Human resources planning is mission driven, meaning that once the mission and goals have been set for the organization, planning the appropriate human resources to meet or exceed the goals and mission are formulated. All hospitality organizations both large and small conduct human resources planning. It may be planning for the number of cooks and servers at a catered event or for the preopening of a new restaurant. Figure 3-1 illustrates how human resources planning helps meet the mission of the organization. In this chapter we present human resources planning and organizing, it will help you to:

- Explain how planning at different levels provides the framework for other functions of supervision.
- Be able to write a goal and suggest strategies to meet the goal.
- Outline the steps of the planning process.
- Describe the features of an effective plan.
- List and describe different types of plans and their uses.
- Discuss the special problems of planning for change and explain techniques for overcoming resistance to change.
- Describe how hospitality supervisors can best plan their time on the job.
- Define job analysis and describe the process for creating one.
- Write a job description using performance standards.
- Explain how effective organizing contributes to a department’s maximum success.
The Nature of Human Resources Planning

Human resources planning (HRP) is a part of the organization’s overall strategic (long-range) plan. This means looking ahead to chart the best courses of future action to ensure that an organization has the right number and kinds of employees in the right place at the right time capable of efficiently and effectively doing the work required to meet or exceed the predetermined goals. Human resources planning is one of the most important elements in a successful HR program. The reason it comes first is that it provides the framework for other functions and activities, such as organizing, communicating, sourcing, compensating, team building, motivating, training, performance management, decision making, controlling, and so on.

You have to have a plan in order to know where you are going and how to get there, how to organize, how to staff, how to communicate, how to motivate, what to direct and coordinate, how to control. Planning sets the goals, and formulates the strategy for the future course of action to meet the company mission. Figure 3-2 shows the areas of human resources planning.

For human resources professionals, planning includes strategic planning, workforce planning and employment, human resources development, compensation and benefits, employee and labor relations, and occupational health, safety, and security. Linked to planning is the development of policies.

Policies are broad guidelines for managerial and supervisory action. For example: We will pay the highest wages and have the best benefits plan; do whatever it takes to “wow” the guest; or whenever possible, we promote from within the company. These statements are examples of policy decisions that are made at a senior level and used by supervisors as a guide. For instance, if the policy is to pay the highest wages,
that does not mean we pay $25.50 per hour for a job that is worth between $10.50 and $14.50. If the going rate is within the range of $10.50 to $14.50, the manager may give advice as to the best rate for a new employee.

**LEVELS OF PLANNING**

The future begins with the next few minutes and extends indefinitely. How far ahead does a manager plan? That depends.

Top-level human resource management planners in a large organization should be making long-range strategic plans. They should be looking at a 3-, 5-, or 10-year horizon and deciding where the organization should be heading over that time span and how it will get there. For example, making plans for an expansion into China. Where will all the employees come from and how will they be trained? Such planning includes setting an organizational mission, goals, strategies to meet or exceed the goals, and policies. This level of planning is called strategic planning. It involves managers from all parts of the organization in the formulation and implementation of strategic goals and strategies. Strategic planning provides a common framework for the plans and decisions of all managers and supervisors throughout an organization.

Middle managers in an organization with long-range plans typically make annual plans and sometimes plan for longer periods. These plans carry forward the strategies, tactics, and programs of the strategic plans within a manager’s own function and area of responsibility.
As plans move down through channels to first-line supervisors at the operating level, management translates them into specific supervisory duties and responsibilities. Here the planning period is typically one month, one week, one day, or one shift, and the plans deal with getting the daily work done. Yet whatever that work is, getting it done carries out some portion of the long-range plans made by planners at the top.

In the hospitality industry, and especially in foodservice, long-range planning has not been a conspicuous part of management philosophy. The traditional entrepreneurial style was a seat-of-the-pants approach—reactive, intuitive, pragmatic, and sometimes even antiplanning as a matter of principle. There is still a great deal of this philosophy in the industry, but the managerial style is changing. When enterprises that once were managed single-handedly by a successful entrepreneur on a day-by-day basis grow to a certain size, the seat of the pants is no longer big enough. To survive, the firm must develop professional management with a commitment to long-range planning.

Most supervisors look at a short time span and do not think of themselves as being part of a larger plan. To the degree that they plan ahead, they see planning as the most efficient way to get their work done on the next shift. Many do very little planning and simply react to events as they happen. Often, it is impossible to plan very far ahead or to provide for everything that may happen. And even when we plan, things often do not turn out the way we thought they would.

A good plan deals with just this kind of uncertainty. Reasoning from the past and present to the future, it can establish probabilities, reduce risks, and chart a course of action that is likely to succeed. Let us see how this works.

THE PLANNING PROCESS

Planning is a special form of decision making: It makes decisions about future courses of action. Therefore, the steps in making a good plan resemble those in making a good decision:

1. Define the goal, purpose, or problem.
2. Collect and evaluate data relevant to forecasting the future.
3. Develop alternative courses of action.
4. Decide on the best course of action.
5. Carry out the plan.
6. Control and evaluate results.

Much of a supervisor’s planning is directed toward deciding, day by day, based on conditions that exist, the details of what is to be done. Since most of the work is a repetitive carrying out of standard duties in accordance with prescribed procedures, daily planning is often limited to adjusting the what, who, and how much to the probable number of guests.

Yet even for a limited problem such as this, planning is essential to efficiency. Careful planning will provide the best product and the best guest service at the lowest cost with the least waste and confusion. It will reduce the risk of emergency: running out of supplies, running late, not enough employees, poor communications, duplicate or overlapping assignments, poor guest service, and all the other hazards of attempting to manage the work as it is happening.
Defining the goal, purpose, or problem, setting objectives, and developing and carrying out the best course of action are done in much the same way as in decision making. The biggest difference between the two processes comes in the second step. In decision making, you focus on the present and gather mostly current facts. In planning, you gather data from the past and the predictable future as well as the present, and on the basis of these data, you forecast future conditions and needs.

GOALS AND GOAL SETTING

A goal is a desired outcome for individuals, groups, or entire organizations. Goals should be relevant to the vision and mission, specific, clear, challenging yet achievable, and made with employee input. Goals should also be written down along with strategies for how to reach the goals. Top management generally sets the vision and mission and top plus middle management and employees set the goals and strategies (how to meet the goals).

Goals are set in each of the key result areas of a business: human resources, marketing, finance, operations, and product and service quality. Human resources goals would include but not be limited to labor costs, staffing levels, guest service, training, employee compensation and benefits, employee turnover. Using employee turnover as an example, a goal would be to reduce employee turnover from 123 percent to 75 percent by December 31st.
Goal setting is an important step in the planning process because it establishes “where we are now and where we want to go and when we want to be there.” Goals give a clear target to aim for and goals are set for each of the key areas of operations. For example: guest satisfaction, employee satisfaction, food quality, service, profitability, and so on. Let’s say that the goal for guest satisfaction is set at 100 percent, meaning that every guest should be 100 percent satisfied with our restaurant. We can assess our current level of guest satisfaction by surveying a representative sample of recent guests. If the level of their satisfaction was 84 percent, then we know that we need to make plans to bring that number up to our goal of 100 percent. The survey will also indicate where the guest dissatisfaction is most strong—service, food quality, cleanliness, ambience, parking, and so on.

Strategies outlining the steps to take in order to achieve 100 percent guest satisfaction are developed by a group of employees and management and will focus on the most important points that guests were dissatisfied with. There can be several strategies to achieve a goal.

When employees and management work together to set goals and strategies it is far more likely that they will be achieved because employees have a “buy-in” if they have been involved in the setting of the goals. Goals must be specific, meaning that when stated the goals need to be easily understood. For example, a goal of increasing the guest satisfaction scores from 84 percent to 100 percent by December 31, 2009. The goal should also state who is responsible for achieving the goal, and by when the goal is to be achieved. If goals are challenging and if employees have been involved in setting the goals they are likely to be achieved. Additionally, feedback is necessary for those involved to see how well they are doing as they seek goal attainment. Finally, goal achievement should be rewarded.

Goals have four key ingredients:

- Goals should be specific and measurable. Goal statements should be written.
- Goals should have time limits. Time limits are needed as part of the goal—otherwise no one knows when they should be completed.
- Participation should be required for setting goals. It is better to have all those who will be responsible for meeting the goals involved in how they will be achieved.
- Feedback should be given on performance. We all need continuous feedback on how we are progressing towards meeting or exceeding our goals. Lucky are the athletes who after running around the track can look at the time and tell if they are on-target for a record. For some goals in the hospitality industry we can get immediate feedback but for others it may take time. (For example, producing an income statement may take a few days after the period has ended.) Daily sales, however, are just a click away. Reviewing progress is an important part of the process that should involve all concerned.

An important part of goal setting is benchmarking, a term regarding the search (among competitors and others) for the best method of doing something and implementing the method to improve performance and meet or exceed goals.

Goals can be motivating if they match a person’s passions; however, over-administered goals can drain energy rather than build it. This is an interesting statement because, if we think about it, the more our passion for something is matched by a company goal the more we want to accomplish it. Or, if we feel that a particular goal is
just another management “come on” we will not be motivated to achieve that goal even though we may “go through the motions.”

**SWOT ANALYSIS**

A good starting point for planning and establishing goals is a strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats (SWOT) analysis. A SWOT analysis forces management to look carefully and objectively at internal (strengths and weaknesses) and external (opportunities and threats) aspects of its operation to identify areas of opportunity and concern for action to defend or increase market share. As shown in Figure 3-3, a SWOT analysis begins with a systematic evaluation of the organization's resources and capabilities, with particular emphasis on environmental turbulence.6 A major goal of a SWOT analysis is to identify core competencies in the forms of special strengths that the organization has or does exceptionally well in comparison with competitors.7 Core competencies in a hospitality context are things like a new hotel with better facilities, superior employees offering exceptional guest service, more effective technology, a chef and kitchen staff with special knowledge and expertise, and superior distribution systems.

**FORECASTING**

Given a particular set of conditions, what has happened in the past and is happening in the present is likely to happen again in the future. To forecast, you find out what happened in the past and what is happening today. Then, if none of the conditions changes, you can predict what can reasonably be expected to happen in the future.

Forecasting business volume in the hospitality industry can be a tricky business and should be based on intelligent analysis. Forecasting is a very important function because it controls staffing, purchasing, and production decisions.

You may be involved in forecasting the number of covers for food for tomorrow night, the house count for next weekend in a hotel, the number of patients who will choose sliced roast beef tomorrow at lunch. For example, suppose that you want to plan the number of portions of each menu item to prepare for luncheon tomorrow, a Monday. You go to the sales records of the past 30 to 60 days to see how many of each item you

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**FIGURE 3-3:** SWOT analysis of strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats to a hospitality organization.
Forecasting
Predicting what will happen in the future on the basis of data from the past and present.

Forecasting is the first step in the planning process.

have sold on Mondays. If conditions tomorrow will be the same as on Mondays in the past, you are safe in assuming that sales will follow pretty much the same pattern.

But suppose that conditions will not be the same: Suppose that tomorrow is Washington’s Birthday. If you are in a business district, you can expect fewer total sales because offices will be closed. If you are in a shopping or recreation area, sales will probably increase. To gather relevant data you will have to go back to previous holidays to see what happened then. If your menu or your prices have since changed, you have to consider that, too. Other things may also affect the expected sales: the weather forecast, an ad you are running in the paper, special outside circumstances such as conventions and civic events, a new restaurant holding a grand opening across the street. All these things must be evaluated when you make your forecast.

Sometimes you have reliable data on the future. You may have a party scheduled with a definite number of reservations and a preplanned menu. You may have other reservations, too, giving you specific data on numbers but uncertain data on items. These are welcome additions to your projections from the past and your calculations about tomorrow’s conditions.

In the end your decision is the best estimate that you can make on the basis of available data. Often, this is simply a logical conclusion rather than the choice of alternatives specified in the standard planning procedures. The alternatives you have will be limited to various ways of handling the risks. Will you prepare more than “enough” and risk leftovers? Will you attempt to define an exact number with a run-out time and plan to substitute a quickly prepared item? Will you plan to prepare additional portions of the original items if demand is high early in the serving period?
THE RISK FACTOR

The future is always more-or-less uncertain. You reduce the degree of uncertainty, the risk, when you collect the relevant data and apply it to your forecast. If you have less than 1 percent of the relevant data, conditions are completely uncertain and the degree of risk is 99 percent. You may have anything from no guests to a full house—you simply don’t know. At the opposite extreme, if data and conditions are known, completely, there is complete certainty and no risk. The more relevant data you gather and apply to your forecast, the higher your percentage of certainty and the lower your risk.

In some foodservices the degree of certainty about tomorrow is high. In a nursing home, for example, the population is stable and the menu is prescribed or preordered. In a hospital the situation is similar, although occupancy is less predictable because patient turnover is higher. On a cruise ship, the number of guests is known, the guests’ choices are predictable from the past, and the menu mix is fixed based on historical data.

Airline catering is preplanned according to the number of seats reserved and is updated for each plane as boarding passes are issued. Which of two choices customers will select is a forecast based on historical data, and it is usually slightly off—the last passengers served get the baked chicken. But seldom does anyone go without a meal, and seldom are meals left over. Planning in this case often goes right up to the cabin door.

Hotel occupancy is also fairly predictable, since most people make reservations ahead. There are also a predictable number of walk-ins based on past experience. Planning for the front desk, maid service, bell service, room service, and bar operations, and most other functions is based on the anticipated house count or occupancy rate. Usually, a weekly forecast session is held in which all the managers meet and are told the forecast for the week: “We’re going to run at a 90-percent occupancy rate on Monday, we’ll be up to 98 percent on Tuesday, we’ll drop to 50 percent on Wednesday, then back up to 75 percent on Thursday, down to 27 percent on Friday,” and so on.

This is the starting point of everyone’s planning and scheduling for the week. Using the occupancy forecast, department managers can forecast their own needs. Restaurant counts are based on the occupancy forecast plus known group meal functions and historical data on walk-in customers. The housekeeping department can determine labor, laundry, and supply needs using the occupancy forecast. The front desk and the maintenance and security departments do the same. One forecast feeds all the others.

In planning repetitive work where most of the data are known or predictable and the risk factor is low, it is easy to decide on a final plan without generating and evaluating several alternatives. Usually, there is one obvious conclusion. But where many factors are unknown or questionable, it is wise to develop several alternatives and go through the entire decision-making process as time permits. You can also reduce the risk by having an alternative plan in reserve, known as a contingency plan. In deciding the number of portions to prepare on a holiday, for example, you make a contingency plan for running out of something. In scheduling, you plan to have extra people on call or have an alternative plan for dividing the work.

You can also reduce the risk factor for repetitive situations by keeping records that add to your data for
projecting the future. If, for example, you keep records of portions served in relation to portions prepared, they can tell you how successful your planning was and give you additional data for future forecasting. Over a period of time, if you have a steady clientele, you can develop standard numbers of portions for specific days of the week, which you then vary for special conditions.

Another way of reducing risk is to consult people who have more experience or expertise than you do—your boss, or perhaps certain of your workers, or depending on the problem, an outside expert.

QUALITIES OF A GOOD PLAN

The following are characteristics of a good plan. Not all of them apply in detail to every type of plan, but they all express general principles that apply to all plans and planning.

- A good plan provides a workable solution to the original problem and meets the stated objectives. (Will it solve the problem? Can you carry it out?)

This principle applies whether it is a small, specific plan for one person doing one five-minute task or a long-range plan involving an entire enterprise. A good plan concentrates on the problem and does not attempt to deal with side issues. It is sometimes difficult to maintain this sharp focus. When you are up to your neck in alligators, it is easy to forget that your objective is to drain the swamp.

- A good plan is comprehensive; it raises all relevant questions and answers them. (Have you thought of everything?)

- A good plan minimizes the degree of risk necessary to meet the objectives. (Are these the best odds? What can go wrong?)

- A good plan is specific as to time, place, supplies, tools, and people (numbers, duties, responsibilities) needed to carry it out. (Can somebody else follow your plan?)

- A good plan is flexible. It can be adapted if the situation changes, or it is backed-up by a contingency plan. (What will you do if . . . ?)

Flexibility is especially important in the unpredictable restaurant or hotel setting, where anything can happen and often does. You will remember from Chapter 1 that a flex style of management is more suitable to hospitality operations than rigid, carefully structured plans and planning, simply because circumstances are in constant flux and problems often change before they can be solved. This does not do away with the need for planning, however. It simply requires flexible plans and managers who are able to adjust them according to the needs of the situation and the needs of the people involved. A flexible plan needs a flexible manager to make the most of it.

Types of Plans and Planning

Hospitality leaders and supervisors are likely to be so busy doing today’s work that they seldom think of the future. But certain kinds of plans for the future can simplify daily management for all the days to come.
One way to simplify future planning and managing is to develop plans that can be used over and over whenever the same situation occurs. Known as standing plans, these are established routines, formulas, blueprints, or a set of procedures that is designed to be used in a recurring or repetitive situation. A daily report is a standing plan for reporting house count, income, meals served, rooms made up, and so on. A procedures manual is a standing plan for performing particular duties and tasks. A menu is a standing plan for the food to be prepared for a given meal. A recipe is a standing plan for preparing a dish. Standing plans help ensure that everyone knows what to do in given situations.

Any standing plan will greatly simplify a supervisor’s task of planning and organizing the work. It does away with the need for a fresh plan each time the repeating situation comes up. All that remains to be planned in each instance is to provide for special circumstances. When such plans are put to use, they standardize the action so that everyone does things in the same way. If the situation recurs every day and people are trained in the procedures, the supervisor’s need to manage is reduced to seeing that the workers meet the standards set and to dealing with the unexpected event that the plan does not cover. This is known as management by exception.

Most workers are happier with standing plans than they are being dependent on the supervisor to tell them what to do. Knowing what to do gives them confidence and makes them more independent. Gaps in communication are minimized. Work can go forward even if the supervisor is tied up dealing with a problem somewhere else.

Large companies usually have standing plans for all kinds of repeating situations, especially if these situations recur throughout the operation. But often, small operations and individual departments of larger operations do not have predefined ways to meet recurring needs for planned action. Then you have crisis planning and firefighting.
and improvised solutions that may be different from day to day. You can avoid this by developing standing plans of your own. Such daily planning as scheduling, figuring out production details, ordering supplies, assigning rooms, or planning special events can be reduced to a form to be filled out. You can set up a whole series of standing plans for each job that you supervise by developing a performance standard system.

You can also develop standing plans for training new personnel and for recruiting and hiring and evaluating performance. Although you do not use such plans daily, they are well worth the time and effort because they are ready when you need them. They take advantage of past experience, and they give you comprehensive solutions and consistent results.

Every hospitality operation must have standing plans and policies for dealing with matters affecting health and safety, such as sanitation, fires, and accidents. The law requires such plans. Usually, they consist of two parts: preventive routines and standard emergency procedures. It is a supervisor’s responsibility to see that the department has plans that conform to company plans and to develop departmental plans if they do not exist. Part of all emergency planning is to train employees in all techniques and procedures and to hold periodic tests and drills to see that equipment is in order and people know what to do. Company rules, procedures, and policies are another form of standing plan (see Figure 3-4 and Figure 3-5). In this case the supervisor carries out plans rather than makes them.

You can also develop standing plans for special occasions such as customer birthdays, anniversaries, weddings, and Mother’s Day. In fact, any repetitive situation is worth examining to see if a standing plan will reduce planning time and increase efficiency of the operation. Developing a standing plan often takes a great deal of time and thought. You have seen in earlier chapters the amount of work that goes into developing a performance standard system or a training plan. But in the long run the time spent on planning is time saved for other managerial activities.

Standing plans have certain potential drawbacks. One is rigidity: If plans are slavishly followed without adapting and updating them, they may result in a stagnant operation lacking in vitality. People come to resist change: “We’ve always done it this way” is a common expression of a common attitude. A standing plan should be flexible enough to adapt to daily realities, and supervisors should have the imagination and daily initiative to do the adapting.

Another drawback of such plans is that changes often evolve in practice but written plans are not kept up to date. Then a new worker or supervisor following a written plan will not be using current procedures and will be out of step with everybody else. This often happens when a new cook comes in and follows an old standardized recipe from the file.

It is a good idea to review and update standing plans on a regular basis. This kind of review offers an opportunity for the supervisor to involve workers in generating alternatives or modifications to current plans. The people who do the work often see it more clearly than the supervisor does and are likely to have ideas about ways to do it better. Also, if workers are involved in making changes, they are more willing to adapt to change in general and more committed to making new plans work. It is good motivation all around.
FIGURE 3-4: Standing plan for a dining room order for a specific event.
A single-use plan is a one-time plan developed for a single occasion or purpose. The nature and importance of the occasion or purpose will determine how much time you should spend on it. As in decision making, you have to keep your planning efforts in proportion to the consequences of carrying out the plan. If the occasion is an affair of no permanent significance and little risk, a plan can be made quickly, and if something goes wrong, there is little at stake. But some single-use plans may have effects that last for years or forever, or could produce consequences that are immediate and disastrous. In such cases, every step of the planning process must be given the full treatment.

Often, the purpose of a single-use plan is a major change of some sort. For such changes the planning must be very thorough: The risks must be carefully assessed and the effects of each alternative weighed carefully. Such a plan might involve a change in the way the work is done, such as introducing tableside service in your restaurant, installing new kitchen equipment, putting in an automatic liquor-dispensing system at the bar, or using computerized recipes in a hospital kitchen. You might plan a job enrichment program or a performance standard system. You might have to plan how to carry out a companywide plan in your department—for example, computerizing all the transactions of the enterprise.

Sometimes a supervisor is required to make a departmental budget—another kind of single-use plan. A budget (Figure 3-6) is an operational plan for the income and
expenditure of money by the department for a given period: a year, six months, or a single accounting period. Upper-level management usually sets the goal or limitation, as the department’s portion of the organizational budget, but sometimes the supervisor is included in the goal setting.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Your Restaurant Budget 2007</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sales</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food sales</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beverage sales</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other sales</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total sales</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cost of Sales</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Food</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beverage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other sales</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total cost of sales</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Gross Profit | 712,000 | 71.15 |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Controllable Expenses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Salaries and wages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direct operating expenses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music and entertainment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energy and utility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrative and general</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repairs and maintenance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total controllable expenses</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Rent and other occupation costs | 50,000 | 5 |
Income before interest, depreciation, and taxes | 202,000 | 20.1 |
Interest | 15,000 | 1.5 |
Depreciation | 20,000 | 2 |
Total | 35,000 | 3.5 |
Net Income before taxes | 167,000 | 16.6 |

**FIGURE 3-6**: A sample budget.

NOTE: All percentages are of total sales unless otherwise indicated.
Preparing the budget requires forecasting costs of labor, food products, supplies, and so on. This, like other forecasting, is done on the basis of historical data plus current facts, such as current payroll and current prices of supplies and materials, plus estimated changes in conditions during the budget period—primarily, changes in needs and in costs. The completed budget is then used as a standard for measuring the financial performance of the department. Needless to say, this is one plan that you will make with great care.

**DAY-BY-DAY PLANNING**

Planning the day’s work has top priority for the first-line supervisor. As noted earlier, this planning is concerned primarily with the details of what is to be done and who is to do it and adjusting various standing plans to the needs of the day. Getting the day’s work done also requires getting the necessary supplies, materials, and information to the people who need them in their work. Some of this must be planned daily, some must be planned a day or more in advance, and some is planned by the week. Purchasing may be planned daily, weekly, or monthly, depending on the department, type of enterprise, or location of suppliers. Scheduling may be planned by the week and updated daily as necessary. But things change daily, hourly, minute by minute in this industry, and whatever planning has been done in advance must be reviewed each day to see that everything needed is on hand—enough people to do the work, enough food, linens, liquor, cleaning supplies—whatever your responsibility is.

Plan before the day begins. Make it a regular routine. Many supervisors come in early or stay a few minutes late the day before to have some peace and quiet for this task.

Established routines simplify planning but do not take its place entirely. Ask yourself what is different about today. Stay alert and aware: Nothing is ever the same in this business.

Wherever possible, reduce risks by increasing predictability (more facts) and flexibility (more options). The more ways a plan can go into action, the more emergency situations you can meet because you prepared for them by planning effectively.

**SCHEDULES**

Hospitality supervisors regularly spend time scheduling the work to be done, the order it is to be done and who will do each task. These functions are performed in conjunction with the normal schedule of shifts to be covered by associates in a week. There are two scheduling techniques used by practitioners to help accomplish the goals: The *Gantt chart* is a bar graph diagram showing the activity and the timing of each activity. The chart shows both the actual progress and the goal over a period of time. By charting the progress supervisors can easily monitor progress toward the goal and see if it is on time or behind schedule. Figure 3-7 shows a simple Gantt chart for planning a new menu. The time is expressed in weeks across the top of the chart and the
activities are listed down the left side. The planning takes place in deciding what needs to be done and when it needs to be done by. The shaded box represents what has been accomplished and a clear box represents a goal. In all, the project takes six weeks and progress can be monitored each step or week.

Another scheduling technique is called the Program Evaluation and Review Technique (PERT), which is a diagram of a sequence of activities to complete a project. It shows the time for each activity and plans for activities that can be done ahead of time or simultaneously. In using a PERT chart a supervisor has to think of each activity required and how long they will each take. A supervisor can also foresee any likely bottlenecks or other reason for slowdowns and plan to avoid them. The PERT chart in Figure 3-8 indicates the time for planning a wedding function. It begins with setting
Chapter 3 Human Resources Planning, Job Analysis, Job Description, and Organizing

up the room and allows two hours for that, and then it has another two hours to lay the tables, followed by one hour to decorate them. If we follow the chart all the way to the end and calculate the total time to complete the function it comes to nine hours. This is the least amount of time required for all the activities to occur and is called the critical path.

Notice how some activities are done ahead of time to be ready when needed and the critical path begins with start and seeks to reduce the overall time to complete the project.

Management by Objectives = planning goal setting

Managers use a planning technique called Management by Objectives (MBO). With MBO employees jointly set goals for their departments and then plan strategies as to how to meet or exceed the goals. Progress toward the goals is monitored and rewards are given for outstanding performance. MBO is a good motivational tool because associates are trying to meet or exceed the goals which they have been a part of setting.

There are five key ingredients in an MBO program: goal specificity, participation, time limits, who will do what, and performance feedback. Let’s examine each of these ingredients:

- **Goal specificity:** Goals should be specific and measurable. Not just a desire to improve sales, but to increase sales from $4,000 per month to $5,000 per month.
- **Participation:** With MBO the goals are not set solely by top management—rather, supervisors and managers and their associates jointly set the goals so the participation makes for a synergy of effort that motivates all to achieve the goals.
- *Time limits:* Each goal has a precise time limit when it is to be accomplished by and checkpoints so that the performance can be monitored.
- *Who will do what:* Once the goals have been set it is important to determine who will do what to ensure that the goals are met or exceeded.
- *Performance feedback:* MBO needs feedback on a continuous basis so performance can be monitored. Self-evaluation is the best—just like an athlete can look at the clock to check their time for a race, so too can hospitality associates monitor their feedback.

MBO works well in a variety of organizations and helps with other supervisory and managerial techniques like Total Quality Management (TQM) and motivation because it is participative in nature. Associates know what has to be done and can participate not only in the process but also in the rewards.

**Planning for Change**

Every organization goes through big and little changes all the time, to adapt to new circumstances, to enhance competitive position, to be more cost-effective, to improve product and service. If you stand still, you will soon be obsolete. Such changes are usually initiated at the top of the organization, but supervisors may be required to plan how to introduce these changes in their own departments. Sometimes, supervisors also initiate changes independent of what is going on in the rest of the company. Whether they can do this depends on the extent of their authority and responsibility.

As suggested briefly a few pages back, planning a change that affects the work must be done carefully and thoroughly. Although it is a single-use plan, it requires much time and thought because of the risks and consequences that a change involves. There are two sides to such planning. One is to plan the change itself, the other is to plan how to deal with the effects of the change on the workers. If you introduce a change without taking the workers into account, you may have real problems. The best way to plan for change is to involve those who will be affected by the change in the planning process. This will likely increase their commitment and involvement in ensuring the change is successful.

**HOW ASSOCIATES RESPOND TO CHANGE**

Most associates resist change. Because any change upsets the environment, routines, habits, and relationships, it creates anxiety and insecurity in those affected. Even people who do not particularly like their jobs derive security from what is familiar. They know what to expect, life on the job is stable and predictable, and they have the comfort of belonging. Change upsets all this, exchanging the known for the unknown, the familiar for the new, the predictable for the uncertain. People worry and feel threatened. They will have to adjust to new circumstances, learn new ways of doing things,
work with different people, and readjust relationships. They don't know what to expect: Will they have to work harder? Will they be able to learn the new tasks? Can they get along with the new people? Will they lose their jobs?

People also resist change if it means a loss for them: less status, less desirable hours, separation from a friendly coworker, fewer tips, more work. This builds resentment, which is probably more difficult to deal with than insecurity and anxiety. If even a whisper of change is detected by a worker, rumors begin to fly, and fears are magnified and spread rapidly through the employee grapevine. You cannot avoid dealing with them. It is best to do it sooner rather than later and to have a plan that will reduce resistance rather than to meet it head-on in battle or to steamroller the change through simply because you are the boss.

**HOW TO DEAL WITH RESISTANCE**

The first essential for dealing with *resistance to change* is a climate of open communication and trust. You can reduce fears and stop rumors with facts: what the change will be, who will be affected and how, when it will take place, and why. Solid information will dispel much of the uncertainty, and it is always easier to adjust to something definite than to live with uncertainty and suspense, fearing the worst.

But the facts will not eliminate fear and uncertainty entirely. Employees must feel free to express their feelings, to ask questions knowing that they will get straight answers, to voice complaints. Venting one's feelings is the first step in adjusting to a new situation. Sometimes the change is advantageous to workers, and this should of course be emphasized. However, it is a mistake to oversell. If you try to persuade, or give advice, or become defensive about the change, or disapprove of people's reactions, or cut off complaints, or punish the complainers, you are shifting your ground from being helpful to being an adversary. Your people should feel that you want to make the change as easy for them as possible, that you understand their feelings, and want to help them adjust. You can reassure them that their jobs are not at stake (unless they are), that they will have any additional training they need, that they are still needed and valued, and that you are all in the new situation together. You should avoid promising anything that might not happen: That would diminish their trust in you.

Besides reducing fears with facts, open discussion, understanding, and support, you have another very good way to approach resistance: You can involve your associates in planning and carrying out the change. Some of them will certainly have ideas and useful information, even though some of it may be negative. At the very least they can give you another point of view that may help you in considering risks and consequences. Differing points of view are often more useful than agreement when you are trying to reach a sound decision.

Actually, most people will respond positively to being included in planning changes that concern them. It gives them a sense of having some say in their own destiny. They can be very useful in providing information for forecasting, in generating alternative solutions, and in evaluating risks and consequences. If you can gain their commitment through participative planning, resistance is likely to melt away. Participation in planning also makes it far easier to carry out the plan, since people already know all about it and have a stake in making it succeed.
EXAMPLE OF PLANNING FOR CHANGE

Let us run through an example of planning for change to see how it resembles ordinary problem solving and how it differs, and how it affects the workers, and how you deal with that. Suppose that you are the owner of a 100-seat family-style restaurant. You have been in business six years and are well known for serving good food at affordable prices. But over the past year your sales have been dropping off slowly but steadily. You have missed some old familiar faces and new people are not coming in to take their place. You have to do something to bring in new people—but what?

After some thought and study you decide to freshen up your decor, change two-thirds of your menu items, and use some special promotions to reach patrons moving into the new apartments and condominiums nearby. The first part of your planning concerns the new menu items. They are central to your overall plan and its success.

1. Define your problem and set your objectives. Defining your problem is easy. Sales are dropping. Next, you try to formulate your objectives. You write down:
   Introduce eight new entrées on the dinner menu, retaining the four most popular items (prime rib, chicken Maryland, sole meunière, sirloin burger), with the goal of attracting new customers and retaining old ones. You start a worksheet on which you list all the factors involved in planning new menu items (Figure 3–9). After you have raised all the questions and answered several of them (columns 3 and 4), you write the following more detailed objectives:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors to Consider</th>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Must Do</th>
<th>Objectives and Limitations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Market, customer appeal</td>
<td>Type of food?</td>
<td>Define market.</td>
<td>Final choices must meet guest tastes in all categories.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Price?</td>
<td>Survey guests, competition, neighborhood potential.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quality?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Taste?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Appearance?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Variety?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preparation</td>
<td>Prep time?</td>
<td>Test recipes for taste, yield, proportions.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Skills required?</td>
<td>Standardize recipes.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Holding problems?</td>
<td>Check suppliers.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Prep space?</td>
<td>Train cooks.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ingredient availability?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ingredient storage?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Compatible with other menu items (equipment, timing)?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Extra personnel?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Training time?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**FIGURE 3-9:** Manager’s worksheet for planning new menu items.
### FIGURE 3-9: (continued)

#### a. Select eight new dinner entrées that meet the following criteria:
- Must appeal to present and prospective clientele in type of food, price, quality, taste, appearance, and variety and be compatible with each other and with items retained from the present menu.
- Must be preparable with present staff, equipment, and kitchen space, with minor adjustments. New equipment may be considered if it becomes an obvious need.
- Must require only minor variations in present serving procedures, or none.
- Cost of each entrée must be compatible with cost/price guidelines; price must fall in present price range.
b. Test all entrées considered. For final choices, standardize recipe and design plate layout.

c. Complete selection in six weeks.

d. Train all kitchen personnel in preparation and all dining room personnel in service and in explaining new entrées to customers.

e. Coordinate introduction of new menu with decorating and promotional efforts.

f. Include workers in planning as follows:
   - Dining room supervisor and assistant manager in market research
   - Head cook in developing new menu items, other kitchen staff on voluntary basis
   - Servers to help in market research, search for new menu items, and evaluations on voluntary basis
   - Rewards for participation to be given

2. Gather data from the past, present, and probable future in order to forecast what alternatives are most likely to succeed and to reduce the risks. Here is where your market research comes in. Only after you have a good picture of your clientele and their needs and desires and a good idea of what other restaurants are doing to attract that clientele can you decide what kinds of entrées will please your customer group and how much they are willing to pay for them. Then you can begin your search for potential menu choices.
You will bring your workers into the picture as you begin your market research. You will begin with your supervisors: the assistant manager, the dining room manager, and the head cook. You will delegate responsibility to them for some of the market research, some of the search for menu items, and probably some of the training. You will also instruct them in handling worker resistance through information, listening, reassuring, and encouraging workers to contribute ideas.

Next you will tell everyone else about the overall project. You will present it with enthusiasm as a way of increasing business that will benefit everyone. You will explain the procedures and invite questions and ideas. You will invite them to take part in market research by talking to customers, to contribute menu ideas, and to taste-test and help evaluate items being considered. You will make clear how valuable they will be to developing a good menu. You will assure them that they will have the training and tryout time they need and that their questions will be welcomed at all times. You will watch for continuing resistance and have the supervisors deal with it on a one-to-one basis.

3. Generate alternatives, evaluate the pros and cons of each, and assess their risks and benefits. This step will be put in motion by having the cook prepare various new items for testing and asking everyone to contribute comments. You will continue to involve the workers by having them take part in the evaluation. Sampling the products will give them the experience of tasting and gain their cooperation in recommending items to customers. You might try out the most likely menu items one at a time as specials with your present menu and have your servers report on customer reactions. This would test the market and reduce the risk, and it would give both the kitchen and the servers a chance to experience the changes a little at a time.

You hope that by this time everyone will be involved and that a team spirit will develop. But you know that some workers will do better than others, that insecurities and jealousies may develop, and that ongoing routines may tend to be slighted. You hope to sustain enthusiasm for the new project while maintaining present product and service standards. You will do this through your own active leadership and through working closely with your supervisors. You will also introduce some sort of reward system.

You may have to hire extra help for testing and costing recipes. You will make this decision later after you see how the kitchen staff responds to the project. This is a contingency plan.

4. Make the necessary decisions, after weighing each alternative in terms of the five critical decision-making questions: risk versus benefit, economy, feasibility, acceptability, and meeting the objectives. You will ask for input on making these final evaluations from your supervisors. You want to make sure you have considered not only the desirability of each item but the possible consequences of using it, such as difficulties in production, extra work, service tie-ups, and so on. In the end you will make all the final decisions yourself. You will make this clear to your workers at the beginning of their involvement.
Having planned your decision making, you now make out a detailed but flexible schedule and turn to planning your new decor and your promotion. You will call on outside consultants for help.

5. Implement the plan. If the plan has been made with care and in detail, this should go smoothly. The plan should meet all the criteria for a good plan cited earlier in the chapter.

Carrying out your menu plan will include training both servers and kitchen personnel. You will finalize your training plans—the who, what, when, where, and how of carrying out the plan—after you have decided on the final menu items. By that time you will know how much training is needed, how your supervisors have responded to their extra responsibilities, and how closely the workers are involved. You must also coordinate the changeover from one menu to another with the new purchasing requirements, the new menu card, and promotional plans. At this point you are satisfied that the plan for selecting and introducing the new menu items provides a flexible, workable program and that when the time comes you can make everything fall into place.

You can see that in broad outline, planning for change is very similar to making other kinds of plans. The main differences are in the extent of the forecasting, the degree of risk, and providing for the impact of the change on the people it affects. Perhaps this example will give you some understanding of how necessary the groundwork is: the forecasting, the market study, the testing, the careful defining of criteria, the detailed planning, and the need to consider the consequences of decisions before taking action.

Change involves risks that cannot be avoided, but doing nothing is sometimes riskier than anything else is. Careful planning can minimize the risks of change.

### Planning Your Own Time

The most relentless reality about working as a leader in the hospitality industry is the lack of time. There is never enough private time for planning and reflective thinking. There are never enough long blocks of time in which to plan your time. Furthermore, how can you plan your time when most of your managing consists of reacting to things as they happen? How can you plan for that? Planning your time is not going to give you any more of it; there are just so many hours in your working day. What it will do is enable you to make more effective use of those hours you work.

Your job requires that you spend the time in your day in several different ways:

- Planning, organizing, and communicating the day’s work
- Responding to the immediate needs, demands, and inquiries of others (customers, workers, bosses, salespersons, suppliers, health inspectors, and so on)
- Managing your people: hiring, training, directing, coaching, evaluating, disciplining
- Dealing with crises, solving problems
- Making reports, keeping records, enforcing rules (maintenance activities)
- Doing some of the work yourself if you are a working supervisor
Chapter 3  Human Resources Planning, Job Analysis, Job Description, and Organizing

As a human resources director, planning begins at the executive committee level where I represent the strategic interests of the company from a human resources perspective. At my insistence, we gathered input from our associates at all levels to help create the vision and mission—this helped with their “buy-in” and led to the next step, formulating goals to achieve the mission.

I help facilitate goals, not only for my own department, but I also work with our leaders to finalize goals for their departments. For example, in one of the “key result areas” the goal is to reduce employee turnover (both voluntary and involuntary) from 78 percent to 50 percent by the start of the next fiscal year, in 325 days. Obviously, I need to work with department leaders to achieve or exceed that goal. We work together to come up with an action plan of each step and the expected results of the step—meaning, if we spend X number of dollars on training in employee relations, what outcome do we expect and how do we monitor it? We begin with asking each department leader to review the employee turnover in their departments and make a plan to reduce it to the goal. We focus on the area with the highest turnover and discuss ways of reducing it as a team.

Other areas of human resources planning are the labor cost budget, training budget, and benefit budget, all of which must be in line with projected sales and adjusted if necessary. The budget goes back and forth between the company executive committee and all the unit leaders and their departments for various adjustments before final approval. Another element of human resources planning is benefits. The costs of benefits are constantly increasing so we need to plan what we can afford to offer then “shop” by inviting quotations from vendors. We have found that by offering benefits we have really helped improve our employee retention. We have also created standing plans for our leaders as a “what-to-do” in certain circumstances. For example, in dealing with tardiness, we have developed a step-by-step plan for leaders to follow; the same applies to progressive discipline.

Come to think about it, we are always planning, sometimes short-range planning, sometimes long-range or strategic planning. But, without planning, I shudder to think where we would be.

PROFILE  Daryl Waddy

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There are certain parts of the day when the job controls your time, when customer needs and demands are high: check-in and checkout times at the front desk, early mornings in housekeeping, food preparation for mealtimes in the kitchen, serving periods in the restaurant, and so on, depending on the function you supervise. At these times you must be at the disposal of anyone and everyone who needs you to answer questions, settle disputes, deal with crises, make decisions, and observe your people in action. It is important for you to be visible at such times, especially if your people serve customers directly. It is important to greet guests and to let them see that you take a personal interest in them and the way they are being treated. And it is important to your people to have you out there with them: They feel your support and they see your example. It is management visibility.

These are segments of your time that you cannot plan for other than to set them aside and let nothing else intervene. Certain other responsibilities may also be pegged to fixed points in the day: the housekeeper’s report, end-of-shift sales figures, cash deposits, and so on. The rest of the time is yours to fill with all the other duties you are required to do.
What do you do? If you analyze the ways in which you spend your time now, you can probably find ways to spend it better. The first step is to keep a running log for at least one typical day, several days if possible. Put down everything, including interruptions, with a beginning and an end time for each activity. Figure 3-10 is a suggested format. To save making extensive notes, you can devise symbols such as those on the

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Begin</th>
<th>End</th>
<th>Total (min.)</th>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>With Whom</th>
<th>Importance (Rate 1–5)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7:45</td>
<td>7:52</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Plan for day</td>
<td>Self</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7:52</td>
<td>7:52½</td>
<td>½</td>
<td>Q-school change</td>
<td>Sam</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7:52½</td>
<td>7:59</td>
<td>½</td>
<td>Plan</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7:59</td>
<td>7:59½</td>
<td>½</td>
<td>Talk</td>
<td>Alice</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7:59½</td>
<td>7:56</td>
<td>3½</td>
<td>Talk-replace Alice</td>
<td>4 people</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7:56</td>
<td>8:00</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Plan</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8:00</td>
<td>8:10</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>Hourly rounds</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**FIGURE 3-10:** Format for keeping track of how you spend your time.
chart. But make your notes complete enough to make sense to you later when you analyze them. (If you can, get someone to help you with this activity; otherwise, making the notes may interfere with doing your job.)

The next step is to see what the record shows. Total the time you spent in each activity, and divide by the number of days to figure your daily average for each. Then ask yourself several questions:

- Is the amount of time spent per day appropriate to the activity? How can you reduce the time: Do it faster? Less often? Organize it better? Delegate it?
- How does the time spent on unimportant activities compare with time spent on highly important activities? Can you distinguish important from unimportant? How can you improve the ratio?
- Are you doing things that are not really necessary? Why are you doing unproductive work?
- Are you doing things that you could delegate to someone else?
- Can you group activities better as to time and place (for example, make all your phone calls for purchases at one time during the day)?
- Was time wasted that could have been avoided by better planning? Standing plans? Better training? Better communications? Less supervision, more trust? Better records and better housekeeping? Saying no to unnecessary requests? Better decision making? An ounce of prevention?
- Does the log reveal that you do not spend any time at all on certain important but time-consuming activities you should be doing, such as making a list of sales prospects, developing holiday promotions, revising recipes, developing a procedures manual? Was it because you did not want to get started on a long project? When will you get started?

No doubt your log will raise other questions, and no doubt you will be able to work out some good answers to all the questions.

First, get rid of activities that waste time or are not worth the time they take. Major wastes of time for supervisors include the following.

- Too much socializing
- Accepting drop-in visitors
- Allowing interruptions and distractions
- Inability to say “no”
- Poor organization of papers
- Procrastination and indecision
- Reading junk mail

Stephen Covey, author of *The Seven Habits of Highly Effective People,* writes about how crucial it is to spend your time on important matters and to control the amount of time spent on urgent matters, such as when the cook announces that the kitchen is running out of a popular entrée. Just because a matter is urgent doesn’t mean that it is automatically important, although you will certainly have to deal with the cook’s problem in a timely but not time-consuming manner.

1. To keep socializing to a minimum, ask friends and family to call at work only if there is an emergency. Also make sure that you don’t spend too much time
socializing with your peers and employees. To cut down on outside visitors dropping in, make it a policy that visitors must have an appointment. When you find that certain employees are forever running to you with every problem and question, help them to find their own answers, and if this doesn't help, ask them to save up several questions to go over at one time.

2. To organize your papers well, consider setting up your desk with these boxes or trays: in, out, action, pending, read, and file. All incoming papers go in the “in” box, and similarly, all outgoing papers such as memos you've written go in the “out” box. The “action” box contains papers and projects you are currently working on. The “pending” box has papers that need to be taken care of in the future. Some supervisors set up 31 file folders numbered from 1 to 31 to represent the days of the month. Pending papers are then put into the proper date. This type of file system should be checked daily. The “read” box contains magazines and other material that can be read at your leisure. The “file” box contains papers that can simply be filed away. Each of these boxes is important, but the most important file in your office sits under your desk: the wastebasket. Don't think you have to hold on to everything!

3. Now that you have eliminated some of the time-wasters, set priorities. List all the things you want to get done today and divide them into musts and shoulds or number them one and two. Do the must things (the ones) first. It is said that 80 percent of your results can come from 20 percent of your efforts. Use an electronic calendar (Figure 3-11) to plan and schedule the must items into the top 20 percent of your time. A weekly planning sheet is a useful supplement to your daily calendar. At the end of the day, transfer what you didn't get done to tomorrow's list, add today's accumulation of new musts and shoulds, reassess your priorities, and discard anything that no longer seems important. You will soon become adept at sorting out the time-wasters.

4. Set aside regular periods of time without interruption for interviews, problem solving, training, important decisions, and long-range projects. Every manager needs a quiet time each day for creativity and problem solving. Begin those time-consuming projects; divide them into manageable segments and get started on them. Getting them under way, and getting one or two of them accomplished, will renew your energy and confidence. Sometimes a small success is a big boost for self-motivation.

5. Initiate long-range solutions to your time problems—standing plans, better training, more delegation, reduced turnover, better communications—things that will eliminate the need for you to be in the thick of everything all the time (although still remaining visible). You will have fewer crises, fewer fires, because everyone will know what to do and how to do it. You will have more people taking more responsibility. You will have time to develop your people, to motivate, to build trust, to exercise true leadership.

There will be many days when your plans are wiped out by unexpected events. When this happens, reschedule priority items for another day and go home and get a good night’s sleep. Hanging on to feelings of frustration will eat you up. But don't give
up planning just because your plans don’t work out some of the time. Adjusting your plans continuously is part of the planning process in your kind of job. And you can’t adjust your plans if you haven’t made any.

**Job Descriptions**

When we start to discuss job descriptions there are many related terms that come up, such as position, job analysis, job specification, and job evaluation. Before beginning this chapter, let’s define some of these terms.

---

**FIGURE 3-11: Planning your day with an electronic calendar.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Thursday XX/XX/XX</th>
<th>Day</th>
<th>Week</th>
<th>Month</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8 am</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 am 9.30</td>
<td>Meeting with Sysco management</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 am 10.30</td>
<td>Interviewing servers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 am 11.30</td>
<td>AM staff pre-shift meeting</td>
<td>Monitor lunch</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 pm 12.30</td>
<td>Monitor lunch</td>
<td>Monitor lunch</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 pm 1.30</td>
<td>Monitor lunch</td>
<td>Lunch</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 pm 2.30</td>
<td>Wedding planning with the Smith’s</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 pm 3.30</td>
<td>Budget meeting</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 pm 4.30</td>
<td>Order supplies</td>
<td>PM staff pre-shift meeting</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 pm 5.30</td>
<td>Check dinner</td>
<td>Monitor dinner</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 pm 6.30</td>
<td>Monitor dinner</td>
<td>Monitor dinner</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 pm</td>
<td>Monitor dinner</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 pm</td>
<td>Hand over to closing manager (if all is going well on a quiet night)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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**Position**
Duties and responsibilities performed by an employee.

**Job**
A specific group of tasks prescribed as a unit of work.
A position consists of duties and responsibilities performed by one employee. For example, in an operation there are four cook positions occupied by four employees, yet each of them has only one job or job classification, that of cook.

A job is a group of positions with the same duties and responsibilities. It is the entirety of the work, the sum total of what a person is paid to do. Other common hospitality jobs include server, housekeeper, and front desk clerk.

Job analysis is the process that tries to present a picture of how the world of work looks for a specific job. A job analyst determines the content of a given job by breaking it down into units (work sequences) and identifying the tasks that make up each unit. For instance, for a cashier, there are a number of tasks or steps involved in ringing up sales. The primary purpose of job analysis is to form the basis of the job description.

The job description describes what the job is as a whole. It explains what the employee is supposed to do, how to perform job duties, and how well they are to be done. As such, it describes a fair day’s work and sets the performance standards. The job description also explains the context of the job (or the conditions in which the work takes place), including the factors of working conditions (often hot and steamy) and the social environment (hopefully, warm and friendly).

The job specification spells out the qualifications that a person must have in order to get the job. Qualifications often fall into the following areas: knowledge, skills and abilities, work experience, education, and training.

Job evaluation is the process of examining the responsibilities and difficulties of each job in order to determine which jobs are worth more than others. Job evaluation is used primarily to determine which jobs should pay more than others. There are several ways to perform job evaluation.

Before discussing job descriptions, it is important first to talk about analyzing a job.

### Job Analysis

Every job in the hospitality industry or in a managed services setting includes several distinct work segments or units of work. For example, the job of server in a restaurant includes taking orders, serving food, serving wine, and so on. Each of these is a separate unit of the work that, when combined, comprise a job. Figure 3-12 shows a typical list of units of work for a server. You will see that our list includes such units as dress and grooming, sanitation, and guest relations, which are not true work sequences but are, nevertheless, critical activities in the server’s job. They require the setting of standards, training, and evaluation just as the actual work sequences do. Such units appear in other jobs as well, and the same standards will apply in each case.

Each unit consists of a number of tasks—perhaps 5, 10, 20, or 100 things that the server has to do in carrying out the work of that unit. A task is an identifiable activity that constitutes a skill or activity necessary to complete a unit of the job. For example, what are the tasks performed in taking an order? Figure 3-12 lists the tasks. You may have trouble at first deciding what is a unit and what is a task that is part of a unit. Is menu a separate unit or is it part of takes order? The line between unit and task...
Once you have a list of tasks or procedural steps for a unit, you have the complete description for that job (Figure 3-12): the entirety of the work, the sum total of what each person in that job is paid to do, the fair day’s work.

THE USES OF JOB ANALYSIS

Job analysis examines the content and relative importance of the different job duties and responsibilities. This information helps companies comply with government regulations and defend their actions in the event of legal challenges that allege unfairness or discrimination. As we saw in Chapter 2, the standard defense against a charge of discrimination is that the contested decision (to hire, to give a raise, to terminate) was made for job-related reasons. Job analysis provides the documentation for such a defense.9 For instance:

The owner of a fast-food restaurant who pays an assistant manager a weekly salary (without any overtime pay) may be able to defend himself from charges of an overtime pay violation with a job analysis proving that the assistant manager job is exempt from the overtime provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act. The owner can prove this by showing that most of the job duties and responsibilities involve supervision and directing others rather than preparing food and providing service to guests.10 Job analysis is also helpful in recruitment and selection, performance appraisal, compensation, and training.

Now, let’s see how we use units of work and tasks in writing job descriptions.
There are five major reasons for low productivity and high turnover among people working at routine hospitality jobs:

1. Workers don’t know what they are supposed to be doing.
2. They don’t know how to do what they are supposed to be doing.
3. They don’t know how well they are doing what they are supposed to be doing.
4. The supervisor has not given them any direction, help, or support.
5. The workers have a poor relationship with the supervisor, largely for the first four reasons.

You could certainly lump all these reasons together as communications failures. However, far more than communication is involved. It is likely that the supervisor has never really defined the whats, how-tos, and how-wells of the jobs. (It is likely that no one has defined the supervisor’s job in these terms either.) There are probably all sorts of gray areas in the supervisor’s mind about who does what and how. Who, for instance, is supposed to clean the bar floor and dispose of the empty bottles: the bartender or the cleanup staff? Who is supposed to replace burned-out lights in hotel rooms and report television sets that don’t work? In a hospital, who is supposed to serve the food to the patients, and who is supposed to pick up all the dirty trays from the rooms? How much work can one server or cleaning person or cook’s helper be expected to do in one shift? In fact, what is a “fair day’s work” for any job? What’s more, how many people are doing a fair day’s work right now? Enter the job description with performance standards. Let’s start with a discussion of performance standards.

In today’s tight labor market, where the high-quality candidates are at a real premium, a job posting should be an engaging piece about why other people love working at your company and the unique value proposition of the job in question. Highlighting
your company’s strengths and the position’s attractiveness and its rewards is a great way to attract the best candidates.11

OTHER PARTS OF THE JOB DESCRIPTION

Figure 3-14 is a sample job description for a server. Although there is no standard format for a job description, it usually includes the following:

**FIGURE 3-14: Sample Job Description.**

**JOB DESCRIPTION**

**JOB IDENTIFICATION**

**JOB TITLE** Server  
**DEPARTMENT** Dining Room  
**REPORTS TO** Dining Room Manager  
**HOURS** 10:30 AM – 2:30 PM, 2:30 – 6:30 PM, 4:30 – 10:30 PM  
**EXEMPT OR NONEXEMPT** NONEXEMPT  
**GRADE** 8

**JOB SUMMARY**  
Serve guests in a courteous, helpful, and prompt manner.

**PERFORMANCE STANDARDS**

1. Stocks the service station for one serving area for one meal completely and correctly, as specified on the Service Station Procedures Sheet, in 10 minutes or less.
2. Sets or resets a table properly, as shown on the Table Setting Layout Sheet, in no more than 3 minutes.
3. Greets guests cordially within 5 minutes after they are seated and takes their order if time permits; if too busy, informs them that he or she will be back as soon as possible.
4. Explains menu to customers: (a) accurately describes the day’s specials (as posted); (b) if asked, accurately describes the quality or cut, portion size, and preparation method of each item on the menu and specifies menu accompanying it; (c) if asked, accurately specifies acceptable substitutions for items on a complete meal menu; (d) if asked, accurately describes ingredients and taste of any menu items.
5. Takes food, wine, and beverage orders accurately for a table of up to six guests, accurately and quickly completes guest check as specified on the Guest Check Procedures Sheet; prices and totals check with 100 percent accuracy.
6. Picks up order and completes plate preparation correctly as specified on the Plate Preparation Sheet.
7. Serves a complete meal to all persons at each table in an assigned station in not more than 1 hour per table, using the tray service method correctly as specified in the Tray Service Sheet.
Job title, such as cook or server

Job summary; a brief one- or two-sentence statement of the major or overall duty and purpose of the job

Units of work, preferably in the format of performance standards

Job setting, including physical conditions, physical demands, and work hazards

Social environment: information on the extent of interpersonal interaction required to perform the job

FIGURE 3-14: (continued)

8. If asked, recommends wines appropriate to menu items selected, according to the What Wine Goes with What Food Sheet; opens and serves wines correctly as shown on the Wine Service Sheet.

9. Totals and presents check and carries out payment procedures with 100 percent accuracy, as specified on the Check Payment Procedures Sheet.

10. Performs side work correctly as assigned, according to the Side Work Procedures Sheet and to the level required on the Sanitation Checklist.

11. Operates all preparation and service equipment in the assigned area correctly according to the operations manuals and the safety regulations prescribed on the Operations Procedures Sheet.

12. Meets at all times all the uniform, appearance, and grooming standards specified in the Appearance and Grooming Checklist.

13. Observes at all times the sanitation procedures specified for serving personnel in the Sanitation Manual; maintains work area to score 90 percent or higher on the Sanitation Checklist.

14. Maintains good customer relations at all times according to the Customer Relations Checklist; maintains a customer complaint ratio of less than 1 per 200 customers served.

15. Maintains a check average of not less than $5.00 per person at lunch and $11.00 per person at dinner.

JOB SETTING

CONTACTS     Guests, dining room personnel, cooking staff

WORKING CONDITIONS    Works in temperature controlled dining room and service area which become congested at busy times.

PHYSICAL DEMANDS    Standing and walking most of the time.

Frequent lifting of heavy trays.

WORK HAZARDS     Hot surfaces, steam, wet floors, heavy lifting, sharp knives

Approval Signature ____________________________

Approval Signature ____________________________

Date ____________________________

FIGURE 3-14: (continued)
Some operators also put qualifications, such as education and experience, into the job description. Although qualifications are technically included in the job specification, many operators put them in the job description for convenience. The job-setting section describes the conditions under which the job is to be done. This should include physical conditions, such as the temperature, humidity, noise, and ventilation in a kitchen (be honest—they are usually disagreeable). Physical demands, such as frequent heavy lifting and work hazards, such as hot surfaces and slippery floors, also need to be noted. Job setting also includes the personal contacts required by the job—in other words, who the employee interacts with.

In addition to the job title, you may want to include some or all of the following descriptive information at the beginning of the job description: the department name, grade level, location of the job, whether the job is exempt or nonexempt, work hours, and reporting relationship. When discussing the reporting relationship, include the title of the person supervising this employee (and when applicable, who this employee supervises).

Always keep in mind that a job description should not refer to the person doing the job, since the job description refers to a job, not to the people doing the job. As the employee’s supervisor, you need to approve and sign the job description for each of the job classifications under your control. Depending on your operation, your job descriptions may also have to be approved and signed by a representative from the human resources department and/or your superior.

Luckily, there are now sources of generic job descriptions available to hospitality supervisors. The National Restaurant Association has available a publication titled Model Position Descriptions, which contains 117 job descriptions for both lodging and restaurant occupations. The National Skills Standards Board (www.nssb.org) has available sample job descriptions and additional information on a number of foodservice and lodging jobs as well.

Organizing for Success

The kind of long-range plans that will help you to solve your time problems have another, broader purpose: They will make your unit run more efficiently and effectively. One goal of this type of planning is effective organization. A well-organized and efficient unit is one in which:

- Lines of authority and responsibility are clearly drawn—and observed.
- Jobs, procedures, and standards are clearly defined—and followed.
- People know what to do and how to do it—and they do it.
- Standards of quality, quantity, and performance are clearly set—and met.

Setting everything up to run efficiently is organizing. Keeping it running efficiently and effectively is managing. Most hospitality supervisors move into a situation that has already been organized, whether well or badly, by someone else. If it has been organized well, their place in the company’s organizational chart is clear, they know to whom they report, their authority and responsibility have been clearly defined, and they know the purpose (goal, function) of their department and their job. Each job
classification is clearly defined, and there is a detailed procedures manual for each job. All necessary standards have been set, and people have been trained to meet them. Standing plans provide for repeating situations.

But many departments are not as well organized as this, and the lack of organization is a major contributor to crisis management. If you have inherited a badly organized unit, will you go on putting out fires, as your predecessor did, allowing yourself to be controlled by events instead of controlling them, developing the habit of nonplanning? It is an easy habit to develop and a seductive one: It gives you a sense of power, of being needed.

It is a short-run, shortsighted solution, and it will not contribute to your future in the industry. A better way to go is to set out to organize things better. How will you do it?

1. **Find out what you need to know about your own job.** Who is your boss—who directs you, and to whom are you accountable? What responsibilities and authority do you have, and what are you accountable for? How do your job and your department fit into the organization as a whole?

2. **Find out where poor organization is causing problems.** What you examine first depends on what is causing the most problems. Some areas to investigate follow.

   - **Chain of command** (lines of authority and responsibility). Do all your workers know to whom they report—who has the right to tell them what to do and who holds them responsible for doing it? Does anyone take orders from more than one person? It is a primary principle of organization that each person should have only one boss (a principle known as *unity of command*). How many people do you supervise? Another principle of organization states that there is a limit to the number of employees one person can supervise effectively (known as *span of control*). One hundred people are far too many; 50 are too many; generally, 8 to 18 are considered the maximum number that one person can supervise or lead effectively. If you are given responsibility for supervising too many people, you may be able to delegate certain supervisory duties to key people in your department: In other words, create another level below you in the chain of command.

   - **Job content and procedures.** Are jobs clearly defined in terms of duties, tasks, procedures, and acceptable performance standards? Is there a procedure manual for each job? Are the written materials kept up to date? Are there things people do—or should do but don’t—that are not assigned to any job? Do any jobs overlap: Are the same responsibilities assigned to more than one job? Are people carrying out their assigned responsibilities and following procedures correctly? Do some people have too much to do and others too little?

   - **Training.** Do people know what to do and how to do it and what standard of performance is expected of them? Have they been well trained? Are they meeting the standards?

   - **Evaluation and controls.** Have standards of quality, quantity, and performance been set, and are people meeting them? Are standards being used to evaluate and control products and services? Is there a system of performance review?

   - **Standing plans.** Have standing plans been set up for repetitive tasks, routine reports, and emergency procedures? Are forms provided for reports, record keeping, information, and controls? Do people use them correctly?
Answers to such questions as these will give you a pretty good idea of the existing organization of your department and the degree to which it is functioning as it is supposed to.

3. **Plan what you will do to improve the organization and efficiency of your operation.** For this purpose many chapters of this book are at your disposal to help you along the way. Job descriptions will help you define jobs, set performance standards, develop procedures manuals, and provide the springboard for recruiting, training, and evaluation programs. The special chapters on these subjects will help you to develop and carry out such programs. Problem-solving and decision-making chapters will help you to define your problems, set your objectives, and choose the best courses of action.

Delegation, job enrichment, and employee participation offer you ways of reorganizing at least some of the work for better results. You can relieve yourself of detail, broaden job responsibilities for workers, and provide more time for managing. Standing plans can reduce the management of repeating tasks to dealing with exceptional conditions and events.
KEY POINTS

1. As a human resources leader, you need to plan what is to be done in a variety of areas (see Figure 3-2).

2. There are various levels of planning, from SWOT analysis to strategic planning (or long-range planning) and short-term planning.

3. The planning process involves the following steps: Define the purpose or problem and set objectives, collect and evaluate data relevant to forecasting the future, develop possible courses of action, decide on the best course of action, and carry out the plan.

4. You can reduce risk when planning repetitive work by having a contingency plan, consulting people who have more experience than you do, or by keeping records that add to your data for forecasting.

5. A good plan provides a workable solution and meets the stated objectives, is comprehensive, minimizes the degree of risk, and is specific and flexible.

6. A standing plan is an established routine or formula or set of procedures designed to be used in a recurring or repetitive situation. Examples include policies and procedures.

7. A single-use plan is a one-time plan developed for a single occasion or purpose, such as a budget.

8. Most workers resist change. You can reduce their fear and uncertainty with facts, open discussion, understanding, and support, as well as involving them in planning and carrying out the change.

9. The first step in planning for change is to define your problem and set your objectives. The second step is to gather data from the past, present, and probable future in order to forecast what alternatives are most likely to succeed and to reduce the risks. Next, generate alternatives, evaluate the pros and cons of each, and assess their risks and benefits. The fourth step is to make the necessary decisions, after weighing each alternative in terms of the five critical decision-making questions: risk versus benefit, economy, feasibility, acceptability, and meeting the objectives. The last step is implementing the plan.

10. To make good use of your time, eliminate time-wasters, set priorities, use a planning calendar, set aside regular periods of time without interruption for interviews, and initiate long-range solutions to your time problems.

11. Job descriptions often include job title, job summary, units of work (preferably in the format of performance standards), job setting, and the social environment.

12. Performance standards form the heart of the job description and describe the whats, how-tos, and how-wells of a job.

13. Setting everything up to run efficiently is organizing. The first step in organizing is to find out what you need to know about your job. The second step is to find out where poor organization is causing problems, such as chain of command, job content and procedures, training, evaluation and controls, or standing plans. The third step is to plan what you will do to improve the organization and efficiency of your operation.
KEY TERMS

benchmarking  job title
budget          management by exception
contingency plan Management by Objectives (MBO)
core competencies organizing
critical path planning
forecast       Program Evaluation and Review Technique (PERT)
goals           resistance to change
Gantt chart     risk
job             single-use plan
job analysis    span of control
job description standing plan
job evaluation  strategic planning
job setting     unity of command
job specification

REVIEW QUESTIONS

Answer each question in complete sentences. Read each question carefully and make sure that you answer all parts of the question. Organize your answer using more than one paragraph when appropriate.

1. Compare strategic planning to day-by-day planning.
2. Briefly describe the steps in planning. Why do they resemble the steps used in making a good decision?
3. How can you reduce your risk when planning repetitive work?
4. Give five examples of a standing plan.
5. What is management by exception?
6. A budget is an example of what type of plan?
7. Why do employees resist change?
8. In the example of planning a new menu, what do you think of the manager’s plan? What problems might there be? If you were the manager, would you have people participate even more, such as visiting competitors and reporting on their menus or contributing recipe suggestions? Why or why not? How would you reward the workers who take part?
9. List the five steps in planning for change.
10. What can you do to make more effective use of your time?
11. What areas of the operation might you investigate if poor organization is causing problems?
ACTIVITIES AND APPLICATIONS

1. Discussion Questions
   - Since planning involves forecasting the future, and since so much of the supervisor’s job is dealing with things that are unpredictable, and since there is never enough time in the day anyway, do you think that planning is worth the time it takes? Defend your answer.
   - Mary Lou says that standing plans free the supervisor for other management tasks; John says that standing plans are an excuse for laziness and a straitjacket on creative action. Which view do you agree with, and why? Can you somehow arrange to have the best of both views?
   - How does planning relate to all the other aspects of a supervisor’s job? Give specific examples of how lack of planning can complicate getting the job done, starting new personnel on the job, or other examples from your own experience.
   - What responsibility does a supervisor have for departmental organization? If you were hired for a job in which organization was poor, how would you go about straightening things out? How would you deal with your own supervisor in reorganizing things?
   - Planning your personal time can be as useful as planning your work time. How good a planner are you? What are your time-wasters? Do you set priorities? Do you use a calendar for planning?

2. Group Activity: Brainstorming Plans and Controls
   In groups of four, brainstorm examples of plans found in hospitality operations with which you are familiar. Have one person keep a list of plans and a separate list of controls. Share with the class.

3. Case Study: Preparing Employees for Change
   Michael is beverage manager at the principal hotel in a middle-sized manufacturing town. The hotel has a steady business trade and is now reaching out to attract local customers for its restaurant and bar. The restaurant is to be enlarged and the bar off the lobby is to be remodeled and expanded into a cocktail lounge with table service. Michael is in charge of planning all aspects of the change.
   All the bar equipment will be new, and Michael will work with the designer to determine what is needed. There will be a dozen tables served by waiters or waitresses whom Michael will hire and train. The bartenders will pour drinks for both the lounge and dining room servers in addition to customers at the bar, and Michael may have to add another couple of bartenders to the staff.
   Michael knows the present bartenders will be worried about the change. They will be afraid they will work harder for fewer tips, since they will be competing with the table servers. They may also be concerned about the new layout and equipment. It is important for them to feel confident about working in the new setup and to be committed to the project and accepting of the new personnel.
   **Case Study Questions**
   1. When should Michael break the news, and how?
   2. How should he deal with their fears about new personnel?
   3. What can he do to increase their confidence?
4. How can he gain their commitment to the new project?
5. Make a detailed plan incorporating your answers for Michael to follow in dealing with his present bartenders.

WEB ACTIVITY

- Go to the following Web site, www.hrps.org. Search topics of interest and discuss in class.

RELATED WEB SITE

The Human Resource Planning Society www.hrps.org

ENDNOTES

10. Ibid.