1. THE ROLE OF THE SUPERVISOR AND LEADERSHIP

1.1 THE TRANSITION TO SUPERVISOR

The transition from subordinate to supervisor involves changes in duties, changes in status and relationships with other firefighters, and changes in attitudes and responsibility.

Failure to make the necessary changes results in four kinds of ineffective supervisors:

A. Reluctant supervisors ("just for the added pay")

B. Weak supervisors ("has not changed")

C. Autocratic supervisors ("has gone to his/her head")

D. Uncertain and inconsistent supervisors ("does not know what he/she is doing")

Successful transition to the supervisor's role involves adopting certain attitudes:

A. "My primary responsibility is to get the job done".

B. "I have to anticipate and resolve problems, not just react or act helpless".

C. "I have to help my subordinates improve their skills and advance their careers".

To help the new supervisor make the transition from subordinate to supervisor, fire departments use:

A. Training in the supervisory role.

B. Transfers, so that the supervisor can begin exercising his/her authority with a new set of firefighters.

C. Temporary assignments, so that the supervisor can gather broad experience and gradually take on more new responsibilities.

Subordinates test a new superior to see how much the new superior will bend the formal rules of the organization. This "testing" typically goes through stages of increasing confrontation. But as the testing goes from stage to stage, fewer subordinates remain in the scenario. Very few subordinates carry through to the last stage, and very few other subordinates give them support at the last stage. The stages are:

1. The "Feeling-Out" Stage: Subordinates violate minor rules which are commonly violated on the job to see if the supervisor will object to these customary infractions. They test how far they can go.
2. The "Request" Stage: Subordinates ask for permission to do little things which are in violation of the official rules. They seek formal approval for the infractions.
3. The "Confrontation" Stage: If the superior has denied permission to do something, some subordinates will not accept that immediately; they will confront the superior and tell him/her that they intend to break the rule no matter what the superior says. Some other subordinates may support the one who leads the confrontation.
4. The "Open Warfare" Stage: If the superior does not back down after the confrontation, there is occasionally a subordinate or a few subordinates who will take some action to intimidate the superior, perhaps damaging the superiors belongings or threatening the superior or in rare instances physically attacking the superior. It is rare that other subordinates will support this

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kind of behavior. Subordinates will support the superior who takes a decisive action at this stage.

5. The "Conquest Plateau": The superior who has overcome confrontation and open warfare does not usually have to face the same kind of situation with anyone else. A superior who has been through this kind of situation has a reputation which obviates any later confrontations.

1.2 THE ROLE OF THE SUPERVISOR

The supervisor has a "role," like a character in a play. The performance of the role requires the supervisor to learn certain skills. The skills which supervisors must learn include:

A. Planning: setting goals, choosing means to achieve the goals, and scheduling the work.
B. Organizing: creating or adapting work teams to do various tasks, e.g., role of first unit at a fire.
C. Staffing: training subordinates and assigning individuals to do various tasks.
D. Directing: giving instructions for doing work.
E. Controlling: seeing that work is being accomplished according to standards.
F. Communicating: listening, keeping informed, and getting reports and information to people who need it.
G. Coordinating: working cooperatively with other supervisors of units, with superiors and subordinates.

The most common error is for supervisors to concern themselves almost exclusively with the work that their subordinates are supposed to do rather than focus on the work which must be done by a supervisor. This happens because the person is more familiar with the subordinate's role or perhaps does not like doing the supervisor's work. Supervisory work is usually less physical and has less tangible, less immediate results.

Although there are some variations in the proper role of the supervisor, depending on size of a department or local customs, there is general similarity in what kinds of tasks are restricted to a supervisor, what kinds can be delegated, and what kinds of tasks should not be done by a supervisor.

TASKS WHICH ONLY THE SUPERVISOR SHOULD DO:	TASKS WHICH THE SUPERVISOR SHOULD DELEGATE:	TASKS WHICH THE SUPERVISOR SHOULD NOT DO:
◆ Check and sign reports	◆ Getting data for reports	
◆ Make out assignments	◆ Some training of subordinates	◆ Equipment maintenance
◆ Check on work being done	◆ Give a tour of the firehouse	◆ Taking the nozzle at a fire
◆ Handle complaints	◆ Make a schedule for inspections	◆ Driving the apparatus

Note that "delegation" is not the same as giving out routine assignments. Delegation means giving part of the supervisor's job to a subordinate. It is justifiable when: (1) it is used as a way to train subordinates who may be promoted, (2) it is used to motivate skilled subordinates by giving them a share in the supervisory work, or (3) it is necessary because the supervisor is not able to handle all of the supervisory tasks alone. The supervisor should delegate only if the supervisor is confident that the subordinate will be able to handle the task successfully.

1.3 FOREMAN, STRAW BOSS, AND BUFFER

The first line supervisor actually plays several roles. These roles involve translating management needs into specific work assignments and bridging the gaps between higher superiors and firefighters. The first line supervisor's roles include:

A.   Foreman: Technical skills enable the supervisor to determine how to do the job and to train subordinates.

B.   Straw boss: The limited power of the first line supervisor preserves the close relationship between the first line supervisor and firefighters. For higher superiors it is advantageous to work through a first line supervisor who is close to firefighters.

C.   Buffer: The first line supervisor moderates the flow of information and emotional reactions between higher superiors and firefighters, so that problems can be resolved prudently.

1.4. LEADERSHIP SKILLS

Many supervisors adopt the tone and style of the supervisor who was their first boss or has been their boss for a long time. Still, it is common for supervisors to make some change in style to reflect the style of their current superior. Often the higher superior prefers that supervisors use the same style. However, the style of the higher superior may be ineffective in some cases. The supervisor should study the tactics of higher superiors and other supervisors to learn from them what wins cooperation from subordinates and what alienates them.

Attempts to define leadership in terms of personality traits have proven generally unsuccessful. Not all leaders are energetic, of superior intelligence, creative, etc. Not all people who are of superior intelligence, energetic, etc. make effective leaders. However, leaders do tend to have certain skills. These are not innate personality traits but rather skills which are learned.

The skills of effective first line leaders include:
1.   Technical knowledge
2.   Ability to explain things
3.   Ability to write clearly
4.   Ability to set priorities
5.   Ability to elicit cooperation from others

To a large extent, leadership consists of a good match between three things:
A.   The supervisory style of the leader.
B.   The nature of the work, routine or not.
C.   The subordinate's desire for a certain kind of supervision.

1.5 LEADERSHIP STYLES

There are many ways of classifying leadership styles of supervisors. One style has been described as the "supply sergeant" style; it consists of just providing subordinates with basic instructions and the tools they need and then leaving them alone. Another style is the "boss" style; it consists of just giving direct orders to do this or that. The "selling" style consists of combining specific directions with some "stroking" of the subordinate to enhance motivation. The "good shepherd" style consists of being most concerned about the well being of the subordinates, believing that if the supervisor takes care of the subordinates, the subordinates will take care of the work. There is no universally accepted list of supervisory styles, although there is a generally accepted custom of describing supervisory styles as

more or less "authoritarian" or "democratic". Democratic styles stress participation by subordinates in decision making.

1.6 PREFERENCES OF SUBORDINATES

There is a tendency for more and more subordinates, especially younger new workers, to prefer democratic styles of supervision. However, many subordinates prefer a more authoritarian "boss" style. They just want to know what is expected of them, and they will do it.

In general, more educated and more skilled workers prefer to have some say in how work is done. They fare better under more democratic, participatory supervision. However, for more democratic supervision with less close supervision to be effective, even with these subordinates, the subordinates themselves must be well motivated. Poorly motivated subordinates require more direction and closer supervision.

1.7 THE NATURE OF THE WORK

The nature of the work itself is the third factor in determining leadership effectiveness. Direct, authoritarian supervision is more effective when the work itself is more routine or more hazardous. Highly automated work or work which is so simple that it leaves no room for creativity, does not call for democratic discussion of how the work is to be done.

Hazardous work requires short and direct orders, fixed roles and set procedures for handling situations. Participation in decision making is seldom feasible at the scene of the emergency, although participation in planning procedures and in critical review of how past incidents were handled is desirable.

In nonhazardous work it is often desirable to design jobs with "job enlargement" in mind. Job enlargement consists of putting together a package of small tasks, so that the individual's assignment contains variety. Greater variety tends to improve worker interest and motivation. It also reduces the errors which come from monotonous work.

Although most people like some job enlargement, there are some people who prefer to do just one highly repetitive task over and over again. On assembly lines such workers learn to do the work without thinking about it. Because the work is simple and repetitive, they can think about other things while working and perhaps carry on conversations with nearby coworkers.

"Job enrichment" consists of giving a person a goal to accomplish and allowing the individual to determine how and possibly when to get it done. For example, an individual might be assigned to provide routine maintenance and checks of an electrical generator. A minimum of one check a month may be required. Beyond that, the individual decides what days to do it. Likewise minimum checks might be mandated, but the individual might decide to go beyond the minimum in the maintenance routine.

The key idea in job enrichment is to make the individual one's own boss within the standards set for the work. It fosters individual responsibility and an individual sense of accomplishment for the particular task assigned to this person.

Job enrichment has limitations in hazardous work. In emergency situations one is not most ready to be inventive in selecting what means to use to get a job done. Extensive drilling and following preset patterns of actions are necessary for the efficient functioning of individuals in hazardous situations.

In summary, leadership is the ability to match the supervisor's style with the preferred style of the subordinate and/the nature of the assignment. The nature of the assignment can be controlled by the supervisor to some extent by means of job enlargement or job enrichment. The supervisor may also be

able to control his/her own style somewhat by practicing different styles of supervision with different subordinates, according to their preferences, skill levels and motivational levels.

Studies of supervisors have shown that most supervisors do use at least two different styles of supervision. They adapt to individual subordinates and to particular situations. This is the essence of effective leadership.

2. DECISION MAKING, DIRECTING AND CONTROLLING SUBORDINATES

2.1 DECISION MAKING

Traditionally decision making has been seen as a five step process:

1. Defining or analyzing the problem
2. Thinking up possible solutions (e.g., brainstorming)
3. Selecting the best solution (e.g., costs/benefits analysis)
4. Implementing the best solution
5. Follow-up to evaluate the effectiveness of the solution

One could add, making necessary adaptations.

In practice, however, most decision making in large organizations is (1) incremental and (2) procedural. This is especially true in public agencies as distinct from private organizations and especially true at the front line level in organizations.

Incremental decision making is making decisions one step at a time. Problems are analyzed only superficially, with the understanding that many problems are very complex and have many "causes". Often it is unnecessary to know all the causes or ramifications of a problem, even if they could be known; problem solving can begin before one has a full understanding of the problem. The philosophy of incremental decision making calls for the decision maker to take a first step on a largely intuitive basis.

If the first step leads to some partial success in solving the problem, another step is taken. If the first step seems to do no good or to be somewhat amiss, the first step is corrected or a completely different, new first step is taken.

Incremental decision making starts to implement a solution faster than the logical five-step philosophy of decision making. But it takes more time to work out a complete solution to a problem. Incremental decision making reduces the chances of major errors. Incremental decision making often takes the form of pilot projects or other "experimental" or "demonstration" programs.

Most first line decision making in public agencies is "procedural." That is, decisions are made on the basis of the agency's existing procedures. Problems are seen and analyzed in terms of whatever procedures already exist. In a sense, existing procedures are prefabricated solutions. Problem solving consists of defining a problem in a way that will match one of the existing solutions. For example, suppose an agency has three disciplinary procedures: (1) a notation in an official journal or log; (2) a minor penalty imposed by a local superior following a specific procedure; and (3) a major disciplinary action by the agency following a specific procedure. When a disciplinary problem occurs, the superior's decision making consists of fitting the facts of the case to the requirements of one of the existing "solutions".

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Similarly, at a fire scene or other operation, most fire departments have standardized procedures. The superior's decision is basically a decision to implement the procedure ("solution") which best fits the facts of the present problem.

"Post mortem" discussions after major incidents help to refine procedures and sharpen the abilities of superiors to choose the most suitable procedures in future situations. In this way, evaluation of past decisions feeds back into the decision making on future occasions.

2.2   PRIORITIES

When it comes to areas where procedures do not exist, are unclear, or seem to conflict with one another, organizations work out new procedures or create rules to govern which procedures apply.

However, when situations are murky at the first line supervisor level, decision making is largely a matter of understanding the priorities of the organization and one's own immediate superior.

Superiors differ in how much priority they give to certain parts of the supervisor's job.

For example, how would your current or most recent superior rate the following in terms of priorities from 1 to 5? Put #1 next to the items with highest priority, then #2, etc.

_____Getting paperwork done

_____Avoiding complaints from the public

_____Avoiding conflicts in the firehouse

_____Maintaining equipment

_____Training new firefighters

What would your own priorities be? Rank the above items in terms of your own priorities by putting a number from 1 to 5 in front of each item.

In setting priorities many supervisors adopt the priorities of their immediate superiors. This is a pragmatic way to reduce the potential for conflicts between the supervisor and the next higher superior. However, there are some general principles which govern the priorities of most public service agencies.

2.3   EXERCISES IN SETTING PRIORITIES

Suppose that a fire department supervisor has come to work on a Wednesday day tour and encounters the following situations all at once. Which situations would have the highest priorities? And which situations should be attended to first? List the items twice: once according to their priority, and once in the order in which they should be done.

THE SITUATIONS:

(1) The Chief has telephoned and wants to be called back. (2) Firefighter Jones has not arrived, and it is now ten minutes into the tour. (3) A plan for inspections has to be formulated for tomorrow. (4) A civilian named Mr. Wiggins has come to the fire station and wants to speak to the supervisor on duty. (5) Firefighter Toulane is off-duty until tomorrow, but he left a message that he wants to be telephoned at home by you. (6) A message from headquarters indicates that there is an urgent need for an equipment report to be done by noon today, and it will take about two hours to do it. (7) Firefighter Lazarus, who is on duty now, wants to speak to you in private; he is upset and says it is very important. (8) You have just observed a very large oil puddle below an apparatus. (9) There is a message for you to call Sergeant O'Malley at the local police station. (10) The firehouse basement contains stored equipment and is starting to get flooded from a broken water main in the street.

ORDER OF PRIORITY (IMPORTANCE)		ORDER IN WHICH TO DO THE TASKS	
The most important is #	_____	Start with #	_____
Next in importance is #	_____	Then do #	_____
	_____	Then #	_____
	_____		_____
	_____		_____
	_____		_____
	_____		_____
	_____		_____
Least important is #	_____	Last, do #	_____

It is generally agreed in public agencies that the highest priorities should go to:

1.   Safety of people (Protection of "life and limb")
2.   Protection of property
3.   People before paper (Take care of people first.)
4.   Outsiders before insiders (Service to the public)

When it comes to the rule of "people before paper," the people can be prioritized in terms of who should be given first response. Apart from situations involving threats to safety, the order of consideration is:

1.   Superiors
2.   People who are upset, whether outsiders or insiders
3.   Outsiders: from another agency or unit, civilians
4.   Routine contacts with insiders

2.4   STRATEGIES FOR LOGJAMS

When there is a work logjam with too many different things to do and not enough time to do it all, the supervisor must take advantage of various strategies for getting many different things done quickly. The importance of a matter does not necessarily dictate the time sequence for attending to it. To decide the best time sequence for doing a series of tasks, the supervisor must be aware of the four basic strategies for dealing with work logjams:

A.   Defer: Defer means to deliberately take some action to put off resolving a problem. For example, a firefighter who wishes to discuss some non-urgent matter may be asked to agree to put off the matter until later in the day because there is something else the supervisor needs to do right away. Matters which can be deferred should be deferred before the supervisor turns to matters which can be delegated or must be done by the supervisor now.

B.   Delegate: Some tasks can be delegated to subordinates. The process of delegating tasks can be carried out before the supervisor turns to tasks which the supervisor must do personally.

C   Do: This applies to tasks which the supervisor must do personally. The sequence of tasks here will follow the list of priorities and the list of people ranked according to the priority the supervisor should give to each.

D.   Delay: Some tasks may simply be delayed. This is a bit different from deferring a task; deferring involves taking a deliberate act to postpone dealing with a matter. Delay involves no action at all for now.

2.5   DIRECTING

The concept of "chain of command" is the idea that orders, or other communications, should go from one level of management to the next without skipping over any level. For example, a chief should issue an order to a captain, who in turn should pass it on to a lieutenant, who in turn should pass it on to a firefighter (if all are present at the time). This is a traditional military concept, which was intended to avoid the confusion which would result if the person at the bottom of the command chain were to get conflicting orders from different superiors. However, in the military and even more so in other kinds of settings it is increasingly common to "bypass" the chain of command. For higher superiors, bypassing the chain of command once in a while gives them better rapport with people at the bottom of the organization.

One of the most difficult tasks for the newly appointed supervisor is giving orders, especially if the subordinates were previously the coworkers of the new supervisor. For giving routine orders to cooperative subordinates, the supervisor should practice certain skills in how to word orders so that subordinates do not resent them. It is far more common for subordinates to complain about the way an order is given than to complain about the order itself. The style for:

A.   Stating directions in a positive way, not negatively. Avoid the use of "no, not, don't," etc., except as a contrast. For example, rephrase:

Don't be late: _____

Do not leave a mess: _____

Do not do it that way: _____

Don't let it happen again:_____

B.   Speaking softly by sprinkling orders with words which take the autocratic tone out of the orders, such as, "please", "try to", "maybe", "Could you...?" Rephrase the following:

You're wrong:_____

Do it over:_____

Get it done today:_____

Clean up the place:_____

C.   Being job centered rather than self centered. Take the "I" and "me" out of job instructions. Emphasize doing the "work" rather than pleasing the boss. It usually helps to speak in terms of "we" and "us," which emphasize that the supervisor and the subordinate share responsibility for doing the job well. Rephrase:

When I tell you to do something:_____

I'm not satisfied:_____

I want it done today:_____

2.6   IMPLICIT BARGAINS

Often there are "implicit bargains" between the supervisor and the higher superior as well as between the supervisor and subordinates. An implicit bargain is an informal agreement that as long as each side does certain things (or refrains from doing certain things), there will be no trouble between them. Often it is a matter of taking care of the other person's priorities.

Enacting a superior's policies becomes a special problem when the policies appear to be arbitrary or unnecessarily troublesome to subordinates. It is especially difficult when the supervisor personally disagrees with a policy which the supervisor is obliged to enforce. There are several ways in which supervisors deal with situations like this.

An implicit bargain is one approach to this kind of situation. Essentially, this sort of implicit bargain reads, "Go along with this, and I will ease off on something else." The consequences of this bargain depend on what the supervisor is trading off for compliance with this new policy. If the supervisor lacks a good relationship with subordinates, the supervisor is more likely to try this approach.

A second way supervisors deal with unpopular rules which they must enforce is by pointing out that they did not make the rules but are obliged to enforce them because higher superiors are putting emphasis on them. In other words, the supervisor pleads that he/she is helpless in this matter and is stuck with the enforcement role. This "straw boss" approach can work for a supervisor who enjoys a good relationship with the work group.

Another approach to the situation of having to enforce an unpopular policy is to interpret the policy in a way which obviates the undesirable aspects of it. This is done by determining that the policy applies only under certain unusual conditions or at least does not apply to the present situation. Either a very narrow interpretation of the words of the policy or a very broad interpretation of them may render the policy harmless.

2.7 ASSIGNING TASKS: LOGICAL ASSIGNMENTS

Occasionally an individual has such an unusual talent that a job is designed to fit this particular individual. But ordinarily, jobs are designed and then individuals are fitted to the jobs. In the matter of assignments, then, it is necessary to fit the individual to the job.

In most emergency services and in most civil service (even nonemergency) organizations, it is customary to design somewhat specialized jobs and to make individuals somewhat interchangeable. If the job is restricted in scope and rather easy to learn, high levels of individual skill are not required.

The more complex the work, the more the skill levels and personal interests of individual subordinates become a factor in assignments. The concept of "logical assignments" suggests that individuals should be matched (by skill and interest) to their assignments. But if all jobs are simple and have about the same level of interest built into them, there is not much scope for logical assignments. When the work itself is complex or the situation is especially demanding (e.g., in a hazardous situation), logical assignments work best.

2.8 EQUITABLE ASSIGNMENTS

For work which is not complex or rewarding in itself, the supervisor has to be concerned more about providing equitable assignments. That is, the supervisor must give a roughly equal amount of work to each of the subordinates.

One way to provide equitable assignments is to design jobs with similar levels of skill and interest built into them. This is often difficult to do for all jobs. Some tasks have more status or are more pleasant than others.

Another way to provide equity in assignments is to rotate assignments, or at least to rotate the particular assignments which are notably more rewarding or more undesirable.

2.9 TRAINING ASSIGNMENTS

Assignments should also serve training functions.

A.   New personnel should be given assignments of increasing complexity and responsibility. They should generally stay at assignments in this order until they have become proficient at them. It is not desirable to have a predetermined length of time in a particular assignment.

B.   Experienced personnel should have some rotation in assignments, especially in the assignments related to hazardous work, so that they can fill in for other personnel when necessary.

C.   Experienced personnel who are especially skilled in doing certain tasks should be assigned to help new personnel in learning these tasks.

2.10 SOFT ASSIGNMENTS

Most units, at least on occasion, have some "soft" assignments. If at all possible, these assignments should be rotated. An exception is the situation in which a particular subordinate needs a soft assignment at the present time because that subordinate is recovering from an injury, is having difficult personal problems at the moment, or some other special situation. One should resist making soft assignments on the basis of seniority, since this creates a division between older and younger members of the work team.

If a task is too much for one person but really too little for two persons:

A.   In hazardous assignments, assign two persons.

B.   In nonhazardous assignments, assign one person. A major cause of inefficiency is overstaffing. When overstaffing occurs, personnel know that they do not have to perform at their individual best level and, in addition, excess individuals impede the efficiency of those who are doing the work at the moment.

PROBLEM: Assignments of a routine nature in the fire station were given to all personnel. One firefighter has finished the given assignment, while all the others are still working at their assignments. What should you as supervisor do?

2.11   CONTROLLING

"Controlling" work is a management term which means controlling the quality of work performance. Hence, controlling work means checking that it is being done properly. The supervisor cannot assume that a job is being done properly simply because someone has been assigned to do it. Sooner or later the supervisor must check on the accomplishment of the work.

In hazardous work situations the supervisor must check on what subordinates are doing at very frequent intervals as a way to ensure that subordinates are not at risk and everything is under control. Close supervision is mandatory in hazardous situations. That is why the supervisor should not be doing any of the operational work at the scene; the supervisor must be free to supervise.

In nonhazardous situations the best supervision consists of frequent but very brief contacts with personnel while they are doing a job. A fifteen-second spot check ("How's it going?") is all it takes to control the work of a well trained and well motivated subordinate. A few such checks while a job is being done are more effective than checking on the job after it has been finished, although that is necessary too.

3.   EVALUATION AND MOTIVATION

3.1   EVALUATION AS A MANAGEMENT TOOL

Supervisors are often reluctant to evaluate their subordinates. However, the immediate supervisor is the person who has the best knowledge of the subordinate's performance.

The reluctance of supervisors to evaluate subordinates often comes from problems in the way the organization uses evaluation reports. If evaluations can be used as a basis for punishing subordinates but are not used as a basis for significant rewards, supervisors are more reluctant to evaluate. If the evaluation system is vague or perceived as unfair, the supervisor is reluctant to evaluate. But even if the evaluation system were perfect, supervisors would still be somewhat reluctant about it because of their close relationship with subordinates at the first line level.

Evaluation systems work best when they are related to training and performance improvements. Evaluations provide a subordinate with a clearer picture of the organization's goals and standards. They compel the supervisor to consider areas in which the subordinate may need further training or refresher training. They may form a basis for "logical assignments" of personnel to particular jobs which call for particular skills.

For the organization as a whole, evaluation reports provide information which is useful in assessing training and planning in-service training. Reports on individuals also provide data which may be part of the promotional system or part of the system for assigning personnel to different tasks or units.

Evaluation systems are subject to the same legal constraints as hiring systems. Evaluation systems are required to be reliable and valid. "Reliable" means that different supervisors using the same evaluation system and rating the same subordinate would come up with the same rating (allowing for some rather minor fluctuation in ratings). "Valid" means that the rating system is an accurate reflection of the total job performance of the individual.

3.2   DEVELOPMENTS IN EVALUATION SYSTEMS

For decades rating systems were based on personal traits, e.g., loyalty, decisiveness, common sense, dependability, etc. Such evaluation systems based on traits are rare nowadays. They do not meet the legal requirements of reliability and validity. They are too vague and not directly related to actual job performance. They are also very subject to the traditional errors in trait rating scales (errors of "central tendency", "halo effect", "excessive leniency", etc.).

Current developments in evaluation systems stress evaluation as a tool for subordinate/superior communications. It is a way to force the superior and the subordinate to talk about job performance and to plan ways to improve it.

There are also fewer tendencies in contemporary evaluation systems to apply the same detailed criteria to all subordinates. Instead the organization defines several broad areas in which the job performance of the individual is to be evaluated, and the individual and immediate superior together work out the specific criteria to be applied to each area. For example, if the broad area were "Job Knowledge", the individual subordinate and immediate superior would decide what that would include for a particular evaluation period. They would decide this together at the beginning of the evaluation period.

This kind of evaluation system consists of several steps:

1.   Meeting to inform the subordinate about five or six broad areas for evaluation and to ask the subordinate to think about specific goals to set in each area. Set a date for the next meeting.

2.   Meet with the subordinate to draw up specific goals in each evaluation area. One should also indicate in writing how each goal will be pursued; e.g., learning how to use a particular piece of equipment by reading a manual and getting help from Jones. Entire program should fit on one piece of paper. Set a date for a progress report meeting.

3.   Periodic progress meetings. If necessary, redefine goals or plans. Do not make goals more difficult if they are being achieved. Do not change the goals. Modify plans and reduce goals if necessary.

4.   At the end of the evaluation period (six months or a year; more frequent with probationary firefighters), meet to evaluate what has been achieved in terms of the goals. The supervisor writes up an evaluation report after this meeting. The subordinate has the right to see the report and to write a rebuttal for the record if the subordinate feels the evaluation is inaccurate.

5.   The next higher superior should review the supervisor's report. It is assumed that the next higher superior also knows the subordinate who is being evaluated and therefore, can make a meaningful review of the report. If the superior has questions or reservations about any item, the superior should consult with the supervisor or subordinate about these items. When satisfied with the evaluation report, this superior should countersign it.

6.   If some goals were not reached, they should be incorporated into the evaluation program for the next evaluation period.

The sort of evaluation system described here is compatible with most other evaluation systems. This sort of evaluation between the supervisor and the subordinate can be the basis for the evaluation made by the supervisor on most other kinds of evaluation forms; it could even be used as the basis for an otherwise invalid evaluation based on trait ratings.

3.3　MOTIVATION: THE NEED FOR ACHIEVEMENT

A person's level of motivation is a personality characteristic. That implies that the individual's level of motivation is rather stable, not something that goes up and down from one day to the next. It also implies that an individual's level of motivation may change but will change slowly. Motivation may be affected by certain situations but it is not simply a response to situations. A person carries a certain level of motivation from one task to another, from one day to another.

Some people are practically always highly motivated to do just about anything. These are people with a high need for achievement. This is a need which has been programmed into them by the way they were brought up. Their parents were most likely people who demanded that they achieve difficult but possible goals. They were rewarded consistently for such achievements, and they were not rewarded when they failed to achieve. They were made to achieve things mostly through their own efforts, although they were not saddled with impossible demands. These people tend to be highly motivated to succeed in virtually anything they set out to do.

For a supervisor, the problem occurs when subordinates do not have a high level of motivation. They may be people in whom a high level of motivation was never instilled or they may be people whose level of motivation has fallen because of past experiences or because of unfavorable conditions on the job.

3.4　THE HIERARCHY OF NEEDS

There are individual differences in motivation. What motivates one person may not motivate another. However, there is a common hierarchy of motives (described by Abraham Maslow). This is a sequence of motivations which people go through, starting with the first motivation in the list and going on to other motivations one by one. This "hierarchy of needs" consists of:

1. Biological needs, survival needs (salary)
2. Security needs (pension)
3. Social needs (good coworkers)
4. Ego or self esteem needs (status, responsibility)
5. Self fulfillment needs (self direction)

There are two general principles behind Maslow's theory of motivation: (1) people are located at different levels in the hierarchy of needs and therefore respond to different kinds of needs; (2) people are never satisfied until they are on level 5 (Self-fulfillment).

If a person is on level 1 because survival needs have not yet been satisfied, no other kinds of incentives will motivate this person. In hazardous work the survival needs must include provision of safe work equipment. If people feel that their survival is threatened, no other kind of need fulfillment will motivate them.

If a person's level 1 needs are satisfied, level 2 needs emerge. In hazardous work these needs includes the need to feel confident about the immediate availability of backup and relief, medical assistance if needed, confidence in the work team, confidence in the skill and prudence of the leadership at a hazardous scene, etc. If these needs are not fulfilled, other efforts to motivate will be futile.

The level 3 needs focus not so much on the nature of the work as on the personalities of the workers. People want to work with other people who are compatible with them. They want to work with people

who share the same values and interests. This is the need which is challenged when a new kind of person (e.g., female, ethnic minority, young person with different values) comes into the work group. Hence, effective integration of new members into the work group becomes a condition for higher levels of motivation.

The level 4 needs are often fulfilled through job design strategies, such as job enrichment or job enlargement. They are also fulfilled through promotions, recognition ceremonies, and other things which enhance one's status. Level 4 needs are satisfied by an excellent reputation among other firefighters and by an excellent reputation for the fire department in the eyes of the public. These become effective motivational forces only if all the lower level needs have been satisfied.

Maslow reported that he had encountered very few people who were operating at the level of the self-fulfillment needs. This presupposes that a person already has everything related to all the lower level needs. The person on level 5 has no remaining unfulfilled needs except for personal satisfaction.

3.5 SITUATIONAL FACTORS IN MOTIVATION

Maslow's theory should not be taken too rigidly. Even a person who is typically operating at a much higher need level may revert to level 1 three times a day when hunger sensations revive in the stomach. Maslow's theory should be taken as meaning that person is generally operating on a particular need level.

However, the same person might have different levels of motivation or different kinds of motivation in different circumstances. In supervising firefighters it is very common to find one level of motivation when it comes to firefighting activities and another level of motivation when it comes to routine chores around the fire station.

3.6 MORALE

A distinction should be made between motivation and morale. Morale is spoken of in two different ways. Sometimes morale is used to refer to a person's enthusiasm for doing the work. Morale in this sense is the same as job motivation. However, very often morale is used to refer to an employee's attitude toward the organization or job conditions in general or toward the management of the organization. Morale in this sense may not be related to job performance. People can be very happy with a job but unproductive. Perhaps they enjoy the company of coworkers or the salary and fringe benefits but do not have much interest in doing good work.

On the other hand, especially in public service work, people may be dedicated to doing a good job even when they are unhappy about their work conditions or the management of their organization. The source of motivation may be satisfaction which comes from helping people in crises. In this case, motivation may be high although morale is low.

3.7 HYGIENIC FACTORS AND INTRINSIC MOTIVATORS

Some research on motivation has revealed that certain factors can lower motivation but cannot raise it beyond a minimal level. These are commonly called "hygienic factors," much as dental hygiene suggests that regular brushing can keep teeth from deteriorating but cannot bring back what is already decayed. The hygienic factors in motivation are generally the job conditions provided for people. They include the physical conditions of the work setting, the relationships between workers, the relationship of the worker to the supervisor, the quality of work equipment, etc. The contrasts to hygienic factors are "intrinsic" motivators. These are motivations based on the work itself or the personality of the worker. These motivations include a sense of pride and accomplishment, a feeling of responsibility, a conviction that the work itself is important, etc.

3.8   THE TEAM AS A MOTIVATING FORCE

When work is teamwork, the team is a motivator. The team confers an obligation on each member to do an equitable share of the work. While some allowance may be made for team members who are new and inexperienced, old and less physically capable of strenuous work or members who are temporarily below par due to conditions beyond their control, on the whole the team expects each member to do a fair share of the work.

The team also shares skills. Members learn from one another, even if there were to be little formal teaching among the members. Although one member of a team may sometimes stand out as uncommonly skilled and one member may sometime stand out as uncommonly unskilled, most team members move toward a common skill level. The common skill level of a team tends to be just below the skill level of the team's best member. Hence, supervisors look for individuals of unusual talent to bring into their work teams.

The common skill level and common motivation level of teams produces "esprit de corps", a sense of loyalty and accomplishment.

In hazardous work the prime motivator is loyalty to one's workmates. Dangerous work generates a mutual trust and concern which overrides all other considerations. Hence, a fire scene performance will be good because the other members of the unit depend on it, even if performance in the fire station on the same day is terrible because of some new policy which has upset everybody.

3.9   TEAM BUILDING

Motivation in firefighting is largely a matter of team building. Team building encounters special problems when the team has to readjust to new members, minorities or females, or members who are problems because they do not behave as the team expects. In all kinds of hazardous work, teams tend to a high degree of stability. Members do not change often. Members develop common attitudes, interests and opinions. New members must usually adapt to "the team mind" before they are made to feel fully welcome. People who do not adapt become problem members. The adaptations required of new members who come from a very different background or have a very different set of interests or attitudes are far greater than the adaptations required of new members from the same general background as old members. Teams fight to maintain "the team personality", hence the adaptation problems when new members are quite different in personality.

Team building is usually fostered by certain techniques:

1. Socializing on and off the job (e.g., the meal)
2. Shared, not individual responsibility
3. Sense of team accomplishment, team recognition
4. Use of experienced member as mentor for new member
5. Rotating assignments, fairness in assignments

A special problem in hazardous work is the problem of excessive motivation, especially among new members. In an effort to "prove themselves" the new members may take imprudent risks in the midst of dangerous operations. They often want the most risky assignments before they are ready for them. To cope with this problem the supervisor should create a fixed set of assignments which an individual must pass through for a certain period of time before the individual is given very risky assignments.

4. DISCIPLINE AND CONFLICT MANAGEMENT

4.1 THE ROLE OF THE SUPERVISOR

The supervisor is the primary person responsible for maintaining discipline in a unit. Most supervisors are uncomfortable in a disciplinary situation. However, the supervisor can learn certain techniques for carrying out a disciplinary role more effectively.

4.2 PRINCIPLES OF DISCIPLINE

Traditional principles of discipline are summarized in the "red hot stove rule" which states that:

1. There must be forewarning (glowing red stove)
2. Discipline must be immediate (stove burns at once)
3. Discipline must be the same for all (stove burns all)
4. Every infraction must be punished (stove burns every time it is touched)

In practice the "red hot stove rule" is seldom applied in its entirety. Discipline is often delayed. First infractions or occasional infractions are often not punished. However, it is common to insist on the first and third norms: there must be forewarning and discipline must be the same for all.

To be a valid basis for a disciplinary system, rules must be in writing and must be enforced regularly. Rules which are not enforced lose their validity. Discipline based on rules which have not been enforced regularly is commonly overturned on appeals.

A disciplinary decision which cannot be sustained if appealed is worse than no disciplinary action at all. Overturned disciplinary actions cost the supervisor's credibility. Hence, formal discipline should be a careful process.

CASE STUDY:

Firefighter Bilko has got Lt. Hall in a dilemma. Bilko has been on the job for over ten years. He is highly competent and does exemplary work at a fire scene. He was a firefighter in the same unit with Hall for five years before Hall was promoted. They live close to one another, and their families socialize together. On one occasion Bilko saved Hall's life by dragging him out of a building where Hall had been overcome by smoke. Bilko is quick to help out whenever anybody needs some help. He is often very humorous in his light conversation, although he never offends others. He makes fun of himself mostly. He has not missed a day's work for as long as anyone can remember. On his days off he likes to go fishing or hunting with some of the other firefighters, but he also moonlights (with department approval) as a plumber. Bilko also happens to be the unit's union representative. He is bright, talkative, and well liked.

However, Bilko is somewhat careless about his assignments in the fire station. He does his work, but he does it somewhat poorly. Lt. Hall has noted this on specific occasions and spoken to Bilko about it. Following those occasions Bilko has done his work somewhat better, but he quickly slips back to a poorer level of performance. One day last week Lt. Hall lost his temper with Bilko when Bilko was doing a fire station assignment rather poorly, and Lt. Hall used some vulgarities. Bilko retorted, "Why pick on me? I do as good a job as anybody else around here." However, Bilko did the work over again more carefully, as he usually does when Lt. Hall says something about it.

Once in a while Bilko is a little late in reporting for work. It is a matter of ten minutes or so about once a month. Lt. Hall knows Bilko's history on this point and does not officially note his occasional lateness. Bilko has always called in before the beginning of a shift when there

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was going to be a major delay or when he would be absent. But today Bilko came to work nearly an hour late, and Lt. Hall is on edge because he did not officially note Bilko's absence at the beginning of the shift. Bilko has apologized profusely and assured Lt. Hall that it will not happen again. What, if anything, should Lt. Hall do?

4.3   DISCIPLINARY SYSTEMS

When formal discipline is unlikely to succeed, it is common to use informal means of discipline, such as bad assignments. Courts have ruled that a pattern of such informal discipline, particularly disciplinary transfers, is illegal, since it is tantamount to punishment without a hearing.

Many agencies resort to another level of discipline, which allows the immediate superior to determine somewhat less severe disciplinary actions in certain less serious situations. For example, the local superior may determine a penalty for lateness. In this sort of "command discipline" situation, the subordinate generally has the right to appeal for a more formal disciplinary hearing.

Command discipline systems usually fall short due to the superior's reluctance to take disciplinary action against a subordinate. The system was originally intended to make superiors themselves liable for performance failures resulting from uncorrected behavior by subordinates. The superior who does not punish is responsible for the poor performance that continues.

Agencies which have experimented with having serious disciplinary matters handled by special disciplinary hearing officers who are not part of the agency itself have generally been very satisfied with the system. Subordinates often feel they get a fairer hearing from someone other than their own superiors. The outside hearing officers usually require more stringent "due process" and better documented cases than individual superiors or hearing boards set up within an agency.

4.4   BUILDING A DISCIPLINARY CASE

Formal disciplinary charges require a documented record of poor performance and efforts by the supervisor to correct the poor performance. Records must be kept with the details of poor performances, warnings and interviews by the supervisor, efforts to provide training or whatever else might be necessary to improve performance, and copies of written warnings stating that formal disciplinary action will be taken if performance does not improve. Witnesses to oral warnings and to the presentation of written warnings are often necessary to sustain a case before a hearing board and before an appeal board.

The supervisor must do more than document a case of poor performance. It is the supervisor's job to correct poor performance, not simply to document it. The supervisor must take concrete steps to improve a subordinate's performance which is below par. If the supervisor cannot demonstrate that efforts were made to improve the subordinate's performance, the supervisors attempt to take disciplinary action will be overturned at a formal hearing or appeal.

Before taking serious disciplinary action against a subordinate, the supervisor should make sure that the next higher superior will support the disciplinary action in this case. The supervisor should not pass the buck to the next higher superior, but should inform the next higher superior of the history of the problem and of the disciplinary actions which the supervisor is going to take. If the next higher superior will not give support for these actions, the supervisor should reconsider the actions. It is very risky for a supervisor to initiate a serious disciplinary action without first being assured of support from higher superiors. If a higher superior is trying to duck a really serious problem, turn it into the higher superior's problem by forwarding written documentation of the problem to the superior and asking in writing for the higher superior's recommendations.

Before going to formal charges on behavior of a persistent type, the supervisor should also consult with the union steward, if there is one, so that the union can see that the subordinate is being given

fair warning and so that the union itself can urge the subordinate to make the necessary improvements.

4.5   THE DISCIPLINARY INTERVIEW

In a disciplinary interview the subordinate has an advantage over the supervisor. It is the supervisor who must prove his/her case, not the subordinate. Hence, it is easy for the subordinate to seize control of the interview. The subordinate commonly counterattacks with charges of unfairness, bias or prejudice, inadequate direction from the supervisor, etc.

The main techniques for holding control over the disciplinary interview are:

1.   Do not give away all your information at once.
2.   Ask questions. Start with a broad question.
3.   Use follow-up questions to probe further. Get very precise details.
4.   Keep returning to a question until you get a satisfactory answer.
5.   Take notes conspicuously. In your notes quote the other person's exact words on key points.
6.   Quote back exact words to elicit further detail or reaffirmation.
7.   Do not allow yourself to be interrupted.
8.   Wait in silence for an answer even if it means a long pause. Repeat the exact question. If no answer, write down and say aloud as you write it, "Refuses to answer question."

   SITUATIONS FOR ROLE PLAYING: (1) Subordinate drinks or uses drugs. (2) Subordinate is missing from the assigned job spot. (3) No one else wants to work with this subordinate. (4) Subordinate is out sick very often (5) Subordinate is careless with equipment.

4.6   CONFLICTS WITH MANAGEMENT

The most common conflicts in public agencies tend to be between individual workers and "administration" or "higher ups." These conflicts revolve around personnel policies, work conditions, equipment, changes in work requirements or routines, and tensions during contract negotiations.

The first level supervisor is very limited in resources for handling conflicts with higher levels of management. Most often the first line supervisor plays the "straw boss" and asks subordinates to cooperate because no one can do anything about it. Management sometimes counts on the first level supervisor to play this role.

If strong conflict over policy or some other administrative matter occurs, the first level supervisor should report the problem to higher superiors. Often higher superiors do not realize how much conflict an announcement will generate.

4.7   CONFLICTS BETWEEN SUPERVISOR AND SUBORDINATE

When conflicts occur between supervisors and subordinates and the conflicts are work related, the supervisor should observe certain rules in dealing with the conflict:

1.   Deal with only one problem (or problem person) at a time. A supervisor can seldom win if fighting two battles at once. In dealing with a problem subordinate, it is better to deprive the subordinate of an ally by keeping on good terms with the rest of the unit.

2.   Deal with people in private, one by one. A problem between the supervisor and a particular subordinate should not be aired in front of others, and other people should not be dragged into it.

3.	A "cooling off period" is often desirable if the problem will not get worse due to the delay. However, even if the problem will be dealt with later, it is usually best to indicate awareness of the problem at once ("I'll talk to you about this later this afternoon.").

4.	Stress uniform standards and rules for all members of the unit.

## 4.8	CONFLICTS BETWEEN SUBORDINATES

Conflicts between subordinates themselves are of many kinds. Some are personality conflicts between two individuals. These are very personal conflicts which other members of the group do not join in. Other members of the group see these as irrational conflicts and take no sides.

However, many of the most common and serious conflicts between subordinates involve the entire group being in conflict with a single person. The isolated individual is sometimes a person who does not perform the job properly, resulting in more work and perhaps hazards for the rest of the group. Sometimes the isolated person is an alcoholic, although firefighters have traditionally been somewhat tolerant of alcoholics. Firefighters tend to be less tolerant of drug users, who can become a source of conflicts.

Many fire departments still suffer serious internal conflicts based on ethnic group identities and on gender. Especially if firefighters feel that the ethnic group members or the females have not met the same entrance standards as the older firefighters, there tend to be conflicts. These conflicts are less severe and are more easily overcome when the ethnic group members or females come from families which already have some members in firefighting.

Ethnic and gender conflicts will intensify if the "outsider" is not admitted to the usual activities of the group. If the new member is excluded from the common meal, for example, the conflict is not likely to subside. The problem is particularly severe if the group has customs which are incompatible with the presence of the new member. Groups do not like to change to accommodate a new individual. They expect the new individual to either change or leave. For example, if the group has traditionally engaged in a lot of ethnic or sexist humor, adjusting to a new member can require a great change in the customary behavior of the group.

Similarly, the new member must be given assignments like any other member of the group. If it is the custom to give special consideration to some members of the unit, such as senior members who may not be so capable of strenuous physical work, then there must be a demonstration of the same consideration toward new members. Age discrimination in assignments is on the same level as ethnic or gender discrimination so far as legal norms are concerned. Standards of fitness for duty and required skill must be the same for all persons, with the usual skill exceptions being made for new members who are expected to receive additional training on the job.

Group conflicts based on ethnicity, gender or age are rarely settled without a strong superior who compels active cooperation between the conflicting persons. The most striking historical examples of this have been the forced integration of the military and the forced integration of schools. It is not possible to change attitudes first. Attitude change follows changes in behavior, not the other way around. Only after people have sufficient contact with one another do group stereotypes based on ethnicity, gender or age yield to the individual differences of particular people.

When conflicts are between two subordinates, the supervisor should apply basic principles of "conflict management" to the situation. The basic steps are as follows:

1.	Size up the situation:
Any physical dangers?
Whose feelings are being hurt?
Who are the individuals involved?

2. Use suggestions to control the physical setting:
Move conflicting parties from a public place to reduce the need for "face saving".
Get away from bystanders.
Separate conflicting parties.
Make them sit down.

3. Speak with one at a time:
Start with the one who is most upset.
Tell the other to wait for his/her turn to speak.
Use the person's name.

4. Allow emotions to ventilate.

5. Get the facts; probe to get precise facts.

6. If future conflicts may occur, ask for suggested solutions within the confines of what is proper and allowable.

7. Get a commitment concerning future behavior:
Appeal to reason.
If reason fails, appeal to emotions, self pride, team loyalty, self respect.
If all else fails, use a warning.

8. Make promises only if you can keep them.

9. If no future conflicts are likely, pacify both parties.

Strong individual personality conflicts are often solved only by transfers. This is an inappropriate and ineffective way to deal with conflicts based on categories of people (e.g., women in the workplace), but may be appropriate for conflicts between particular individuals which are based on particular personality clashes.

4.9 CIVILIAN COMPLAINTS

On occasion the supervisor may have to deal with complaints from members of the public. These sorts of situations should be handled using the same general principles of conflict resolution. In dealing with a member of the public, the supervisor should give his/her name and get the name of the person making the complaint. The person's name should be used repeatedly when speaking with the person. If the complaint is especially serious and the person is very excited, it is often helpful to take notes while the person is speaking. This lets the person know that the complaint is being taken seriously. It also has the effect of slowing the person down if the person is very excited and making the person careful about how the complaint is being stated.

ROLE PLAYING SITUATIONS: (1) A person complains of excessive damage to a home when a kitchen fire was extinguished. (2) A person complains that a fire engine made a turn and came behind his car too fast and too close before he could get out of the way. (3) A young man complains that some firefighters made demeaning comments to his wife as she walked past the fire station.