recognized that the bureaucratic structures of the social institutions created by capitalism, together with their tightly-knit rules and regulations had the potential to lead to the suffocation of value-oriented social conduct.\*

Weber was clearly one of the first to systematically analyze the formal structure of organizations. His theory of bureaucracy has remained a milestone in the field of organizational analysis due to

\* See Mommsen, 1974: 47-71.

its comprehensiveness in identifying attributes of organizations and their interrelationships, and in forming generalizations about these relationships which can be tested. Also, as Hasenfeld notes: ". . . the essential logic of Weber's conception of bureaucracy remains intact . . . (as) the empirical study of organizations, including human services, seems to confirm . . . (that) . . . . legal and rational authority promotes efficiency " (1983: 17). Certainly, the predominant form of organization in Western industrialized nations continues to reflect Weber's "bureaucratic model".

### **(3) Fayol's Process of Management**

In 1916, Fayol published General and Industrial Management\* in which he described what he considered to be the "process of management", or more specifically, the basic activities of management systems within all organizations. In addition, he formulated a "managerial code" consisting of fourteen principles which were intended to act as a guide to the management process in directing the "body corporate" towards the overall objectives.

\* This was originally published in French.

In a revision of Fayol's original work, Gray (1984) describes Fayol as having been the first: (1) to identify management as a process; (2) to reduce the process to a series of logical subparts; and, (3) to derive principles by which the management could apply the process to make best use of the organization's personnel. As such, Fayol was a pioneer within what Gray refers to as the "Governance School of Management", where the emphasis is on organizational structure and the principles governing an organization.

Fayol used the term "body corporate" \* to refer to the mechanism through which management achieves its aims. More specifically, he was referring to: ". . . the entire body of personnel engaged in the totality of an organization's activities " (Gray, 1984: 5). Management directs the "body corporate" through a process consisting of five basic activities which include: planning; organizing; coordinating; commanding; and, controlling. These responsibilities entail: defining what the organization is to accomplish; delineating the lines of authority and responsibility; establishing the sequence of the work; issuing the commands which operationalize the organization's activities; and, continuously monitoring and correcting organizational activities.

\* This is a translation of the French term: *corps social*.

According to Fayol, the objective of an organization is to:

" . . . produce a product or service and successfully deliver it to its markets or constituency." (Gray, 1984: 5). Accordingly, the management process must be guided by certain principles to direct the organization toward the achievement of this objective. Fayol derived fourteen principles which include: (1) division of work; (2) authority and responsibility; (3) discipline; (4) unity of command; (5) unity of direction; (6) subordination of individual interest to the general interest; (7) remuneration of personnel; (8) centralization; (9) scalar chain (line of authority); (10) order; (11) equity; (12) stability of tenure of personnel; (13) initiative; and, (14) esprit de corps (Gray, 1984: 61). These principles form a managerial code by which managers can make the best use of an organization's resources in working towards the objectives, according to Fayol.

Fayol's conceptual framework, and its antecedents which include the accounts of Gulick and Urwick (1937), have been referred to as "production-emphasizing accounts of bureaucratic functioning" which fall within what Worthy (1950) calls "Machine Theory". Describing this categorization, Katz and Kahn state:

The organization, although it consists of people, is viewed . . . as a machine, (implying) that just as we build a mechanical device with given specifications for accomplishing a task, so we construct an



organization according to a blueprint to achieve a given purpose.

(1978: 260)

The theories of Weber and Taylor also fall within this categorization. More recently, the production-emphasizing accounts of bureaucratic functioning have been labelled the "mechanical" conception of organizations which has been distinguished from other theories included in the "organic" conception of organizations (Burns and Stalker, 1961).

Criticisms of Fayol's theory, similar to those of other "mechanical" conceptions of organizations, center around its lack of recognition of: (1) the constant interplay between an organization and environment; (2) the informal patterns of relationships within organizations; (3) the dynamic character of organizations as they undergo constant adjustments attempting to preserve patterns of relationships; and, (4) the variations among organizations. These criticisms are particularly pertinent in referring to human service organizations which: are significantly influenced by external forces (funders, consumers, interest groups) and internal political processes; often have conflicting, ambiguous and changing goals; and, are often characterized by indeterminate service technologies. Also, as Hasenfeld and English state:

Human services, as a class of organizations, share a unique set of characteristics because they all work with and on people.

(1974: 8-23)

As such, the activities of these organizations involve normative choices which directly affect the day-to-day lives of people.

The strength of Fayol's normative theory of management lies in its identification of the activities of the management process, together with its prescription for the practical application of management principles within a bureaucratic setting. Terms such as "unity of command", "scalar chain" and "span of control" remain in popular usage, and Fayol's principles continue to have an impact on the administrative practices of many organizations including human service organizations. As Hasenfeld reminds us:

In many respects human service organizations share the characteristics of other bureaucracies. They are contrived, goal-directed, social units that import resources from their environment to produce a specified set of products and to maintain themselves. As goal-directed social units, they are founded to produce products needed by other social units who, in

turn, will provide these organizations with future resources.

(1983: 7)

Also, as already stated, the organizational structures of most human service organizations approximate Weber's bureaucratic model with hierarchical patterns of legal-rational authority, delegation of responsibility for operating decisions, role specialization, rules and regulations which are universally applied, and standardized and formalized activities. As such, some of Fayol's management principles are as pertinent to human service organizations as they are to other bureaucracies.

This is a brief summary of Henri Fayol's "management theory" published in 1916. His description of a management process and formulation of a "managerial code" were the result of one of the first attempts to systematically analyze the formal structure of organizations. As such, it provided a basis upon which later management theories were built, and from which organizational typologies emerged.

#### **(4) Summary**

This section has focussed on the contributions of three notable theorists who provided some of the earliest analysis of the formal structure of organizations. As is evident, all three presented a somewhat "mechanical" or machine-like perspective of organizational activities and participants, and tended to emphasize the production functions of organizations.

It could be argued that, in spite of these similarities, the normative theories of both Taylor and Fayol are, in fact, based upon the assumptions of Weber's analysis of societal and occupational relationships within a bureaucratic framework. Taylor analyzed the organization from the "bottom up" prescribing a set of procedures to maximize efficiency and productivity. Alternately, Fayol's analysis approached the organization from the "top down" advocating a process of management based upon certain principles. Both formulated theories that could be applied in existing organizations, the structures of which for the most part approximated Weber's ideal model of "bureaucracy". The theories of both Taylor and Fayol fall into what Pugh (1966) refers to as: Management Theory. This type of theory is prescriptive in nature and typically based upon personal experiences in the field.

In contrast, Weber was attempting to define and explain the formal patterns of relationships within society and the workplace. The "bureaucratic model" of organization was the culmination of his analysis. His theory is largely derived from a comparison between the organization of people and their work activities within the capitalist economy and that which had existed in prior societies. Accordingly, Weber is identified most closely with Pugh's category of Structural Theorists. This group focuses on the differences between organizations in such areas as task allocation, exercise of authority, and coordination of function, all of which comprise an organization's structure.

This concludes the discussion of the analysis of formal structure within early organizational theory. Again, the purpose of briefly summarizing the ideas of Taylor, Weber and Fayol regarding the formal structure of organizations is to familiarize the reader with some of the historical bases of organizational analysis and, more specifically, the formulation of organizational typologies. Organizational typologies are the result of attempts to distinguish organizations from one another on the basis of certain criteria, and to derive a comprehensive classification scheme of organizational "types" or models. While there are a plethora of later theories of organizational structure and/or management which have not been addressed here, this is not to imply that they are any less relevant to the field of organizational analysis or to the formulation of

typological schemes. They have not been addressed in any detail here as such analysis is, unfortunately, outside the scope of this paper.

### **(C) ORGANIZATIONAL TYPOLOGIES**

Blau and Scott (1962) distinguish organizational typologies from general classification schemes on the basis of their use of more than one organizational dimension. This is in contrast to what Warriner (1980) refers to as the "traditional, folk or common sense" typologies which do not classify organizations in any systematic way but which instead distinguish organizations by such general categories as profit/non-profit, or by sector (examples are Education or Health). Hall reviews some of the classifications of organizations that have been developed to date and makes the point that:

The essence of the typological effort really lies in the determination of the critical variables for differentiating the phenomena under investigation.

(1982: 40)

He goes on to state that a useful classification scheme would need to account for the external conditions, the internal dynamics and

differences, and the outcome of organizational behaviors.

One of the purposes of this practicum exercise is to distinguish between organizational models. There have been a number of attempts in the past to distinguish organizations from one another on the basis of certain criteria, and to derive a comprehensive classification scheme of organizational "types" or models. It is maintained here that, in accordance with Hall, the usefulness of these models largely depends on their identification of important organizational characteristics regarding external conditions, internal dynamics and the outcome of organizational behaviors. As will be seen, many typological schemes do not meet this condition.

To begin, however, some of the typologies which have been developed to date will be summarized. Also, critical analysis of these typologies according to the literature will be reviewed. The applicability of these typologies to the structural analysis of the Association will then be discerned. Any criteria used to distinguish organizational types in these typologies that are relevant to the Association will be used to derive models of organizational structure which can be considered by the Association as it attempts to meet its goals.

**(1) A Review and Analysis  
Of Organizational Typologies**

**(i) Parsons (1962)**

Parsons is associated with the Structural Functionalists who view society, " . . . as integrated by a common set of values . . . " ; and who are interested " . . . in how the parts of the system contribute to these values and are affected by them " (Katz and Kahn, 1978: 6). According to Katz and Kahn (1978), the structural-functionalists are one of the forerunners of Open System Theory of organizational and societal structure. Briefly stated, Open System Theory emphasizes: " . . . the close relationship between a structure and its supporting environment . . . . (and) the processing of production inputs to yield some outcome that is then used by an outside group or system. " (Katz and Kahn, 1978: 3).

Parsons' interest was with the linkages between organizations and the wider society. In contrast to the classification schemes referred to above in which organizations are distinguished by general categories, Parsons uses more analytic criteria of distinction in his attempt to systematically classify organizations. He distinguishes between four broad types of organizations in his classification scheme based upon what they contribute to society or



the type of function or goal served by the organization.

The first type is Organizations Oriented to Economic Production, or production organizations. This category includes those organizations primarily concerned with production for societal consumption. According to Parsons, the business firm typifies this category.

The second type is Organizations Oriented to Political Goals or " . . . to the attainment of valued goals and to the generation and allocation of power in the society " (Parsons, 1960, 45). Here, he includes organs of government, and regulatory agencies.

The third type is Integrative Organizations. This category includes organizations which act as mechanisms of social control "in a narrow sense" (like hospitals), and those which complement and support existing institutions by settling conflicts and by ensuring that the parts of society work together.

The fourth type is Pattern-Maintenance Organizations. This category includes those organizations which provide "societal continuity" (Hall, 1982). These organizations have primarily "cultural" , "educational" and "expressive" functions within society.

**(ii) Katz and Kahn (1966, 1978)**

Katz and Kahn distinguish organizations on the basis of what they term their major "genotypic functions". By this, they mean: ". . . the work that gets done . . . the nature of the throughput as it leads to an output which in turn recycles energy for the continuing work of the organization " (1978: 144). They follow the approach of Open System Theory, similar to Parsons, which analyzes social relationships in term of various systems which interact among themselves and with their environment. Thus, they are interested in the contribution of the organization to society as well as defining organizations according to different types of throughput (what is processed).

They arrive at four broad classes of organizations in which organizations are distinguished by their genotypic functions or what the authors consider to be "first order" factors:

- (1) Productive or Economic organizations are concerned with providing goods and services and include the primary activities of farming and mining, the secondary activities of manufacturing and processing, and the tertiary activities of service and communication.

- (2) Maintenance organizations are concerned with the socialization and training of people for roles in other organizations and in the society at large. Examples are schools and churches. They further subdivide this category into those organizations responsible for the "direct" function of maintenance in the forms of education and training, and organizations which have a restorative function such as health and welfare services, and institutions of reform and rehabilitation.
  
- (3) Adaptive organizations are intended to create new knowledge, and innovative solutions to problems through research. Examples include universities and research laboratories.
  
- (4) Finally, there are the Managerial-Political organizations which are responsible for the coordination and control of people and resources, and for adjudication between competing groups. Examples include the state which is the main authority structure in society, government-sponsored agencies, labour unions and pressure groups.

Katz and Kahn emphasize that while these organizations are identified according to their predominant function in society, they also typically possess some or all of the other functions.

They add that organizations can also be described according to what they refer to as "second-order" characteristics. They choose to elaborate on just two of these types of characteristics but acknowledge that there are many others. Under the "nature of organizational throughput", they distinguish between objects and people as organizational end products. They briefly discuss a further distinction between people-processing, and people-changing institutions (Hasenfeld and English, 1974). Under the "nature of maintenance processes", they distinguish between expressive (intrinsic) rewards and instrumental (extraneous) rewards as means of attracting and keeping organizational members.

### **(iii) Etzioni (1961)**

Etzioni developed a classification scheme based upon the single principle of "compliance" within an organization. Compliance refers to: ". . . a relation in which an actor behaves in accordance with a directive supported by another actor's power, and to the orientation of the subordinated actor to the power applied " (Etzioni, 1975: 3). Essentially, those who occupy subordinate positions within an organization are made to follow the directives of those with greater power through the use of physical, material, and/or symbolic rewards and deprivations.

Those in subordinate positions respond to the "manipulation" with varying degrees of "commitment" or "alienation"; concepts which Etzioni uses to refer to either a positive or negative orientation of the subordinates to the organization. He goes on to classify organizations according to their "compliance relationships". These are derived from combining the predominant type of power utilized within the organization with the modal type of involvement of the organization's lower participants.

Etzioni distinguishes between three types of power exercised in organizations: coercive; remunerative; and, normative. He defines power as: ". . . an actor's ability to induce or influence another actor to carry out his directives or any other norms he supports" (Etzioni, 1975: 5). The types of power are the physical, material or symbolic means by which the subordinates are made to comply with the directives.

Coercive power refers to the application or threat of application of physical sanctions, the generation of frustration through restriction of movement or the forced deprivation of material and/or emotional needs (food, sex, comfort).

Remunerative power is the control over material resources or rewards such as salaries/wages, fringe benefits or commissions.

Normative power includes the manipulation of esteem, prestige, and ritualistic symbols (pure normative power), and the allocation and manipulation of acceptance and positive response (social power).

Etzioni argues that organizations can be distinguished according to which type of power is predominant, how strongly it is stressed in comparison to organizations with similar power dynamics, and which type of power is used as a secondary source of control.

The three types of "involvement" (reaction to the predominant power system) of subordinates (lower participants) in the organization are of equal importance within this typology of organizations. Etzioni defines involvement as: ". . . the cathectic-evaluative orientation of an actor to an object, characterized in terms of intensity and direction " (1975: 9). Intensity ranges from high to low while direction implies either positive or negative. Positive involvement is labelled "commitment" and its negative counterpart is referred to as "alienation".

He goes on to distinguish between three "zones of the involvement continuum" : alienative; moral; and, calculative. Alienative involvement is an intense negative orientation. Moral involvement is a high intensity positive orientation which is based upon either the internalization of norms and identification with authority (pure moral involvement), or sensitivity to pressures of primary groups or

their members (social commitment). Calculative involvement includes both positive and negative orientations of low intensity. Organizations are classified according to what Etzioni refers to as the "modal involvement pattern of their lower participants" or the pattern which predominates within the organization.

The result of combining the three kinds of power (applied to the lower participants) with the three kinds of involvement (of the lower participants in the organization) is nine types of compliance. Of these, three are considered "congruent" by Etzioni:

When the kind of involvement that lower participants have because of other factors and the kind of involvement that tends to be generated by the predominant form of organizational power are the same, we refer to the relationship as *congruent*.  
(Etzioni, 1975: 12)

The other factors to which he is referring include such things as the lower participants' personality structures, basic value commitments and memberships in other collectivities.

He hypothesizes that the congruent types occur more frequently because these combinations of power and involvement are more effective within the organization than the combinations which

comprise the incongruent types. The three categories which represent congruent compliance are coercive compliance (coercive-alienative type), utilitarian compliance (remunerative-calculative type), and normative compliance (normative-moral type).

**(iv) Blau and Scott (1962)**

Blau and Scott distinguish between what they consider to be four basic categories of persons in relation to formal organizations. They go on to develop a typology based upon which category of persons is the prime beneficiary of the organization's operations, and what the main concerns of the various types of organizations are.

The four types of prime organizational beneficiaries identified are: (1) members or rank-and-file participants; (2) owners or managers of the organization; (3) those who are "outside" the organization but who have regular, direct contact under such labels as consumers, clients or patients; and, (4) members of society at large. They stress that even though each of these categories can be considered the prime beneficiary of an organization, this does not imply that this group is the only beneficiary. All organizations have regular contact with persons "external" to the organization, and the characteristics of these persons also have important implications for the organization's structure and functioning. The benefits



received by the prime beneficiaries are the reason for the organization's existence, while the benefits of other parties associated with the same organization: ". . . are essentially a cost (to the organization) " (Blau and Scott, 1962: 43).

The organizational members are the prime beneficiary in Mutual-Benefit Associations. This category includes political parties, unions, professional associations and religious sects, to name a few. A main characteristic of this type of organization is its difficulty in maintaining membership control or internal democracy. Membership apathy often leads to the emergence of oligarchical control. Blau and Scott note that typically the interest and participation of most members in this type of organization decline through time leading to the concentration of control over decision-making in the hands of a small minority of members.

The second category of organizations is what they refer to as Business Concerns. Here, the owners are the prime beneficiaries. Examples of such organizations are retail stores, banks and insurance companies or similar organizations which are privately owned and operated for profit. The main concern within these organizations is: ". . . operating efficiency - the achievement of maximum gain at minimum cost in order to further survival and growth in competition with other organizations " (Blau and Scott, 1962: 49).

The third category is Service Organizations in which clients or consumers are the prime beneficiaries. Examples are social service organizations, medical facilities, and schools. These organizations are formed to serve the interests of their clients, but are characterized by an inherent conflict between professional service to clients and administrative procedures. Blau and Scott argue that clients typically do not know what is in their best interests and must therefore rely on the judgment of professionals. As a result, clients are vulnerable to exploitation. The professions are institutionalized to attempt to protect clients from unscrupulous behavior on the part of the practitioner. Professionals must be careful not to prioritize either personal interests or administrative procedures over the welfare of their clients, nor must they relinquish their control over the type of service offered to the client.

The final category is Commonwealth Organizations. Here, the prime beneficiary is the public-at-large which includes both those who have direct contact, as well as the general segment of the population which benefits from the services. Examples are police and fire departments, military services, and research functions at universities. Blau and Scott state:

The challenge facing these organizations . . . is the maintenance of efficient bureaucratic mechanisms

that effectively implement the objectives of the community, which are ideally decided upon, at least in our society, by democratic methods.

(1962: 55)

They add that an organization's ability to effect the democratic will of the community may be lessened by the internal democratic control by the membership which could also hinder efficiency.

### **Critical Analysis of these Typologies**

A criticism levied against Parsons' typology is that it does not reveal much about the organizations studied (Hall, 1982). More specifically, it does not acknowledge subsidiary functions of organizations nor does it differentiate among the characteristics of organizations themselves. Certainly, some organizations can be placed in more than one of Parsons' categories. Also, Perrow (1967) notes that there can be as much, or more, variation within the categories as between them.

The typology by Katz and Kahn is more thorough than that of Parsons as there are more bases for classification. However, many of these bases are not adequately explained which causes the

typology as a whole to appear incomplete. In addition, Hall (1982) argues that there is insufficient discrimination between organizations in this classification scheme.

The typologies of both Etzioni, and Blau and Scott, classify organizations on the basis of a single principle. Criticisms have been levied against both typologies that the placement of organizations in the categories can be difficult (Hall, Haas, and Johnson, 1967). Additional criticisms of Etzioni's typology are that: (1) it does not relate well to the structural characteristics of complexity and formalization (Weldon, 1972; Hall, Haas and Johnson, 1972); (2) it ignores the role of organizational environments (Clegg and Dunkerly, 1980); and, (3) reasons for congruence and incongruence are not well explained (Burns, 1967).

Burns (1967) questions whether it is always apparent in the typology of Blau and Scott which group is actually served by an organization. He asserts that the prime organizational beneficiaries identified by Blau and Scott may in fact not be the ones who actually benefit the most from the organization. Alternately, Clegg and Dunkerly (1980) state that this classification scheme does not identify who controls the organization, nor who does not benefit from the organization.

It was stated at the beginning of this section that Hall's definition of an adequate classification scheme would be used as a guide in assessing the utility of existing typologies to this practicum exercise.\* It is evident that none of the typologies discussed so far meet Hall's definition. This is not to say that important criteria for distinguishing organizations have not been identified. The "types" of organizations distinguished in these schemes are of limited utility to this practicum exercise due to the fact that the set of criteria used to distinguish organizations is not comprehensive in any of these schemes.

**(v) Haas, Hall and Johnson (1966)**

**Pugh, Hickson and Hinings (1969)**

A taxonomy is defined as: " A study aimed at producing a hierarchical system of (biological) classification of organisms which best reflects the totality of their similarities and differences " , according to the McGraw-Hill Encyclopedia of Science & Technology (1982: 499). This concept has been applied to the study of organizations in a similar manner in an attempt to derive a

\* See page 62 of this document.

hierarchical system of classification of organizations which encompasses the totality of their similarities and differences.

Haas, Hall and Johnson (1966) make the point that the benefits of an organizational taxonomy are that it could assist in the development of knowledge about organizations and could be useful in the prediction of organizational behavior. They go on to identify three potential uses of a taxonomy. The first is to assist in the refinement of hypotheses. They state that:

A useful taxonomy of organizations would group organizations with similar characteristics together in the same class and thereby point to one set of conditions under which a given hypothesis might be valid.

(1966: 158)

Second, it would assist in the evaluation of the validity and utility of existing typologies by comparing their formulations to an empirically-based and field tested classification scheme. Third, it could serve as a basis for predicting organizational decisions or change.

Haas, Hall and Johnson (1966) attempted to create a classification scheme from empirically-based organizational

characteristics using data from seventy-five organizations. They derived a list of ninety-nine organizational variables or characteristics which were then classified under thirty-seven major headings. These headings included such things as Organizational Goals and Objectives, Centralization of Authority, Formalization of Authority Structure, Communication Structure, Orientation Program and Patterns of Growth and Decline. They arrived at ten major classes of organizations (classes I - X), some of which contained subclasses (within which the organizations exhibited a greater degree of homogeneity).

They analyzed their attempt to create a taxonomy according to the procedures used in the development of taxonomies in the biological sciences. Realizing that, unlike the latter taxonomies, there is no single organizational characteristic or dimension which acts as a starting point in classifying organizations, they remarked that:

The implication seems to be that the task of building a systematic taxonomy where the various clusters are *interrelated in a logically meaningful fashion* may be a very difficult one. The findings from the initial attempt indicate that such an outcome may be possible, however.

(Haas, Hall and Johnson, 1966: 178)

They conclude that there is merit in utilizing an inductively-oriented approach to isolate classes and subclasses of organizations. According to Hall, though, their attempt had been less than successful as the bases for differentiating the classes of organizations were " . . . seemingly trivial as organizational properties " (1982: 45).

Pugh, Hickson and Hinings (1969) developed an organizational taxonomy which distinguishes organizations according to: (1) the structuring of activities or the degree of standardization, formalization, specialization and stipulation of organizational behavior; (2) the concentration or centralization of authority; and, (3) the degree to which control is exercised by line personnel as opposed to through impersonal procedures (Hall, 1982: 46). They analyzed fifty-two English organizations according to these three bases of classification and arrived at seven types of organizations. These types of organizations differ according to the degree to which they reflect the above structural characteristics.

Hall (1982) has also criticized this approach on the basis that, similar to other "typologies", it does not explain how or why the shifts between the types of organizations take place. He adds a further criticism that Pugh, Hickson and Hinings do not indicate what the "typology" is supposed to predict.



This a brief summary of two of the more notable attempts at developing organizational taxonomies to date. Hall (1982) maintains that organizational taxonomies are a much needed tool for theoretical advances in organizational analysis and the best way to classify organizations due to the fact that they are empirically-based. He adds, though, that a truly adequate taxonomy does not exist at present.

Hall (1982) acknowledges that developing such a taxonomy is a monumental task. Such a task would need to include the identification of: (1) the number and kinds of classifying dimensions to be used for describing organizations; (2) the unit to be classified, and the range and number of cases required; and, (3) the analytic procedures to be used (Warriner, 1979).

The taxonomies reviewed here are very detailed in their attempts to classify organizations. In spite of this, they are prone to criticisms similar to those of many of the typologies. These taxonomies will not be used directly for the purposes of this practicum exercise for this reason, but also because a thorough review of all of the variables identified in the taxonomies is outside the scope of this paper. Fortunately, many of these variables have also been included in another classification scheme to be discussed shortly.

**(vi) Hasenfeld (1983)**

Hasenfeld makes the point that human service organizations are distinct from other types of organizations in that their "raw material" consists of people. He derived a typology of human service organizations which is based on this characteristic, as well as on the transformations these organizations seek in their clients.

The mandates of human service organizations can range from maintaining and enhancing the well-being of those judged to be functioning adequately in society, to controlling, ameliorating and/or remedying those judged to be ill or deviant in society, according to Hasenfeld. Accordingly, he states:

The types of clients an organization is mandated to serve influences not only its domain and functions, but also society's expectations and evaluations.

(Hasenfeld, 1983: 4)

One dimension he uses to construct his typology of human service organizations is whether a client is defined as normal functioning or malfunctioning in society.

The other dimension is what he refers to as the nature of the organization's "transformation technologies". These are what the organization does with and to its clients which affects what the organization's product will be. He distinguishes between three types of transformation technologies:

- (1) People-processing technologies consist of a system of classification and disposition which confers a social label and public status upon clients that serve to evoke desirable reactions from other social units. Other human service organizations refer to these labels to stimulate a response to these clients in a predetermined manner. An example of such a label is "cancer patient";
- (2) People-sustaining technologies are designed to:  
" . . . prevent, maintain, and retard the deterioration of the personal welfare or well-being of clients . . . " , but do not attempt to directly change their personal attributes (Hasenfeld, 1983: 5). An example is nursing-home care; and,
- (3) The purpose of people-changing technologies is to alter the personal attributes of clients to improve their well-being. An example is Education.

Hasenfeld arrives at six classifications, each of which reflects one of the two categorizations of clients, and one of the three transformation technologies. He acknowledges that each type of organization encounters certain dilemmas as it attempts to meet its mandates. For example, distinguishing between "normal" and "malfunctioning" clients is one dilemma which plagues more than one type of organization.

### **Analysis of Hasenfeld's Typology**

Hasenfeld's classification scheme is not particularly useful for the purposes of this practicum exercise. The most notable reason for this is the fact that he uses only two "dimensions" to distinguish human service organizations: type of client served; and, transformation technology. In addition, the bases for his distinctions are vague, his categorizations are certainly not mutually exclusive, nor are his categorizations exhaustive. An organization like the Association does not appear to fit into any of the categories. It is evident that this classification scheme will be of little utility here.

**(vii) Mintzberg (1979)**

Mintzberg makes the point that most of the literature on organizations fails to relate the structuring of organizations with their functioning (1979: 12). In consideration of this, his typology of organizational structure is an attempt to synthesize these two areas. His classification scheme is based upon how organizations structure certain mechanisms to meet various contingencies they face. In reviewing the existing typologies of organizations and of organizational structure in particular, Mintzberg's work (1979) is arguably the most thorough of the lot. For this reason, the following summary and analysis will be more extensive than what has been done so far.

Mintzberg asserts that the structures of organizations are, in essence, attempts to divide the labour into distinct tasks and to coordinate these tasks. He goes on to explain that there are five (internal) parts to his "ideal model" of an organization; the distinctions between these parts typically reflect the division of labour. The five parts are: the operating core; the strategic apex; the middle line; the technostructure; and, the support staff.

He goes on to distinguish five mechanisms used by organizations to coordinate their work. These are considered to be the cohesive force within organizations, or " **the most basic elements of**

**structure** " (his emphasis) (Mintzberg, 1979: 3). The five coordinating mechanisms are: direct supervision; standardization of work processes; standardization of work procedures (skills); standardization of outputs; and, mutual adjustment.

Mintzberg reviews the existing research on formal structure and discusses five theories of how organizations function. By "function", he means how information flows in organizations in the areas of authority, of work material, of information and of decision processes. Each of the theories discussed describes an organization as either a system of formal authority, a system of regulated flows, a system of informal communication, a system of work constellations, or a system of ad hoc decision processes. He concludes that these theories are in fact complementary, each describing part of what goes on inside the organization. Taken together, they demonstrate the complexity of the total system. The parts, coordinating mechanisms and information flows are the foundation upon which his analysis is built.

Mintzberg discusses factors that affect each of the five component parts of the organization in his analysis. His analysis of what he refers to as "design parameters" is of particular interest. Design parameters are elements used in designing organizational structures. Organizations use these parameters: " . . . **to divide and coordinate their work in order to establish stable patterns**

of behavior " (his emphases) (Mintzberg, 1979: 66). Specifically, he analyzes them in the context of various contingency factors to arrive at hypotheses of the relationship between structure and situation.

Mintzberg includes both formal and semi-formal means in his discussion of nine structural design parameters. He divides the parameters into four groups which are: (1) design of positions; (2) design of superstructure; (3) design of lateral linkages; and, (4) design of decision-making system. Below is a brief summary of these design parameters. What will follow are the descriptions of the organizational types themselves.

### Design of Positions

Design of positions includes job specialization, behavior formalization, and training and indoctrination. Job specialization includes both horizontal specialization and vertical specialization. Horizontal specialization is an inherent part of every organization and the predominant form of division of labour in organizations. Mintzberg makes the point that organizations horizontally specialize: (1) to increase productivity as the repetition of work leads to more efficient and more uniform production; (2) to

facilitate learning by focussing the attention of the worker; and, (3) to allow the individual to be matched to the task.\* Complex work specialized horizontally but not vertically is referred to by Mintzberg as "professional".

Vertical specialization separates the performance of the work from the administration. It provides a coordinative function to the array of tasks being completed by the operators, and ensures that the work is overseen by someone who is able to offer a wider and different perspective. In essence, vertical specialization typically complements horizontal specialization, though this is not always the case.\*\*

Formalization of behavior is: ". . . the design parameter by which the work processes of the organization are standardized " (Mintzberg, 1979: 80). Organizations formalize behavior to reduce its variability, and to predict and control it (coordination). They do so by job (job description), workflow and/or organizational rules. The bureaucratic form of structure is at one extreme; the organic form of structure is at the other extreme. The former relies

\* See Charns et al. , 1977.

\*\* See Mintzberg, 1979: 73.



primarily on behavior formalization for coordination.\* The latter is characterized by loose, informal working relationships built on "mutual adjustment" .\*\*

Training and indoctrination are measures used by organizations to ensure that the worker internalizes and maintains the necessary behaviors to accomplish his/her prescribed tasks. Mintzberg states: **" Training refers to the process by which job-related skills and knowledge are taught, while indoctrination is the process by which organizational norms are acquired "** (his emphases)(1979: 95). Complex jobs heavily rely on training to effect the standardization of knowledge and skill needed. Training can occur through apprenticeship and/or formal education, and is designed to do the same thing as formalization. Indoctrination can also occur outside the organization through professional training programs, but much of the socialization takes place informally in the organization within informal groups and through programs. The process entails transmitting to the worker the " . . . value system, the norms and the required behavior patterns . . . " of the organization (Schein, 1968: 3).

\* See earlier discussion on Weber - Bureaucratic Model.

\*\* See Burns and Stalker, 1966.

### Design of Superstructure

The questions of how the organizational positions should be grouped into units (Unit Grouping), and how large each unit or work group should be (Unit Size) are addressed in this category. Mintzberg describes grouping as: " . . . **a fundamental means to coordinate work in the organization** " , as it stimulates direct supervision (through the assignment of a manager to each unit), and mutual adjustment (as facilities are shared by unit members) (his emphases)(1979: 106-107). Also, grouping provides common measures of performance to the extent that members of a unit share common resources and contribute to the production of the same output. Thus, it can form the basis for standardization. Alternately, unit size focuses on what should be the manager's span of control (how many individuals report to him/her), and the shape of the superstructure.

Positions can be grouped into units on the bases of "market" and "function" according to Mintzberg (1979). Market grouping is comprised of the bases of output, client and place. Functional grouping is comprised of the bases of knowledge, skill, work processes and function. Positions can also be grouped according to when the work is being done. As is evident, this basis can fall within either market grouping or functional grouping.

Mintzberg reviews four criteria used by organizations to select the bases for grouping positions and units: (1) work-flow interdependencies (relationships among operating tasks); (2) process interdependencies (related to specialization); (3) scale interdependencies (economies of scale); and, (4) social interdependencies (personality and social need). Grouping positions by function reflects an emphasis on process and scale interdependencies. Mintzberg notes that bureaucratic structures (with unskilled operators) tend to rely more extensively on the functional bases for grouping (1979: 126). Alternately, organizations which choose the market basis for grouping are more concerned with work-flow interdependencies than either process or scale interdependencies. These organizations are less bureaucratic as they rely less on formalization for coordination due to the mutual adjustment and direct supervision contained within the unit.

Mintzberg considers variations in unit size with respect to the coordinating mechanisms of direct supervision, standardization and mutual adjustment. He goes on to identify factors associated with the establishment of larger units in organizations as well as those associated with smaller ones. The former group includes: (1) standardization (work processes, skills and outputs); (2) similarity of tasks within the unit; (3) employees' need for autonomy and self-actualization; and, (4) the need to reduce distortion in the flow of information up the hierarchy. Alternately,

(1) the need for close direct supervision; (2) the need for mutual adjustment among complex interdependent tasks; (3) the extent of nonsupervisory duties assumed by the unit manager; and, (4) the amount of consultation needed by the unit members promote the establishment of smaller units.

### Design of Lateral Linkages

Mintzberg includes planning and control systems, and liaison devices in this category. Accordingly, he states that the purpose of a plan is to specify a desired output - a standard to be achieved at some future time. Whether or not the standard has been achieved is the purpose of control. Liaison devices are incorporated into the formal structure of organizations to encourage contacts between individuals for the purpose of enhancing coordination.

Planning may specify the quantity, the quality, the cost and the timing of outputs, as well as their specific characteristics, according to Mintzberg. Planning includes the design of budgets and schedules, and the specification of objectives (operationalization of goals) and means of achieving them. This exercise typically occurs in the technostructure of the organization. Two kinds of planning and control systems are: (1) performance control systems which focus

on the regulation of overall performance in the organization, and serve to measure and motivate performance (they are concerned primarily with after-the-fact monitoring of results); and, (2) action planning which is oriented to delineating organizational activities in advance. Mintzberg notes that those with more global responsibilities in an organization - typically those at higher levels in the hierarchy, or units grouped on a market basis - are more likely to be evaluated by performance control systems rather than through the use of action planning. Coordination requires the regulation of performance, rather than actions, as each unit has a fair degree of autonomy to produce its own distinct outputs.

Liaison devices are incorporated into the formal structure of organizations to improve coordination by facilitating greater personal contact between individuals. They can consist of special positions with or without formal authority, and/or task forces and standing committees. They are generally used where work is horizontally specialized, complex and highly interdependent. While they can be superimposed on bureaucratic structures (in which tasks are more programmed), they assume greater importance in organic structures where they act to encourage informal relationships which serve to enhance coordination. They are key design parameters in professional organizations in which individuals work in groups.

### Design of Decision-Making System

The fourth group of design parameters has to do with the decision-making system in organizations. Mintzberg distinguishes between the centralization and the decentralization of decision-making power in organizations: " **When all the power for decision-making rests at a single point in the organization - ultimately in the hands of a single individual - we shall call this structure centralized; to the extent that the power is dispersed among many individuals, we shall call the structure decentralized** " (his emphases)(1979: 181).

Essentially, centralization and decentralization are two ends of a continuum of decision-making power.

Mintzberg discusses the decentralization of decision-making power in both the vertical and horizontal dimensions. Vertical decentralization is: " . . . (t)he dispersal of formal power down the chain of line authority . . . ", while horizontal decentralization refers to: " . . . the extent to which nonmanagers control decision processes " (his emphases) (Mintzberg, 1979: 185-186). Decision-making includes the power to make choices as well as to authorize them. He arrives at five types of vertical and horizontal decentralization which can be placed on a continuum from centralization in both dimensions to

decentralization in both dimensions.

Mintzberg derives a typology of five organizational configurations - ideal or "pure" types - each of which is a "natural cluster" of certain design parameters and contingency factors. Each of the five configurations corresponds to one of the coordinating mechanisms and within each configuration, one of the five parts of the organization emerges as preeminent. Below is a brief summary of each of the configurations:

### **The Simple Structure**

This configuration is characterized by little or no technostructure (control analysts who serve to effect standardization in the organization), few support staff, a loose division of labour, minimal differentiation among its units, and a small managerial hierarchy. Little use is made of planning, training and liaison devices, and there is little formalization of behavior ("formalization" refers to the establishment and enforcement of minimum standards of acceptable organizational behavior). Coordination is predominantly effected through direct supervision, and power is centralized with the CEO, meaning that the key part of the structure is the strategic apex (those at the top of the hierarchy

and their personal staff).

### **The Machine Bureaucracy**

This configuration is characterized by job specialization, routine operating tasks, and very formalized procedures in the operating core (those who perform the basic work related directly to the production of products and services). There is a proliferation of rules, regulations and formalized communication throughout the organization. Tasks are grouped by function, and units at the operating level are large in size. Decision-making power is relatively centralized within an elaborate administrative structure in which there is a sharp distinction between "line" (managers in the flow of formal authority from the strategic apex to the operating core) and "staff" (technostructure and support staff). The key part of the structure is the technostructure (analysts who effect standardization) because this configuration depends primarily on the standardization of its operating work processes for coordination.



## **The Professional Bureaucracy**

The structure of this configuration is also essentially bureaucratic with an operating core of duly trained and indoctrinated specialists/professionals. The operating core is the key part of the organization as the basis of authority is professional expertise. In contrast to the Machine Bureaucracy, coordination is achieved by standards determined by self-governing professional associations to which the operators belong. Complex organizational procedures are well-defined and standardized, and are learned through extensive formal training. Those in the operating core exercise considerable control over their work. Each works relatively independently from his/her colleagues but closely with those served by the organization. In addition, professionals seek collective control of the administrative decisions that affect them. Parallel administrative hierarchies tend to emerge in these structures as there are other staff within these organizations, most notably support staff. Decision-making is democratic and bottom up for the professionals, while support staff operate within a "machine" bureaucratic structure.

## **The Divisionalized Form**

This configuration relies on the market basis for grouping units at the top of the middle line. Operating functions are dispersed to separate divisions of the organization, each of which operates as a quasi-autonomous entity relatively independent from the others. The span of control at the strategic apex of the organization can be rather wide as authority is delegated from headquarters to a few managers who run the divisions. Thus, the key part of the organization is the middle line. Each of the divisions operates within a "machine" bureaucratic structure. The prime coordinating mechanism in this configuration is the standardization of outputs, and the performance control system is a key parameter.

## **The Adhocracy**

This configuration is used by the innovative organization to "fuse" experts of different disciplines into smoothly functioning ad hoc project teams, according to Mintzberg. The structure is highly organic with little formalization of behavior. There is high horizontal job specialization, and specialization is based on formal training. Specialists are deployed in small project teams (though

grouped in functional units for housekeeping purposes). These teams are comprised of various mixtures of line managers, staff and operating experts. The key coordinating mechanism is mutual adjustment (informal communication) within and between teams through liaison devices.

Mintzberg divides this configuration into two types: the Operating Adhocracy; and, the Administrative Adhocracy. Administrative and operating work blend into a single effort to solve problems directly on behalf of its clients in the Operating Adhocracy. Both the support staff and the operating core are key parts within this configuration. In contrast, a sharp distinction is made between the administrative component and the operating core in the Administrative Adhocracy. The operating core is cut off from the rest of the organization so that the administrative component can be structured as an adhocracy. Here, the support staff comprise the key part of the organization.

A simple structure would theoretically only be comprised of operators whose work would be coordinated through mutual adjustment, according to Mintzberg. A more complex division of labour among the operators develops as the organization grows. This necessitates the introduction of an administrative component, as the need for direct supervision heightens. The support staff, who support the operating core and who comprise a major segment of any

large organization, are not to be forgotten. Further growth leads to the establishment of an administrative hierarchy and an alternate coordinating mechanism - standardization. Standardization serves to replace much of the direct supervision and is effected by the organization's analysts.

### **Analysis of Mintzberg's Typology**

Professional criticism of this typology could not be found in the literature. A possible reason for this is the fact that this typology was only recently developed. Certainly, Mintzberg has produced a more comprehensive classification scheme than his predecessors, as stated prior to the summary of this typology. Also, Hall notes that:

What is of relevance here is the fact that the groupings shatter common sense notions of how and why organizations differ. Instead, Mintzberg is suggesting that we look at organizational characteristics themselves as the basis for our classification schemes. This is exactly what those who advocate empirical taxonomies propose.

(Hall, 1982: 45)

As stated earlier, the purpose of reviewing typologies is to derive organizational models which classify organizations on the basis of various organizational "characteristics". Mintzberg's typology does this, and compared to the other typologies, comes closest to Hall's definition of an "adequate classification scheme".

The characteristics of organizational "types" are described by Mintzberg in very general terms, though, and at first glance, seem to be more pertinent to large corporate organizations than (somewhat smaller) human service organizations. This is not meant as a criticism of this typology, though, as it is recognized that Mintzberg intended to create a classification scheme based on characteristics common to most organizations. In addition, Mintzberg does not address the issue of the influence of power within and on organizations in this typology. His recognition of this fact led him to concentrate solely on this issue in a later publication titled: "Power In And Around Organizations" (1987). In spite of these limitations, many of the characteristics described in Mintzberg's organizational "types" are as relevant to human service organizations as they are to other organizations. In fact, some of Mintzberg's "design parameters" will form a basis for the discussion on how to internally structure the Association.

#### **(D) Towards Organizational Models for the Association**

The point was made earlier that the purpose of this section of the practicum report is to derive organizational models which can be considered by the Association, as it attempts to meet its goals. These goals include: (1) policy analysis and research; (2) advocacy with the provincial government and the public; (3) the sharing of information within the Association and with the public; (4) staff training and development; (5) resource acquisition; and, (6) short and long term planning within the social service sector. At present, not all of these goals are being addressed by the Association. This is partly due to the fact that the structure of the Association, which initially emerged as a "coalition" of Child and Family Services Agencies, is inadequate to meet the goals recently formulated by the membership.

Currently, there are no paid employees of the Association. As a result, the responsibility for accomplishing tasks has rested primarily with the Board Presidents and the Executive Directors of the member Agencies. It is fair to say that these individuals have neither the time nor the energy to accomplish all of the stated goals. Therefore, the Association will require paid staff in order to do so. The roles the paid staff members will assume correspond to what Mintzberg (1979) referred to as the "parts" of the organization.

A decision will have to be made regarding how to structure the internal activities of the staff. Reference will be made to Mintzberg's typology of organizational structure in an attempt to arrive at some options for the Association. Mintzberg's "design parameters" will be of particular importance to the discussion as the purpose will be to explore ways to divide and coordinate the work of the paid staff within the Association.

It has already been determined within the Association that the authority over policy issues rests with the Board Presidents of the Agencies who are the only voting members in the Association. This arrangement is an extension of the emphasis within Manitoba's Child and Family Service Sector on community control over policy and service development. A question arises, though, as to what the relationship should be between the Association and the Agencies. Reference will be made to two types of political structures, each of which concentrates the balance of power in different domains, to address this question.

To summarize, the analysis will be divided into two sections. The division of labour and the coordination of activities, as well as the authority structure within the Association, will be discussed in the first section. The second section will focus on the authority structure between the member Agencies and the Association. The intention of this exercise is to delineate what options are available

to the Association regarding both its internal dynamics and its role in the external authority structure.

**(1) The Internal Structure  
of the Association**

**(i) Types Of Positions**

A decision to recruit paid employees to the Association raises the question of how many employees are needed. It is necessary to again refer to the Association's goals to answer this.\* As should be apparent, these goals can encompass a variety of tasks. For example, the identification of staff training and development as a goal signifies the importance of having a comprehensive program available to the staff of all of the Agencies. Such a program would need to be implemented consistently among the Agencies (or across the sector). Thus, at minimum, "staff training and development"

\* See page 101 of this document.



encompasses the development of a comprehensive program and its implementation in all of the Agencies on an ongoing basis. The coordination of such a program would in no way be a part-time activity.

It was suggested in the Reid/Sigurdson Report (1987) that a new organization consisting of only project staff be incorporated to improve coordination within the Child and Family Services System. These individuals would be responsible for: (1) coordinating resource sharing and day-to-day work between the Agencies; (2) carrying out research; (3) maintaining a resource inventory; and, (4) providing a focus for communication between the Agencies and other organizations. Additional potential functions of such an organization have since been identified by the Association. Both of these points allude to the need for a number of paid staff positions within the Association to fulfill these functions.

There is merit to the argument that staff should be assigned to positions in the Association by "project". In addition, it is maintained here that a managerial position (at least one) would be necessary to coordinate the many responsibilities alluded to in the goals. This position could serve as a focal point in the exchange of information between the staff and the Board, as well as between the Association and staff of the Agencies. Certainly, this is not meant to imply that this position should be the only information link between the staff of the Agencies, and the Association. A related

point is that support staff would also need to be hired within the Association. To summarize, the Association will have to recruit, at minimum, a manager, project staff, and support staff, or in Mintzberg's (1979) terms, a Chief Executive Officer, Operators, and Support Staff.

How the tasks within the Association can be divided and coordinated will now be examined. Reference will be made to some of Mintzberg's (1979) "design parameters", namely the design of positions, planning and control systems, and the design of the decision-making system. The other design parameters identified by Mintzberg are not applicable to this exercise most notably because the Association is a relatively small organization in comparison to those to which Mintzberg refers in his analysis.

#### (ii) Design of Positions

This group of design parameters consists of job specialization, behavior formalization and training and indoctrination. From this group, Mintzberg's analyses of job specialization and behavior formalization are particularly significant to a discussion of the internal structure of the Association.

Job specialization includes both horizontal specialization and vertical specialization. Mintzberg noted that while a degree of horizontal specialization is present in any organization in which there is a division of labour, it is typically more pronounced where work is highly complex. He refers to the type of position created to do work of this complexity as "professional".

The paid positions created within the Association will need to be filled with "professional" staff. What is meant by "professional" is that their qualifications should be based on formal training in the social service field and considerable work experience. Each staff person recruited by the Association will need to have specialized abilities in a certain area (staff training and development for example). As the work responsibilities in each of specialized areas can certainly be considered complex, it is maintained here that a high degree of horizontal specialization will be an inherent characteristic of the Association.

Vertical specialization refers to the separation of the performance of the work from the administration. Mintzberg (1979) maintains that an administrative component is necessary within an organization in which there is a highly complex division of labour. The "administration" serves to coordinate the array of tasks being completed by the staff or what Mintzberg (1979) refers to as the "Operators". It has already been proposed that the Association will

need to create a managerial position (at least one) to coordinate the many responsibilities alluded to in the goals identified for the Association. As such, a degree of vertical specialization will also be an inherent characteristic of the Association.

Mintzberg (1979) makes the point that the work processes of an organization are standardized through the "formalization of behavior". Here, the intent is to reduce the variability of behavior, and to predict and control behavior within the organization. This is done by job description, workflow and/or organizational rules. An organization can be characterized by a high degree of behavior formalization, such as in Mintzberg's Machine Bureaucracy. Here, the emphasis is on controlling and predicting the behavior of employees through the use of workflow and organizational rules.

"Organic" forms of structure are at the other extreme of the continuum of behavior formalization. Organizations with this form of structure are characterized by loose, informal working relationships built on mutual adjustment (informal communication between staff). Little use is made of rules and regulations as work is coordinated through the frequent contacts which occur between the staff members. Some would argue that this type of structure leads to more effective and efficient operations in organizations where tasks are nonroutine and more complex.

Admittedly, the above descriptions are extremes along a continuum of behavior formalization. There are alternatives that fall at different points along this continuum. The point is, however, that the Association will have to consider to what degree the behavior of staff should be formalized within the Association, and which mechanisms for coordinating internal activities will be emphasized.

### (iii) Planning And Control Systems

One of the goals of the Association is to improve planning within the Agencies, and on a sector-wide basis. However, a planning and control system will also have to be implemented within the Association itself.

Mintzberg distinguished between two kinds of planning and control systems. Performance control is after-the-fact monitoring of performance. Performance control systems tend to be applied to those with more global responsibilities in an organization, or where workers operate with greater autonomy. Here, there is less emphasis on controlling organizational behavior as work is evaluated according to the degree to which stated objectives are met and planned projects are completed.

Alternately, action planning is a method of measuring an organization's success in regulating workers' actions. Typically, this system is more consistent with an organizational structure in which there is a high degree of behavior formalization. Work responsibilities are described in terms of specified tasks and behaviors. Accordingly, workers are evaluated according to the degree to which their organizational behavior reflects that which is specified in job descriptions, and organizational policies, rules and regulations.

Either or both of these planning and control systems can be applied within the Association. However, in all likelihood, one or the other will tend to be emphasized to a greater degree. This is because the type of coordinating mechanism which predominates in the organization strongly influences which type of planning and control system is emphasized. The Association should consider the question of whether it will focus more on the accomplishment of stated objectives in evaluating the performance of its workers, or whether the emphasis will instead be on evaluating the degree to which organizational behavior conforms to specified organizational policies, rules, regulations and job descriptions.

#### (iv) The Decision-Making System

The operation of an organization is significantly affected by how decisions are made within the organization. Specifically, it is important to decide how the authority for decision-making will be distributed within an organization as this will affect the allocation and execution of responsibilities. Of course, due consideration should also be given to the fact that the decision-making process(es) in an organization should be effective and efficient.

Certainly, a manager hired to coordinate the activities of the staff will assume a greater degree of responsibility within the Association than the individual staff members. The decision-making system within the Association would be described as horizontally (and vertically) centralized if the manager predominantly controls decision-making within the staff group. In such a case, the manager would be delegated the power from the Board to make certain decisions and to authorize their implementation. Also, the manager would serve as the primary information link between the staff and the Board.

In the extreme, the staff would be assigned specific tasks by the manager, and would have little authority over how these tasks are executed. Administrative decisions could certainly be made quickly

with the authority concentrated primarily in one person in an organization. The quality of these decisions, however, would be substantially dependant on the individual expertise and skills of the manager.

Alternately, the authority to make important administrative decisions within the Association may be shared by the manager and the workers. The decision-making system could be described as somewhat decentralized in this circumstance. Decisions regarding the assignment of tasks and the execution of responsibilities would occur collectively, and the quality of these decisions would depend on the expertise and skills of the manager and all of the staff. Here, the manager (or coordinator) could serve primarily as a liaison between the staff and the Board, though this would not preclude direct contact between the staff and the Board. A potential drawback of this decision-making structure, though, is that the decision-making process could, at times, be difficult and cumbersome as the authority would be shared among numerous people.

Certainly, there is no steadfast rule that the authority over decision-making must either belong solely to the manager or be shared with the staff in all circumstances. In all likelihood, the former possibility would often hinder effective decision-making as the quality of decisions would not benefit from the input of the



staff. On the other hand, the latter possibility could prove to be highly inefficient if the decision-making process typically moves along too slowly.

One possibility is that there could be a division of authority within the Association. Some issues would require a joint decision-making process, while others would fall under the jurisdiction of solely the manager. In this case, because certain decisions would benefit from the collective input of all of the staff, the decision-making system could be considered more effective; alternately, the manager would retain the authority in some areas to ensure that decisions can be made more quickly, if necessary. Either way, it is recommended that the Board of the Association consider the question of how authority will be distributed among the staff prior to the actual recruitment of the staff and the manager, as those recruited to the positions will strongly influence the decision-making process.

#### (v) Summary

It was concluded after reviewing the stated goals of the Association that in order to accomplish these goals, a number of staff would need to be hired. It was proposed that only "professional" staff should be recruited to these positions due to the

complexity of the work. It was further proposed that the staff members be assigned to positions by "project", as stated in the Reid/Sigurdson Report (1987); however, the point was added that a managerial position would also be needed to coordinate the activities and to act as a focal point for the exchange of information between the staff and the Board, as well as between the Association and the staff of the Agencies.

The discussion of the internal structure of the Association made reference to Mintzberg's "design parameters" regarding the staff positions, planning and control systems, and decision-making systems. Distinctions were drawn between somewhat extreme examples of those procedures which remove authority from the staff, and their counterparts which allow the staff greater control and autonomy within the organization. What became apparent in the discussion is that in either camp, there are a variety of ways to structure activities. Their distinctions typically reflect the degree to which the staff retain authority over their work activities.

The Association will have to decide whether it prefers to structure its internal activities with an emphasis on controlling and predicting the behavior of employees under a central authority (the manager), or whether it prefers to operate by entrusting a greater degree of authority and responsibility in the organization to the staff.

Greater emphasis would be placed in the former model on: coordination through the use of workflow and organizational rules; the centralization of authority in the manager; controlled communication; and, an emphasis on action planning (planning and control system). This model would have characteristics similar to Mintzberg's Machine Bureaucracy.

Greater emphasis would be placed in the latter model on: coordination through loose, informal working relationships built on mutual adjustment; collective decision-making among the staff under the direction of a coordinator (the manager); and, an emphasis on the use of a performance control system (planning and control system). These characteristics are similar to those of Mintzberg's Adhocracy.

Either way, it is strongly recommended that the Association address these questions prior to the recruitment of paid staff to the organization. Serious consideration should be given to the fact that the person selected to fill the position of manager will significantly influence which model of internal structure is emphasized.

## **(2) The Association and the Agencies**

Consideration should also be given, prior to the formation of the Association into a distinct organization or political entity (with a paid workforce), to the question of whether the Association or the individual member Agencies will exercise greater authority in the relationship. Should greater authority rest with the former organization or the latter organizations in those areas in which the division of responsibility is unclear? More specifically, should the Boards of the Agencies, and thus the individual Agencies themselves, be held accountable to the Board of the Association, or should the reverse be true? In what areas, if any, will the Association have greater authority than the member Agencies, and vice versa? These questions highlight the need for decisions regarding jurisdiction.

It is useful to refer to a distinction drawn between the concepts of "confederation" and "federation" to address the question of what the relationship should be between the member Agencies and the Association. These concepts are most often associated with political systems in which there is a division of authority between distinct political entities. More specifically, these concepts refer to the division of authority between a central political entity and local political entities. The distinction drawn by the two concepts concerns the locus of the balance of power between the central

authority and its local counterparts.

A confederation is an organization or political system comprised of members who join it voluntarily and for a specific purpose. There are a central entity and "local" entities and a corresponding division of authority between them. While each has authority over certain jurisdictions, the central entity is responsible to the members who themselves hold the balance of power in the authority structure.\*

The source of funding of the Association is of critical importance to its establishment as a distinct organization. Ultimately, this is likely to be the provincial government, as it is the primary source of funding across the social service sector. However, the member Agencies would be able to exert considerable authority over the activities undertaken by the Association if the Association was funded directly from the budgets of these Agencies. The Association would be highly dependant on these Agencies for the funding, thus very vulnerable to their influence.

\* See Raymond, 1978: 118.

The division of responsibilities between the Association and the Agencies in the above example would be determined primarily by the individual member Agencies. They would control the balance of power in this relationship due to their significant influence as the funding sources of the Association. As such, the authority structure would resemble a confederation. However, the fact remains that such an arrangement would not preclude the direct intrusion of the provincial government into the affairs of the Association, as it continues to be the main funding source of these Agencies.

David Robertson discusses the concepts confederation and federation stating:

A confederacy, or confederation, is a political system originating in an agreement made between several independent entities that wish to retain a high degree of autonomy. The idea of confederacy is usually contrasted with that of federation, which also involves independent entities, but in which the central authority has a considerable degree of power . . .

(1985: 63)

Independent organizations or political entities exercise only the authority delegated to them from a central organization or political entity in a federation. The authority in all remaining specified or unspecified jurisdictions rests with the central entity. In other

words, the central authority possesses the balance of power in its relationship with the "local" entities.

The conclusion was drawn in the Strategic Planning section of this document that because the Department was not fulfilling the functions of system-wide planning and coordination, the Association would have to assume a greater measure of responsibility in these areas. Certainly this conclusion is consistent with many of the stated goals of the Association. If it is assumed that these goals define what will be primarily the responsibility of the Association (as a separate organization), then clearly the member Agencies will have to surrender some of what has been considered until now their areas of "individual responsibility".

Decisions regarding system-wide short and long term planning, advocacy and negotiation with government, staff training and development, and coordination, could become primarily the responsibility of the Association. A decision may be made that for the Association to be effective, the Agencies would have to unanimously comply with the decisions made by the Association in these areas. The authority structure which could emerge in this case would resemble a federation.

Certainly, the individual Agencies would still be able to influence decisions in these areas through their Board Presidents who are

members of the Board of the Association. However, the Association, as a central entity, would exercise greater control than the individual Agencies in the above areas. As these areas are wide in scope and of great importance to the Agencies (coordination for example), the Association would hold the balance of power in its relationship to the Agencies.

It is no easy task to choose between these two authority structures. Admittedly, the two models have been described in rather simplistic and extreme terms. These descriptions do, however, highlight the need for decisions regarding the jurisdiction of the Association, and the jurisdiction of the individual Agencies.

Any agreements regarding jurisdiction should be incorporated into the by-laws of both the Association and the Agencies in order to be recognized as legitimate. Constant confusion regarding jurisdiction will create conflict in the system, which can only lead to poorer coordination and planning than what currently exists. Should this occur, a main purpose for the existence the Association will be lost.



### (3) Summary

The analysis of organizational models for the Association was divided into two sections. The first section focussed on the internal structure of the Association including the division of labour, the coordination of activities, and the authority structure. The analysis was based upon Mintzberg's (1979) "design parameters" regarding positions, planning and control systems, and decision-making within an organization. A conclusion was drawn that the Association will have to decide whether it prefers to operate with an emphasis on controlling and predicting the behavior of its staff under a central authority (the manager), or whether it prefers to operate by entrusting a greater degree of authority and responsibility in the organization to the staff.

The second section focussed on the authority structure between the Association and the member Agencies. The analysis explored the importance of determining whether the balance of power in the relationship between the Association and the individual member Agencies should be held by the former organization or by the latter organizations, by referring to the concepts "confederation" and "federation". Specifically, the need for the Association to determine its jurisdiction in relation to the individual member Agencies was emphasized. The Association must decide whether the authority

structure should resemble a confederation or a federation.

It is apparent that there are a number of considerations in determining how to structure the internal activities of the Association, and how to define its relationship to the member Agencies. An attempt has been made to clarify what options are available in both of these areas in this section of the practicum report. A related point of no less importance is that decisions in these areas need to be made proactively (as opposed to reactively) to enable the Association to concentrate on working towards its goals. It is hoped that the analysis and discussion in this section will serve as a guide to the Association's members in their attempt to focus their collective efforts on improving Manitoba's Child and Family Services System.

#### **IV. PLANNING FOR THE FUTURE**

An important element of long range planning within the Association is the identification of issues which could significantly influence the Agencies, and the delivery of services in the future. In this final chapter, the Association will be introduced to some of the issues which will likely be pertinent to its members, and Manitoba's Child and Family Services Sector in general, in the coming years.

##### **A. Restructuring the Delivery of Public Services**

The government of Manitoba continues to face an increased demand for funding in the public service sector. At the same time, however, there is a dwindling number of resources available. Government expenditures typically more than exhaust their revenue causing the overall provincial budget deficit to accumulate at an alarming pace. Access to public funds for human services grows tighter in spite of the fact that the need for funding in this sector is increasing. Lately, there have been cutbacks in many types of services including child and family services. Unfortunately, these financial circumstances are unlikely to change in the immediate future.

Social service organizations in other provinces are facing financial circumstances similar to those which exist in Manitoba. However, some provincial governments have chosen to actively address this problem, unlike what is occurring in Manitoba. They have formulated strategic plans that encompass more than simply "slashing" programs and services.

There are attempts to make services more effective and efficient in Ontario, for example, by restructuring the service delivery system. Certain government-funded services and programs are being integrated into a single service delivery structure in designated communities. This is intended to lower the overhead and administrative costs of delivering these services; also, it is recognized that an integrated service delivery structure should improve the coordination of these services to individuals, families and communities.

The delivery structures of child and family services and of children's mental health services are being consolidated in some Ontario communities. One such community to have undergone this process is the District of Rainy River. In the early to mid 1980's, a plan to integrate two separate organizations - the Children's Aid Society, and Children's Mental Health Services - was implemented. Initially, the two organizations were relocated to a common facility, but each continued to operate independently. Through time,

both the administrative structures and the services themselves were consolidated into one organization responsible for the delivery of services to children and families across the district. Two smaller local services, Child Development Services and Adult Protective Services, were also integrated into this organization. The plan to integrate these services was implemented through a cooperative effort between the affected organizations and COMSOC (the Provincial Department of Community and Social Services).

The success of this project is indicated by the fact that similar plans have been initiated in other communities across Ontario. For example, facilities have recently been built in Kenora to accommodate both the C.A.S. (Child and Family Services Agency) and the local Children's Mental Health Services. Both relocated into a common building at the end of 1990. This is the first step towards the complete integration of these two services on a permanent basis.

The Ontario government is not confining its plans to integrate services to just Child and Family Services Agencies and Children's Mental Health Facilities. Recently, plans have been initiated by COMSOC and the Ministry of Health to reform Long Term Care Services in Ontario. These plans include the integration and consolidation of in-home services into one unified care and support services program operated through a somewhat decentralized

management structure. Again, a major impetus for these plans is greater efficiency and effectiveness in the delivery of services to communities. What is significant about these plans, though, is that they involve the integration of services which are funded through two separate government ministries.

At present, there is little evidence to suggest that the Manitoba Government has formulated strategic plans to address the current financial crisis in the public sector. In the Child and Family Services Sector, the Government has tended to formulate policy as a "knee-jerk" reaction to financial and service crises in the Agencies. The main affect of this approach has been to worsen an already "tense" relationship between the government and the Agencies.

It was stated earlier in this document that of greatest concern to elected officials is that publicly-funded social service organizations deliver services to the community in an effective and efficient manner. The Manitoba government is not convinced that this is occurring at present, especially in the Child and Family Services Sector. In consideration of this, and the fact that few alternatives to the existing service delivery structure have been initiated by government officials, it is possible that the Manitoba government will follow Ontario's lead, and adopt a scheme designed to consolidate the existing services in each community into an integrated service delivery structure.

It is probable that child and family services would be considered in any plan designed to structurally integrate services to children and families in the province. One of the reasons for this is that these services cannot be easily withdrawn from communities by the government as they are legally mandated. A further reason is that these services are expensive to maintain; as a result, the government would likely be very interested in pursuing what would appear to be more efficient ways of delivering these services. Manitoba's Child and Family Services Sector has also been politically volatile for the government. A further incentive to include these services in any plan to reorganize/restructure the public service sector would be to reduce the level of conflict which currently exists between the government and the Agencies.

It is maintained here that, for the reasons stated above, the creation of integrated service delivery structures for services to children and families in Manitoba is a course of action that the government is likely to pursue in the future. Should this occur, the Association could assume an influential role in the establishment of the integrated service delivery structures. For this reason, it is recommended that the Association, and all of its member Agencies, begin planning for this process in the near future.

## **B. Resources Outside the Province**

A movement has already been initiated by some social service organizations in Manitoba to combine their resources and efforts in an attempt to influence government decisions and priorities. It is maintained here that collective efforts of this sort to influence the government should continue. However, consideration should also be given to the fact that many of the problems and issues facing the social service sector in Manitoba are not unique to this province. They have also surfaced in other provinces, in the territories, and/or in the United States. Furthermore, many of the issues or problems may have already been resolved elsewhere.

The notion that, by combining efforts and resources, agencies may be better able to influence government priorities has also surfaced in other provinces. For example, Child and Family Services Agencies in Ontario, like their Manitoba counterparts, have formed an Association - the Ontario Association Of Children's Aid Societies (O.A.C.A.S.). In addition, the O.A.C.A.S. has identified "the development of a strong advocacy capability" as one of its organizational goals, similar to its Manitoba counterpart.\*

\* See Appendix II.



Organizations, like the Association and its member Agencies, could benefit from establishing contact with similar organizations outside the province. Regular contact with "outside" organizations would increase the potential to resolve system-wide problems at a faster pace, as the Association would gain access to the knowledge and experiences of other organizations. For this reason, the Association should consider pursuing this course of action in the near future.

### **C. Education and Training**

The Child and Family Services Agencies in Manitoba are comprised primarily of social workers with either a Bachelor of Social Work Degree or a Master of Social Work degree. Many, if not most, of these workers earned their degrees from the University of Manitoba. In consideration of this fact, it is fair to say that the programs of this University's Faculty of Social Work have had a significant influence on many workers within the Agencies. This Faculty will likely continue to have a significant influence on the Agencies, and thus on the services which are being delivered by the Agencies to communities, as the Agencies will continue to recruit numerous workers from these programs.

There continues to be a lack of "meaningful" contact between the "educators" in this field and the Agencies despite the influence of this Faculty's programs on workers. The Faculty tends to do very little ongoing training with the Agencies, and most Faculty members have, at best, sporadic contact with one or two of the Agencies for brief periods of time. Similarly, the influence of the Agencies over either the B.S.W. or M.S.W. programs has been practically non-existent at both the policy and program (course) levels. In effect, the Faculty and the Agencies have been operating in virtual isolation from one another.

Arguably, one of the purposes of an educational program is to prepare students for practice in the field. To effectively do this, the educators must at least have up-to-date information about social service organizations and programs, and the environment within which the services are currently being delivered. There is little evidence to suggest that much of an effort is being made at present on the part of the Faculty to acquire information directly from the Child and Family Services Sector for educational purposes. This is unfortunate, especially in consideration of the fact that many graduates from the Faculty's programs are currently working, and/or will in the future be working, within Manitoba's Child and Family Services Agencies.

Concerns have been expressed in the past by Child and Family Services Agencies, and by students, that the Faculty is not adequately preparing students for work in the field. The quality of the Social Work programs would be enhanced if there was greater input from practitioners/service providers from a variety of social service organizations including the Agencies.

Most social service organizations, including the Agencies, presently are suffering from insufficient funding to provide workers with ongoing training, and professional development. These are functions that could at least partially be fulfilled by the Faculty. Faculty members come from a variety of experiential and educational backgrounds, and have expertise in numerous areas. Their participation in ongoing educational/training programs with the Agencies could: (1) enhance the abilities of social workers in the field; (2) improve the morale of these workers; and, (3) help the Faculty members themselves maintain an awareness of how social service organizations operate, and of the environment within which services are delivered in Manitoba.

To conclude, it makes little sense for the University's Social Work Programs and the Child and Family Services Agencies to continue to operate in relative isolation from one another. There are many benefits for both of these groups in working to complement each other's programs. For this reason, it is recommended that the

Association make a concerted effort in the near future to establish an ongoing working relationship between the Agencies and the University of Manitoba's Faculty of Social Work.

A P P E N D I X I

BY-LAWS

MANITOBA ASSOCIATION OF CHILD  
AND FAMILY SERVICE AGENCIES

April, 1989  
(revised April 5, 1990)

## GENERAL BY-LAW

### ARTICLE I

#### Definitions

1. In this By-Law:

- a) The name shall be **THE MANITOBA ASSOCIATION OF CHILD AND FAMILY SERVICE AGENCIES** hereinafter known as the "Association".
- b) "Board" means the Board of Directors of the Association.
- c) "Working Group" means the Executive Directors Working Group of the Association.
- d) "Committee" means a committee of the Board.
- e) "President" means president of the Association.
- f) "Co-Chair" means the chair of the Working Group of the Association holding office as Secretary-Treasurer of the Association.
- g) "Membership" refers to member Agencies of the Association.

### ARTICLE II

#### Beliefs and Goals

2. a) The Association believes in:

- 1) the strength that comes from a common and united voice when informing the public and persuading government to act on child and family service issues;
- 2) the individuality and autonomy of our member agencies and will respect their uniqueness in achieving our common goals;
- 3) the concept that the welfare of children and families is a non-partisan matter;
- 4) the concept that community Boards are integral to the true nature and governance of the private child and family service system and consequently the Association;
- 5) assisting our member agencies through consultation, information sharing, research and analysis, conferences and workshops;

- 6) promoting the achievement of excellence in child and family services through a collaborative and co-operative approach with the Provincial Government and other organizations interested or involved in child and family services;
  - 7) promoting, maintaining and strengthening community involvement and participation in the delivery of child and family services in Manitoba and in our respective communities and agencies;
  - 8) and support the statement of principles contained in The Child and Family Services Act of Manitoba, 1986 or successor legislation;
- b) The Goals of the Association shall be:
- 1) The Service Goal of the Association is to study current trends and develop effective approaches to meet the changing needs of children, families and communities.
  - 2) The Funding Goal is to advocate for adequate levels of child and family service funding.
  - 3) The Legislation Goal is to contribute to and advocate for the development, implementation, and ongoing review of Child and Family Services Legislative matters.
  - 4) The Policy Goal is to contribute and advocate for the development of appropriate policies affecting child and family services in the Province.
  - 5) The Communication Goal is to ensure regular, timely information exchanges between member agencies and the Association, and to maintain contact with the public on child and family service issues.
  - 6) The Training Goal is to promote and support the development of the human resources of the member agencies.
  - 7) The Operational Management Goal is to develop long range and annual plans for the Association's activities and evaluate the degree to which they result in the achievement of the Association's goals.
  - 8) The Resource Goal is to realize adequate resources for the Association's ongoing operations from member agencies and other sources.

### ARTICLE III

#### Seal

3. The seal, an impression of which is stamped in the margin hereof, shall be the common seal of the Association.

#### ARTICLE IV

##### Principal Office

4. The principal office of the Association shall be determined from time to time. The principal office is so designated for the purposes of a mailing address and financial transactions only.

#### ARTICLE V

##### Membership

5. a) Membership in the Association is open to those private Child and Family Service Agencies in the Province of Manitoba whose primary function is to administer the Child and Family Services Act of Manitoba or successor legislation.
- b) Member Agencies shall pay annual membership dues which shall be determined from time to time by a minimum of 2/3 majority of the Board members present. Membership dues shall be determined prior to 1 April of the year. Failure to pay membership dues may mean expulsion from the Association as determined by a minimum of 2/3 majority vote of Board members present.
- c) Each member Agency shall be represented by its Executive Director (or equivalent) and its Board President or his/her designate.

#### ARTICLE VI

##### Board of Directors

6. a) The acknowledged authority of the Association is the Board of Directors. Its objective is the assurance of the integrity of the Association given the Beliefs and Goals of the Association (Article II).
- b) The Board is made up of Member Agency Board Presidents or elected designates of Member Boards and voting privileges are restricted to these Board members.
- c) Member Agency Boards may name an alternate member to attend meetings in the absence of their Board President.

#### ARTICLE VII

##### Powers and Duties

7. The powers and duties of the Board are:



- a) To determine and effect the policies of the Association which are consistent with its beliefs and goals;
- b) To ensure provision of such equipment and resources consistent with the needs of the Association;
- c) To secure sufficient income;
- d) To keep or cause to be kept adequate records of all financial transactions;
- e) To enter into contracts necessary to effect implementation of policy;
- f) To provide for the safe administration of funds given in trust;
- g) To elect a President, Vice-President and Secretary-Treasurer annually prior to 1 April;
- h) To appoint a Recording Secretary, set his/her salary and ensure payment of salary;
- i) To ensure a fair and reasonable membership admission and withdrawal procedure.

#### ARTICLE VIII

##### Officers of the Board

8. a) The Officers of the Board shall be:
- (1) The President
  - (2) The Vice-President
  - (3) The Secretary-Treasurer, ex-officio and non-voting

The Officers of the Board shall be elected by and from Board members during the month of March, the terms of which shall be one year beginning 1 April. The President and Vice-President shall be elected from those Member Agency Board Presidents and the Secretary-Treasurer shall be an Executive Director (or equivalent).

- b) Where, for any reason, a vacancy occurs among the Officers, the Board shall elect a replacement by simple majority vote to serve out that term.
- c) The President shall be the Chair of the Board, and shall be responsible for calling all meetings of the Board; and carry out such other duties as may be required of her/him.
- d) The Vice-President shall, in the absence of the President carry out all the duties and assume all the responsibilities of the President.

- e) The Secretary-Treasurer shall;
- (1) Give notice of, and attend all meetings;
  - (2) Keep or cause to be kept an accurate and complete record of the minutes of all Association and Working Group meetings;
  - (3) Be the custodian of all official documents of the Board and the seal of the Association;
  - (4) Attend to all correspondence;
  - (5) Chair the Executive Directors' Working Group;
  - (6) Perform such other duties as ordinarily pertain to his/her office such as but not necessarily exclusive of:
    - ensure that Board policies are implemented;
    - submit an annual budget for approval by the Board prior to the end of the fiscal year;
    - submit a report at each Board meeting on the deliberations of the Working Group;
    - report to the Board on all Association matters about which the Board should have knowledge.

## ARTICLE IX

### Meetings of the Board

9. a) Regular meetings of the Board shall be held at such time and place as may be determined by the Board by resolution from time to time. Robert's Rules of Order shall be used as a procedural guideline.

Hosting of meetings of the Association shall rotate among the member Agencies.

The Secretary-Treasurer shall give each member of the Board at least five days notice of each regular meeting stating therein the time and place.

- b) Special meetings of the Board may be called by the President at any time, but not less than 24 hours notice shall be given unless waived by 2/3 of the Board present. The President shall call a special meeting of the Board on written request of any three Board members. Notice of all special meetings shall indicate those items to be discussed and only those items shall be discussed. Decisions reached at a special meeting are as binding as those reached at a regular meeting.

Conference telephone calls may be deemed to constitute a special meeting of the Board or Committee.

- c) One-half of the Member Agencies plus one shall constitute a quorum thereof, where, at any meeting a quorum is not present within one-half of the hour after the time appointed, the meeting shall stand adjourned.
- d) Any and all content of Board and its committee meetings shall be designated as confidential within the confines of the Board and its Member Agencies, unless otherwise designated.
- e) Each Member Agency present is allotted one vote at all Association meetings.

## ARTICLE X

### Committees of the Board

10. a) There shall be two standing Committees of the Board. They are:

- (1) Executive Directors Working Group
- (2) Public Relations Committee

b) The Executive Directors Working Group shall consist of all the Executive Directors (or equivalents). It shall be Chaired by the Secretary-Treasurer and shall be accountable to the Board. Its duties shall be:

- (1) Reviewing and discussing service-specific matters and setting direction through decisions related to these matters.
- (2) Discussing matters related to policy issues and bringing policy recommendations to the Board.
- (3) Alerting the Board to matters of legislation, funding or public relations that may have a bearing on the functions of Association members.
- (4) Meeting with the Director of Child and Family Services or other government officials (except politicians) and other service provision officials to enhance service deliberations.

c) The Public Relations Committee of the Association shall consist of an annually elected spokesperson and an alternate from the Board. In addition two Executive Directors shall be appointed annually to this Committee. This Committee shall be responsible to the Board for:

- Being the exclusive Association conduit to all media and other public forums for the Association's point of view.

- Meeting to develop an Association issue position if a meeting of the total Association cannot be called.
- Report its activities to the next Association meeting.

#### ARTICLE XI

##### Special Committees

11. The Board may constitute and establish such committees as may, from time to time, be necessary or advisable, to carry out any special work or inquiry, but any such committee shall confine its activities to those matters for which it was constituted and shall advise and make recommendations only to the Board.

#### ARTICLE XII

##### Finances

12. a) The Board shall, from time to time, designate a bona fide financial institution in which the funds of the Association are to be kept on deposit, and may authorize the opening of such accounts as may be necessary or expedient.
- b) The Board shall, by resolution, designate and authorize its signing officers to carry on its banking business.
- c) No accounts shall be paid unless they are contained in the approved budget. Other accounts require Board approval.
- d) The fiscal year of the Association shall be 1 April to 31 March.

#### ARTICLE XIII

##### Amendments

13. This By-Law may be amended after notice given, at any regular meeting of the Board. Such notice shall be tabled until the next regular meeting and before adoption, shall require an affirmative vote by 2/3 of the members present at that meeting.
  - a) Notwithstanding, the case of a difference, contravention or contradiction in any other By-Law of the Association this By-Law shall be considered to be the final authority.

ARTICLE XIV

Association Dissolution

14. The Association may be dissolved by resolution of 2/3 of all Board members in which case the remaining assets of the Association will be divided equally among all member Agencies, notice will be sent to the Provincial Government, and the Articles of Incorporation will be terminated.



ONTARIO ASSOCIATION  
OF  
CHILDREN'S AID SOCIETIES

## STRATEGIC PLAN

Executive Summary

prepared by  
F.J. Galloway Associates Inc.

June 1990

## INTRODUCTION

This document represents an Executive Summary of the Strategic Plan component of the long range planning program for the Ontario Association of Children's Aid Societies.

The Planning Process included a Research Phase, an OACAS Board Retreat and numerous meetings of the Executive Committee, staff and other key informants.

## OACAS STRATEGIC ROLE ALTERNATIVES

The analysis of the research indicates four possible strategic positionings for OACAS. They are:

- advocacy organization
- member services and advocacy organization
- member service organization
- OACAS dissolution

Based on member inputs and Board review, the dual role choice of advocacy and member services is the one desired.

## MISSION STATEMENT and PRINCIPLES

The Mission Statement of the OACAS is as follows:

OACAS, in support of its members, is...

The voice of child welfare in Ontario, dedicated to providing leadership in the achievement of excellence in the protection of children and the promotion of their well being within their families and communities.

Four Statements of Principle have been developed in support of the Mission Statement:

- OACAS is a membership based provincial organization established collectively by the member societies to represent their common needs and interests in advocating for progressive child welfare legislation, enlightened social policies, quality standards of service to children and families and adequate and fair resourcing to societies in Ontario;
- OACAS provides commonly needed and valued support services to member societies to assist them in their local community operations through consultation services, training programs and information services;



- OACAS is committed to promoting public awareness of child welfare programs, services and other related issues
  
- OACAS will communicate and work conjointly with the Ministry of Community and Social Services, other ministries, provincial and national organizations and others on behalf of its member societies, in order to serve the interests and needs of vulnerable children and their families.

## KEY SUCCESS FACTORS

The following Key Success Factors have been identified:

- the development, implementation and periodic review of a workable process for common position development and approval that:
  - ensures substantive field input,
  - tests positions with members before presentation to government,
  - is viewed internally and externally as the collective position of the organization and its members;
  
- interaction with members on a timely basis, recognizing at all times that OACAS is member based;

- development of strong relationships and communications with the Ministry of Community and Social Services, other ministries and relevant provincial and national associations such as the Institute for the Prevention of Child Abuse, Ontario Association of Children's Mental Health Centres, Foster Parent Society of Ontario, Ontchild, Ontario Association of Family Service Agencies and the Canadian Child Welfare Association;
- maintenance of skilled staff, appropriate resources and good internal operating systems that establish OACAS as a leader which provides quality and timely services to members and other interested parties;
- the achievement of a high level of member value for and commitment to the purposes and goals of OACAS;

The achievement of the key success factors will encourage participation in the Association and will therefore place the OACAS and its members in a leadership role in child welfare.

## GOALS

The following represent the OACAS goals for the next five years:

- secure the future and effectiveness of the OACAS by enhancing member value and commitment for the organization by:
  - reviewing OACAS Board and Committee structure and strengthening zone structure
  - intensifying communications with members and developing a structure for consensus building
  - developing a fee structure that is fair and establishes financial stability for OACAS
  - finalizing the development and implementation of standards of service
  
- develop a strong advocacy capability through the development of an advocacy plan that is supported by research and
  - addresses agency resources
  - provides a process for legislation review
  - participates with other Boards, Committees, Commissions and Task Forces
  
- provides member societies, through direct delivery and/or
  - third party coordination, with training and development programs and resources
  - for society staff, foster parents, board members and volunteers
  - and in conjunction with other educational institutions
  
- provides quality member services by developing and maintaining good operating systems for
  - consultation
  - information sharing
  - library services

## IMPLEMENTATION PLAN

To support the operationalization of the Strategic Plan, an implementation plan has been prepared. The plan provides for each goal a set of objectives and tasks along with dates, costing, approvals and the responsible person or parties.

## APPROVAL of the STRATEGIC PLAN

The Strategic Plan was approved by the OACAS Board of Directors at the June 1990 Meeting. The approved plan is to be distributed to the field and the 1991 Service Plan and Budget will be constructed in line with the Strategic Plan.

COPIES OF THE STRATEGIC PLAN FOR THE OACAS ARE AVAILABLE FROM



ONTARIO ASSOCIATION OF CHILDREN'S AID SOCIETIES  
75 Front Street East  
Suite 203  
Toronto  
M5E 1V9

## BIBLIOGRAPHY

Blau, Peter. On the Nature of Organizations, New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc. , 1974.

Blau, Peter M. and Richard A. Schoenherr. The Structure of Organizations, New York: Basic Books, Inc. , 1971.

Blau, Peter M. and W. Richard Scott. Formal Organizations: A Comparative Approach, San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Company, 1962.

Bogdanor, Vernon. , Ed. , The Blackwell Encyclopedia of Political Institutions, New York: Basil Blackwell, Inc. , 1987.

Boissevain, Jeremy. Friends of Friends, Bristol: Basil Blackwell, 1974.

Bowers, Raymond V. , Ed. , Studies on Behavior in Organizations, Athens: University of Georgia Press, 1966.

Dalby, Michael T. and Michael S. Werthman. Bureaucracy in Historical Perspective, Glenview: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1971.

Etzioni, Amitai. A Comparative Analysis of Complex Organizations,  
New York: The Free Press, 1975.

Fayol, Henri. General and Industrial Management, revised by Irwin  
Gray, New York: The Institute of Electrical and  
Electronics Engineers, Inc. , 1984.

Hall, Richard H. Organizations: Structure and Process, Third Edition,  
Engelwood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc. , 1982.

Hasenfeld, Yeheskal. Human Service Organizations, Engelwood  
Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc. , 1982.

Katz, Daniel and Robert L. Kahn. The Social Psychology of  
Organizations, New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc. ,  
1978.

McKenzie, Brad. Planning, Funding and Accountability in Manitoba's  
Child and Family Services System: Emerging Problems  
and a Proposed Strategy for Improved Rationality,  
Unpublished, 1986.

Mintzberg, Henry. The Structuring of Organizations, Engelwood  
Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc. , 1979.

Mintzberg, Henry. Power in and Around Organizations, Engelwood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc. , 1983.

Mommsen, Wolfgang J. The Age of Bureaucracy, Oxford: Basil Blackwell, 1974.

Morgan, Gareth. Images of Organizations, Beverly Hills: Sage Publications, Inc. , 1986.

Raymond, Walter J. International Dictionary of Politics, Lawrenceville: Brunswick Publishing Company, 1978.

Roberts-DeGennaro, Maria. " Patterns of Exchange Relationships in Building a Coalition ", in Administration in Social Work, The Haworth Press, Inc. , Vol. 11(1), 1987.

Robertson, David. A Dictionary of Modern Politics, London: Europa Publications Limited, 1985.

Sale, Tim. " Using Network Analysis in Human Service Planning: Fitting the Pieces Together " , in Business Quarterly, New York: The Haworth Press, Inc. , 1985.

Sink, David W. and Genie Stowers. " Coalitions and Their Effect on the Urban Policy Agenda ", in Administration in Social Work, The Haworth Press, Inc. , Vol. 13(2), 1989.

Slavin, Simon. Ed. An Introduction to Human Services Management, Vols. 1 & 2 of Social Administration: The Management of the Social Services. Second Edition. New York: The Haworth Press, Inc. , 1985.

Taylor, Frederick Winslow. The Principles of Scientific Management, New York: W. W. Norton & Company Inc. , 1967.

External Review Into Matters Relating To The System Of Dealing With Child Abuse In Winnipeg - 1987

- Main Authors: Grant Reid

Eric Sigurdson

McGraw-Hill Encyclopedia of Science and Technology, 5th Edition, Vol. 13, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1982.

Strategic Plan: Executive Summary

- Ontario Association of Children's Aid Societies

- prepared by F. J. Galloway Associates Inc. , June 1990.



Strategies for Change: Comprehensive Reform of Ontario's Long-Term Care Services - 1990

- Ministry of Community and Social Services, Ministry of Health, Office for Senior Citizens' Affairs, Office for Disabled Persons

Various other documents belonging to, and/or containing information about, The Association of Child and Family Services Agencies of Manitoba