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Training on Women's Leadership and Decision Making

Gender Issues in Management and Leadership

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INTRODUCTION

Leadership is leadership, whether by women or by men. Leaders are those who direct, who lead, or guide. They are the most important persons in an organization. They are the ones who make decisions or induce their opinions. Leadership implies thus an action where one leads, guides or supervises others and is able to induce his opinions or decisions on others.

Because of society's perception, cultural belief, tradition and the thereby assigned social gender roles to women and men, it is usually assumed that men take charge of any leadership positions requiring decision-making. This is visible from the lowest level (household) to the highest level (political).
Women have not been seen much on the scene when it comes to higher (leadership/ management) roles, until recently. This cannot be attributed to women themselves who were not seen (not visibly seen) in the production process. They have always been there and always been active but their contributions were ignored or never recognized as such.

It can be clearly said that nowadays women constitute the fastest growing segment of the labor-force. And these are not only single, unmarried, childless women. Mothers, responsible for children under the age of 6 constitute over 60% of all families that are now represented in the labor force (an estimated 10 million children under six, have a working mother.) (Sitterly, 1993, 4)

Women participating in the production process do not automatically imply that women are at all levels at their work places (including management and leadership). They are in jobs specifically assigned to them because of their sex. They are everywhere (in hospitals, offices, schools, factories, business centers, etc.), but in the lowest status' jobs. They are at the lowest end of the ladder, in the lowest status' jobs. For those few women who have managed to climb the ladder of success, it usually means that they have struggled hard for it. Many more qualified women are there who due to circumstances have never tried to climb and who have developed a kind of satisfaction and acceptance in their lifelong ascribed positions at their respective workplaces. These women defer that ultimate responsibility of leadership to men in their lives (fathers, husbands, brothers, sons, etc). They always have been there though all the time, but more visibly in a caring and supportive role. It is said that women have risen up against injustice and violence with the same sense of outrage as their male counterparts, but always in a supportive role.
Before I continue with women's leadership, I would like to explain what gender is and how it emerged.

1. Introduction to the social construction of gender

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movement. This cultural movement was the cause of the creation of Cultural feminism. According to cultural feminism (still widely used) the equality of women can only be achieved through education. GAD (gender and development) thus gradually replaced WID.

1.2 Definition of gender

The word 'gender' differentiates the sociologically attributed aspects of individuals' identities from the psychological characteristics of men and women. Gender has to do with how we think, how we feel and what we believe we cannot do because of socially defined concepts of masculinity and femininity. Gender relates to the position of women and men in relation to each other. 'It is an ecology, culture and period specific concept pertaining to the relations of power between women and men' (Tsehai, 1991).

According to Moser, gender is the socially constructed roles and responsibilities assigned to women and men in a given culture or location. It is learned and changes over time. It is seen as a social construct, because it is defined, supported and reinforced by societal structures and institutions (Moser, 3: 1993). In terms of gender roles, people are not born boys and girls, but female and male. Through socialization, they learn to be girls and boys, women and men. They are taught what the 'appropriate' behavior, attitudes, roles and activities are for women and men, and how women should relate to men and men to women.

Socialization is defined as the process by which individuals acquire knowledge and skills that enable them to participate as more or less effective members of a group and the society. The differential treatment women and men receive during their socialization process because of the status of their sex, leads to the development of real psychological and personality differences between them.

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1.3 The difference between gender and sex:

Sex refers to female and male biological functions and describes the biological characteristics. It is a man's capability to impregnate and a woman's capability to give birth. Gender on the other hand describes the socially determined characteristics and does not refer to women and men, but to the relationship between them, their society, community and the way that is socially constructed. It refers to what society says women and men should be and should do, what is considered feminine and masculine. This behavior is learned and is what shapes gender identity. It is also what determines gender roles. For example: Child rearing is seen as a gender role.

The Differences between Sex and Gender

Gender roles are	**sex** is:
- socially constructed	- biologically determined
- learned	- universal
- dynamic (change over time)	- Unchanging

- Multi-faceted (differ within and between cultures)	

1.4 Some gender related concepts:

1. Gender roles:

Gender roles are derived from socially perceived differences between women and men that define how they should think, feel and act. These roles are constantly changing and can vary between and within cultures. They are an integral part of social identity and belonging and are a learned, differentiated pattern of behavior for women and men acceptable to a given culture. For example: the roles of being a mother or father.

2. Gender division of labor

Relates to the different work, responsibilities and activities assigned to women and men based on their gender as a consequence of their socialization and accepted patterns of work within a given context.

3. Gender bias

The tendency to make decisions or take actions based on the interest and perspectives of one's own sex ignoring and undermining the other.

4. Gender discrimination

Prejudicial treatment of an individual based on a gender stereotype (may also be referred to as sexism or sexual discrimination). It is the denial of equal treatment, legal rights or fair opportunities to people because of their sex.

5. Gender equity

The legal, social and economic equality of the sexes; the quality of being fair and right, a stage in the process of achieving gender equality.

6. Gender equality

The same status, rights and responsibilities for women and men where women and men have equal opportunities for realizing their full human rights potential to contribute to national, political, economic, social, cultural and spiritual development, and to benefit from the results.

7. Gender issues:

Specific consequences arising out of the inequality between women and men, creating awareness and causing reasons for interaction. (Unequal positions of men and women in employment, division of tasks allotted to women and men, etc.).

8. Gender sensitive:

Being aware of the differences between women's and men's needs, roles, responsibilities and constraints, becoming sensitive and trying to induce change. It is the understanding and consideration of the socio-cultural factors underlying discrimination based on sex, whether against women or men. It is based on mutual respect and understanding.

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9. Gender ideology:

A particular system of beliefs which 'accords' male dominance over the values, processes and decisions which define how society should be organized, how it should function and what the roles of its members are.

10. Gender stereotyping:

Refers to over-simplified, traditional, in most cases false representation of a person based on her/his sex. Such stereotypes are often based on socially accepted gender roles and viewed as normal. For example, women as water carriers, men as decision-makers.

11. Gender differentiation

Refers to power relations and inequalities between the sexes and the deliberate subordination of women and their rights (eventhough there are various international rights guaranteeing women and men equal rights).

12. Gender-gaps

Discrimination against any of the sexes creates an advance status and position of the other, leading to gaps. Tradition and culture further encourage these gaps.

13. Gender awareness

A way of seeing, a form of understanding created by circumstances and not takes things for granted. It is when we start questioning what has always been considered natural and normal.

14. Gender analysis

When gender is related to the development process, obstacles to connect gender to the development process are tackled, then we speak of gender analysis. Gender analyses provide ways to unpack the different aspects of gender issues in the development process. By doing this, these issues become more clear and easy to recognize.

15. Gender oppression

This is oppression based on one's sex, experienced as domination and felt in every aspect of life. Gender oppression can be based on sex, race, ethnicity, class and caste and can be felt in various aspects and levels in life: in politics, in the household, in the market place, in the community, in courtrooms, etc.

16. Gender training

This is the training provided on issues related to gender with the objective of creating awareness, implementing activities and becoming gender sensitive. Gender training involves information; skill development and awareness creation to be able to define gender issues in daily life and addresses it as such.

17. Gender relations

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Gender relations are ways in which a culture or society defines rights, responsibilities and identities of women and men in relation to one another. Gender relations involve the way women and men relate to each other. The big issue here is: 'Does either one have more power or authority than the other?'

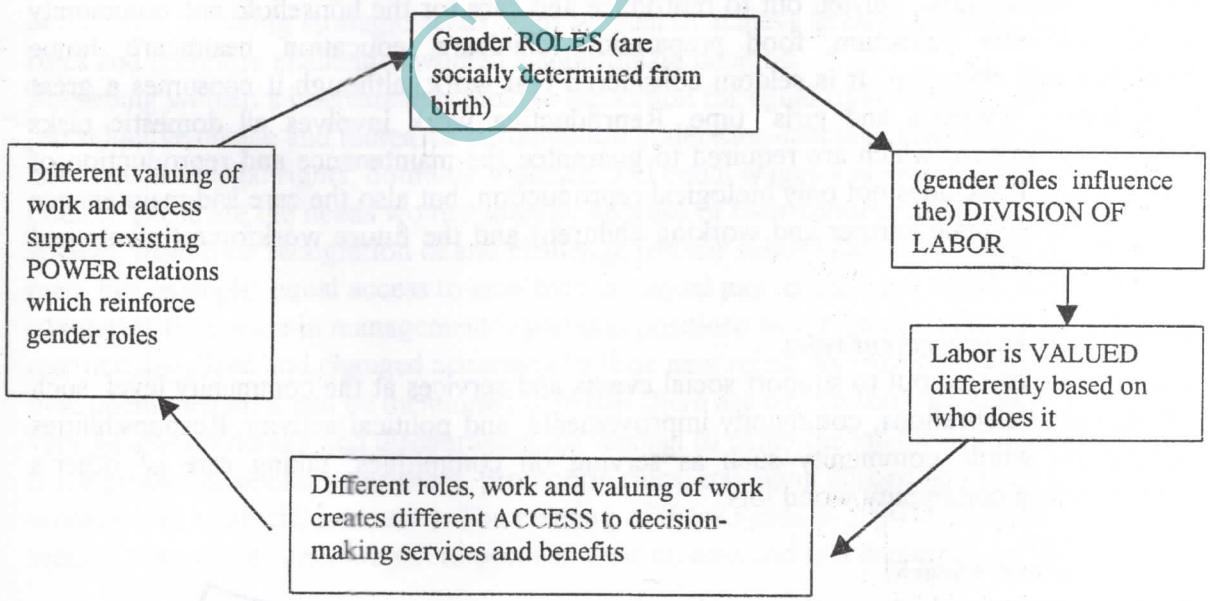
Leadership involves relationships. Without relationships there can be no leadership. It involved a relationship between a leader and her/his followers, a dominant and its subordinates, a superior and its inferiors, etc. Women entering leadership positions implies a change in gender relations. It also implies changes in leadership constructions and power relations..

Gender relations is the state of relations between women and men, influenced strongly by their different gender roles. Gender roles are the core contributor on the gender division of labor, which actually reinforces existing power-relations and access to resources, benefits, information and decision-making.

Some key components in gender relations are:

- gender roles;
- gender division of labor,
- access to resources, benefits, information, decision making, which is influenced by gender roles and the gender division of labor;
- power relations have to do with the capacity of individuals and groups to initiate action and determine outcomes which change existing social, political and economic system and norms, and which can equalize gender relations;
- Gender needs (practical and strategic).

Key components in Gender Relations



(Rani Parker, Itziar Lozano and Lun Messner, 1995, p.3)

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The cycle reinforces itself unless development interventions will affect the system that establishes gender roles and the valuing of work.

1.5 The triple roles of women

In many societies, women have a triple role: they undertake reproductive, productive and community managing activities, while men primarily undertake productive and community politics activities. Women in leadership have now an extra burden, adding their roles to be quadrupled, because the burden on any of their three previous roles does not voluntarily gets enlightened (there is no increase of support from relatives, community or husbands?) and they remain responsible over those. We can conclude here that working **women also need a wife** when they have less time left over for their other activities? Leadership roles are usually very demanding and create an extra baggage for women.

1. Productive role:

Productive work is work done for pay in cash or kind involving the production of goods and services. It includes both production for the market with an exchange value, and subsistence/home production with actual use-value, and also potential exchange value. It is thus all the tasks that contribute economically to the household and community for consumption and trade, such as crop and livestock production, handicraft production, marketing and wage employment and self-employment.

2. Reproductive role:

Reproductive work is work involving the care and maintenance of the household and its members. They are tasks carried out to reproduce and care for the household and community such as fuel/water collection, food preparation, childcare, education, healthcare, home maintenance and shopping. It is seldom considered real work, although it consumes a great deal of time - women's and girls' time. Reproductive work involves all domestic tasks performed by women, which are required to guarantee the maintenance and reproduction of the labor force. It includes not only biological reproduction, but also the care and maintenance of the workforce (male partner and working children) and the future workforce (infants and school-going children)

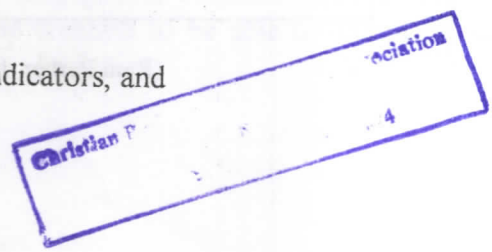
3. Community management role:

These are tasks carried out to support social events and services at the community level, such as ceremonies, celebrations, community improvements, and political activity. Responsibilities benefiting the whole community such as serving on committees, taking care of other's children, planting community wood lots.

Generally women's work:

- earns less prestige and income than men's
- is often excluded from national economic indicators, and

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- can remain 'invisible' if there is no awareness that a sexual division of labor exists and can result in appropriate assumptions about how work is organized, who does what and how women and men will be affected by any development intervention.

1.6 Gender needs

Short-term and long-term concerns arising from gender roles create gender needs. Women have particular needs that differ from those of men not only because of their triple/quadruple role, but also because of (in many cases), their subordinate position in relation to men. Two types of needs can be identified:

1. Practical Gender Need (PGN)

These are needs linked to daily life such as food, water, health, and education of children and increased income.
Practical needs are immediate (food, water), material (increased income) and can be met in the short term through practical solutions (health, education).
They have to do with the immediate perceived needs, which are easy to identify within a specific context.
PGN make it possible for women and men to carry out the existing gender roles more easily.
They are more material than ideological.

2. Strategic Gender Needs (SGN)

These are long-term needs related to improving the position or status of a particular group.
They are less obvious than the PGN and less readily identified by the affected community.
They vary according to particular contexts and are related to gender division of labor, power and control. Meeting strategic needs helps women to achieve greater equality. It also changes roles and therefore challenges women's subordinate position.
Regarding women's interests they include legislation for equal rights and opportunities, reproductive choice and increased participation in decision-making. They may also include issues such as legal rights, domestic violence, and equal wages and women's control over their bodies. These are the needs women identify because of their subordinate position to men in society, from their recognition of and challenge to their subordinate position in relation to men. For example: equal access to employment, equal pay, equal legal rights. SGNs are more of interest to women in management/leadership positions as they would like to have things clarified, legalized and changed according to their new roles. As women in high status is a new phenomenon, it can be mentioned here that there are still various laws and mechanisms very gender unfriendly and discouraging for women to climb the ladder of success (maternity leave problems, sexual harassment, promotion rules, travelling abroad for work purposes for women with small children, etc.). The meeting of these needs is of strategic interests to women who will be encouraged to proceed their careers and feel protected by legislation.

SGN which men identify arise from men's recognition and challenge to their exclusion from domains which customary roles impose and which contribute to the perpetuation of women's subordination. For example: sharing childcare. SGN are context specific and less visible than PGN.

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Addressing SGN is a long-term endeavor because it involves changes in attitudes, ideology, behavior and power structures. Responding to women's strategic interests will lead to the long-term benefits for the majority of the worlds' women and men. PGN and SGN are related to each other:

Example: the girls in a poor, rural community are not sent to school. Their families do not have sufficient funds to send all their children; boys are given preference over girls.

Practical Gender Need

- scholarship program that provides funding girls to attend school

Strategic Gender Needs

- laws and policies for equal education for adopted and enforced
- advocacy and education in the community to change the perceived value of girls' education
- equal allocation of household duties
- equal access to employment.

Comparing PGN and SGN

Practical Gender Needs	Strategic Gender Needs
represent what people require to get or to have in order to carry out their gender roles more easily and effectively	represents what women or men require in order to equalize their position or status with regard to each other
do not require a change in gender roles, only coherence between roles and cultural patterns Fe. to fulfill the role of being a good mother she has to have access to resources (food/shelter) that will allow her to take care of her children	tend to refer to social relations between women and men
tend to be easy to identify because of the direct demand of society that women and men live by their gender roles. Fe. men. community and children demand that women fulfill their role of being good mothers. Thus PGNs are felt with urgency	satisfaction of these needs means that women and men are able and free to define their own roles and responsibilities; that each one's gender is recognized as holding values and rights, both social and legal; that one person is not subject to another because of her/his gender
addressing PGNs does not ensure that other needs will be met nor that access to meeting those needs will be sustainable	SGNs are less visible and obvious than PGNs
	addressing SGNs requires action over the long term because it demands changes in attitudes, behavior and power structures
	addressing SGNs is conducive to greater satisfaction of practical needs
	raising these needs or addressing them might bring about resistance from women and men

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2. From Women in Development to Gender and Development

2.1 Introduction

There have been contradictory responses to the new women's movement right from its origin at the end of the 60s, beginning 70s. Awareness among women about their oppression and exploitation has been growing fast. This awareness movement grew faster in Third World countries than in countries of the First world, for reasons to be analyzed yet.
This new women's movement was initially seen as a cultural movement. It arose in the late 60s in USA and Western Europe, where women, also form the Third World countries, realized that in spite of equality of the sexes, proclaimed by all democratic constitutions, they were discriminated everywhere and in all fields (politics, education, employment, etc.).

This cultural feminism (related to the cultural movement) is still widely used and claims that equal access to education as such and the emphasis on women-oriented contents of education would go a long way towards improving the status of women. In this cultural feminism the distinction between sex and gender was made, developed first by Anne Oakley (1972). According to this distinction, sex is connected with biology. It is considered to be based on hormones, gonads and genitalia. The gender identity of women and men in any given society is considered as psychological and social. It means that gender identity is historically, culturally and socially determined.
Most still believe that patriarchal women-men relations can be changed through education or different forms of socialization, that discrimination against women in the field of politics and employment can be abolished by giving girls more access to higher education and training (Mies).

This distinction between sex as biological and gender as socio-cultural, removes the irritation that women's oppression is attributed to her anatomy. (We all know the distinction of nature and culture by Freud who stated that anatomy is destiny, and where women are related to nature, emotional, lower, and men are related to culture, the higher, smarter, intelligent).

2.2 Women in Development (WID)

The 1970s represented thus the period, when significant attention was drawn to women. The growing feminist movement that subsequently followed, highlighted the exclusion of women. During this decade there were considerable shifts in approaches both by academic researchers and by policy-makers. Researchers moved away from a preoccupation with the role of women within the family and women's reproductive responsibilities towards an understanding of the

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complexities of women's employment and their productive activities. At the same time, in the Third World, feminism shifted its focus on mainly women's role in development, on women studies and on the status of women. Research-centers were created and policies were formulated with the aim of introducing women studies in the departments of social sciences.

Subsequently WID was adopted by the UN as a guiding principle. WID is an approach to development that focuses on women and their specific situation as a separate group. WID projects involve only women as participants who are targeted in order to alleviate the existing gender-gap. The thought was that to help women gain equal status with men, they needed support, policy measures targeting them. In reality, this preference for women created resistance among men who did not understand what all these causes for women were.

In the WID approach
- women were often treated as a homogeneous group. Class, ethnicity and intra-household gender differences were not taken into account.
- women's situation were analyzed exclusively, and activities were developed accordingly, only for them. Men were seldom involved in these activities in order to understand the needs of women. This created misconceptions and resistance among them of why a specific group was the only beneficiaries of projects.
- women's disadvantaged position was seen mainly as a consequence of the exclusion from development activities. (Rani Parker, 1995, p.10)

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2.3 Gender and Development (GAD)

GAD emerged in the1980s and its focus has been the relationship between women and men. It considers 'the totality of social organizations' a holistic approach, which includes women and men, recognizes men's contribution as well as women's subordination.
The GAD analysis addresses the unequal gender power by seeking to transform unequal relations. Unequal gender power is when one gender is in a dominated position and holds power over the other in all spheres of life (economic, political, social, cultural and spiritual). In this relationship of the dominant and the dominated, the expectations, possibilities, motivation and capabilities of the dominated (usually women) is surpressed. This surpression is further enforced by the unequal relations between the two genders, women and men. These unequal relations are targeted by the GAD. In order to eliminate these unequal relations and unfavorable conditions gender inequality is also targeted. GAD focuses on mechanisms that promote gender equality. These mechanisms can be equal access to education in various specializations available for both sexes, equal access to job opportunities, economic opportunities, equal access to justice, etc. GAD, thus, focuses on the socially determined relations between women and men and in relation to each other and not on either one of the sexes as exclusive right-owners. Because without the one the other does not have an existence and there is then no holism of any aspect of life. The focus is also on the social, economic, political, and cultural forces that determine how women and men should relate to each other, because by supporting women and men alone, the goals cannot be reached. In order to gain full participation of both sexes, their environment should be targeted too to create the equal

atmosphere for both sexes to be able to use their potentials. Both will only then be able to benefit from, and control project resources, and their activities, equally, and neither will be in the position to dominate.

GAD, being holistic, with a view on equality, recognizes the Practical Gender Needs and Strategic Gender Needs of both, women and men. The emphasis is put on collective community action and the mobilization of group power. In this approach, women and men are actively engaged in defining and promoting their interests on the basis of their own understanding of their present situation. But, because women are at a relatively disadvantaged position, GAD recognizes the need for affirmative measures for women or other disadvantaged groups to become equal with men in order to participate and benefit fully from measures taken by them. Only when women, and other disadvantaged groups, reach equal status with men, they can fully participate on their own and compete with men on equal level.

A very simplified chart compares WID and GAD

	WOMEN IN DEVELOPMENT (WID)	**GENDER AND DEVELOPMENT (GAD)**
The approach	* Seeks to integrate women into the development process	* Seeks to empower women and transform unequal relation between women and men
Focus	* women	* Gender Relations
Problem	* The exclusion of women (half of the world's adult resources) from the development process	* Unequal gender relations that prevent equitable development and women's full participation
Goal	* Efficiency by integrating women into development * Emphasis on women's productive capacity * more efficient and effective development	* Equitable, sustainable development * Mainstreaming gender issues and not marginalizing them * Sustainable reshaping of the power variables in order to: • introduce a greater power balance between women and men, while • giving both a stake in participation and in the benefits of the process so • women and men share in decision-making •
Solution	* integrate women in the existing development process	* Empower women and other disadvantaged groups by transforming unequal relations

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Strategies	* Increase women's productivity and income * improve women's ability to manage their households * Implement women's projects, women's components, integrated projects * women's participation in project (all women or men-women) without explicitly increasing their empowerment * improving health, income or resources without increasing empowerment	* strategies are multi-dimensional combine activities that address practical gender needs and strategic gender needs * projects that increase women's and men's rights (whether all-women or all-men) * increase women's capacity and skills to introduce themselves in non-traditional employment * increase women's capacity to control their own bodies, time and movement * identify and address short-term needs determined by women and men to improve their condition * identify women's and men's long-term interests
Critique	* Women's multiple roles are not considered * Miscalculation of elasticity of women's time and labor * Not sustainable in the long term	* Not easy to implement: implies long- term commitment * Allows for sustainability of the result, and is also efficient but only in the long run and needs to be tested

"Two Halves Make a Whole: Balancing Gender Relations in Development" by L. Moffat, Y. Geadah & R. Stuart, Canadian Council for International Cooperation, 1999, p.11)

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2.4 Some basic issues in Gender and Development (also called policy approaches)

There are a variety of development approaches that address women's conditions and position as mentioned below. The first three approaches: welfare, equity and anti-poverty were categorized by Buvinic (1983). Later Moser added two more approaches: efficiency and empowerment (1989)

1. Welfare: (earliest approach used from 1950s to the 1970s).
Its purpose is to bring women into development as better mothers. This approach assumes women's primary role as mothers. Programs were aimed at assisting women to become good mothers. Women are seen as passive beneficiaries. However, some PGNs connected to women's reproductive roles, such as nutrition and family, planning were met through this approach. It is non-challenging and, therefore, still widely popular.

2. ***Equity*** (also seen as the original of the WID approach, used in the 1976-85 UN Women's Decade when a great deal of attention was given to women).
Its purpose is to gain equity for women, who are seen as active participants in development. It recognizes the triple roles and seeks to meet SGNs through direct state intervention and reducing inequality with men. It challenges women's subordinate position. It identified the subordinate position of women with legal equality and aimed at reducing the inequality between women and men by changing the legal systems. This is why it was unpopular with governments and labeled as 'Western Feminism'. Its aim was to gain equity for women through their active participation in the development process. Yet, women found that equal equality does not guarantee equal benefits.

3. ***Anti-poverty*** (this is seen as the second WID approach, emerging in the 1970s).
Its purpose is to ensure that poor women increase their productivity. Women's poverty is seen as a problem of underdevelopment, not of subordination. It recognizes the productive role of women and seeks to meet PGN to earn an income, particularly in small-scale, income generating projects. It is most popular with NGOs. This approach represented a more economic and less controversial perspective to the equity approach. Here, women's poverty is viewed as a problem of development not one of subordination. Thus, the aim was to increase women's productivity. Activities tended to focus on women's capacity to earn income, especially through small-scale income generating activities. Often these activities provided small increases in income and demanded substantial time to implement. Women's work burden increased without any reduction in their other responsibilities. This approach is criticized for isolating poor women in marginal economic project and recognizing only their productive role.

4. ***Efficiency*** (seen as the third, and now predominant, WID approach adopted since the 1980s).
Its purpose is to ensure that development is more efficient and effective through women's economic contribution. It seeks to meet PGNs while relying on all three roles and an elastic concept of women's time. Women are seen entirely in terms of their capacity to compensate for declining social services by extending their working day. It is a very popular approach.

This is the predominant approach today. Economic stabilization and structural adjustment policies rely on women's economic contribution to development. As a result, there is increased pressure on women to produce more in the context of declining social services, without relief from their multiple roles and increasing work burden. At the same time, the promotion of women's income generating projects continues to be popular from an efficiency perspective. One major consequence of these policies is the global trend towards the feminization of poverty.

5. ***Empowerment*** (the most recent approach, articulated by Third World women. Its purpose is to empower women through greater self-reliance.)
This approach grew from writings of Southern feminists and out of a failure of the equity approach. Unequal gender-relations that subordinate women are seen not only as a problem in their relations with men, but also a consequence of colonialist and neo-colonialist oppression.

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It recognizes the triple role, and seeks to meet SGNs indirectly through bottom-up mobilization of PGNs. It is potentially challenging, although its avoidance of Western feminism makes it unpopular except with Third World Women's NGOs. The emphasis is on self-reliance translated into skill building and action on all needs and aspects of life.
Empowerment cannot be done by outsiders, though they can have a positive influence on it. In WID, women's participation in the development process was seen as a must, but without empowerment. It means, women were passive beneficiaries of mainly charity type of activities implemented on behalf of them.
Empowerment is when women are able to make decisions regarding their own lives, health, well-being, etc. by themselves, when women are able to be independent and influence policies regarding themselves.

Some issues crucial in GAD but not included in the tables are:

6. Participation

Participation means the full involvement of women and men in development activities. However, this is misused and misinterpreted. Women are very often left outside the participatory process. Their active participation in projects is not often considered as important, because of their subordinated roles within the family and community.
Therefore, the need to focus on the active participation of women where women's views could be heard and allowed to make decisions affecting their lives. Women's concerns should be an active part of the implementation process of development activities.

7. Policies

Policies are rules laid down in reference to certain activities, actions, groups of people, laws, rights, etc. Most development organizations have their own set of policies, which they use in the implementation of their activities. Policies are not the same as activities, though. Implementation of policies in practice does not necessarily coincide with reality. Women can be included in project policies as a pre-condition for project implementation, but in reality women may not even be considered and their opinions and grievances seldom recognized.

8. Equity

Equity is seen as one of the main goals of GAD. It refers to when the social, economic, political, cultural, spiritual equality of both sexes is met. This is seen as a process of being fair and right to both sexes. To reach equity, both sexes need to be equally approached with the same set of questions related to their lives.

9. Culture

Culture is seen as changing. It differs from community to community and even within communities. It is a creation of people and should therefore be seen as crucial in the equity process between women and men. In order to achieve equality, culture needs to be transformed, changed and made adaptable to the new structures of society.

10. Development projects

Gender is seen as a precondition for many development projects. In present day development projects, there can be no development without the inclusion of gender. That means, there can

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be no development without involving men and women equally, because women and men constitute household, society, communities, and build a nation.

Some basic policy approaches in GAD

Issues	Welfare	Equity	Anti-poverty	Efficiency	Empowerment
Origins	Earliest approach: - residual model of social welfare under colonial administration - modernization/ accelerated growth economic development model	Original WID approach: - failure of modernization development policy influence of Boserup and First World Feminists on Percy Amendment of UN Decade for women	Second WID approach: - toned down equity because of criticism - linked to redistribution with growth and basic needs	Third and now predominant WID approach: - deterioration in the world economy policies of economic stabilization and adjustment rely on women's economic contribution to development	Most recent approach: - arose out of failure of equity approach - Third World Women's feminists writings and grassroots organization
Period most popular	1950-70; but still widely used	1975-85; attempts to adopt it during the Women's Decade	1970s onwards; still limited popularity	Post -1980s; now most popular approach	1975 onwards; accelerated during 1980s, still limited popularity
Purpose	To bring women into development as better mothers: this is seen as their most important role in development	To gain equity for women in the development process: women seen as active participants in development	To ensure poor women increase their productivity: women's poverty seen as a problem of underdevelopment, not of subordination	To ensure development is more efficient and effective: women's economic participation seen as associated with equity	To empower women through greater self-reliance: women's subordination seen not only as problem of men but also colonial and neo-colonial oppression
Needs of women met and roles recognized	To meet PGN in reproductive role, relating particularly to food aid, malnutrition and family planning	To meet SGN in terms of triple role - directly through state top-down intervention, giving political and economic	To meet PGN in productive role, to earn an income, particularly in small-scale income-generating projects	To meet PGN in context of declining social services by relying on all three roles of women and elasticity of women's time	to reach SGN in terms of triple role-indirectly through bottom-up mobilization around PGN as a means to confront oppression

GCRDA

		autonomy by reducing inequality with men			
Comment	Women seen as passive beneficiaries of development with focus on their reproductive role; non-challenging therefore widely popular especially with government and traditional NGOs	In identifying subordinate position of women in terms of relationship to men, challenging, criticized as Western feminism, considered threatening and not popular with government	Poor women isolated as separate category with tendency only to recognize productive role; reluctance of government to give limited aid to women means popularity still at small-scale NGO level	Women seen entirely in terms of delivery capacity and ability to extend working day; most popular approach both with governments and multilateral agencies	Potentially challenging with emphasis on Third World and women's self-reliance; largely unsupported by governments and agencies; avoidance of Western feminism criticism means slow, significant growth of under-financed voluntary organizations

Caroline Moser, p. 56-57, 1994

PGN: practical gender needs
SGN: strategic gender needs

CCRDA

3. Gender differences in leadership

Because of the extra workload women have and their different socialization, gender differences in leadership (or in any other profession for that matter) is a clear outcome. Women and men are raised with different perceptions, assigned different roles related to their sex, and socialized according to what is expected of them in society. This leads therefore to different values, expectations and behavior patterns. The overall reality is that women are generally more nourishing, caring, emotionally involved and sensitive. Men are said to be the opposite of what women envisage: they are more decisive, distant and less emotionally involved. In leadership it is said that women and men portray the way they are and what is expected of them. This means that women and men portray a projective image of themselves in their professions. Women are expected to be soft and gentle and men tough and hard, (even if this may mean that not every woman or man is the same, there are women who are also tough and hard and there are also men who are gentle and soft). The differences are felt and observed by many. Women attribute their femininity and female characteristics into their professions and men their masculinity. Examples to clarify the differences and to make ourselves aware of something around us, but not clearly observed before: Differences in Female doctors and male doctors, in male and female lawyers or judges, in male and female police, in male and female soldiers, in male and female workers, etc.

It can be clearly stated that gender has an influence on leadership.
Governor Madeleine M. Kunin said that when women are in top functions/ in leadership positions in any organization, they not only feminize the environment by their presence in a superficial manner, they often have a deep impact on priorities, values, tone and leadership style of the organization they lead. She also said that women bring slightly different life experiences to their position. That in itself changes the nature of the organization.

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3.1 Different kinds of leadership to stress the gender differences

Leadership used to be seen as a "heroic model" where there was the unreachable man at top ruling over all the others under him. Due changes in societal constructions, traditional perceptions of male and female roles, modernization, etc. this definition is not viable anymore. It is undergoing great transformations and changes. Three types of leadership can be identified presently (though more cannot be excluded): hostile, separate and involved. The hostile leadership image has been attributed to the authoritative male leaders, a group that is eroding. The separate image is also attributed to male leadership, where the leader tries to keep a separation between himself and the others, while it can be said that even this is now changing into a more adaptive style of leadership.

The third kind of leadership is now more in and is said to be based more on involvement where the leader is actively participatory with his/her workers and sharing. Women are said to be more of this type of leadership. The ideal leadership in these days is an adaptive leader who is involved. Leadership though cannot be successful based on the connected style alone. A certain level of separation is needed. That why it is said that presently leadership is a struggle to include a connection line along with a separate line of working. This is seen as the most effective. Men and women are equally engaged in this type of leadership.

'Assumed' Gender differences in leadership

Female	Male
Feminine	Masculine
Connected	Separate
Involved	Distant
Hesitant	Decisive
Gentle	Tough
Subjective	Objective

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3.2 Visible and invisible barriers women face in leadership

Women started entering professional life, previously exclusively male domain, for a long time now, but this has not been without resistance. Many women are often pressurized and discouraged not even to consider those professions, and those who still decide to give it a try, can tell about the pressures to quit, put on them. Only the strongest will be able to hold on. Women need to be made aware to build a shield of strength around them. For this sensitization, education and training is needed. The development of assertiveness can only take place when women are aware.

Visible Barriers

Some major forms of visible barriers holding women back to enter leadership professions are:

- Discrimination; seen as the biggest barrier. Due to a vested interest or status quo mentality, men who hire and promote primarily men, (and who have done that for centuries) impede women's progress regardless of their potential contributions. Women's contributions are usually taken for granted and are not valued.
- Unequal pay; many women holding the same professional status as men, will and are still paid lesser than their male counterparts. Sincere efforts are made to change this.
- Statistical time lag between entry level jobs and management (15 to 20 years to get promotions) (this has changed now)
- Glass Ceiling Effect (by Ann Morrison, author of 'Breaking through the Glass Ceiling'). This is a transparent barrier or subtle discrimination against women's mobility. The Glass Ceiling impedes women from moving up to senior management, because they are women. Many women reach the glass ceiling and once this level has been met, become frustrated due to lack of promotion opportunities. It is at this point that many women decide to venture into their own businesses (p.9, 10)
- Heavy workload (triple roles), where women have less time left over for themselves.
- Lack of support and encouragement; women are usually discouraged to venture into the unknown. They are actually reminded of their primary roles and responsibilities as mothers and wives.

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Invisible barriers

Not only the visible barriers impede women's entrance into leadership positions, there are many more invisible ones that can be attributed to their own socialization process and assigned gender roles. Some of the invisible barriers are:

- Lack of role models
- Lack of exposure and information (if women are not in touch with what has changed around them and what has been gained for their benefit, they will not be able to claim them).
- Feelings of isolation. Isolation is common among women in management positions. Often they may be the only women in a room full of males and have no counterparts.
- Fear; many women think that they are not capable to do the job (and defer their powers over to men, while it can be said that there are also incapable men)
- Feelings of guilt; women feel guilty that they go out to fulfill their own desires and needs and go to venture their own careers neglecting the needs of others.
- Women's strenuous responsibilities related to their many roles.
- Pressures to make choices; women very often are forced to make a choice between their work/career and family where many choose for the latter as they are kind of invisible forced to do that.

3.3 Portrayals of women

Society holds many stereotypes on both women and men, though women's tend to surpass those of men. Gender stereotypes are the way women and men are portrayed in society. This portrayal is strongly influenced by the gender roles and the gender division of labor. While for men every aspect of public life is seen as just, his increasing participation at the household level is not a serious reason for stereotyping anymore. But for women it is the opposite. Women entered male professions long ago and in many cases are not picked on as long as they remain working in the soft sector of female prone jobs. But as soon as they start to compete with men, then all kinds of stereotypes emerge and are used to discourage them. The common stereotypes for women are that women are treated as mothers, wives, daughters, and girlfriends or categorized as emotional, bitchy or picky.

These portrayals of women actually follow them everywhere, no matter where they work and what status they hold. Now, with women entering many high status jobs, there is also a development in these stereotypes. Some stereotypes are very rare and can be found in certain families, religious groups or under certain circumstances. Others are more common and general. The rare ones imply the influence of certain factors in stereotyping (religion, tradition, ethnicity, resident area, etc.). This means that these stereotypes are more under influence of change than the more common ones, which stay rigid for a long time (though are also subject to change). Stereotypes serve an objective and have a goal. They are either meant as compliments or insults. Either way they are directed to influence people" activities, roles and behaviors. As they have a strong influence on people's way of thinking, and as people's ways of thinking are strongly influenced by outside factors (knowledge, education, exposure, etc.) and thus subject to change, so are thus stereotypes.

CORDA

Some common stereotypes/portrayals of women as leaders are:

- women fall apart when the going gets rough
- women are catty or love to gossip
- women are afraid to make decisions or always change their minds
- women are too picky
- women use sex to get what they want
- women can be pushy and mouthy
- women are difficult to work for
- women take things personally
- women are too soft to make decisions
- women allow their families or personal lives get in the way of their jobs
- women no sooner get trained then they leave to have a baby
- women are too emotional and cry easily
- women cannot travel on business because of personal and family commitments
- women are moody, especially at 'that time' of the month
- women are inconsistent and fickle and don't know what they want
- etc.

Some rare stereotypes are:

- women aren't able to see the big picture
- women aren't good team-players
- women make things more complicated than they really

- women who work the whole days, neglect their children, their husbands and their families
- Working women are the cause for all troubles occurring in their relationships with children, families and husbands,
- They are the cause for every ill fortune befalling their families
- They are bad mothers
- They are bad wives
- They are selfish and mouthy
- They are rude, and bad
- They have no morality, etc.

There are many barriers holding women back from achieving in life and compete with men on equal level. These barriers are in various forms and many-fold. They are from outside (contributed by external factors) or from inside (in the minds of the women).
There are also women who give their own impressions of what certain positions will include and put rules that can be a barrier to themselves. Many women who have made it or consider themselves advisable to others, would like to give the following advises to women entering leadership positions:

- physical appearance will make a difference
- have to prove themselves by working double hard
- should avoid body language
- not respond to flirting
- should not discuss feelings
- appeal hard/tough
- shouldn't ask for help or advice
- shouldn't disagree
- etc.

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3.4 Change

As gender relations are undergoing through an evolutionary spiral, so is everything else. Professions and positions previously exclusive male domains are now open for women too. The changes that take place have allowed women to be where they are today. But a lot needs to be done yet in order to guarantee a smooth working environment for women.
In order to change the present perceptions of male/female leadership, the following steps can be undertaken:

- Redefine the power of men: Power is an element of social relationships and is difficult to separate from related concepts such as authority, control, influence and domination. Three kinds of power exists: the power to (take decisions), the power over (dominant, be able to influence decisions) and the power within (the power within oneself to be able to undertake anything). The central issue here is the renegotiations of power relations.
- Women need to be enabled to discover the power within themselves.

- Male staff should be motivated to re-define their relations within their families and communities from a gender perspective.
- Awareness-raising among men of the injustice and disadvantages of their retaining overt and covert power over women through various institutions.

Recommendations:

In order to change the power relations, the mechanisms justifying and encouraging their promotion, such as tradition and culture, needs to be changed too. To introduce such changes, as mentioned before: education and training are seen as crucial. Training on gender sensitivity and harassment should definitely be included

What should be asked though, is to what degree family responsibilities affect women's work? It was said by Connie Sitterly that recent studies show that work affects marriage and children less than marriage and children affect a woman's career progress (1993,4) this means that in order to promote women in leadership or any other functions, we need to eliminate barriers affecting them.

One of the major barriers is childcare that actually concerns an issue for both man and woman. It was mentioned that if establishments/institutions do not address this issue of childcare, affirmative action programs can be meaningless, because only single childless women will make it to the top.

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Conclusion

Women are now everywhere in life, from the most private to the most public, from the lowest status to the highest. These changes are not only due to women's efforts to demand equal rights, but also because of a changing society and world at large. The ever-increasing globalization and the value of life have actually forced women to come up for their rights and participate in the development process. That women though still perceive many things differently then men cannot be denied, but this can all be attributed to the ways they were brought up. As women are seen everywhere in life in a disadvantageous position relative to men, they need some support mechanisms to be successful in their actions and activities. Women in leadership do not have it all, but develop themselves by learning on the job and sharing experiences with others. There are various women leaders who never had any leadership training but are very successful. This means that many women already have things in them, the power within, they only need to be made aware on how to utilize them. The best solution is to develop one's own ways of doing things, one's own way of leadership.

Women should not pressurize themselves to compete with men on equal level and become just like men in order to succeed. Men have an advantage of centuries' experience and women cannot therefore be expected to be at the same level like men just in one century.

The other major factor is that men and women are not socialized equally, they are not brought up equally, but actually the differences in them are stressed out. As long as there is no equality at the start, meaning from when they are born, there can be no equal competition.

Women perceive things differently than men do and therefore can define their own ways of doing things, their own suitable to their own characteristics and desires. They do not have to imitate men (there are women leaders who are worst than men are) or try to exceed men in anything. They can develop their own ways of doing things and many women are good at that. Various examples can be given of successful women who have remained themselves and defined their own ways of interventions. Remember: **there is no one way of leadership.**

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Exercise one

- **The best thing about being a woman/man is**

_____

_____

- **A woman/man would never let a man/woman see**

_____

_____

- **A woman/man would reject another woman/man if she/he**

_____

_____

- **A woman/man would like to be able to (if it was not prohibited by her/his gender)**

_____

_____

- **A woman/man would like to change this aspect of her/his life if she/he was able to**

_____

_____

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Exercise two

Statement	Sex (S)	Gender (G)
1. women give birth to babies, men don't		
2. women carry water, men don't		
3. little girls are gentle, boys are tough		
4. men's voices break at puberty, women's don't		
5. men are better in doing technical tasks, women don't		
6. women are too shy to take part in development projects, men don't		
7. women are better cooks than men		
8. in a study done in 224 cultures in South Africa, in 5 men were doing all the cooking, in 36 women did all the house-building		
9. men are better leaders than women		
10. women are emotional, men are rational		

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Exercise three

	R (reproductive)	P (productive)	C (community)	SGN (Strategic Gender Needs)	PGN (Practical Gender Needs)
Installing creches in the vicinity - of the work place of the mother - of the workplace of the father					
capacity building - for women - for both women and men					
Sensitizing women about their rights					
Training women in different professions					
Involving women in decision-making - in household matters - in financial matters - in business matters - in community affairs					
Women as leaders					

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Exercise four

Statement	Women in Development	Gender and Development
1. Women are trained as teachers		
2. people benefit at large from development projects		
3. Women resource persons on a "women and credits" workshop		
4. Resource persons for a gender training workshop		
5. She is the founder of the women's literacy classes		
6. women always support each other		
7. The whole community is invited to attend the meeting on women's heavy workloads		
8. Women are mobilized to support women who lost a child in war		

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Exercise five

Kinds of leadership

Statement	Hostile	Separate	Connected
Abebech, bring me the documents?			
Abebech, pass me the documents I requested from you yesterday?			
Dereje, type this file before noon!			
Dereje, could you please type this file as soon as possible?			
Sir/Madam, due to circumstances I was not able to finish my assignments. - It is all right - What? - finish it today!			
Sir/Madam, could I ask you something personal? - Depends - No			
Madam/Sir, I would like to discuss something very urgently now - I am Busy, later - Talk to the manager - Go ahead			

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Exercise six:

Let participants in groups of males and females make a list of barriers they consider are preventing women from entering leadership position: Let the draw a woman in the center with a big balloon attached to her, stating the major barrier they face And whether that is a visible or an invisible barrier. Ask the to attach smaller or equal size balloons to the first one stating other barriers (visible or invisible) women face from entering leadership roles. Ask them to make links (draw arrow) if they consider any of the barriers caused or linked to any other.

The linking of the balloons can be seen as a way of intervention. When intervention will be created on the balloons linked, changes can be created in the others too.

Exercise seven:

Ask participants (male and female) to list how women leaders are portrayed (stereotypes)? Why? (prejudices)

Exercise eight:

What are the expectations from women leaders? (flexible, gentle, attaches, emotionally involved, caring, supportive, kind, etc.)
What advise would women/men give to women leaders?

Exercise nine:

Discussion and debate:

1. The most important goal of women's development is for women to attain economic autonomy?
2. Relation between women and men in the family, community and society are cultural. Outsiders should not challenge this or try to intervene to create change.

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Training on Women's Leadership and Decision Making

Basic Leadership Skills

CCRDA

Prepared by: Mr. Negussie Habteyes
June 2001

1. INTRODUCTION*

Although a great deal has been written on the subject, there is still no generally accepted definition of leadership. This is both a symptom and a cause of the problem. Researchers have tended to define the term according to the particular viewpoint and dimensions they favor. And the variations are not just semantic, leading to basic differences in the choice of phenomena to be studied and in the interpretation of the findings.

Perhaps the most common elements mentioned in leadership definitions are that it involves a group context and an influence process of leaders over followers. Just to underline the ambiguity on the subject, even this oversimplified conception of leadership is not free of controversy. Some writers have questioned the validity of the "leader-group" focus, noting that leaders frequently spend as much, or more, time dealing with peers, superiors, and outsiders and with subordinates.

According to one authority, the presence of effective leadership in an organization is felt through a sense of energy and "empowerment" that characterizes the work force. This empowerment is manifested in several ways:

- Employees have a sense that they are important to the organization
- Employees are enthusiastic about the work
- Employees feel part of a team
- Employees feel part of a team
- Employees care about learning and improving themselves
- Employees care about excellence in performance

Such a description of leadership seems to place it in a category beyond typical conceptions of management. Are they the same, or different? How?

LEADERSHIP VS. MANAGEMENT

While many writers use the terms leader and manager interchangeably, important distinctions must be made. To start with, clearly not all leaders are managers, and it can be easily argued that not all managers are leaders. "Manager" is a job title that is earned or conferred, while "leader" is a term with a more subjective, even emotional connotation.

Many organizations are said to be well managed but poorly led. For those who make this distinction, the focus of management is clearly on its administrative aspects, such as the development of organization charts, plans, objectives, and control systems. Traditional conceptions of management work include four or five major functions, placing it in a different dimension. Leadership for them involves concepts like motivation, inspiration, and direction setting, and is often seen as an amorphous process requiring special talents.

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* Part of this training material is adopted from the International Institute of Rural Reconstruction's (IIRR) and the Management Center's (MC) training materials

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For the present, there does not seem to be any entirely satisfactory answer beyond acknowledging that both sets of skills or qualities are necessary for a well-rounded executive. All leadership and no management would be just as incomplete as the reverse.

The basic underlying question that historically has driven leadership research is "what makes leaders effective?" Although approaches differ widely here too, the most common definition of effectiveness if "the extent to which the leader's group or organization performs its task successfully and attains its goals". Other measurers of leader effectiveness include the attitudes of follower, and the leader's contribution to the quality of the group process. The selection of criteria has depended on the objectives and values of those making this effectiveness judgment.

The word leadership comes from a Greek root meaning path. A leader is a path finder who takes people forward along a chosen route. The word management comes form a root meaning hand and refers to the navigational tasks of planning the route and steering and maintaining the course. One writer has described the distinction in this way:
"Managers get people to do things. Leaders get people to want to do things".

Leadership is that part of a manager's behavior that influences individuals and groups to achieve a desired result. A leader shapes and shares a vision that gives point to the work of others.

MANAGEMENT SKILLS

As a manager plans, organizes, directs and controls his/her job, he/she must have a mastery of three basic skills: Technical, human and conceptual skills.

Technical Skills

These are abilities that are necessary to carry out a specific task. They relate to the individual' expertise in performing a work-related task. They are obtained through skill trainin programmes. These are critical for first-line managers.

Human Skills

Human Skills involve the ability to interact and work with other persons successfully, whethe sub-ordinates or superiors. Some of the critical human skills for a manager include effecti communications - both oral and written - positive attitude towards others, teamwork a motivation of sub-ordinates. Critical at all levels. Premium to the first line manager.

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Conceptual Skills

These deal with ideas and abstract relationships. It is the mental ability to view the organization as whole and to see how the parts of the organization relate and depend on one another. The skills are important. They enable the manager to see how facts are inter-related to understand the impact of any one action on the other aspects of the organization and to be able to plan longer range. They are critical to top management level because they are concerned with broad-based, long-range decisions that affect the entire organization.

MANAGEMENT ROLE

A role is any one of several behaviors a manger display as he/she functions in the organization. As the manager attempts to perform the management job, he/she must wear 'different hats' in interacting with different members of the origination. Managers play the following roles:

Figurehead Role:

A manager is the head of his/her work unit. Because of this lead person position the manager must routinely perform certain ceremonial duties - i.e. entertaining visitors to the organization, participate in a group luncheon.

Leadership Role:

The manager is an environment creator. He works to improve employee's performance and encouraging growth.

Liaison Role:

Managers interact with superiors, subordinates, peers, suppliers and clients. In this role he builds contact through which to gather information.

Monitor Role

The manager is constantly monitoring the environment to determine what's going on.

Spokesperson Role/Representative Role:

The manager speaks for his/her work unit to people outside the unit. He/she keeps supervisors informed and communicates outside the organizations.

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Entrepreneur Role:

The manager is exposed to new ideas or methods that improve the performance of the work unit. In this role the manager initiates activities that allow and encourage the work unit to use the ideas/methods that are most advantageous.

Resource Allocated Role:

The manager is responsible for determining who in the work unit gets the resources and how much each gets. The resources include money, equipment, facilities and access to the manager's time.

Negotiator Role:

Negotiations may be required with outsiders. The manger is expected to spend a good part of his time playing this role.

THE ROLE OF THE LEADER

Kotter's thinking and research has led him to identify four key roles for a leader:

- Direction
- Motivation
- Representation; and
- Development

These are discussed in more detail below. (Notice, too, how similar they are with managers role).

SUMMARY OF KOTTER'S LEADERSHIP ACTIVITIS

TASKS	SKILLS
DIRECTION	
Setting objectives	Summing up the position Making sound and prompt decisions
Eliminating uncertainty	Ensuring that the objective is understood Answering questions Clarifying misunderstandings

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Initiating action	Planning and organizing the task Issuing clear instructions Ensuring that individuals know their task Using specialist skills and knowledge in the group
Controlling results	Coordinating activities Evaluating results Taking corrective action as required

MOTIVATION

Motivating towards task achievement	Getting commitment to overall objectives and plans Ensuring that all group members feel involved Agreeing individual members' targets Building confidence in the organization and in successful task achievement
Resolving individual and group needs	Understanding each individual's roles and needs Matching the individual's to the task Resolving conflict Dealing effectively with grievances Recognizing individual and group contributions
Using personal style	Winning the loyalty and support o followers Speaking and acting with enthusiasm and conviction Maintaining informal contacts Using a style to meet the situation
Building group teamwork	Developing mutual understanding and co-operation Welcoming consultation and suggestions Being aware of group feelings Encouraging group pride and loyalty

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REPRESENTATION

Representing the group	Combining team membership with objectivity Ensuring group achievement receives outside recognition/support
	Informing the group of external activities and reactions Ensuring that the group members know of group progress and results
	Relating group objectives to outside plans Matching group achievements to the overall organizational results

Development

Training and developing leaders/managers	Developing own skills and knowledge Developing subordinates' skills and knowledge Encouraging initiative and self-reliance Delegating authority with appropriate control Involving individuals in decision making Coaching and counseling individuals
Creating the group's ability to change	Improving teamwork Involving the group in the analysis and planning of tasks Encouraging the development of new ideas
Integrating the group with the environment	Creating inter-dependent links with other groups

Qualities and Characteristics of Effective Leaders

The qualities and characteristics are as follows:

Empathy

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Leaders are able to put themselves in the other person's place to the point where they may lay aside their own views and values in order to enter the other's world without prejudice.

Objectivity

Leaders are able to view events as external apart for self; are not subjective, but detached, impersonal and unprejudiced.

Self-knowledge

Leaders know themselves well - their motivation, needs, wants, strengths and weaknesses - and are convertible with this self-knowledge of themselves.

Congruence

Leaders are those level of awareness is consistent with their behavior: that is, prior, reasonable, suitable and fitting to the situation.

Flexible

Leaders are not rigid; they are ready to yield to influence and are responsive to, or ready to adjust to changing conditions.

Supportive of Followers

Leaders support their followers, sometimes event when they are wrong.

Intelligence

Leaders tend to have somewhat higher intelligence than their followers.

Maturity

Leaders are likely to be emotionally and socially mature and to have a broad range of interests.

Motivated

Leaders want to accomplish things; when they achieve one goal, they seek out another. They are not primarily dependent on outside forces for their motivation.

Human Ralations-oricntesd

CCRDA

Leaders are able to work effectively with other persons. They respect individuals and relax that accomplish tasks they must be considerate of others

A BRIEF HISTORY OF THE MAJOR APPROACHES

Given the communal nature of human beings, it is an apparent truism to say that leadership h always existed.

From the start, leadership research and theory has been characterized by a wide diversity approaches with few attempts to integrate or build on earlier work. Behavioral scientists ha studied traits, power and influence, behaviors, and situation factors in their search for understanding of how leaders gain and maintain power, influence followers, and achieve gro goals.

TRAIT APPROACH

Not surprisingly, much of the early work on leadership attempt to discover those personal trai skills, and characteristics that distinguish leaders from non leaders, or effective leaders from i effective leaders. Early notions of leadership ascribed success to the possession of extraordina abilities such as unusual persuasiveness. Hundreds of correctional studies analysis, inconclusiv the initial intention of researchers to develop a list of traits by which to single out leaders for t crowd has not succeeded.

The conception of leadership as a simple function of personality traits seems, at best, ov simplified. While leaders were found to be slightly higher on certain personality factors, it is st unclear whether these factors represent a cause or effect of being in leadership position., or both

Furthermore, the personal characteristics that have been shown to relate to leadership do so on in the context of specific situations, and it has not yet been demonstrated which traits are mo effect in which situations.

Although trait theory as originally developed has failed to deliver the promised formula, certa useful findings have come out of the research that may be integrated as some point with da from other approaches. Research into traits and skills has shown that effective leaders tend to:

- Be more concerned with achieving results than with sticking to policies and procedure more practical than philosophical or idealistic.
- Rate higher than followers on dimensions such as self-confidence, maturit persistence, energy and tolerance for frustration and stress.
- Be highly motivated, with strong needs for achievement and power, and to a less extent for affiliation

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- Be more willing to absorb interpersonal stress, and to conform people constructively on work-related issues, than to avoid potential conflict
- Have higher levels of managerial competence in conceptual, technical, and human relations skills
- Be more interested in the work itself than in matters such as benefits and working conditions.
- Exceed their average follower in intelligence (only slightly), knowledge, achievement, socioeconomic status, and sense of humor
- Communicate with others openly and honestly, rather than being secretive and political
- Be more likely to encourage participation of followers in planning, problem solving, and decision making than to operate autocratically
- Incorporate a task orientation with a people orientation without having to trade one off against the other

POWER AND INFLUENCE APPROACH

Another major line of research has examined leader effectiveness in terms of the source and amount of power, and the way in which leaders exercise their power over followers. Whatever their focus or level of complexity, most definitions of leadership include some reference to it as a process of "influencing the activities of others". So the concept of influence is generally seen as some who fundamental to the exercise of leadership.

Broadly speaking, power is a person's potential to influence others, and in an organizational context may be said to take two forms: "position power" and "personal power". Position power is the potential influence of a leader deriving from the authority vested in the job position. The potential influence stemming from characteristics of the person in the position is called "personal power". The most effective forms of personal power are the leader's expertise based on demonstrated competence, attractiveness based on personal qualities, and loyalty based on cooperative relationships developed over time.

Although the terms and relationship have been defined in many ways, one classic outlines five sources of power through which leaders may attempt to influence others:

1. *Reward power:* Influence through distribution of rewards (e.g., promotions, bonus)
2. *Coercive power:* Influence through threat of punishment (e.g., demotion, dismissal)
3. *Legitimate power:* Influence through "rights" conferred by position in an organization (e.g., authority)
4. *Expert power:* Influence through ability to persuade with facts and knowledge (e.g., technical expertise)
5. *Referent power:* Influence through followers admiration for or personal identification with the leader (e.g., charisma)

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To fully understand the influence process between leaders and followers, it must be recognized as reciprocal. Followers depend on leaders for direction, inspiration, guidance, and support in their work. Leaders must rely on followers to perform well, to maintain cooperative relationships, and in some cases, to keep them in power. This counter balance of influence serves to curb the leader's exercise of "position power" and keep it constructive.

While a great deal of conceptual confusion surround influence processes, their apparent centrality to any notions about leadership has led to considerable research and a number of key findings have emerged.

- Leader-follower influence processes are reciprocal, with both parties sending and receiving attempts to shape their behavior
- Effective leaders tend to rely more on personal power than on position power, although both are necessary
- Leaders require sufficient authority in their position to make necessary changes and distribute rewards, or they cannot be effective.
- The manner in which power is used is critical to results, that its, whether the influence attempt is welcomed, rejected, or simply tolerated.
- Effective leaders tend to exercise their power more subtly, remaining sensitive to status differences and possible threat to other self-esteem.
- When power is used to inspire and encourage followers, it is more productive for the organization and the individual than when it is used to dominate and control them

BEHAVIOR APPROACH

Since early trait research yielded consistently disappointing results, investigators started looking in a new direction for answers, specifically toward a behavior-centered approach to understanding leadership. The focus shifted from what effective leaders should be to what they should do. In effect, there was less interest in how to chooses the "right" people, and more in how to train the one you have in the necessary leadership behaviors.

Among the notable series of leadership studies, carried out at the University of Michigan in the early 1950s, concluded that effective managers paid considerable attention to administrative tasks but at the same time remained considerate, supportive, and trusting in dealing with subordinates. In terms of specific behaviors, the most commonly found categories were planning and coordinating, supervising subordinate, carrying out position responsibilities, and maintaining good relations with co-workers.

While research continues on leadership behavior categories and activity patterned, the most significant findings to date show that:

- Leadership involves complex patterns of behavior carried out in a complex environment

- It is likely that several different patterns of behaviors may be equally effective in a given situation, and that one type of behavior may be effective across a variety of situations, depending on the mix of factors involved.
- There is no generally accepted list of leadership behaviors at present, but behaviors directed at accomplishing the work of the group, supporting and maintaining the group, and representing the group are known to be important.
- Effective leaders are more inclined to establish clear performance expectations for followers, and to treat them in a respectful, supportive way
- Effective leaders use both task orientation and people orientation to improve work group performance and satisfaction
- Effective leaders tend to defend the weak and timid, and encourage their involvement
- To be effective, leaders must have a flexible outlook and style, and be able to function in ambiguous situations. This ability is important to both creativity and information processing, and involves processes such as analyzing situations, going beyond the "given," ignoring distractions, and dealing with opposites and contradictions.

SITUATIONAL APPROACH

The finding that different traits and behaviors lead to effective leadership under-certain conditions and not under others has led to a situational approach to leadership research. Situational theorists maintain that either traits nor behavior are as important as the specific factors operating in any given situation,. Based on a contingency model, this approach emphasizes the importance of situational variables such as the nature of the task, the leader's authority, and the role expectations of superiors, subordinates, and peers.

A summary of the most significant findings for situational and contingency approaches includes:

- The nature of the managerial job is essentially reactive, so there cannot be one "best" leadership style or strategy as some have proposed. The choice of a style will depend on who or what is being managed, and under what circumstances.

- In recognizing the importance of "situationality", mangers are reminded of the need to treat different subordinates differently, and to treat the same subordinates differently in different situations.

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- Effective leaders are those who can either obtain a position that mak best use of their ability or can adapt to the situations.
- Task-oriented leaders are most effective when the situation characterized by either high or low control, while relationship-oriente leaders excel when the level of control is somewhere between the tw extremes.
- An understanding of leadership dynamics must take account of th leader's characteristics, the followers' needs and goals, and the deman of the situation.
- Because of the enormous complexities, it is unlikely that people w ever be able to be fully "programmed" for leadership roles – nor wou people be likely to accept being "robotized" to that degree.

SUMMARY

In summarizing the history of leadership research, what has appeared to several distinct lines of inquiry, each with its own following, can be see through a different lens as a fairly orderly progress.

Approach	Assumptions	Questions
Trait	Great leaders possess personal characteristics that ordinary people do not have	What traits or skills mak someone a leader?
Power and influence	It's not what you are, but what you have and how you use it that matters	What are the sources of powe and the means of influence u by leaders?
Behavior	It's not what you are, but what you have and how you use it that matters	What are the behaviors a activities that affective leade engage in?
Situation	It's not what you are or what you do, but the circumstances that are important	What are the conditions und which certain skills, styles, behaviors are most effective?

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The logic of this evolution in leadership theory can be understood by viewing the pattern of this research in terms of the basic assumptions and questions posed by each succeeding group of theorists. As each series of studies yielded some answers but raised additional questions, fresh assumptions involved to stimulate and guide the next wave of research. Further research continues on each of the approaches, but the emphasis tends to be more on reconciling previous contradictions than on maintaining a "purist" position.

MANAGEMENT	LEADERSHIP
➢ "Manager" is a job title that is earned or conferred	➢ "Leader" a term with more subjective, even emotional connotation
➢ Administrative aspect such as development of structures, objectives, plan and control system	➢ Involves concepts such as motivation, inspiration, direction
➢ Management is bottom line focus (How can I best accomplish certain things?)	➢ It is the top line (What are the things I want to accomplish?)
➢ Management is doing things rights	➢ Leadership is doing the right things
➢ Management is efficiency in climbing the ladder of success	➢ Leadership determines whether the ladder is leaning against the right wall

LEADER	MANAGER
Soul	Mind
Visionary	Rational
Passionate	Consulting
Creative	Persistent
Flexible	Problem Solving
Inspiring	Tough Minded
Innovative	Analytical
Courageous	Structured
Imaginative	Deliberate
Experimental	Authoritative
Initiate change	Stabilizing
Personal power	Position power

Leaders can be managers but not all mangers can be good leaders

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LEADERSHIP AND AMANGMENT STYLES

INTORDUCTION

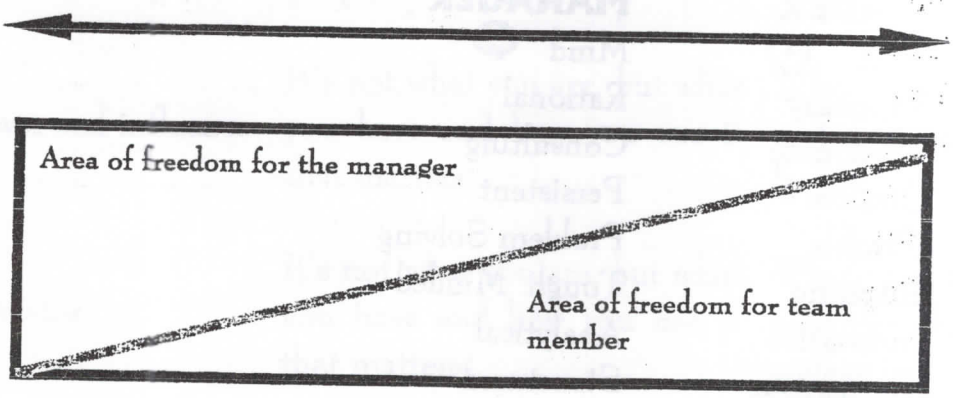
Most of us can recall managers or leaders we have worked for whose style seemed exactly right. The job was done effectively, the team worked well together and individuals all made their contribution. In consequence we will have developed a liking for one style or another and will probably use a similar approach when managing other people.

Extensive studies have been carried out during the last fifty years or more with the object of helping managers to choose the most effective styles to achieve the results they are seeking in their particular environment. The researchers have explored a number of theories and models to make the choices better informed and less subjective. The main contributions are summarized here.

THE RANGE OF STYLES - AUTHOCRATIC AND DEMOCRATIC

Tannenbaum and Schmidt developed a model of leadership behavior and how it interacts with others. The diagram bellow outline this.

A CONTINUUM OF LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR



Manager makes decision & announce it	Manager 'sells' decision	Manager presents ideas & invites questions	Manager presents tentative decision subject to change	Manger presents problem, gets suggestions, makes decision	Manger defines limits; asks group to make decision	Manger permits subordinates to function within limits defined by supervisor

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HOW THEY TALK

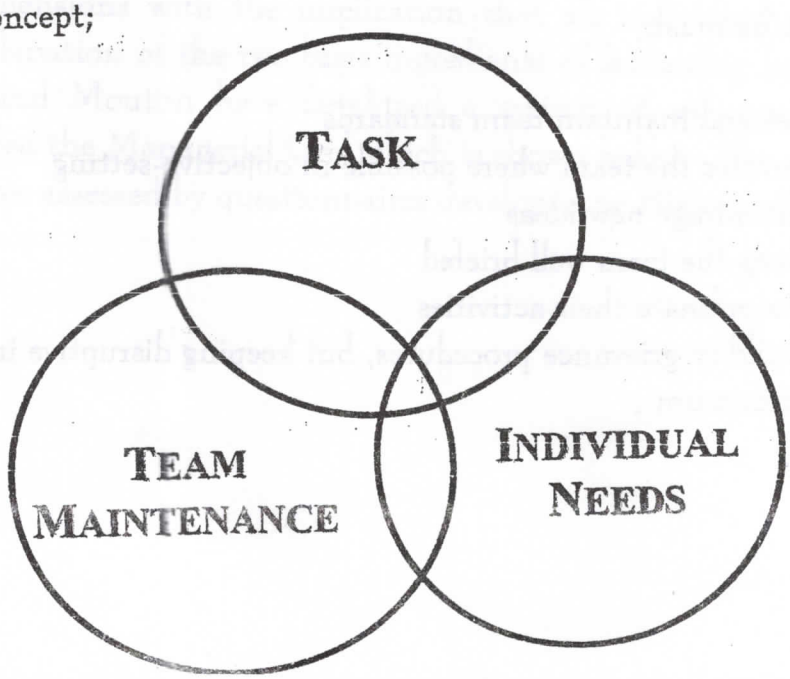
In each section of the continuum managers/ leaders use different kinds of language

Tells	The problem I face is... I want you to ...
Sells	The problem I face is ... I want you to ... because ...
Tests	The problem I face is ... I want you to ... What do you think of this idea
Consults	The problem we face ... What ideas do you have for solving it?
Joins	What is the problem we face? How can we solve it? Any ideas?
Delegates	I want you to sort out any problems we may have in this area I shall keep my eye on the general progress, without involving myself in the details Let me know if you get into difficulties

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JOHN ADAIR'S THREE CIRCLE CONCEPT

John Adair sees leadership as the result of the balance achieved between the three main elements of the leader job. These are embodied in this three circle concept;



The telling style will come from a decision that the Task is all-important and that the Team and Individual needs are entirely subordinate. Participating and Delegating will be used when the manager believes that the task will be achieved more effectively if individual needs are satisfied and the team works well together.

At any point in time the leader may be concerned particularly with one aspect, to the partial exclusion of others. You don't form a committee to discuss fire fighting drills when the building is burning. It would be equally ridiculous to forget people and concentrate on the task all the time. Over a period of time attention is paid to all three needs otherwise the leadership will fail. The leader needs to consider:

The Task

The leader is responsible for achieving the task objectives. She/he needs to:

- be quite clear what the task is
- know how it fits organizational objectives (short and long) plan how to do it
- provide resources of time and authority
- ensure that the structure doesn't hinder the task
- monitor and control progress
- evaluate results

The Team

The leader must pick the best team and get them to work well together. She/he must:

- set and maintain team standards
- involve the team where possible in objective-setting
- encourage new ideas
- keep the team well briefed
- co-ordinate their activities
- build in grievance procedures, but keeping disruptive influences to a minimum

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The Individual

The leader must also understand each member of the team and see that she/he:

- feels a sense of personal commitment and achievement in his job
- gets responsibility to match his capability
- receives adequate recognition for achievement
- feels that she/he is developing

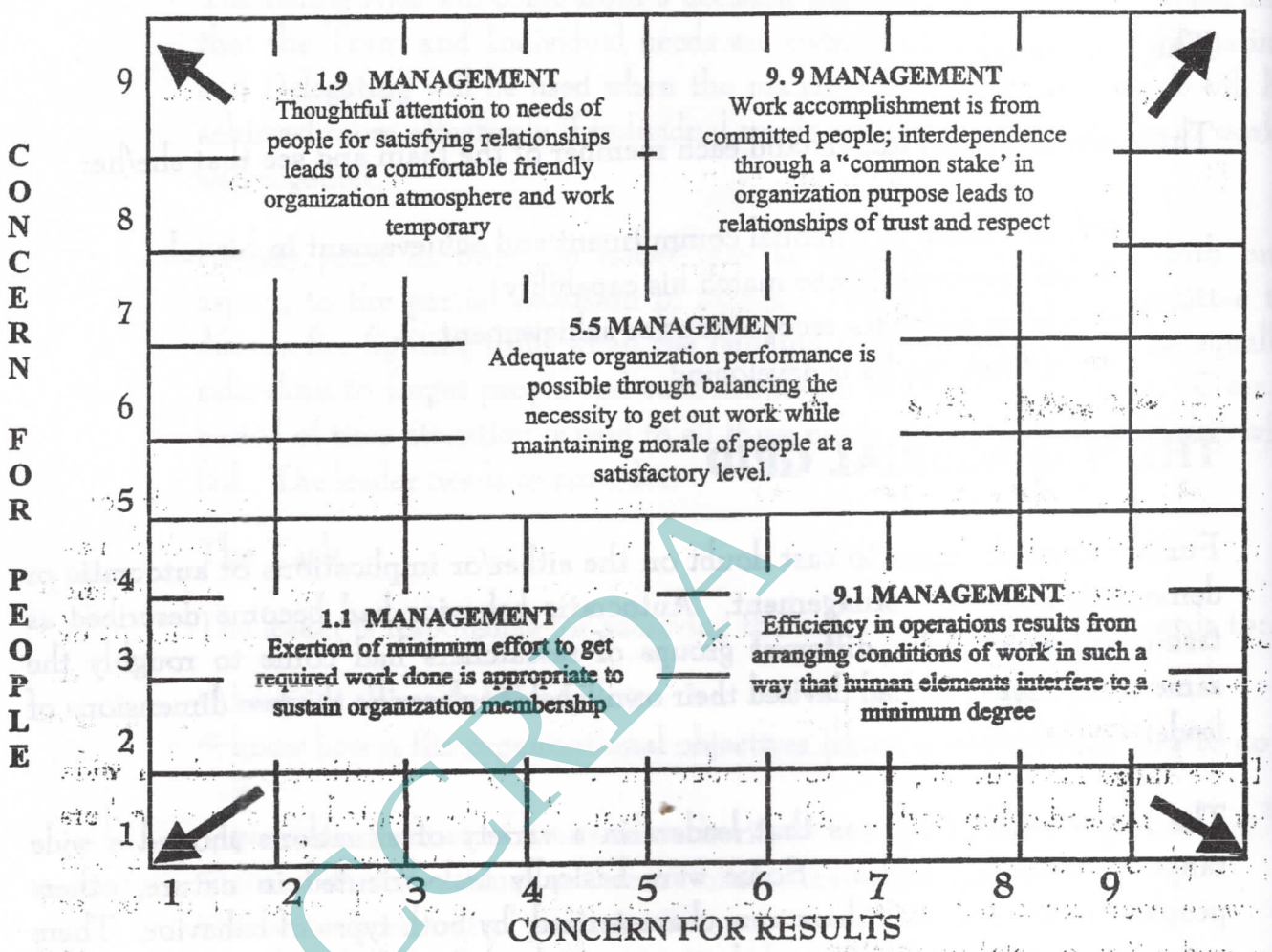
THE MANAGERIAL GRID

Further research began to cast doubt on the either/or implications of autocratic or democratic styles of management. Autocratic behavior had become described as task-oriented. Several different groups of researchers had come to roughly the same conclusions but had devised their own labels to describe the two dimensions of leadership behavior.

The important finding was that leaders in a variety of situations showed a wide range of leadership styles. Some were basically task-oriented in nature, others people-oriented and yet others were characterized by both types of behavior. There were even some people whose behavior seemed to show little concern for either production or relationships.

Rather than a continuum these two aspects of leader behavior are shown as independent dimensions with the implication that an individual manager could display any combination of the two basic ingredients of leadership behavior. Based on this Blake and Mouton have developed a system of manager analysis and development called the Managerial Grid which is shown below. The number on the grid refer to scores assessed by questionnaires developed by Blake and Mouton.

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Some of the value of the grid has been lost by the tendency to assume that 9.9 management is the most effective for all occasions without paying sufficient attention to differences in the situation.

The Blake and Mouton Managerial Grid

In 1.1 position lies what is known as impoverished management, with little concern for people and production

In 1.9 position, we have paternalistic management where there is high concern for people and low for production

In 9.1 position, where there is high concern for production and low for people, we have task management

The 5.5 position in the middle of the grid presents what is known as pendulum management

The 9.9 position which is simultaneously high in concern for people and production is called team management

The value of this model is that is helps to analyze one's own existing leadership style

Reddin's 3-D Model: Taking the same two factors and by calling them Relationship Oriented (RO) and Task Oriented (TO), Redding introduced a third dimension of effectiveness. With these there dimensions, he developed four basic styles.

Relationship Oriented (R.O.)		
	Related	Integrated
	Separated	Dedicated

Task-oriented (T.O)

The separated category is meant for leaders who are careful, conservative and orderly. These individuals prefer paperwork, procedures and established principles. They are usually precise.

The related category includes leaders who have high value for people. Individuals in this category are usually quiet, informal, sympathetic, accepting and friendly. They prefer to trust, to listen, to advise and encourage.

In the dedicated group, leaders are aggressive, confident and driving. They use rewards and punishments in their effort to promote better performance.

In the integrated category, leaders derive their authority from agreed aims, goals and policies. They are concerned with participation, interaction, integration of people in achieving objectives.

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Situation Leadership II

LEADERHIP AND LEADERSHIP STYLE

Leadership is one of the key responsibilities of today's managers. One part of leadership involves influencing the behavior of another person or group of people towards a specific goal or out turn. In order to achieve that influence you have to think about the style of leadership that will be most effective in influencing their behavior. We define leadership style as the pattern of behaviors managers use when trying to influence the behavior of others, as perceived by them.

While your perceptions of your own behavior and the impact it has on others is both important and interesting, it only tells you how you 'intend' to come across. Unless it matches the perceptions of those you are trying to influence, it is not very helpful. For example, if you think of yourself and 'concerned, supportive, and people-oriented', but your people think you are 'hard-nosed, directive and distant' whose perceptions are they likely to act on?

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LEADERSHIP THEORIES AND SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Leadership theories have been around for centuries. Most of them, however, tend to claim the supremacy of one approach or style over another - for example autocratic over democratic or task orientated over people orientated.

What's useful about Situation Leadership is that it claims there is no one right style. You should choose a leadership style based on the situation and the needs of the person involved.

HOW WAS SITUATIONAL LEADERSHI DEVELOPED?

Situation leadership was originally developed in the 1960s by two American management consultants Ken Blanchard and Paul Hersey. They called it Situaional Leadership I. The original work was based on an extensive study of the effectiveness of various leadership interventions in US corporations over a period of five years.

Since then Ken Blanchard and his partner Marjorie Blanchard have developed the approach. It's now called Situation Leadership (SLII) and there are a number of well documented studies in the USA, Europe and Asia showing its relevance cross culturally.

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LEADERS AND MANAGERS

Being a leader is one aspect of a manager's behavior. Often, when we think of 'leaders' we think of people who 'lead' large organizations and many people. However, as leadership is a key responsibility of a manager all managers have to lead at some point. So a manager who has only one staff member may also be a leader.

As important, frontliners or supervisors can, at vital points, become leaders. This kind of practice is essential in, for example, customer care or quality programmes where the action has to take place at a relatively low level in the organization.

DIRECTIVE AND SUPPORTIVE LEADER BEHAVIOURS

The Blanchards found two predominant types of leader behavior: directive and supportive

Directive Behavior is defined as: the extent to which the leader engages in one-way communication, spells out the staff member's role, clearly tells the staff member what to do, where to do it, how to do it, when to do it, and closely supervises performance.

Directive Behavior = structure, control, supervise.

Examples of Directive Behavior:

Anytime a leader...

- sets goals or objectives
- plans the staff member's work in advance
- communicates job priorities
- clarifies the role each person will play in the accomplishment of the task
- sets timelines for future work
- determines methods for evaluating staff member performance
- shows or tells the staff member how to do a specific task
- closely monitors to see if the work is done properly and on time

Supportive behavior is defined as: the extent to which the leader engaged in two-way communication, listens, provides support and encouragement, facilitates interaction, and involves staff members in decision making.

Supportive Behavior = praise, listen, and facilitate

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Examples of Supportive Behavior:

Anytime a leader ...

- listens to the problems of the staff member (job or non-job related)
- praises the staff member for task accomplishment
- asks for suggestions or input on task accomplishment
- encourages or reassures the staff member that he or she can do the task
- communicates information about the total organization's operation
- disclose information about self (job or non-job related)
- facilitates staff member problem solving or decision making

The Blanchards plotted these two predominant types of behavior on two axis to come up with four leadership styles illustrated on the following page.

THE FOUR LEADERSHIP STYLES

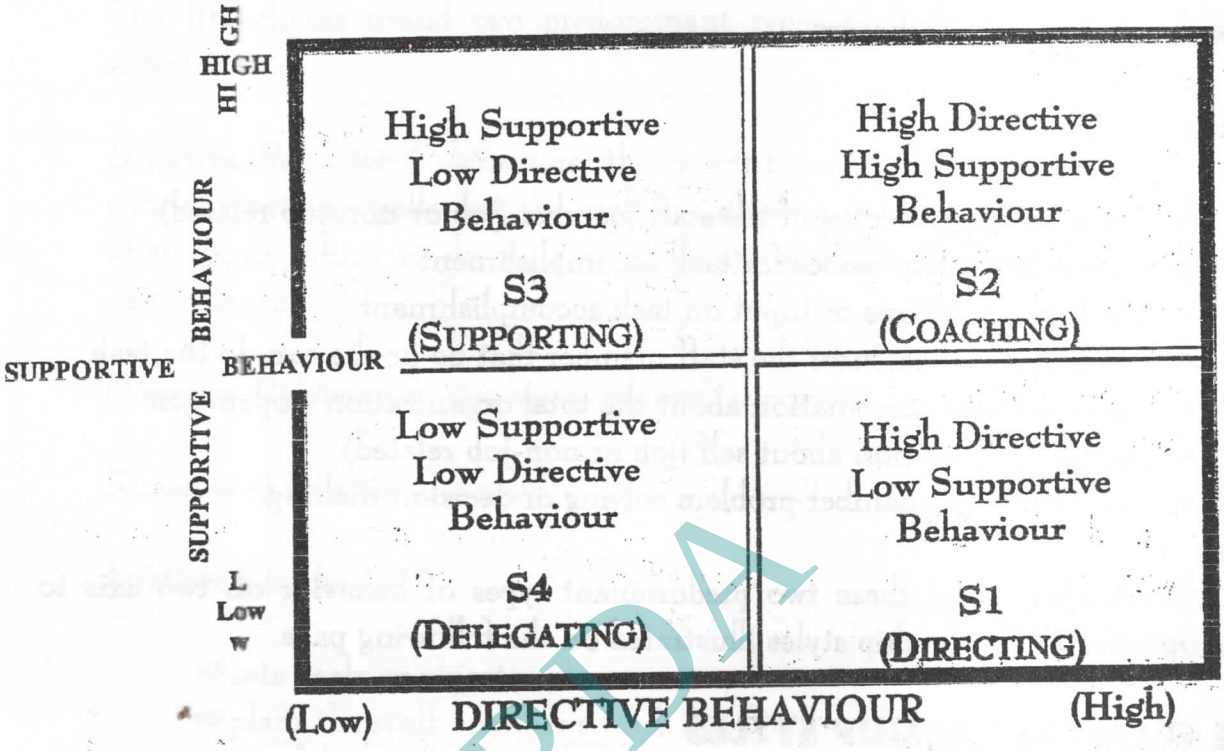
The Blanchards observed that while in some situations leaders use a predominately directive or supportive behavior, in other situations they use a combination of these behaviors. They proposed that these varying combinations of supportive and directive behavior produce four predominant leadership styles identified in the SLII approach.

These styles vary in:

- the amount of *direction* the leader provides
- the amount of *support* and *encouragement* the leader provides
- the amount of staff member involvement in decision-making

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They placed these styles on a matrix and called them S1,S2,S3 and S4. This is illustrated below



Style One (S1) Directing

Where a leader is high on directive behavior and low on supportive behavior this is known as Directing (S1). Directing is characterized by one-way communication.

The leader provides specific instructions about roles and goals and then closely supervises performances.

The Style One Leader:

- identifies the problem(s), sets goals and defines roles
- develops and action plan to solve problems)
- Controls decision making about what, how, when, and with whom the problem should be solved or the task completed
- provides specific directions
- initiates problem solving and decision making
- announces solutions and decision
- closely supervises and evaluates the work of staff members

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Style Two (S2) Coaching

Where a leader is high on directive behavior and high on supportive behavior this is known as Coaching (S2). When a leader is using Coaching or S2 style, two-way.

The Style Two Leader

- identifies the problem(s) and sets goals
- develops and action plan to solve problems and then consults with staff member
- explains decisions to staff member and solicits his or her ideas
- supports and praises staff member's initiative
- makes the final decision about procedures and solutions after hearing staff member's ideas opinions and feelings
- continues to direct staff members work
- evaluates staff members work

Style Three (S3) Supporting

Where a leader is low on directive behavior and high on supportive behaviour this is known as *Supporting* (S3). Decision making authority has moved from the leader to their staff.

The Style Three Leader:

- involves staff member in problem-solving and goal setting
- asks the staff member to define how the task is to be done and how the problem is to be solved
- provides assurance and support, resources and ideas if requested
- shares responsibility for problem-solving and decision-making
- actively listens and facilitates problem solving and decision-making on the part of the staff member
- works with staff member to evaluate the staff member's work

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Style Four(S4) Delegating

Where a leader is low on directive behavior and low on supportive behavior this is known as Delegating (S4).

The Style Four Leader:

- jointly defines the problem(s) with the staff member
- collaboratively set goals
- allows staff member to develop and action plan, and staff member control decision-making about how, when and with whom the problem should be solves
- accepts staff members decisions and only periodically monitors staff member's performance
- allows staff member to evaluate own work
- allows staff member to take responsibility and receive credit

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CONCLUSION'S

1. The old controversy about whether or not leaders are endowed at birth with some sort of "leadership genes" appears to have finally been settled. The early assumptions that some people are "born leaders" or that certain personal traits are universally necessary for effective leadership have never been demonstrated in several decades of research. Now, it is recognized that certain traits increase the likelihood but do not assure that leaders with be effective in certain situations.

2. If the behavior approach is in fact more valid, then training and development techniques are more appropriate. Rather than having to choose the right people, effective leaders could be "grown".

3. On the other hand, if it truly "all depends on the situation," then situation shaping or job design holds the answer to improving leadership. "of course, if all the approaches contain some truth, as the prevailing view holds, a multifacted approach would yield the best results.

4. There is no 'right' leadership or management theory. All theories offer some insight depending on the situation

5. Leadership and management theories overlay to a great extent. One defining characteristics that everyone can display leadership

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LEADERSHIP FUNCTIONS

1. *Decision Making:-* Whether decisions are made individually or collectively, the role of the leader is very important in making decisions.

1.1 Two categories of decisions

- Generic/routine decisions
- Creative/innovative decision

1.2 The process of decision making

- Recognizing the problem
- Analyzing the difficulties (causes and
- effect
- Planning an action
- Selecting solution (decision making)
- Developing an action plan for
- implementation
- Execute the decision

2. *Delegation* – Not abdication: Granting authority to subordinates to discharge duties and responsibilities

2.1 Merits of delegation

- Increases staff skill and experiences
- Motivates staff
- Promotes involvement and participation
- Builds team spirit
- Gives more time to leaders to pay
- attention to strategic matters
- Promotes staff confidence
- Increases the feeling of responsibility

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2.2 The Process of Delegation

- Identify the tasks to be delegated
- Determine what part of the task should
- be delegated
- Determine what results should be
- expected from the delegatee
- Delegate the task

- Give the necessary authority that match
- the task
- Enforcing the responsibility for what is
- performed

3. *Supervision/Control* – to monitor work progress and correct deviation

3.1 The process

➳ Determine objectives
➳ Setting standard
➳ Measuring performance vis-à-vis
➳ standards
➳ Correcting deviation from standards

3.2 Indicators

- Quantity
- Time
- Quality
- Cost-Effectiveness

3.3 To be effective, supervisions/control should be :-

- Timely
- Consistent with plans and strategies
- Objective
- Feasible
- Cost-effective
- Participatory
- Comprehensive and balanced

4. The Management of Conflict

➳ Are inevitable in any organization. May lead too physical or emotional damage o they may lead towards development and productivity depending on their nature and how they are handled.

4.1 Types of Conflict

A. Dysfunctional
➳ Produces irresponsible action and behavior

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- Takes away attention and energy from work
- Frustrates and destroys morale
- Discourages co-operation and team-spirit
- Lowers productivity
- Creates suspicion and distrust
- Erodes confidence
- Loosens group cohesion

B. *Functional*

- Promotes participation
- Opens up problems and issues
- Develops clarification of issues
- Enhances communication
- Improves problem-solving skills
- Enhances productivity
- Bring about innovative ideas (change and innovation)

4.2 *Conflict may arise due to:-*

- Inefficiency of performance
- Low moral among staff
- Frustration
- Poor communication
- Interpersonal and/or inter group hostility
- Breach of rules, agreement, understanding, etc

4.3 *Possible Sources of Conflict*

- Unclear objectives and goals
- Resource constraints
- Conflicting roles and objectives
- Inter dependent work (Duplication)
- Communication barriers
- Controversial policies/rules
- Difference in perceptions
- Difference in interest, attitude
- Unfavorable environment (political, social)
- Incompetent leadership

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➳ The choice of methods depends on several factors including:-

- ❋ The type of conflict
- ❋ The source of conflict
- ❋ The organizational climate
- ❋ The capacity and style of leadership

➳ The following conflict management methods are suggested

- Forcing ➳Confrontation
- Majority rule ➳Compromise
- Consensus ➳Integration
- Smoothing ➳Avoidance

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Training on Women's Leadership and Decision Making

Meeting the Challenges of Women's Leadership

CCRDA

Prepared by: Ms. Seble Hailu
June 2001

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Meeting the Challenges of Women's Leadership

1. OVERCOMING SOCIAL AND CULTURAL BIAS AGAINST WOMEN

Learning objectives

After completing this unit you should be able to:

- Explain the social and cultural biases;
- Explain how they can be overcome.

Women have proved themselves to be successful managers by possessing leadership qualities and attitudes to achieve objectives, bring about decisions, solve problems, reduce waste, cut costs, generate profits and set standards.

In spite of significant career achievements made by women, they still face unspoken prejudices and even harassment in the workplace. Sometimes these problems come to the foreground when a woman assumes a leadership role. Thus women should be aware of this issues in order to meet the challenges.

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1.1 Conventionalized Ideas

Women's role should be limited to homemaking and child rearing.
Women fall apart when the going gets tough.
Women love to gossip. They do not take action.
Women are afraid to make decisions. They are too soft.
Women should be followers not leaders.
Women are too picky.
Women use sex to manipulate men.
Women can be pushy and mouthy.
Women are difficult to work for.
Women are not capable of seeing the big picture.
Women should not be leaders or managers because they tend to be harsh.
Women take things too personally.
Women are not good team players.
Women are unequal to men intellectually.
Women allow their families and personal lives to get in the way of their jobs.
Women no sooner get trained than they leave to have a baby.
Women are too emotional and cry too easily. They do not think rationally.
Women cannot travel on business often because of personal and family commitments.

Despite obstacles and negative attitudes toward women in management, women are moving up. Society has therefore to adjust to the current situations of the world.

- Society should

1. Accept reality.
2. Encourage women in leadership position.
3. Give training and empowering to women in the leadership role.
4. Create awareness in the society by teaching.
5. Incorporate women in every level of decision making. (policy making and implementation)

1.3 Working with men (Leadership Skills for Women, p.15)

In a survey conducted by the authors, more than 100 women managers were asked what advice they would give to potential women managers about working effectively with men. Here is what they said:

1. *Physical appearance makes a difference.* A crisp, no-nonsense image helps establish positive contact with men. Wear business-like clothing.
2. *Be prepared and organized.* Use strong, direct language and be firm if you are interrupted. Statistics show that women allow themselves to be interrupted 50% more often than men. Do not contribute to this statistics.
3. *Use appropriate body language.* Men usually use less body language than women do.
4. *Do not respond to flirting.* Keep your conversation and attention directed to the business at hand.
5. *Keep your sense of humor.* A sense of humor helps keep you "human" – but do not "laugh off" disrespectful or harassing behavior, speak up and voice your objections. If any language or conversation offends, say so.
6. *Avoid discussing feelings.* Personal revelations from business associates are inappropriate.
7. *Do not feel you have to like some one to get the job done.* Concentrate on the job at hand and productivity, not personalities.
8. *Do not be afraid to ask questions or for advice.* No one has all the answers, and honesty is the best approach.
9. *Be prepared to disagree and to stand up for what you believe in.*

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2. TIME AND STRESS MANAGEMENT

Learning objectives

After completing this unit you should be able to:

- Explain how one can manage time;
- Explain how one can manage stress;
- Describe the sources, symptoms and solutions for stress;
- Apply the lessons to life.

"I recommend you to take care of the minutes,
for the hours will take care of themselves."

(Lord Chesterfield)

2.1 Time management

2.1.1 Definition of time

Time is one of the most valuable resources although it is not treated as such. Managing our time effectively is a stepping stone to effective stress management.

Time is a unique resource because all human beings have the same amount of time. Time does not discriminate. All of us have the same 60 minutes in an hour, 24 hours in a day, 7 days in a week, and 52 weeks in a year. The difference is in the way we use the time we have. Therefore, the secret to time management is not in learning how to save time or get more of it. The secret is in knowing how to use wisely the 60 minutes in every hour.

Though time is a unique resource, unlike other resources, it cannot be stored or saved. Thus managers need to be time conscious. A few minutes a day are enough to plan ahead. It is not enough to just write out a list of things to accomplish but to manage our priorities by dividing the list into first, second and third importance. It is essential to go through the items prioritized as most important before dealing with the others in turn. Evaluate the time needed for each task, bearing in mind that we often tend to underestimate the time needed. Be realistic and put some time aside for the unexpected.

Interruptions are terrific time-eaters and some are inevitable. We cannot completely eliminate them, however, we can reduce a considerable number of interruptions by adopting assertive behavior, avoiding unnecessary interruptions and improving organizational skills. This approach enhances performance and significantly reduces stress. For example, if possible, ask someone

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else to take your telephone messages during certain hours. Block those times for going through essential items on your list.

There is a time for action but the quality of that action depends on your state of alertness and vivacity. To maintain quality of thought and action, it is important to set aside a few moments for ourselves during which we restore our equilibrium through alternation or relaxation, exercise, practicing a hobby or simply doing something totally different which allows the mind to rest. Thus we need to include time for self in the time management plan.

2.1.2 Ten commandments of time management (Leadership Skills for Women, p.35)

1. Plan your activities – both work and personal – daily.
2. Do high priority actions first.
3. Delegate effectively.
4. Group similar activities (both work and personal) to save time.
5. Handle interruptions efficiently.
6. Say "No" to non-critical tasks.
7. Eliminate inefficient habits.
8. Mark appointments, meetings, and deadlines on your business calendar and, where appropriate, on your personal calendar and review them daily.
9. Do only those tasks that are appropriate for your position and responsibility.
10. Balance personal and work responsibilities.

2.1.3 Time robbers

- Procrastination
- Poor personal planning and scheduling
- Interruptions by people without appointment
- Poor delegation
- Poor use of the telephone
- Reading unnecessary materials
- Lack of concern for good management
- Lack of clear priorities

People who have problems managing their time have problems managing their lives.

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2.2 Stress Management

2.2.1 Definition of stress

Stress is the physiological, psychological and behavioral response of an individual seeking to adapt and adjust to both internal and external pressures.

Stressor is an event, a situation, a person or an object, which is perceived as a stressful element and induces the stress reaction as a result. Stressors can vary widely in nature ranging from psychosocial and behavioral sources such as frustration, anxiety and overload to biochemical and physical sources including noise, pollution, temperature and nutrition. Anticipation and imagination can also act as stressors and trigger the stress reaction.

Stress is the outcome of the adaptation of our bodies and minds to change, which requires physical, psychological and emotional effort. Even positive events can produce a measure of stress when they demand change and adaptation.

Stress is neither a new phenomenon, nor is it limited to modern man. The cost of stress, both in human and economic terms, is incalculable. The apparent costs (illness, absenteeism, accidents, suicides, deaths) take their toll, but so do the hidden costs such as broken interpersonal relationships, errors of judgment in both the professional and the private life, diminished productivity, increased turnover, poor creativity, low performance and a diminished quality of health and well-being.

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Stress is subjective and personal. It begins when we perceive a situation, a person, an event or even an object as the "stressor". This means that the brain does not respond blindly but exercises a degree of subjective interpretation. Two individuals can perceive same situations totally differently. One can perceive the situation as an exciting challenge whilst the other can perceive it as life threatening. By practicing positive visualization and putting the accent on the optimistic rather than the pessimistic outcome of events, one can progressively eliminate negative conditioning, which is often the source of maladaptive thoughts, unhappiness and frustration.

2.2.2 Positive and negative phases of stress

A certain amount of stress or stimulation is essential to our health and performance. Without the drive which stress provides, we achieve nothing. Our level of health and performance improves with increasing amounts of stress- but not indefinitely. Once we pass the peak of our stress curve, both health and performance decline.

Functioning in the positive phase of stress results in:

- vitality
- enthusiasm
- optimism
- positive outlook
- resistance to illness
- physical stamina
- mental alertness
- optimal personal relationships
- high productivity and creativity

In the negative phase of stress results in:

- fatigue
- irritability
- lack of concentration
- depression
- pessimism
- illness
- accidents
- uncommunicativeness
- low productivity and creativity

The aim is not to eliminate stress, which is not only impossible but also undesirable, but to remain in the positive phase determined by the right amount of stress. A certain degree of change is desirable and even necessary. Change can be a positive factor for growth or it can be a negative force, which may lead to mental and physical deterioration. The magnitude of experienced stress is dependent on two factors: First, the intensity and frequency of change. Second, our power of adaptability.

Overload is a state in which the demand around us exceeds our capacity to meet these demands. The four main factors, which contribute to the excessive demands, are:

1. time pressure
2. excessive responsibility
3. lack of support
4. excessive expectations from ourselves and from those around us.

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2.2.3 Stress and management

Intense change is a major feature of the working environment causing stress at levels of the hierarchy. Stress is not only found at senior levels of management. If we are to deal effectively with stress, it is important to realize that everyone is at risk. Stress is increasing with rapid changes in technology, working methods, highly competitive markets, mergers, takeovers, and recession. The business world is faced with the challenge of reducing stress and minimizing its adverse effects if it is to maintain a healthy and motivated work force.

The way stress is managed in organizations directly influences the quality of thought and performance related to the basic components of management: planning, organizing, motivating and controlling. Furthermore, it is intimately linked to the mental and physical health of its staff, by far the most valuable resource of the organization.

The stress level of a company is no more and no less than the sum total of the stress level of its staff. Enthusiasm, high productivity and creativity low absenteeism and turnover are features of dynamic companies, which operate, in the positive phase of the stress curve. When stress levels become too high, the company tends to operate in the negative phase of stress with all the ensuing consequences such as errors in judgment, low productivity and creativity, poor communication and lack of team spirit, tense interpersonal relationships, high turnover and absenteeism. The financial and human costs of such consequences are exorbitant.

Stress usually begins at the top, and the key to controlling stress is in the hands of top management. Administrative factors such as unclear objectives and goals, lack of job definition and unrealistic goals are a few contributing causes. Dealing effectively with stress means using it as a driving force rather than an inhibitory force. This requires a dualistic approach, which involves stress management programs as well as efforts to identify and reduce sources of stress emanating from the operational aspects of the organization. Management and training programs oriented towards both the individual and the company result in maximum benefit and produce a synergic combination of the two elements of the approach. To achieve the best possible results, it is essential that situations of the individual persons and working environments be subjected to specific investigation.

Learning to manage stress is essential for a balanced life and for a successful career. Many women feel like working harder and enjoying it less because of pressures of multiple responsibilities and roles.

The woman manager faces several sources of stress, such as multiple commitments, work over-load, conflicting demands, perfectionism, and balance between family and work. Increasingly,

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women want balance and flexibility. Stress can be a destructive force, brought on by too much work and not enough leisure time, which can ultimately damage relationships and health.

Stressors can be real or imagined. Stress can be caused by internal drive such as to do a better job or to achieve a promotion. On the other hand, stress comes externally in the form of a demanding boss or an approaching deadline.

Whether an event is real or perceived, our reaction can have similar effects. Common signs of stress include:

- Irritability
- Short attention span or boredom
- Inability to cope with routine problems
- Anxiety about life
- Suppressed anger
- Loss of sense of humor
- Changes in eating, sleeping, exercise, drinking or smoking habits.

Such knowledge and practical application of appropriate strategies has the benefit of showing us how to diminish our stressors and simultaneously increase our threshold to stress, making us more resilient, efficient and healthy.

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2.2.4 Sources, symptoms and solutions

Sources: *change, frustration, overload, deprivation, nutrition, smoking, noise, behavior, lack of control, techno-stress, etc.*

Symptoms: cardiovascular disease, obesity, diabetes, skin disorders, ulcers, the immune system, medication, alcohol and tobacco abuse, mental disorders, insomnia, backaches and headaches, mental and physical fatigue, persistent irritability, apathy, lack of concentration, nightmares, forgetfulness, persistent morning fatigue, social withdrawal, increased coffee and tea consumption, etc.

Solutions: personal diagnosis of stress, physical activity, deep-breathing, relaxation, positive attitude and self-perception, flexibility and adaptability, time management, behavioral modification, better planning, delegation of authority and responsibility, etc.

"The time to relax is
when you don't have time for it."

3 RELATIONSHIP WITH OTHER EXECUTIVES AND EMPLOYEES

Learning objectives

After completing this unit you should be able to:

- Explain the importance of good work environment in organizations;
- Understand the best way to develop trust relationship;
- Describe the practical aspects of developing team spirit;
- Understand the principles of human relationship;
- Know how to overcome potential barriers to good working atmosphere.

3.1 A Productive work environment

Industrial psychologists, social scientists, and most management consultants and teachers have been aware of the influence the work environment has on individual productivity. To tap the unlimited creative potential of people, a manager or a leader should:

- Create a trust relationship between himself and his group
- Give decision making power to all individuals within the group
- Turn failures and mistakes into positive learning experiences for the group
- Constantly give proper recognition to the group and its individuals for accomplishments

All of these elements interlock and must be applied consistently in order to develop and maintain a productive work environment. For example, there is little value in a leader trying to demonstrate that she trusts her people if she is unwilling to let them make decisions. Similarly, the manager who tries to give decision making power to people but is unwilling to work at turning failures and mistakes into positive learning experiences will discover her people are reluctant to make decisions.

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- **How do we develop a trust relationship?**

Trust is the most important element in the development and maintenance of a productive work environment. Trust stimulates security and confidence. On the other hand, mistrust produces frustration, insecurity, and fear – all major deterrents to creative thinking and innovative action.

Turning one's decision-making power over to another person is the ultimate expression of trust and empowering people to make decisions.

Where does trust begin?

"It is wonderful when the people believe in their leader: but it is more wonderful when the leader believes in the people!"

Trust begins with the leader or the manager. People prove being trustworthy when you

demonstrate you really trust them first. When you do not trust them, they might as well go ahead and do against the expectations and get in trouble because they will be blamed for it anyway.

- **Giving authority to make decision**

Decision-making is defined, as the right to determine what action will be taken. It provides freedom to apply one's creativity and innovative ideas.

Decision-making power paves the way for an organization or group to be responsive to people's needs both within and outside the group. It allows for flexibility and change. It is also the most effective way of tapping an individual's unlimited creative potential and channeling it toward the achievement of a specific goal.

Why are managers and leaders reluctant to give decision-making power to other individuals? It is because of fear of failure. However, fear of failure has a devastating effect:

1. it stifles creativity and reduces productivity
2. it reduces the willingness to take risks

- **Turning failure into a learning experience**

Failure can become positive learning experience. Any one can criticize and condemn a person's failures, but effective leaders and managers work with people to turn their mistakes and failures into positive learning experiences. Any manager can discipline a subordinate for his shortcomings, but it takes considerate leadership skill to help a person recognize his error, learn from it, and still be motivated to try again. Failure can be one of life's best teachers if people are given an opportunity to correct their mistakes and succeed. On the other hand, if handled improperly by the leader, failure can completely destroy an individual's self-image, motivation and productivity. Failure can turn a courageous, insightful person into a fearful and defeated one.

Steps to take when an individual or group makes a serious mistake or fails, the leader should:

1. Meet with those involved in the mistake and determine the cause. The leader should ask those involved if any aspect of the failure was the result of work-related needs not being met. This demonstrates the leader's willingness to accept part of the blame and shows he wants to learn from the mistake.
2. Work with the individual or group to determine what should have been done to avoid the mistake and what needs to be done to correct it. This provides opportunity for the leader to use the creativity of those involved to correct the problem and, at the same time, provide an excellent learning experience.
3. Let the person who failed do the project or activity again in order to make proper corrections.

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The leader may be tempted to correct the problem himself. She may want to assign the activity to someone else. Neither of these actions is helpful in providing an opportunity to have a positive learning experience for those who were involved in the mistake. Failure to provide such an opportunity communicates that the manager or leader no longer trusts those who failed. As a result, in the future they will be reluctant to take the risks sometimes necessary to develop and implement new and improved ways of accomplishing the task.

- **Proper recognition**

Giving recognition to those who deserve it is very important. It costs nothing. Yet it is one of the most overlooked and least used tools of motivation a leader has at his disposal.

1. Recognition demonstrates that you need and appreciate people's contributions. Leaders and managers know that they do not succeed had they not have the cooperation of others yet voicing appreciation for people's efforts is lacking. People need to feel needed. Giving recognition meets that need.
2. Recognition motivates people to volunteer their services. A leader who recognizes properly her people in private and public does not lack help or assistance. Giving recognition stimulates people to use their creativity to achieve the group's or organization's goals and objectives.

3.2 Team spirit

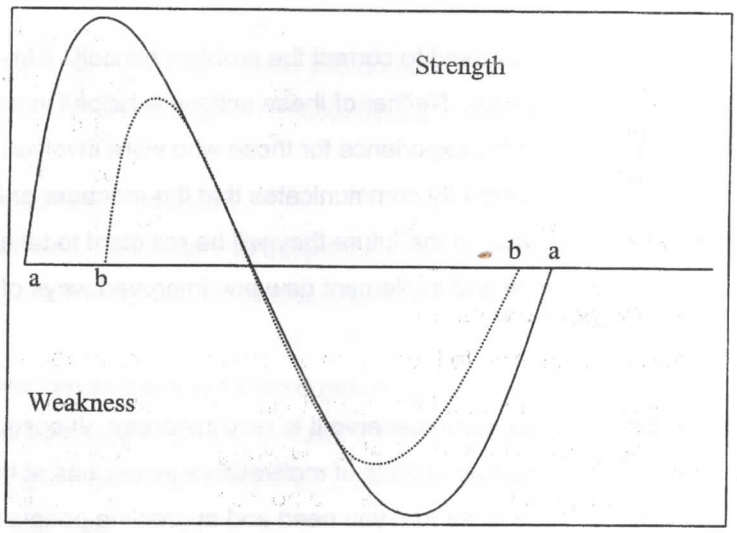
A team can be defined as two or more people moving along a path of interaction toward a common goal.

Two or more people working on the same project, if they do not communicate, are not a team. People working together and communicating, whose efforts are not focused on a common goal, are not a team. In order to have a team, two or more people must be communicating and working on the same goal. This is an important principle of team dynamics.

The purpose of a Team

1. **A team helps people accomplish more than they could work individually.** Two people effectively working together as a team can accomplish much more than two individuals working alone. Both the quantity and the quality of work improve when one becomes a part of an effective team.
2. **A team allows people to use their gifts, skills and talents more effectively.** Everyone has strengths and weaknesses. In order to capitalize on one's strengths and compensate for one's weakness, we need to team up with those can compensate for one another's weaknesses as they focus on using their own gifts, skills and talents.

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This figure shows the fallacy of the thinking of some managers who target in eliminating or reducing people's areas of weakness. Line "a" represents a person's normal strengths and weaknesses. By spending considerable amount of time, energy and money in training, a leader can help a person greatly reduce his shortcomings. However, as the dotted line "b" shows, if excessive time and effort is spent trying to eliminate weaknesses, the strengths will be reduced as well due to lack of use. This does not mean a person should not try to reduce his weaknesses. However, excessive concentration on one's shortcomings greatly reduces his capacity to produce. Therefore, the leader interested in using people's gifts, skills and creativity to increase productivity should allow people to work in their areas of strength. Since individuals also have weaknesses, the leader or manager should organize people into teams in which one person's strengths compensate for another's weakness.

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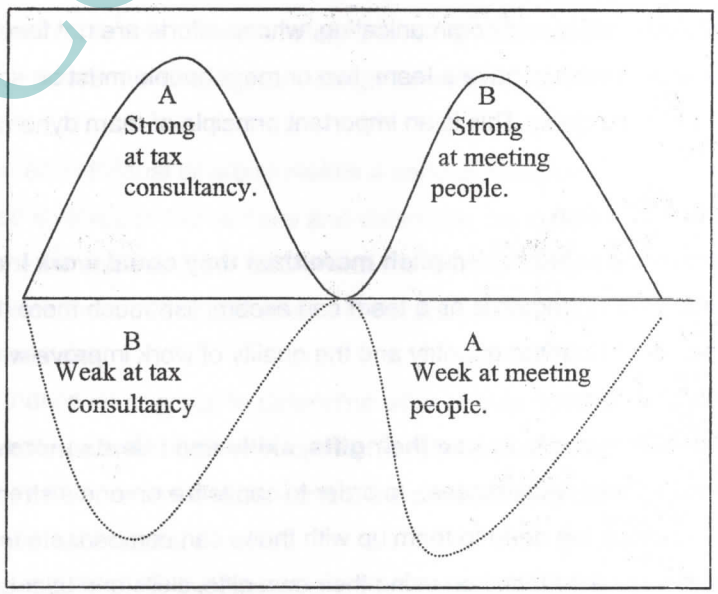
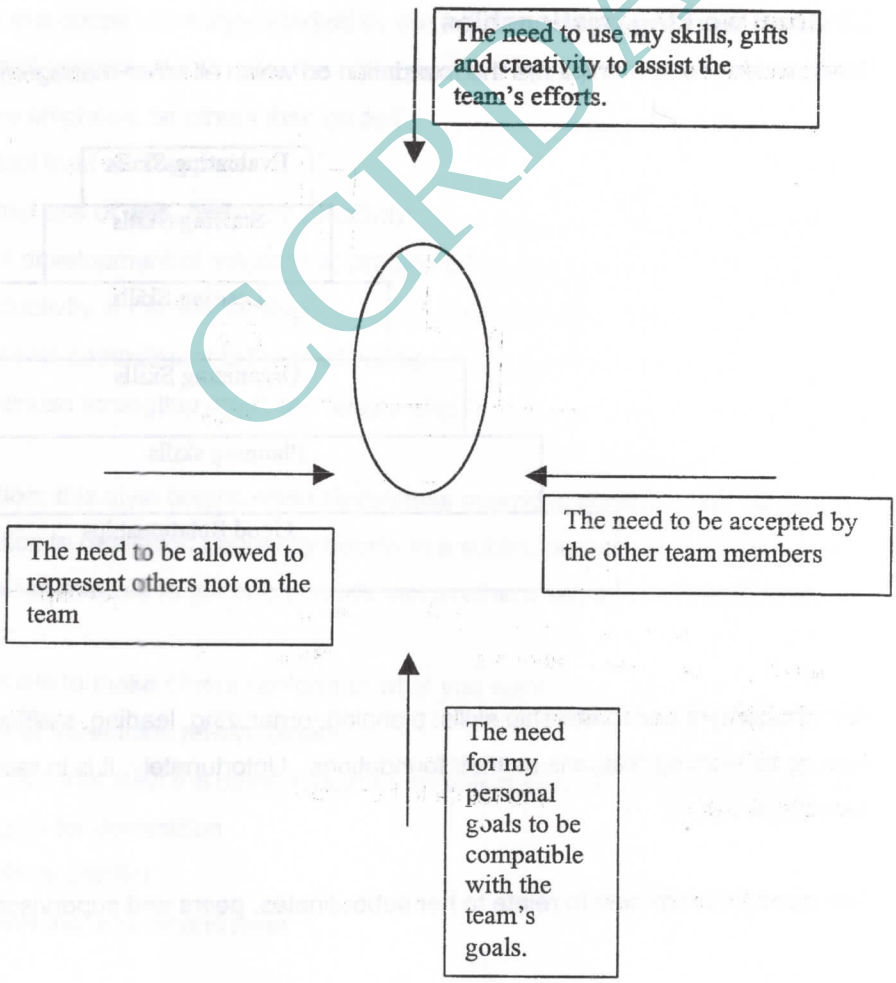


Figure 2, By letting one person's strengths compensate for another's weakness, a team can maintain a high level of productivity.

This approach to team building gives people greater job satisfaction, more opportunities to use their creativity, more motivation and greater productivity. People are always happier and more productive when they can work at something they are good at and enjoy. This does not mean that people should ignore their shortcomings and turn down opportunities to develop new skills. Every person should seek to develop his skills and improve his abilities. However, leaders and managers should make sure people have the opportunity to work in their area of interest and strength as a means of increasing productivity and compensating for the weaknesses of others.

- **Needs that members bring to the team:**

Each team member brings his own unique set of needs to the team. However there are four critical needs that all team members have in common. Unless these are met, the individual will not become a productive part of the group. The leader should be aware of these needs and make sure he and the other team members are meeting them. These four key needs are shown in figure 3.



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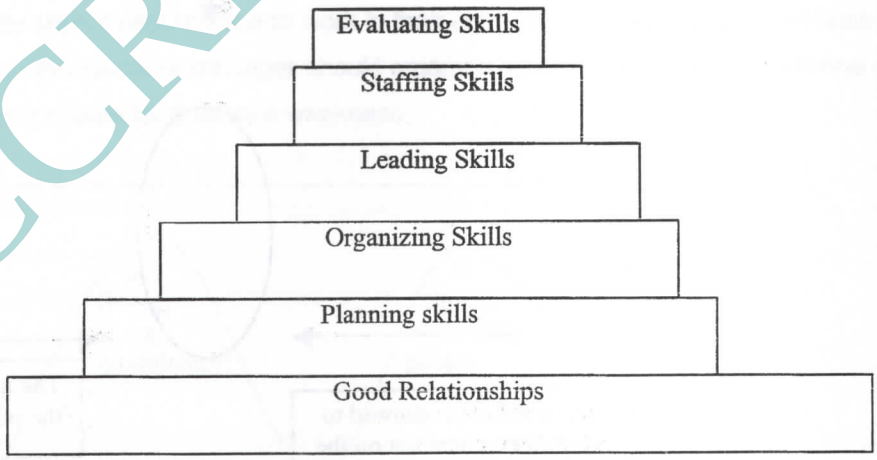
1. If a person does not feel accepted by fellow team members, she is usually reluctant to contribute to the team's goals. This does not mean team members must always agree. However, it does mean they do not ignore the presence, ideas, and contributions of any members.

2. If an individual's personal goals are compatible with the team's, she will be motivated to give her time, energy, and abilities to insure the team's goals are met. When recruiting team members, many managers make the mistake of looking at an individual's skills and abilities without considering his personal goals.

3. The team goal or mission is the key to developing and maintaining a productive team. A team member is either drawn into the team and a close working relationship with other team members, or she is being pulled away from it by conflicting issues and unmet needs. If team members participate in developing or refining the goal, there is less risk of developing conflicting issues and unmet needs. Therefore, the manager or leader should strive to let the team help formulate their goal.

3.3 Good working relationships

Good working relationships are the foundation on which all other management skills are built.



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All management and leadership skills: planning, organizing, leading, staffing and evaluating – have good working relations as their foundations. Unfortunately, it is in relationships that leaders are often weakest.

One needs to learn how to relate to her subordinates, peers and supervisors.

A president of a certain organization once said, "I would much rather deal with numbers than people. When I make a mistake with numbers, all I have to do is get out my eraser, but I do not know what to do when I make a mistake with people." This is a struggle of many managers. Thus we need to recognize the dynamics of human relationships to meet our goals.

1. All relationships revolve around personal needs. Every person has needs that can be met only by forming relationships with other individuals. In order to have good working relationship, all should recognize their needs for the other person.
2. Met needs build relationships. Meeting the needs of others is the key to developing and maintaining good working relationships. In contrast to this, unmet needs erode relationships just as met needs strengthens relationships. Labor unions are formed because employees feel the organization is unwilling to meet their needs. Unmet needs always produce frustration and resentment whereas met needs produce satisfaction and commitment.

3.4 Types of relations found in organizations

Human relationships within organizations can be classified into four basic styles:

1. **Cooperation:** it emphasizes serving than being served. Relationships usually begin and operate in a cooperative style marked by the following conditions:
   - Mutual commitment to meet the other person's need
   - More emphasis on others than on self
   - Mutual trust and respect
   - Mutual use of gifts, skills and creativity
   - Joint development of solutions to problems
   - Productivity in the relationship
   - Personal commitment to the relationship
   - Continued strengthening of the relationship

2. **Retaliation**: this style begins when selfishness overrides serving. The initial move from cooperation to retaliation frequently begins in a subtle, perhaps unnoticed manner. It begins out of selfish motives to get one's needs met at others' expense. This style involves the following:
   - Attempts to make others conform to what you want
   - Aggressive actions toward others
   - Attitudes that view the other person as an object in your way, not a person with his own needs
   - Struggle for domination
   - Continual conflict
   - An eventual winner and loser

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3. **Domination:** once a person wins the struggle for control and moves into a domination style, people are required to meet his needs. He rarely meets theirs. This style contains the following conditions:
   - "Loser" controlled by "winner"
   - Loser's personality "suffocated"
   - Mutual loss of respect
   - Loser's creativity and skills not used
   - Loser resorts to manipulation
   - Loser eventually concludes situation is hopeless and stops trying to get needs met

4. **Isolation:** at this point the relationship is degenerating rapidly as indicated by the following conditions:
   - Other person mentally blocked out
   - Communication stopped
   - Mutual mistrust
   - Problems unsolved
   - Needs unmet
   - Mutual unconcern
   - Productivity greatly decreased
   - Relationship terminated

➢ **How do we restore relationship to cooperative style?**

- admit your current relationship style
- admit your selfishness that contributed to the deterioration of the relationship
- make a decision to develop a cooperative style
- begin acting out of serving others

➢ **Rules for right relationship**

1. Attack the problem, not the person. If you attack the person instead of the problem, you will cause the relationship to move from cooperation to the retaliation.
2. Verbalize feeling; do not act them out. State how you feel and why in stead of communicating your feeling by the way you act. Acting out feelings lead to misunderstandings, resentment and additional hurt feelings.
3. Forgive others. This restores relationship.

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4. CONFLICT RESOLUTION

Learning objectives

After completing this unit you should be able to:

- Explain the reality, systems and mentality of conflict;
- Understand the role of communication in conflict;
- Describe the different approaches to conflict;
- Know how to address issues in conflict;
- Know the organizational issues surrounding conflict.

4.1 The reality of conflict

Conflict is always present where there is a relationship. Conflict brings tension. Some people cannot deal with tension over a long period of time. Conflict un-complemented by caring is usually destructive. Caring civilizes and redeems conflict. People are afraid of conflict because of its potential to hurt others and ourselves. Conflict arises when we fail to agree. We need to recognize that there are differences in opinions, personalities, views, and ways of dealing with matters.

4.2 The systems of conflict

Emotions of conflict and mentality of conflict: Someone said that to feel normal under abnormal circumstances is abnormal. Where there is conflict, the conflict invariably generates emotions. The episode of conflict generates anger, guilt, anxiety and frustration. It is wise to acknowledge the presence of those feelings and to manage them as much as possible. We get angry with our offenders. We may be disgusted with ourselves for having been caught up in a conflict, wishing either that we had stayed out of it or that we had handled it better from the beginning. Anger is a legitimate emotional feeling but we should be aware that because anger is an emotion, it is not always very objective. It is real but not necessarily logical. Thus, we need to balance the reporting of anger with an unbiased investigation of the facts. Sometimes the feeling of guilt follows the feeling of anger. If we are angry with just cause, making peace with ourselves can dismiss guilt. If we feel guilty for the right cause, we need to make apologies to those offended. Anxiety accompanies conflict. We are anxious about what is going to come. Friendships can be broken, working atmospheres will be spoiled, and some suffer irreparable loss. Yet since we do not hold the future, we must relinquish all the burdens. Eventually frustration afflicts some and eventually they leave, others press it down. So the result will be winners versus losers.

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4.3 Mentality of conflict:

1. Presumed justified cause- The fallacy of the mentality of conflict is the conviction that the end justifies the means. Truth and honesty best serve conflict resolution. Integrity must be maintained because it is essential to trust, and unity can only be built on trust and mutual respect.
2. Drive to survive- Conflict is like a war and the goal is to overcome the opponent. Thus they fight to survive. They feel they must survive professionally, financially, career wise thus, they fight.

4.4 Approaches to conflict:

When we are confronted with the possibility of conflict, three courses of action are opened to us.
1. Conflict avoidance 2. Conflict management 3. Conflict resolution.

- **Conflict avoidance:** This is advisable when situations are only slightly bothersome. Second, a problem of brief duration may well be left alone, unless it causes long-term consequences in doing so. Third, there are always risks in conflict. Sometimes it makes matters worse. Fourth, Conflict can bring pain. It is not easy to tell others how they are offending us. Fifth, sometimes we avoid conflict because we have lost hope of improving the situation. Finally, conflict avoidance tends to prelude any chance of improving a situation that is vital to us. Old practices and patterns remain unchanged. Failure and futility are unchallenged. The pain lingers. Thus, conflict avoidance is usually an unacceptable approach to conflict if the problems are of significant magnitude or continuing duration. Besides the problems it does not solve, it creates its own problems. It is in most cases a short-term solution at best.

- **Conflict management:** this is an attempt to coexist with problem people through intentional devices that maintain the conflict within acceptable limits. In contrast to conflict avoidance, which leaves one feeling like a powerless victim of the circumstances, conflict management assumes some limited control over the situation. It can have integrity, preserve intimacy and effect some improvement. It acknowledges the reality of the problem and one's feeling about it. It is active, not passive. It is what we have to settle for when conflict resolution is not possible. Although we would prefer to overcome the problem, that seems not to be an option for the moment. Therefore, we decide how best to live with the problem. Ideally, conflict management involves dialogue with those with whom the problem exists, although this will not always occur. They may agree and mutually conclude that resolution of the problem is beyond them for the present, so they will in good faith work together toward conflict management. Conflict management involves coming to an agreement about how the respective parties are going to relate to one another. It is usually a tentative arrangement when the greatest desire of conflict resolution is unmet.

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- **Conflict resolution** is the best objective. As the name suggests, the conflict is resolved and normalcy has returned. There are two kinds of conflict resolution. Malignant and Creative.

Malignant conflict resolution: it focuses on the problem makers rather than the problem. These attempts seek to bring the opposing faction into voluntary compliance or, failing that involuntary submission. If these attempts are not successful, attempts for resolution then usually press for expulsion. The conflict is said to be resolved at the price of devastation. Chances are that problems yet un-dealt with will resurface at a later time and stir another conflict. This kind of resolution seeks to absolve one's own side from all faults, and moves irresistibly toward a win/lose conclusion.

Creative conflict resolution: it focuses on the problem. It seeks to understand the perspective of one's opponents and to empathize with their distress. It seeks negotiations rather than preconceived solutions. It seeks preservation of the fellowship rather than self-defense. It seeks reconciliation rather than oppression. It accepts complicity in the problem and seeks partnership in overcoming it. Objectivity, charity, trust, honesty, amenability and openness characterize it. It strives relentlessly for a win/win solution. Conflict that is resolved creatively usually is not followed by recurrence, but by deepened intimacy and goodwill. Creative conflict resolution is possible wherever there is a willingness to work together toward rebuilding trust and vitality. Conflict produces growth if resolved creatively.

1. It breaks up stagnant and unproductive ways of thinking and doing things.
2. It opens up channels of communication between individuals and groups.
3. It broadens the base of input and support.
4. It generates new approaches to challenge and opportunity

4.5 Overcoming conflict proneness

1. Those who have learned to accept the humanness of others are genuinely unaffected by the normal misunderstandings and disagreements that are inevitable in living in a community.
2. Expectations should be continually scrutinized to test both their reasonableness and worthiness.
3. Judgmentalism should be avoided and be replaced by acceptance. Conflict results when expectations are enforced by judgementalism or when unfulfilled expectations are greeted with judgementalism. Acceptance is not approval. It affirms another's worth and does not sever relationship with that person.
4. Some people who offend are just plain ignorant. Thus they need to be taught of relational skills.
5. Respect can never be commanded. It must always be earned by being honest and capable.

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If you do not get any respect, instead of demanding it, give some.

6. Build trust through time. Trust is generated when we affirm one another and are valued as persons. Trust is generated when we accept one another. Trust grows where there is freedom to disagree, to question, to doubt, to bare one's faults, to admit one's limitations. Trust is facilitated when all are free to own their humanness, when there is no need for pretense and there is room for honesty. Trust is generated when we provide support and are committed. Trust is generated when we demonstrate integrity. Character is a key element in trust. (We may enjoy people, appreciate their goodness to us, and admire their ability, yet we do not trust them because nothing substitutes for integrity. We build trust when we keep promises and honor agreements. Trust is generated when we respect opponents. Confrontation is unavoidable in conflict resolution. What may be avoidable is the unkind or unwise confrontation. People in conflict can respond most charitably to their opponents and are best able to move toward middle ground when they are shown respect.

4.6 Communication in conflict

Just as communication serves conflict, and there cannot be open conflict without conversation, there cannot be reconciliation without conversation.

1. **Good communication promotes dialogue.** It is better to speak with courtesy so as to invite feedback that may lead to a meeting of minds and hearts. Powerless people resort to unconventional means, namely psychological games, which become difficult to control. We need to be sensitive when we address both persons and issues. This way we may avoid power struggles, face-saving debates and other psychological games that complicate conflict resolution. We should always try to avoid overstated messages, understated messages and unrelated messages.
2. **Good communication de-escalates tension.** Much communication escalates tension by being defensive or hateful. It is not necessary, or even desirable, to hide hurt feelings. However, in revealing our pain it is essential to avoid overreaction. Communication that de-escalates tension neither exaggerates nor distorts the facts. In conflict there is always the temptation to exaggerate the facts to make opponents appear or more at fault than is actually the case. There is also a tendency to distort the facts to make others appear guiltier or ourselves more innocent than is actually the case. Good communication furthers objective dialogues and avoids generalities "you are always lying."
3. **Good communication strives to solve problems, not to prosecute.** Problem solving communication focuses on the problem, not on persons. The concern is to resolve issues, not to make an opponent look bad which will create another problem. Although people are inevitably related to or responsible, they will work more cooperatively to resolve the problem

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when not preoccupied with defending themselves. Another characteristics of problem solving communication are that it focuses on oneself, not others by using "I" statements. Problem solving communication also focuses on alternatives. It speaks of better ways. It suggests future behavior rather than belaboring past patterns. Thus it employs positive, rather than negative reinforcement. It extends hope instead of judgment.

4.7 Variant dynamics in conflict

1. Change in environment
2. Financial stress
3. A closed power system

4.8 Varieties of conflict

1. **Personality centered conflict:** this results from a basic dislike of one person for another. This focuses on styles, dressings, choices, etc.
2. **Principle centered conflict:** it results from sharp differences of opinion over matters of significant importance to the opposing parties. This kind of conflict results when there is disagreement over ideology, philosophy, theology, or methodology. This occurs when someone feels compelled to promote something, rectify something or preserve something. Conflict centered in principle is rational though the participants may not always think, speak. However, it evokes considerable feelings. Thus, it is usually more effective to begin with feelings and work backward toward issues, since issues cannot be resolved until feelings are managed.

4.9 Working on the problems together

1. The first step toward conflict resolution is being aware that others are hurting as much as we are.
2. The price of conflict resolution is sacrifice. Both sides must relinquish pride, the claim of omniscience, some personal rights, and the mask of self-righteousness. The system of conflict must give way to caring.
3. If mediators are involved, it is better if they investigate by interviewing. Then, it is wise to call for a meeting to define the problem. Since each faction has its own perception of the problem, it follows that each one also has its own proposed solution. Before solution is sought, both sides should have some common understanding of the problem. There should be another meeting that calls for conflict resolution.
4. Keep the channels of communication open.
5. Depersonalize dissent.
6. Try to look from the other person's frame of reference.

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Exercise

Overcoming social and cultural bias against women

A. Read the following statements carefully. If you believe the statement is correct, write "1". If you believe that the statement is not a reality but a bias of the society against women and it will be overcome overtime, write "2".

___ Women's role should be limited to homemaking and child rearing
___ Women fall apart when the going gets tough.
___ Women love to gossip. They do not take action.
___ Women are afraid to make decisions. They are too soft.
___ Women should be followers not leaders.
___ Women are too picky.
___ Women use sex to manipulate men.
___ Women can be pushy and mouthy.
___ Women are difficult to work for.
___ Women are not capable of seeing the big picture.
___ Women should not be leaders or managers because they tend to be harsh.
___ Women take things too personally.
___ Women are not good team players.
___ Women are unequal to men intellectually.
___ Women allow their families and personal lives to get in the way of their jobs.
___ Women no sooner get trained than they leave to have a baby.
___ Women are too emotional and cry too easily. They do not think rationally.
___ Women cannot travel on business often because of personal and family commitments.
___ Women make things more complicated than they really are.
___ Women tend to be moody, especially at a specific time of their monthly cycle.
___ Women are inconsistent and fickle and do not know what they want.
___ Women are viewed as sex objects. They must consent to sex to get ahead.
___ Women are second class citizens.
___ Women tend to spend too much time on the telephone.

B. What is your role in contributing to the bias?

C. What is your role in overcoming the bias?

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D. What you think about yourself affects the way you deal with others and therefore contributes to overcome the biases. Check your self esteem

Person with high self-esteem

1. Likely to think well of others.
2. Expect to be accepted by others.
3. Evaluate their own performance more Favorably than people with low self-esteem
4. Perform well when being watched; Not afraid of others reaction
5. Work harder for people who demand high standard of performance
6. Inclined to feel comfortable with others they view as superior in some way.
7. Able to defend themselves against negative comments of others

Person with low self-esteem

1. Likely to disapprove of others
2. Expect to be rejected by others
3. Evaluate their own performance less favorably than people with high esteem.
4. Perform poorly when watched; sensitive to possible negative reactions.
5. Work harder for undemanding, less critical people.
6. Feel threatened by people they view as superior in some way.
7. Have difficulty defending themselves against others' negative comments: more easily influenced.

E. Identify your areas of weaknesses and plan to work at them.

F. To overcome the biases of society, your leadership influence plays a great role. Consider the nature of your own leadership influence.

1. **Influence Methods:** considers the four methods and tick in the appropriate box to show the use you make of each.

	Seldom					Often
Force	____	____	____	____	____	____
Persuasion	____	____	____	____	____	____
Example	____	____	____	____	____	____
Reward	____	____	____	____	____	____

2. **Power sources:** consider the four methods and put a tick mark in the appropriate line to show the use you make of each.

	Seldom					Often
Position	____	____	____	____	____	____
Personal	____	____	____	____	____	____
Expert	____	____	____	____	____	____
Resource	____	____	____	____	____	____

3. **Environment:** place a tick mark in the appropriate line to show the frequency with which each situation occurs.

	Seldom					Often
Coercive (instruction/ direction needed)	____	____	____	____	____	____
Cooperative (agreement/support/commitment)	____	____	____	____	____	____

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4. **Desired effect:** place a tick mark in the appropriate line to show the frequency with which each situation occurs.

	Seldom					Often
Short-term behavioral change (quick fix)	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Long-term attitude change (permanent shift)	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

G. Look at the profile you have drawn. Are there any changes you would like to make? Think about the actions you might take to nurture and strengthen each area.

For example:

POSITION
Do you need to become more visible?
Are you making as much as you could of your position?
Do you take ownership of situations as often as you should?

PERSONAL
Can you be more assertive, or less aggressive?
Are you always as well prepared as you might be?
Could you improve your presentation skills?

EXPERT
Could you improve your knowledge and skills levels?

RESOURCES
Make an inventory of the resources you control.
Are you using these resources to influence others or are you simply giving them away?

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Exercise

Time and stress management

Prioritize the thing that causes more stress in your life (1-15).

___ Death of a family member.
___ Vacation
___ Marriage
___ Change in number of arguments with a spouse
___ Trouble with co-workers
___ Change in social activities
___ Change to different line of work
___ Change in living conditions
___ Outstanding personal achievements
___ Trouble with boss
___ Pregnancy
___ Violation of minor law
___ Change in responsibilities of work
___ Loan
___ Overwork

Read the following list of symptoms and check those that describe you.

- ❑ Apathy
- ❑ Tension
- ❑ Insomnia
- ❑ Headaches
- ❑ Nail biting
- ❑ Feeling used
- ❑ Loss of appetite
- ❑ Nervous laughter
- ❑ Neck or back ache
- ❑ Intestinal distress
- ❑ Loss of concentration
- ❑ Loss of interest in sex
- ❑ Feeling overwhelmed and overextended
- ❑ Feeling irritable, frustrated, or easily angered
- ❑ Increased use of desire for alcohol, food, tobacco, sugar, or sex.

List additional symptoms that describe you.

- ◆
- ◆
- ◆
- ◆

Evaluate the presence of each of the healthy characteristics in your life. Mark an "S" in front of those that are strongly present in your life; mark a "W" for those that are weak or not present in your life.

- ❑ Self-restraint
- ❑ Enjoyment
- ❑ Setting limits
- ❑ Courage in the face of threat
- ❑ Realistic goals, thinking
- ❑ Creativity

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- ❑ Contentment
- ❑ Productivity
- ❑ Sense of humor
- ❑ Love for others
- ❑ Tolerance of change
- ❑ Positive self-esteem
- ❑ Sense of hopefulness
- ❑ Courage of risk taking
- ❑ Control
- ❑ Ability to relax and rest
- ❑ Peace of mind and serenity
- ❑ Purpose or mission in life
- ❑ Ability to be close to others
- ❑ Sense of safety
- ❑ Ability to protect yourself
- ❑ Acceptance and being able to see good in difficulty

What are your strongest areas?

What are your weakest areas?

What changes are you willing to make to improve your health and encourage recovery from being exhausted?

Which of the following activities refresh you and help you recharge?

- ❑ Reading a good book.
- ❑ Going to cinema or theatre
- ❑ Meditation
- ❑ Take a walk
- ❑ Look for beauty

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- ❑ Walking, jogging, running
- ❑ Participating in regular refreshment activities
- ❑ Visiting
- ❑ Laughing at ourselves
- ❑ Laughing in difficult situations
- ❑ Praying
- ❑ Exercising
- ❑ Taking a nap regularly
- ❑ Quit working while you still have energy to do something else
- ❑ Doing breathing exercises after work
- ❑ Giving yourself something to look forward to daily and do it.
- ❑ Trying something you have never done before
- ❑ Calling a friend and talking about something enjoyable
- ❑ Spending time in relaxing hobby

List additional activities that will you disengage.

- ◆
- ◆
- ◆
- ◆

Identify your areas of struggle in your time management:

- ❑ not planning the day, the week, the month
- ❑ procrastination
- ❑ not slice the task into more manageable pieces
- ❑ not starting with the easiest one
- ❑ not getting a clear picture of the task by discussing with others
- ❑ not designating completion points
- ❑ not setting a deadline for completing the project
- ❑ not handling interruptions immediately
- ❑ not avoiding interruptions
- ❑ not scheduling untimely interruptions
- ❑ not managing phone calls wisely
- ❑ not conquering paperwork
- ❑ not planning shorter and more effective meetings
- ❑ specify others _____
- ❑ _____
- ❑ _____
- ❑ _____
- ❑ _____

Remember it is not how much time you have, it is how well you manage it.

Which of the habits are you willing to improve.

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.

Write action plans to deal with your time effectively.

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Exercise

Relationships with other employees and executives

Evaluate your working environment

Defensive:

1. Evaluation – passing judgment, blaming, praising, questioning standards, values and motives.
2. Control – trying to do something to another, attempting to change an attitude or a behavior of another.
3. Strategy – manipulation and tricking others.
4. Neutrality – expressing lack of concern for another's welfare.
5. Superiority – communicating the attitude of superiority in position, wealth, intellectual ability, physical characteristics, arousing feeling of inadequacy in others.
6. Certainty – dogmatic, needing to be right, wanting to win.

Supportive:

1. Description – non-judgmental, asking questions for information, presenting feelings, events, perceptions, or processes without calling for or implying change on the receiver.
2. Problem orientation – defining mutual problems and seeking solutions without inhibiting the receiver's goals, decisions and progress.
3. Spontaneity – free of deception, unhidden motives, honest and straight forward.
4. Equality – mutual trust and respect, participative planning without influence of power, status, appearance, etc.
5. Empathy – respecting the worth of the listener, identifying, sharing and accepting his problems, feelings and values.
6. Provisionalism – willingness to experiment with one's own behavior, attitudes and ideas.

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Exercise

Conflict Resolution

1. From these definitions, what are some of the key ingredients in conflict?

"Conflict is a situation in which two or more human beings desire goals which they perceive as being attainable by one or the other but not by both" (Stagner, Ross)

"Conflict occurs anytime there is a disturbance in the equilibrium and security of a protective environment" (Perry, Lloyd)

"Conflict arises when the actions of one party threaten the values, goals or behaviors of another party" (Shawchuck, Norman) – the threat could be physical, psychological or spiritual. It might affect one's relationships, material well-being, position, or values or beliefs.

"Conflict is two or more objects aggressively trying to occupy the same space at the same time…two persons each trying to have his 'own way' regarding an important decision…" (Shawchuck, Norman) – the space could be position, privilege, leadership, a desirable mission, use of the organization's car.

"I am sure we can begin by agreeing that every major advance in civilization has resulted from conflict" (Ross Stagner)

2. Identify your way of reaction to threats:
- **Withdraw:** "I will take my territory away with me."
- **Trade:** "I will exchange some of my territory for another."
- **Resent:** "I will keep on having the frustration and anger."
- **Displace:** "I will take my resentment on my family."
- **Share:** "I will give some away in order to protect the rest."
- **Take:** "I will take another's territory by whatever means it requires."
- **Redefine:** "Let us draw new boundaries acceptable to all parties."

3. What are some of your conflict areas when it comes to others' personalities and styles of doing things?
- Idealist (she has no values) versus Pragmatist (she has her head in the clouds)
- Impulsive (she wants to accelerate) versus Phlegmatic (she wants to brake!)
- Sanguine (happy-go-lucky) versus Perfectionist (she must do everything 'just so')
- Organized (she plans ahead) versus Disorganized (she leaves things till the last minute)
- Neat (she tries to put things together) versus Sloppy (she does not care)
- Rational (she uses facts to make decision) versus Emotional (she uses feelings to make decisions)
- Task-oriented (she focuses on the work) versus Human-oriented (she focuses on relationship)
- Confrontational (she is too direct) versus Indirect (she is cautious and diplomatic)

4. Evaluate the conflict areas when it comes to issues: which one is the least difficult to handle/
- Conflict over values, beliefs, traditions. Think of time honored traditions of your organization that would be very hard to change.
- Conflict over purposes and goals. Can you think of a case on your field or in your organization where serious conflict developed over the issue of reason for existence? In line with that what should be the goals for a particular project/group?

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- Conflict over programs and methods. How should we do it? (Strategy, methods, program). Who should do it? (Organization, team). When should we do it? (Schedule). How much should it cost? (Budget).
- Conflicts over the facts. Think of the issues you quarreled over the legitimacy of the sources from which the facts have been gathered or the process used to discover them. The accuracy or truthfulness of the facts themselves.
- Conflicts over leadership – this is aggravated if the person in the position is determined to fight, by whatever means necessary, to stay in the position and people do not like her leadership style, personality, ability and communication skills
- Conflict introduced because of unfair treatment- one reaction to unfair treatment is to withdraw or resign. Another is to seek clarification of the situation and a restoration of one's reputation and position. However, a common reaction is to fight back by criticizing and attacking the ones responsible, and by bringing others into the conflict to support one's cause.
- Conflict arose because of people's feeling of taken for granted, ignored or used (lack of acceptance, recognition, and appreciation).

5. Identify your style of conflict

Approach to Others	**Nonassertive** I'm not OK, you are OK	**Directly aggressive** I'm OK, You are not OK	**Indirectly aggressive** I'm OK, you are not OK. (But I'll let you think you are.)	**Assertive** I'm OK. You're OK.
Decision Making	Let others choose	Chooses for others. They know it	Chooses for others. They do not know it.	Chooses for self
Self-sufficiency	Low	High or low	Looks high but usually low	Usually high
Behavior in Problem situations	Flees, gives in	Outright attack	Concealed attack	Direct confrontation
Response of Others	Disrespect, guilt, anger, frustration	hurt, defensiveness, humiliation	Confusion, frustration, feelings of manipulation	Mutual respect
Success pattern	Succeeds by luck Or charity of others	beats out others	wins by manipulation	Attempts 'win-win' solutions

(The Assertive Woman- by Stanlee Phelps and Nancy Austin)

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Meeting the Challenges of Women's Leadership

1. MANAGING CHANGES EFFECTIVELY

Learning objectives

After completing this unit you should be able to:

- Explain the nature of change in organizations;
- Explain why organizations should change;
- Identify the different response to changes;
- The practical aspects of managing change;
- What the difficulties of change are;
- Know how to overcome potential barriers to change;
- Know the effective ways to introduce change;
- Apply the skills.

1.1 Definition of change

- One approach to define change is to suggest the various types of change that can be identified.
  1. Modernization: this category incluides many of the technologicai changes occurring in the world.
  2. Transformation: this category includes qualitative changes a child makes between the first day of the class started in September and the last date of class June.
  3. Survival adaptation: this category includes curriculum change in school, changing a grocery store to a supermarket.

- From a different perspective, Thomas R. Bennett has suggested four types of change (Schaller, p.35)

  a) Change in structure – the pressure for a change in structure are the result of stresses and strains by the combination of internal dissatisfactions and external trends, and pressures.
  b) Change in technology – the introduction of electronic data-processing equipment to replace the old manual system.
  c) Change in behavior – this change is caused to deal with the unexpected changes in structure and technology.

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d) Changes in assumption and values – values and assumptions guide behavior. Thus, before we change a behavior, it is essential to have a change in values and assumptions.

"A ship that stays in the harbor
never encounters danger –
but it also never gets anywhere."

- Another way of looking at the nature of change is to consider the sources of change. There are two sources of change.

  First, internally motivated change. This change could be initiated by an individual or an organization to meet new challenges. Example, the decision by community organization to build and mange a housing project in the neighborhood.

  Second, externally motivated change. Change occurs in response to external pressures. The person concerned with intentional planned change has less control over the timing, pace and the range of alternatives.

  Third is indecision. The focus here is on the response to these forces for changes. It is waiting till the last resort. This is a situation which produces the greatest frustration for the advocate of planned change.

1.2 The nature of change in an organization

Why change? The new reality demands new approach to solve problems. Old view, old slogans, old ways to solve problems, old structures, old concerns, old pressures, in general old reality, do not respond to the new reality of organizations. In response to the new reality, a new organizational development is necessitated to emerge. John J. Rockefeller, Jr. said, "If you want to succeed, you should strike out on new paths rather than travel the worn paths of accepted success."

This usually requires a reexamination of the definition of purpose, of the value system that controls the decision-making process, and the charting of new direction for the organization. Thus, new strategies need to be designed focusing on the goals, functions, individuals and teams.

Organization change involves changing the behavior of people and this focuses on participation and teamwork. Thus the challenge for any organization today is to manage change effectively, since failure to change successfully will rapidly threaten its ability to survive. There is a difference, of coarse, between change which is planned and that which is unplanned. Managers deal with change in different ways. For instance, they may react to indications that change is needed and deal with problems as they arise or they may develop a

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program of planned change. However, managers today should not only plan for change but also accept that change is necessary for the organization to learn, to survive and to be successful.

Organization Development (OD) is a method of facilitating change within the organization to adapt the turbulent external environments. To Bennis it is a response to change, a complex educational strategy intended to change the beliefs, attitudes, values and structures of organizations so they can better adapt to new technologies, markets and challenges.[1]

Organization Development does not just rely on formal training to change people; instead it has a focus on individuals, groups and organizations, and stimulates overall organizational improvement. The concept of teamwork is at the heart of OD, which aims to have a simultaneous development of people and of the organization.

There are clear task objectives but the essence of OD is that nothing can change until behavior changes. In turn, behavioral change may be linked to attitudes, values, and interpersonal relations. In part, the emphasis is on the "soft" people elements. Using conflict resolution methods, effective team management and problem solving techniques, all underpinned by behavioral research. The "processes" are usually linked to structural changes as well as a change agent is often employed from outside the organization. (Anderson & Barker p.6)

"Preparing for the future is not to decide what should be done tomorrow,
but what should be done today to have a tomorrow."

Change is seen as being all-pervasive across organizations, yet organizational stability and the natural conservatism of many managers can inhibit its diffusion. Change is an inescapable fact of life in any organization and pervades society in general, affecting everybody and every organization up to an international level. Organizations must be able to respond and adapt to change due to uncertain economic conditions, fierce competition, government interventions, scarce resources and rapid technological innovation.

"Do not look back in anger.
Do not look forward with fear.
Look around you in anticipation."

Anyone seriously interested in change would be advised to recognize two facts of life: first, despite the claims of many, relatively little is known about how to achieve predictable change. Second, much of what is known will not work. This sounds discouraging. The alternatives, however, are even more clearly unacceptable. One alternative is to sit back and wait what

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tomorrow may bring without any planning or preparation. Another is to plunge in blindly and attempt to initiate change without bothering to try to learn from the experiences of others. The second alternative has lead many to become disillusioned, frustrated, or embittered by their experiences. There is a third alternative. It is an anticipatory style of influencing the future for an era where rapid change remains constant. By action or by inaction, every person does influence the future. Therefore, in one manner or another every one is an agent of change.

"You can't change the direction of the wind but you can adjust your sail."

Some people are passive agents of change, others are negative agents of change, and many are affirmative agents of change. The advantage of planning/anticipation is that a person who has a systematic approach to the future and a frame of reference for evaluating alternatives has a tremendous advantage over a person who functions without it.

"Unless you know where you are going, any road will take you there."

Jane Floerchinger

1.3 The pace of change

- The pace of change can speed up if it is a matter of crisis.
- A second method for hastening the pace of planned change is to deliberately encourage an increase in the level of discontent with the status quo.
- A third approach is to increase the attractiveness of the proposed goal.
- A fourth method is to increase the number and frequency of discussions, both formal and informal, about the proposed course of action.
- A fifth means of stepping up the pace of change is to focus attention, not on the proposed change, but on building up the level of trust. The higher the trust level, the easier it is for planned change to take place.
- A sixth method is to minimize precedent, tradition, and custom and to start fresh with as few of the things of the past as possible.
- Finally, it is possible to increase the pace of change by giving high priority to the early enlargement of the supporting group of persons who favor the proposal and who have some form of personal interest in seeing the change adopted.

1.4 Responses of people to change

Many times, we hear people say that people's reactions to change have tended to focus on resistance to change and they ignore the other types of responses.

- neutral
- negative
- affirmative
- counterproductive

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"Some are afraid of the dark;
Others wait for it to see the stars."

Planned change helps to be able to anticipate the probable response to a proposal for change and to be prepared to deal with that response. Planned changes can come by government legislation.

1.5 General principle for managing change (Mullins, p.28)

Mullins provides the following general principles for the management of change[2]

- An environment of trust and shared commitment should be created by involving staff in decisions and actions which affect them.
- There should be full and genuine participation of all the staff concerned well before the introduction of change. Staff should be actively encouraged to contribute their own ideas, suggestions and experiences and to voice openly their worries and concerns.
- Team management, a co-operative spirit among staff and workers, a genuine feeling of shared involvement will create a greater willingness to accept change. A participative style of management and management by objective are useful approaches.
- The introduction of incentive schemes may help in motivating people by an equitable allocation which result from savings.
- Changes to the work organization must maintain the balance to the socio-technical system. New working practices must take into account how best to satisfy the needs and expectations of people at work through the practical application of behavior science.
- Careful attention should be given to job design, methods of working, development of cohesive groups, and relationships between the nature and content of jobs and their task functions.

Source:
1. Adapted from Mullins, L.J., 'Information Technology – the human factor', Administrator, 5 (1985), pp. 6-9.

1.6 Process of change

Five-step process is suggested here.

(1) motivation and preparation
(2) diagnosis of the problem and consideration of alternative course of action
(3) the formulation of a strategy and of day-to-day tactics
(4) carrying out the plan of action
(5) review, evaluation and the stabilization of change.

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1.7 How do we enforce change?

How do you get things done? The four Cs. (Schaller, p.129)

1. **Coercion** – the application of authority and power and the necessary degree of force to produce the desired results.
2. **Co-optation** – the emphasis on bringing the opposition into the supporting group. From one side it is described as being open to diverse points of views. From the other side it is described as "buying off the opposition."
3. **Conflict** – the battle lines must be drawn and the potential conflict turned into a reality before any resolution can be achieved. Usually conflict helps to clarify the issues.
4. **Cooperation** – this is the most widely used approach though time consuming.

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2. COST-BENEFIT ANALYSIS:

Learning objectives

After completing this unit you should be able to:

- Identify and assess the need for cost-benefit analysis;
- Understand the purpose and limitations of cost-benefit analysis;
- Identify issues related to cost-benefit analysis;
- Analyze an organization from cost-benefit viewpoint;
- Understand the key concepts of cost-benefit analysis.

2.1 Definition of cost-benefit analysis

Cost-benefit analysis is about choice, to be precise, it is about economic choice. As individuals, we are all faced every day with situations which force us to select one course of action rather than another. Nobody has sufficient resources to enable her to do everything she wants to do, own everything she wants to own, or go everywhere she wants to go. The typical situation in which we all find ourselves is that we never have enough money to everything we would like to do. We all have a resource constraint which limits our choice. In its widest sense, cost-benefit analysis is the basis of the whole process of decision-making under resource constraints. The aim of cost-benefit analysis is to make decision-making more objective.

There are two basic steps in all cost-benefit studies: first, the measurement or evaluation of benefits, and then the allocation of limited resources to selected projects so as to obtain maximum net present value.

The techniques of cost-benefit analysis have been developed for use in the public sector (encompassing central and local government) in an attempt to provide better solutions to the problems of resource allocation. A public body (local and central government) has basically the same resource allocation problem as any individual, i.e. how to get the most for what it spends, although these constraints tend to depend upon what is politically acceptable as much as what is economically feasible. Furthermore, the problem of decision-making and resource allocation is obviously extremely complex in the public sector and it is necessary to identify at the outset the limits within which cost-benefit analysis can legitimately operate.

It is possible to identify three levels of decision-making in the public sector. At the highest level, resource allocation decisions are guided by political ideas and moral philosophy. The problem of resource allocating between defense on the one hand, and education on the other is not one which can be solved by analytical techniques: the solution is rather to be found by examining political objectives and priorities. At this level, resource allocation is not simply a matter of economics. Political decision-making is made not totally relying on quantification of

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costs and benefits, but rather on more diffuse criteria ranging from political ideology to administrative expediency. The question of resource allocation is done within political objectives. The aim of cost-benefit analysis is to assist in this type of decision-making problem by bringing a more rational approach to resource allocation based on consideration of all the relevant costs and benefits.

2.2 Factors involved in cost-benefit analysis

There are five distinct issues covered in cost-benefit analysis:

1. Assessing the desirability of projects in the public, as opposed to the private sector.
2. Identification of costs and benefits
3. Measurement of costs and benefits
4. The effect of time in investment appraisal
5. Presentation of results – the investment criterion.

"I try to invest the appropriate amount of time and mental energy into every decision I make. Visualize a scale: on one side is the weight of how much the decision will cost. On the other, how much it will benefit. Balance each decision's potential benefit with it is actual cost."

1. Assessing the desirability of public investments: why do we need cost-benefit analysis to make investment decisions in the public sector? In the private sector of the economy the business people uses the market price mechanism to assess the desirability or efficiency of alternative investment proposals. This market price mechanism does not operate in many parts of the public sector. Police, defense, roads, flood protection, street lightening, air pollution control, working with the disadvantaged, etc. are good examples of collective goods which cannot easily be marketed on the basis of willingness to pay. The collective goods may be of immense value. If we are to reveal the value to us of having such a good, total benefit could far exceed total costs. However, as we can usually expect to receive the benefit of the good whether we pay for it or not, we are likely to decide not to pay and receive the benefits free of charge. As it would be unprofitable for a private entrepreneur to operate in this situation, the government steps into supplying collective goods and recovers the costs through taxation. Thus, in the case of collective goods, socially desirable investments in general have to be undertaken socially (by government and non-governmental organizations) rather than privately.

The decision taken in one area of the public sector will affect many other areas. For instance, decisions taken on the site of a new local authority housing development will clearly have implications for the provision of roads, sanitation, schools, community facilities, etc. Private industrialists building a new factory are only concerned with the financial cost they incur and the revenue produced by selling the manufactured goods. They are not concerned with the

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fact that the smoke with their chimneys imposes costs on nearby residents, because they do not have to bear these costs. Yet such costs are real. They may take the form of higher cleaning bills, hospital bills, etc. because the smoke could have serious long-term effects on health and sanitation. So long as industrialists have an objective expressed in terms of private profit or loss they can legitimately ignore these external costs. However, the goal of decision-making in the public sector is expressed not in terms of private profit or loss, but rather in terms of social profit or loss considering the extra market effects.

2. Identification of costs and benefits: the first task in a cost-benefit analysis is to identify all the relevant cost and benefits of the investment project under consideration. Many alternative classifications of costs and benefits have been suggested to assist this exercise: private, secondary, indirect are all adjectives which have been used to describe different types of cost and benefit. Identify the cut-off points in the analysis. For instance, the geographical cut-off is considered when constructing a road.

3. Measurement of benefits and costs: having enumerated all the relevant costs and benefits the next problem is how to measure them. This appears to be the most difficult task as far as cost-benefit analysis is concerned. Most of the social benefits are very difficult to measure in physical terms. Sometimes, they are quantifiable but hard to place monetary value placed upon it. The calculation of private profit is a relatively straightforward matter because costs and benefits are simply derived from market prices (where benefit is defined as the maximum amount an individual would be willing to pay for a good.) However, we have seen many of the goods and services produced in the public sector are not priced in the market. Therefore, when the physical outputs of a public project have been estimated, it will be necessary to assign monetary values to many of them on the basis of other information.

4. The effect of time and uncertainty in investment appraisal: investment decisions take a long view because the benefits do not occur immediately; they accrue over time, and time affects project evaluation in three ways:

1. changes in the market prices of benefits and costs;
2. the relatively greater desirability of consumption in the near future to consumption in the more distant future;
3. the possibility of alternative productive investment of the funds used in a public project.

5. Presentation of results: the investment criterion: - the final stage in a cost-benefit analysis is to collect all the relevant information in a form which is useful in decision-making. Assuming that all the relevant costs and benefits of a number of alternative projects have been identified, measured in monetary terms, discounted for time and adjusted for uncertainty, we need an investment criterion which uses the information available to rank the alternatives in terms of social profitability.

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Cost-benefit analysis is a method of estimating the rates of returns on public investment projects. Just as a private business firm tries to estimate the yield on an investment, so a community may wish to know what advantages it will receive from its expenditure on a park or a pollution control system. For the park, the number of people who would use it might be estimated, as well as the cost of alternative forms of entertainment. If the cost of the alternative is greater than that of the park, the park may be a profitable investment.

Most applications of cost-benefit analysis are much more complex. Every problem has more than one possible solution. Thus we need to analyze the cost and benefit of each alternative.

"Whatever problems you face, you will find
more options if you realize there are no absolute solutions,
but rather a range of possible solutions."

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3. EXCHANGE OF IDEAS AND COMMENTS

Learning objectives

After completing this unit you should be able to:

- Identify the key features of interpersonal communication
- Know communication strategies
- Realize the value of interpersonal communication in business
- Know how 'what you say' is as important as 'how you say it'
- Recognize the barriers to effective interpersonal communication
- Know the characteristics of effective communicators
- Work how to improve your interpersonal style

"You can have brilliant ideas,
but if you can't get them across,
your ideas won't get you anywhere."

(Lee Lacocca)

3.1 Definition of communication

Communication is the process through which we exchange ideas, feelings and transfer messages through symbols (words) and actions.

Communication is the process of transmission of information from one person to another or from one group to another. It is also called exchange of ideas, thoughts and feelings.

The word communication is derived from the Latin word "communis" meaning common. Thus, communication is developing commonness.

3.2 Formal and informal communication

- Downward communication – from up to bottom through policies, circulars, etc.
- Upward communication – from down to up in the form of report, etc.
- Horizontal communication – communication at the departmental level.
- Diagonal communication – this takes place between people in different departments at different levels.

Management communicates to its employees through the company newspaper, through meetings and through the bulletin board. A salesman communicates through letters, proposals, calls on customers, free samples, brochures, catalogs and other obvious methods. A technician communicates with words, but perhaps says more through his work.

When computers "communicate," they exchange output signals for input signals. A computer sends, receives, processes, stores, prints and performs its tasks according to its program. It

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is a reasonably direct transfer of data and information. People communicate with computers in a straightforward way and the result is predictable. However, person to person communication is an entirely different matter. Responses are not always predictable because no one knows what goes on inside people. We cannot communicate ideas themselves. We communicate through the use of symbols (like words). A symbol stands for an idea.

People communicate informally in an organization which is called grapevine.

3.3 Effective interpersonal communication

The efficient functioning of a business relies on effective interpersonal skills. There are some useful guides to ensure the effectiveness of interpersonal communication.

1. **Communicate objectively, not in emotionally charged language.** Focus on the problem rather than the person. Assess the two approaches:

   "You have got a problem. Unless you get your act together and sort yourself out, you will be out of here pretty quickly."

   "How would you rate your own performance on these various assignments?...So, you are saying things could be dramatically improved. What can we do, therefore, to ensure the same problems do not arise in the future...?"

2. **Express yourself genuinely.** Effective interpersonal communication is about ensuring you get your point across in a way which is open, not-threatening and is understood by the receiver in the way you intended. Being open is about making the person receiving your message is not trying to read between the lines to figure out why you may be saying what you are saying. The importance of non-threatening is that it does not put the other person on the defensive.

3. **Use "I" language not "they" language for interpersonal communication.** The use of "I" makes it very clear to the other person exactly where you stand. The use of "they" is to mask what the person's own intentions are. E.g. "They ask me to tell you..."

4. **Listen.** Effective interpersonal communication is not just about sending out information, but also about receiving it. Listening sends the following messages: "I consider what you have to say as being sufficiently important that I am willing to sit and try to understand your point of view. I am willing to be persuaded by what you have to say, without pre-judging you."

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He who talks
dominates the conversation;
he who listens
controls it."

5. **Seek to make communication a two-way process.** Try to understand the thinking behind the actions. Problems occur when you try to interpret events using your model of the world, rather than trying to see them through the eyes of the other person.

"Listen to all conversations of our world,
between nations as well as those between couples.
They are for the most part dialogue of the deaf." Paul Tournier

6. **Look for feedback, without being prescriptive.** Test out your ideas and views with others so that your understanding of things matches theirs.

"You can have your say, but not always your way."

7. **Be precise and do not generalize.** Every Generalization is wrong.
8. **Discuss shared agendas, not just your own.** If both parties get benefit and meaning from interaction, there will be an effective communication.

There are many types of behavior in interactions – aggressive, passive, manipulative, and assertive.

3.4 Factors that hinder effective communication

1. Do not be condescending or act like a superior judge.
2. Do not always give your opinion before your subordinates do. If you do so, they will feel bound to agree with you to the limit.
3. Do not lose control when you get bad news.
4. Do not be closed minded. Fresh facts and opinions can better prepare you to discuss and refine your position.
5. Act on other people's ideas frequently.

3.5 Importance of communication

Communicating ideas takes thought, effort and planning, however, it is well worth it. It is important to prepare for changes. It discourages misinformation. It builds trust and confidence. It gives people feel the pride of being well informed. It also reduces grievances. People in business, government, industry and professional and technical fields spend a good deal of their time communicating. They spend the rest of their time doing things to

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communicate about. They communicate to inform, to motivate, to persuade, to control, to direct, to coordinate, to impress, to do all of the things that have to be done- to get results.

My purpose is to [inform / persuade / motivate / impress / control / inspire / instruct] this (these) receiver(s).

Because I want her/them to [do / stop doing / do differently / be aware of / understand / find out / like] this about my subject.

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4. TRANSPARENCY AND DECISIVENESS

Learning objectives

After completing this unit you should be able to:

- Understand the usefulness of transparency;
- Why analysis and decision making are critical in management;
- The techniques available for better analysis;
- A structured process by which to analyze and reach decisions;
- Know how ineffective analysis leads to ineffective decisions;
- Understand the principles underlying effective analysis and decision-making.

"Honesty is not only the best policy,
it is sufficiently rare these days to
make you pleasantly conspicuous."

4.1 Transparency

Whether we are talking about international events or the workings of a group of people, we all like to be informed. A manager must be conscious of this need of the people with whom she is working. Transparency is not total openness. It is accountability to those who are in charge and to those who are working under our authority. It is to keep the line of communication open. Managerial decisions are to be clear to those who are affected by the decision. Keeping your associates (superiors, authorities, assistants, subordinates and others affected) informed is useful for successful operation. Withholding information spreads unnecessary gossip and rumor among the workers and will destroy credibility.

Transparency requires wisdom. Those who are making military decision do not have to reveal every detail decision to the public. They may decide to be transparent in a limited way to the public for the sake of their strategic purpose. They may not even inform details of the operation to their subordinates unless they are involved. On the other hand, organizations which are funded by outsiders may be required to be accountable in how they spend money designated for different projects.

Donors require organizations they fund to be accountable in sending timely, accurate and appropriate reports. Transparency paves way to clear decision-making.

1. Information should be timely.
2. Information should be accurate.
3. Information should be appropriate.

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"Be blunt,

without being rude.

Be brief,

without being superficial.

Be daring,

without being reckless."

4.2 Decision-making

Every one makes decision now and then. The managerial decision is very important because it affects many other things. Decision-making is the process of choosing among alternatives. It is a process of selecting the best choice among different courses of actions. For a decision to take place there must be at least two options.

4.2.1 Decision-making process

1. **Establishing objectives** – goals must be adequately established so that they will dictate what results should be achieved.
2. **Identify the problem** – a necessary condition for decision-making is problem identification. If problems do not exist decision will not be needed. Therefore, problems must be identified clearly so that appropriate solution is to be sought.
3. **Analyze the problem** – evaluating the cause with team management is essential. Each member will have his/her views and thoughts. Through analyzing the problem, the focus should move from speculation to tangible evidence. Separating cause of the problem and symptom is essential in this stage.
4. **Developing alternatives** – serve as outlet from problem.
5. **Evaluating the alternatives** – once the alternatives have been developed, they must be evaluated and compared. The most convenient may not be the best. Write the pros and cons for each alternative.
6. **Select the best alternative** – This stage involves narrowing down the number of alternatives to those which will bring about the desired results most effectively.
7. **Implement your decision** – Many times there is consensus on a particular recommendation, but once out of the meeting the decision is not implemented. Implementation requires commitment.
8. **Follow up** – Analysis and decision-making is more than fault finding and reaching a plan of action. Once the decision is implemented there needs to be a commitment to take on responsibilities to ensure things actually get done.

The effective analysis of problems and decision-making is considerably enhanced by a number of techniques. The most relevant techniques will depend on which part of the analysis and decision- making process you are at. In the clarifying stage, interview enables a

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manager to gather relevant information fairly quickly. In the exploring various alternatives, brainstorming could prove highly effective.

4.1.2 Conditions under which decisions are made

Information is very important for decision-making. Therefore, there are three conditions under which decisions are made.

a. **Certainty** – this is when a manager has a perfect knowledge about everything in the environment. Under this condition the consequence is also known.
b. **Risk** – decision-making under conditions of risk provides the manager a difficult situation. He knows about the problem the options but he does not have full information about the consequences. Therefore, managers should develop alternative action plans.
c. **Uncertainty** – decision-making under uncertain condition is the most difficult task for a manager. A manager cannot develop probability estimates because there is no way of measuring the likelihood of various alternatives. She is faced with a trial and error condition.

Analysis and decision-making go together. A poor decision is preceded by shallow or incomplete analysis of a situation. Analysis and decision making are very important in managing changes. A natural inclination is often to sweep problems under the carpet, however, from bitter experience, many people testify that it is better to address problems at the start and get to the root of the problem, than deal with it at a later stage. Managers should be very decisive in matters of life threatening issues.

Being decisive is one of the great qualities of a leader/manager.

"Learn to say "no" to the good so you can say "yes" to the best."

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5. DIFFERENCE ACCOMMODATION

Learning objectives

After completing this unit you should be able to:

- Understand the different personalities and characters of people;
- Make plans to accommodate differences;
- Apply the knowledge in your organization.

"In matters of taste,
swim with the current;
in matters of principle,
stand like a rock."

If you want to do a good job of managing people, you must be able to help them grow in competence and understanding. The first principle for working effectively with people is to recognize the tremendous impact of modern business conditions on the variety of men and women in an organization. No longer are there a few business "types" to work with. There are more types than we can categorize.

When industry was made up, largely the workers were salesperson, production person, clerks and owners. In time, financial experts, controllers and lawyers were added. Now emphasis is given to technology including researchers, themselves divided into two groups: basic and applied or developmental. There are staff specialists in training, communications, operations research, quality control, production scheduling, advertising, etc. Moreover, within specialties there are those who emphasize numbers and statistical techniques, and those who emphasize people skills like negotiating or analyzing motivation.

These special areas mean not only that the people you deal with talk differently, but also that they think differently. A person who works over a long period with carefully picked samples, precise formulas, and exact numbers is likely to develop a quite different frame of mind from that of a person who deals with subtleties of public opinion, general trends, and highly subjective judgments.

In addition to this, people come from almost any part of the country, with all that means for differences in outlook. For a case in point, take the problem of helping find greater satisfactions and challenge at work. Some people tell you to emphasize the money. Others tell you to emphasize praise or pat on the back. Some others emphasize vacation time and hours of work.

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If you are convinced of one of these formulas and applied it across the board in the organization, you may not be successful in motivating people. This urges us to know individuals as a person before we can be helpful in a specific way.

Apart from career differences, people have different personalities, different characters, different family and cultural backgrounds which contribute to their distinctiveness. Leading people who have professional, cultural, family, social, economical, sex, age, personality, etc. differences in the context of an organization to achieve similar objectives needs more than tolerance.

"Courage is what it takes to stand up and speak;
courage is also what it takes to sit down and listen."

"He was tough but fair … he would listen to you – even when he was dressing you down, he never left you feeling smaller. He might totally take you to the bone, but he would build you up. (Nayak andKetteringham, 1993)

5.1 Types of differences

1. Sex:
   - Male
   - Female
2. Sexual orientation:
   - Heterosexual
   - Homosexual
   - Bisexual
3. Economic:
   - Destitute
   - Poor
   - Middle class
   - Upper class
4. Political:
   - Democratic
   - Communist
   - Republican
5. Race:
   - Black
   - White
   - Yellow
6. Profession:
   - Doctor
   - Engineer
   - Manager
   - Statistician
   - Artist
   - Economist
   - Journalist
   - Secretary
   - Scientist
   - Teacher
   - Social worker
   - Nurses

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	Administrator Computer programmer
7. Personality:	Aggressive Assertive Passive Manipulative
8. Social/cultural:	individualistic community-centered
9. Education:	Literate Illiterate Grade 1-8 Grade 9-12 College/ University graduate Post graduate
10. Age:	Infant Pre-schooler Elementary adolescents adults senior citizens
11. Family:	Hostile Loving Encouraging Aggressive Neglectful Passive
12 World-view	Creationist Atheist

All these differences contribute to differences in our perspective and attitudes.

5.2 How do we accommodate these differences?

- Knowledge
- We can help people to accept and open themselves mostly by accepting and revealing ourselves to them.
- We can accommodate differences when we are sensitive to the needs of others and listen to them from their perspective.
- Flexibility is another key to accommodate each other. Every person has strengths and weaknesses. Thus, we can learn from each other's differences.
- Be aware of your own biases and prejudices.

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6. HOW TO CONDUCT PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL

Learning objectives

After completing this unit you should be able to:

- Understand the key principles of performance appraisal;
- Work on how you can improve your skills in appraising other's performance;
- Know the purpose or performance appraisal;
- Analyze the performance appraisal process (methods and techniques);
- State some of the pitfalls in performance appraisal;
- Realize the role of performance appraisal in managing change.

What you measure is what you get.

(Kaplan and Norton, 1992)

6.1 Definition of performance appraisal

Performance appraisal is a key tool in making the most of an organization's human resources. There is simple reason for this: what gets measured, gets done. Performance appraisal is far too important to be left to an annual event, and should be an ongoing process. Odiorne suggests: "Nothing improves your driving like being followed by a police car".

Performance appraisal is defined as a procedure which involves the regular use of recorded assessment of an individual's performance and sometimes potential.

It seems that it is generally accepted that the evaluation of performance should be done against pre-set targets and objectives.

6.2 Problems in performance appraisal

Self-assessment: this has its own limitations. Inflated self-evaluation and low correspondence with supervisory appraisals make for difficult performance review discussions. Research suggests that individuals hold significantly different views of their own job performance from those held by others.

Other issues such as bias, reliability and validity remain major and persistent problems in most appraisal systems. A valid appraisal is one which measures the right criteria to determine performance.

6.3 Debates about appraisal methods

There have been arguments against the use of a single method to achieve a variety of organizational-centered and individual-centered purposes since the techniques, procedures

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and information required for each are not necessarily the same. Other researchers have also questioned the usefulness of performance appraisal as a multi-purpose foundation for human resource management.

In addition to the debate about appraisal methods over the past few decades there has been an equally consuming interest in the appraisal process, e.g. closed versus open systems, the review discussion, its conduct and the problems arising from it, the value of appraisal skills training, etc. Much of the current interest has centered on the developmental aspects of performance appraisal, with emphasis on counseling and motivation rather than evaluation and judgment. One result of this has been the increasing preference among some practitioners to us the term "performance review" rather than appraisal since the later is perceived as judgmental in nature and devoid of concern for individual development and well being.

6.4 Purpose of performance appraisal/review:

The purpose of performance appraisal is subject to different interpretations. For the individual to perceive positive benefit from the system it needs to be directed toward the consideration of individual needs. From an organizational perspective performance review needs to be part of the overall strategy, well integrated with other systems in order to justify the resources expended on it. Consequently, organizational expectations of performance review systems tend to be demanding and corporate objectives varied, although not always well defined.

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Main purposes of performance review schemes:

- To assess training and development needs
- To help improve current performance
- To review past performance
- To assess future potential/ promotion
- To assist career planning decisions
- To set performance objectives
- To assess increases or new level in salary
- To update personnel records
- To discover the work potential, present and future, of individuals and departments
- To construct plans for human resource, departmental and corporate planning
- To ensure that employees meet organizational standards and objectives
- To enable the organization to share out the rewards and promotions fairly.

Reasons for never operating performance appraisal schemes:

- Formal system unnecessary, not advantageous
- Perceived links with pay
- Problems in identifying/defining performance criteria

2. **Absolute Methods:** absolute or criteria referenced methods attempt to describe or evaluate the performance of an individual by reference to some standard or standards of performance and not to other individuals. Techniques include the essay or narrative type approach, graphic or trait rating scales, checklists, critical incidents and behavioral anchored rating scales.

   2.1 **Narrative approach** – this is a description of the individual's work performance and behavior in the appraiser's own words. The appraiser is usually required to describe individual strengths, weaknesses and potential as well as make suggestions for improvement. The limitation of this approach is that the appraiser is given full discretion to infer what performance data is included or omitted. The result can vary in length and content, depending on the appraiser's writing skills.

   2.2 **Trait rating scales** – such scales are usually highly structured and consist of a list of personality traits such as, judgment, initiative, reliability, etc. The rater is required to indicate on a numerical scale the degree to which an individual being appraised possesses these traits. It contains a continuum from "very high" to "very low". This approach is multi-dimensional but the performance dimensions are usually very broadly defined. This method creates difficult feedback situation because it concentrates on the individual personality rather than on job performance

   2.3 **Alphabetical/ numerical rating scales** – these are usually incorporated into a checklist of job related qualities or behaviors. The rater is required to rate the individual on each of the listed items using a simple scale ranging from high to low performance. A, B, C, D, E, F or 1,2,3,4,5. This method is susceptible to errors such as central tendency, and inter-rater errors of leniency or strictness.

   2.4 **Forced Choice Rating** – this consist of a series of groups of statements about job-related behavior, some being relatively favorable, others relatively unfavorable. Weights are assigned to each statement based on how favorable or unfavorable it is for successful performance. The score is calculated later. These weights and indices are not known the rater, who is required to choose the items most (or least) characteristic of the individual being appraised.

   2.5 **Critical incident techniques** – this method requires the rater to document positive and negative behavioral events which have occurred during a given review time. This is more suited for us in performance feedback discussions. This method is very demanding in terms of developmental effect and the recording of incidents is time consuming and burdensome.

   2.6 **Behavioral based rating scale** – this approach replaces simple alphabets and numbers with descriptions of actual job behaviors based on some form of job analysis to determine what behaviors actually constitute job performance. This

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- Union objections
- Lack of commitment form senior management
- General lack of interest
- Organizational structure
- Time factor

6.5 Problems with multi-purpose performance review systems

The purposes for conducting performance review have expanded over the years. The following uses are cited in a number of organizations: administrative decisions such as salary, promotion, retention, discharge, counseling, training and development, human resource planning and validation of selection techniques, scholarship awards, etc. Some researchers noted that performance appraisal is often the only system which organizations use to communicate managerial and organizational expectations of subordinates and to clarify job criteria. Thus, they doubt whether performance appraisal systems can adequately serve numerous different and sometimes conflicting purposes.

This concern about attempting to cover too many objectives through a single procedure is criticized and a better system which separates alternatives is suggested. Reward reviews, performance reviews, and potential reviews should be dealt with as three separate activities, not only separate in time but also in paper work, procedure and responsibility.

6.6 Performance review methods and techniques

1. **Comparative methods**: these techniques evaluate the performance of the employee in a work group relative to each other. There are three main procedures for making relative performance judgments:
   - 1.1 **Paired comparison** – the rater compares every possible pair of the individuals, rating which of the two is the better. The basis of the decision may be in terms of overall job performance or one specific performance trait.
   - 1.2 **Ranking** – the rater lists a group of individuals in order of merit from best to worst. Usually a single global performance trait is used to estimate the employee's overall effectiveness to the organization. One of the limitations of ranking procedure is that it fails to distinguish between levels of individual performance.
   - 1.3 **Forced distribution** – this is a combination of rating and ranking procedure. Although individuals receive a rating of absolute performance level, they are also assigned to categories or ranked performance levels according to some predetermined distribution, usually a percentage to each category.

Comparative method has a limited administrative purpose and is virtually useless for individual feedback and development. It is also highly subjective.

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method need to be continuously updated and validated to ensure that the behavior specified are still relevant to the job.

3. **Results-oriented methods:** these methods concentrate on specific accomplishments and outcomes achieved as a result of job performance rather than on job behaviors. Evaluation is based on how goals and objectives have been met in relation to predetermined standards. Central to this approach is employee participation, objectives being jointly agreed between superior and subordinate and standards established in advance as a result of discussion and negotiation. Shared goal setting is thought to gain individual commitment to achieve goals and to commit managerial support and the provision of the resources required. Because it is based on specific outcomes rather than on behavior, performance evaluation should be less susceptible to bias. However, goal-setting approaches need a high degree of inferential skills, managerial time and effort to implement effectively. Responsibility for failure may be difficult to establish because outside factors such as co-workers, supervisors, supplies, economic condition, etc. influence goal accomplishment.

6.7 The process of performance evaluation

Mostly the immediate supervisor was responsible for carrying out the performance review. In some organizations, there is a second level reviewer by the first reviewer's boss. The role of the second level reviewer is to provide some safeguard against personal bias and possible reviewing inexperience by reading the completed performance evaluation, adding further comments if necessary and by acting as a point of reference for both reviewer and reviewed.

6.8 The performance review discussion

Ideally, the performance review discussion should be seen as merely one formal event in a continuum of informal work-related communications between manager and jobholder. The event provides an opportunity to evaluate periodically what has been achieved, agreeing what next needs to be achieved and considering how best these commitments are to be achieved. If the informal work-related communication have been working well, the emphasis of the formal discussion can be primarily directed toward joint work planning and problem solving.

Self-assessment: is a procedure whereby individuals appraise themselves, recording what they consider performance has been over a given period of time and presenting this both in writing and through discussion, to their bosses.

Appraisal systems should not be reduced to the mere ticking of meaningless boxes. At the end of the evaluation, management needs to emphasize on training and development directed towards enabling the individual to perform more effectively in the current rather than a future job. In this context, there are three groups of training requirements:

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- the acquisition of new skills to match new developments within the current job,
- the acquisition or upgrading of specific job skills to maintain the current job or remedial training to lift performance which barely meets or does not meet basic job requirements.

6.9 A "good" performance appraisal system

It must be job-related, reliable and valid for the purposes for which it is being used, standardized in its procedures and practical in its administration. The system should be suited to the organizational culture; for example, a system based on employee participation and openness would not fit if the organizational culture is authoritarian and non-participative in its approach to other employee-related policies. "Ready made" performance review systems imported from other organizations rarely functions satisfactorily. Their failure is due to in part to organizational culture differences.

6.10 The current trend

The trend toward openness is continued and closed systems being the exception rather than the rule. The main emphasis of performance review is directed towards the improvement of current performance rather than the future. The trend towards the use of results oriented schemes has continued. The criteria for any performance evaluation instrument needs to be based on job analysis and performance standards. Thus more attention has had to be given to updating job descriptions, highlighting key task areas and agreeing the standards against which these are to be changed.

6.11 Perceived main strengths of current performance review systems

- Work-related; emphasis on planning, improving, developing performance in current job.
- Openness, participatory approach
- Identification of training and development needs
- Well established corporate policy, part of organizational culture
- Practicality, ease of administration
- Standardized, common guidelines and format
- Improved communications and relationships between manager and subordinate

6.12 Negative attitude toward performance review

- Line managers dislike appraisal because it creates a lot of paper work for them.
- Most appraisal systems suffer from unequal standards applied by different appraisers.
- Appraisal is of no value unless the appraiser has been formally trained in appraisal interviewing.
- People often perceive appraisal as a way of getting more money rather than feedback on their performance.

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7. MOTIVATING

Learning objectives

After completing this unit you should be able to:

- Realize how and why motivation is important in the work context;
- Understand factors which create satisfaction and dissatisfaction;
- Describe the role of a manager is in creating a motivating environment;
- Assess how business performance and motivation are linked;
- Analyze organizational factors which create satisfaction;
- Understand the theory and practice underlying motivation.

"Get the motivation of individuals right
and other things will tend to fall into place."

7.1 Definition

Motivators are the energizing forces to stimulate people so that they contribute to productivity. Incentives are the means by which organizations influence behavior by enabling a person to achieve her goal.

A fundamental feature of successful organizations is a well-motivated workforce. Motivation is so important, because it affects so many areas of work:

- productivity
- quality of work
- commitment
- sales figures
- culture of the work place.

Motivation is currently highly important to organizations because of change "how do we manage the day to day business, as well as introduce change, without de-motivating people?" In the work environment motivated people are generally individuals who have clear goals (not just job descriptions), feel capable of achieving them, and have a clear idea of what the desired outcome is.

Motivation is a psychological phenomenon. Psychologist Mungo Miller suggested the general principles psychologists have studied in their research on motivation:

1. Motivation is psychological, not logical. It is primarily an emotional process.
2. Motivation is fundamentally an unconscious process. The behavior we see in ourselves and others may appear to be illogical, but somehow, inside the individual, what he is doing makes sense to him.
3. Motivation is an individual matter. The key to a person's behavior lies within himself.

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4. Not only do motivating needs differ from person to person, but in any individual they vary from time to time.
5. Motivation is inevitably a social process. We must depend on others for satisfaction of many of our needs.
6. In the vast majority of our actions, we are guarded by habits established by motivational processes that were active many years earlier.

Find out what enthuses and motivates people, try and meet those needs and you will have individuals trying new, more creative and innovative ways of doing things. The ultimate aim of the organization should be to create an environment where the needs of the individuals are continually being met, through regular two-way communication. Motivation is matching the needs of the organization with the individuals.

7.2 Practical ways of motivating others in an organization

The following practical steps are base around psychological and environmental issues.

1. Involvement

Involvement of subordinates in the decision-making process is critical in generating the energy, commitment and motivation, to produce high quality work. Involving subordinates provides a sense of purpose, a feeling of being valued and 'my views and thoughts matter around here.' Involvement is also important from the point of teamwork and managing changes.

There is no such thing as success without a teamwork.
The inability to make and keep friends is involved
In every single failure.

2. Responsibility

Providing individuals with responsibilities outside their comfort zone motivates people. Some individuals will be daunted by responsibility, those who are both able and willing will thrive on the confidence shown in them. Giving subordinates responsibility can take several forms but the main one is allowing individuals to reach their own decisions, to deal with problems and issues using their best judgment, without constantly being monitored by their manager. Achieving objectives which are challenging is an important motivator for individuals in its own right.

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3. Delegation

Delegation is not dumping the work one does not enjoy on to subordinates. It should be mentally challenging and broaden the jobholders role. People feel motivated by the fact that their boss is recognizing them as able to do creative things and trusting them capable. Delegation, in itself, is not a motivator.

"The best executive is the one who has
sense enough to pick good men to do what
he wants done, and self-restraint enough
to keep from meddling with them while they do it."

(Theodore Roosevelt)

4. Recognizing good performance

A good definition of a manager is: "an individual who gets the best from others". One of the best and simplest ways to get the best from others is recognizing when they do a task well. Reinforcing the positive behavior also encourages. However, recognition loses its value if it is too liberally used. Remember, the value of recognition is in reinforcing positive behavior which is not normally characteristic of the individual and therefore motivates the individual to continue their positive behavior.

5. Communication

Effective communication is not a great motivator; but the lack of it will be quite a strong de-motivator. Communication is a two-way process whereby the views of others are sought and information is clearly given to others. Lack of communication creates insecurity and uncertainty why certain decisions are being made, and they have very little say on the impact of the managerial decisions.

6. Clear leadership

Providing individuals with a rational case for change is important for motivation. Unequal distribution of work and poor working conditions are barriers to motivation. Clear leadership is a catalyst in ensuing that these barriers are removed. It is difficult to improve morale when debilitating factors have been left un-addressed over a long period.

7. Understanding individual expectations

All individuals are different and what motivates one person could switch off another. As a manager it is important to understand and recognize the varying aspirations and needs of employees. Managing expectations is an important feature of motivation. Motivation is determined by the level of desire and commitment to achieve certain objectives. By identifying what those desires are – for example to have more responsibility, to be more highly paid, to become a project manager – and then creating the means by which the individual achieve these desires, you will have gone a long way to generating commitment to the goal.

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7.3 Theories of motivation

1. **Instinct theory**: under Darwin's influence, early theorists viewed behavior as controlled by biological forces, such as instincts. But when it became clear that people were naming, not explaining, various behaviors by calling them instincts, psychologists turned to a drive-reduction theory of motivation.
2. **Drive-reduction theory**: most physiological needs create aroused psychological states that drive us to reduce or satisfy needs. The aim to drive reduction is internal stability, or homeostasis. Thus drive reduction motivates survival behaviors, such as eating and drinking.
3. **Arousal theory** – rather than reducing a physiological need or tension state, some motivated behaviors increase arousal. Curiosity-driven behaviors, for example, suggest that too little as well as too much stimulation can motivate people to seek an optimum level of arousal.
4. **Incentive theory** – not only are we pushed by our internal drives, we are pulled by external incentives. Depending on our personal and cultural experiences, some stimuli (for example, certain foods or erotic images) will arouse our desires.
5. **A hierarchy of motives** – Maslow's hierarchy of needs expresses the idea that until satisfied, some motives are more compelling than others. Physiological needs, safety needs, belongingness and love needs, esteem needs, self-actualization needs.
6. **Achievement motivation** – Henry Murray defined it as a desire for significant accomplishment: for mastery things, people, or ideas; for attaining a high standard.
7. **Intrinsic motivation** – a desire to perform a behavior for its own sake and to be effective; and **Extrinsic motivation** – a desire to perform a behavior due to promised rewards or threats of punishment.
8. **Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory** is useful in suggesting the goals or incentives outside an individual that tend to satisfy his or her motives. Herzberg found that when people felt dissatisfied with their jobs, they were concerned about the environment in which they were working or "hygiene or maintenance factors" (policies and administration, supervision, working conditions, interpersonal relations, wages, status and job security).
9. **Situational Leadership Theory** provides four different maturity levels that may describe people in terms of accomplishing a specific task, all of which require a different leadership style.

The prominent work on motivation are Herzberg's two factor theory and Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Both theories contend that motivation is less reliant on tangible factors, such as

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money and working conditions, than on intangible factors, such as enjoying what one does, and gaining job satisfaction. Motivation and de-motivation are strongly person-centered. In other words, motivation is closely associated with psychological factors, and, as such, it would be relatively easy to 'switch off' a high performing individual by not praising them, or not acknowledging the contribution they are making to the business. The extent to which individuals need recognition will also be related to their psychological maturity. Self-confident, 'been there, seen it, done it' types will require less recognition than those who are less sure. Equally, those who have been through a difficult learning process will require constructive feedback and feel they have learnt from it.

In terms of the development of human resources, managers of the human/social system might find Maslow's hierarchy of needs a useful framework. According to Maslow, there seems to be a hierarchy in to which human needs arrange themselves. The lowest level needs are **physiological**. These are the basic needs to sustain life itself – food, clothing and shelter. When these basic needs begin to be fulfilled, the next need level that people become concerned about is **safety or security** needs. These needs are essentially the need to be free of the fear of physical danger and deprivation of the basic physiological needs. Once physiological and safety needs are satisfied, **social or affiliation** needs will emerge as dominant in the need structure. People are social beings. They have a need to belong and to be accepted by others. After people begin to satisfy their need to belong. They then feel the need for **esteem**- both self-esteem and esteem from others. Once esteem needs are adequately satisfied, the self-actualization needs become most important. **Self-actualization** is a maximizing concept. That is, it is the need to maximize one's potential to the desire to become what one is capable of becoming. Until the lower level physiological and safety/security needs are fairly well satisfied, Maslow argues, social esteem, and self-actualization needs will provide a person with little motivation.
Although Maslow is helpful in describing motives (needs, wants, and drives within an individual), Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory is useful in suggesting the goals or incentives outside an individual that tend to satisfy his or her motives. Herzberg found that when people felt dissatisfied with their jobs, they were concerned about the environment in which they were working or "hygiene or maintenance factors" (policies and administration, supervision, working conditions, interpersonal relations, wages, status and job security). However, when people were satisfied with their jobs, they were motivated by the work itself, not by the environment. "Motivators" include opportunities for achievement, challenging work, increased responsibility, growth and development, and recognition for accomplishment. Herzberg found that if hygiene factors, just like Maslow's lower needs, are not fairly well satisfied, people will tend not to be interested in the challenge of a more responsible job and the resultant higher level need satisfaction.

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Thus, Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory integrates well with Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs. In fact, it is helpful in suggesting the kinds of goals or incentives that managers can attempt to provide to satisfy the various needs of their people. As examples, wages can help satisfy physiological needs. Good working conditions and job security can help satisfy safety/security needs. The kind of policies and administration, supervision, and interpersonal relations can affect one's social need satisfaction. Status and recognition for accomplishment can have an impact on esteem needs. Opportunities for achievement, challenging work, increased responsibility, and growth and development can help one maximize his or her potential and thus satisfy self-actualization needs on the job.

To motivate people effectively, management must use appropriate leadership styles in working with various people.

Situational Leadership Theory provides four different maturity levels that may describe people in terms of accomplishing a specific task, all of which require a different leadership style.

1. **Low Follower Maturity** – at this maturity level, people tend to lack both motivation ('willingness') and competence ('ability") to do a particular task. Thus, the leadership style with the highest probability of success in this situation would be high task/low relationship behavior; that is leaders working with people at this maturity level must define their role and direct them as to what, how, when, and where to do the task. This is sometimes called the "telling" style.
2. **Low to Moderate Follower Maturity** – at this maturity level, people tend to have the motivation to do a particular task but lack the ability. Thus, the leadership style that appears to be most appropriate to this situation would be high task/high relationship behavior. That is, leaders working with people at this maturity level must still provide most of the direction (because of the follower (s) lack of ability in the area). However, now can attempt through two-way communication and socio-emotional support (because of the demonstrated motivation) to get the followers to accept decisions that have to be made and the directions that must be given. This is sometimes called the "selling" style.
3. **Moderate to High Follower Maturity** – at this maturity level, people tend to have the ability to do a particular task but seem to lack the motivation. The initial leadership style that tends to be most effective in this situation would be high relationship/low task behavior. That is, leaders working with people at this maturity level need not provide much initial direction (because of the followers ability in the area) but should share in decision-making through two-way communication, thus facilitating behavior that will release the blocked motivation. This is sometimes called the "participating" style.
4. **High Follower Maturity** – at this maturity level, people tend to have both the maturity and the ability to do a particular task. The leadership style with the highest probability of

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success in this situation would be low relationship/low task behavior. That is, leaders working with people at this maturity level demonstrate their confidence and trust in them by providing opportunities for them to "run their own show". This is sometimes called "delegating" style.

Status, power and money are strong motivators. However, successful leaders should go beyond that to create a shared vision, a sense of belonging, a sense of excitement, and a sense of confidence in the workers and empower them to achieve the goal together.

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Exercise

Managing Changes

Identify which kind of change affects you positively and negatively. Choose among (neutral, negative, affirmative or counterproductive)

_____ Introduction of computers to your organization.

_____ Change in structure by the management.

_____ Change to a higher position.

_____ Change in working area.

_____ Change to a challenging job.

_____ Change in working relationship.

_____ New supervisor.

_____ Planned changes.

_____ Changes that involve you in all levels.

_____ Changes imposed by the organization managers.

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Exercise

Cost-benefit analysis

Analyze the service your organization is giving in terms of the benefit the beneficiaries get.

- Urban upgrading
- Road construction
- Relief from famine
- Empowering women
- Empowering adolescents
- Improving living conditions
- Caring for the refugees
- Construction of sanitary services
- Upgrading housing
- Facilitating income generation
- Facilitating waste disposal
- Infrastructure – access roads,
- Improved kitchen system
- Flood prevention
- Drainage system
- Waste disposal (garbage collection, suction truck provision)
- Health program (mother-child care)
- Communal water supply
- Food for work
- Kindergarten
- Income generation activity (credit scheme)

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Exercise

Communication

Evaluate your communication

1. Are you sincerely interested in the people you communicate with: their needs, their problems, interests, etc?
2. Do you make sincere attempt to keep in touch regularly with those whom you need clarification?
3. Do you call people's name before you address an issue?
4. If you are in managerial position, do you clarify management's weaknesses and problems?
5. Do you give people useful information?
6. If you are in managerial position, do you make employee's feel they belong?
7. Do you accept constructive criticism?
8. Do you condescend or act like superior and judge others
9. Do you lose control of your emotion?
10. Are you willing to have new ideas and opinions?
11. Do you feel threatened by change?
12. Do you act on other's ideas frequently?

Identify your areas of strength and weaknesses.

Develop ways to improve your communication skills.

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Exercise

Transparency
This is a process of deliberately revealing information about what one is doing that is significant and that would not normally be known by others.

Write "R" in the empty space if the statement is right and "W" if the statement is not right.

____ I disclose myself if the other person is important to me.
____ Transparency is a risk, it is not worth taking a risk.
____ It is possible to share some facts, opinions or feelings with one person while reserving riskier ones for others.
____ Before disclosing some facts, it is good to test reactions by disclosing less personal data.
____ Transparency is asking for trouble of rejection.
____ Transparency does not require long confessions about your past life or current thoughts unrelated to the present.
____ Transparency should be limited to the required to the situation at hand.
____ Self-disclosure should be reciprocated in interpersonal relationships.
____ It is important to consider the effects of self-disclosure before opening up to others because the disclosure could be devastating.

Discuss the difference between transparency in an organization and self-disclosure in the interpersonal relationship.

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Exercise

Difference Accommodation

The following list illustrates the range and complexity of differences of people: Why do people believe as they do?

- ❑ Age
- ❑ Appearance
- ❑ Race
- ❑ Education
- ❑ Accomplishments
- ❑ Physique
- ❑ Sex
- ❑ Religion
- ❑ Upbringing
- ❑ Beliefs
- ❑ Health
- ❑ Intelligence
- ❑ Politics
- ❑ Experience
- ❑ Attitudes
- ❑ Abilities
- ❑ Skills
- ❑ Temperament
- ❑ Ambitions
- ❑ Circumstances
- ❑ Expectations
- ❑ Interest

- **The key to understanding people lies in being able to appreciate what these differences are. Identify the areas you struggle most in accommodating people.**

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- Write your biases.
- Which of the following do you need to develop in order to accommodate the differences.

1. ___ Learn to be flexible.
2. ___Sharpen your perceptive skills in order to understand others' thinking and feel what others are feeling.
3. ___Avoid being overly direct. Depending on the culture adjust your style of dealing with people.
4. ___Keep the pace slow. The process of decision making is different in different culture.
5. ___Check understanding. Understand intentions, interests, meanings, and agreements.
6. ___Be careful about non-verbal communication. Gestures and facial expressions, body language, space, eye contact, touch and body contact, tone of voice, clothing and grooming, use of silence and long pauses, signs of embarrassment, etc.
7. ___ Allow people to save face. For Orientals, one of the greatest stigma is to be shamed by failing one's organization, group or family. Americans value personal dignity and honor.
8. ___ Build an ongoing relationship. Develop a personal relationship and resolve differeces in a way that will help future relations rather than hinder them.

Performance Evaluation/Review

Comment on the following performance evaluation format.

Employee's name: _____ Job title: _____
Department: _____ Review period: _____

Outstanding:	Very exceptional performance- seldom equaled
Above Average:	Highly satisfactory performance
Average:	Meets requirements of positions
Below Average:	Short of job requirements - needs improvement
Poor:	Requires immediate corrective action

EVALUATION GUIDE

TRAIT	OUT-STANDING	ABOVE AVERAGE	AVERAGE	BELOW AVERAGE	POOR
	5	4	3	2	1
1. Job knowledge	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
2. Dependability	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
3. Accuracy/Quality of work	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
4. Work Organization	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
5. Initiative & creativity	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
6. Learning ability	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
7. Attendance/ Punctuality	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
8. Communication skiii	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
9. Cooperation	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
10. Planning	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
11. Judgment and problem solving	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
12. Personal relationship with others and team relation	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
13. Leadership ability & potential	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
14. Integrity & loyalty	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
15. Discipline	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
16. Supervision	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
17. Teaching	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
18. Attitude	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
19. Chapel, Fellowship Day, Prayer & Praise Day attendance	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Overall appraisal	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

NOTE: Numbers 10, 11, 13 and 16 are mainly for supervisory level. Number 17 is for teaching staff. Be fair and genuine in your judgment.

General remarks of the **Evaluator**: _____

Remarks of the **Employee**: _____

Name of Evaluator _____ Position _____ Signature _____

Name of Employee _____ Signature _____

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Exercise

Motivation

Identify the incentive system that works for you

___ Accomplishing an activity without help-(The independence incentive system)
___ The condition of obtaining the means of influencing another person's decision _(the power incentive system.
___ A condition of intentionally injuring another person to gain fulfillment and satisfaction (aggressive incentive) e.g war.
___Performing activities that are attractive to others so as to induce liking in another (affiliation incentive)
___Goal-activity centering on successful competition with standards of excellence applied to a performance (achievement incentive)
___Focused on perceiving changes in stimulation
___Meeting primary needs
___ Salary increament

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Training on Women's Leadership and Decision Making

Interpersonal Communication and Interpersonal Influence

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SESSIONS' OBJECTIVES

PART I. Interpersonal Communication - Objectives

The participants of the workshop are expected to be able to do the following on the completion of the sessions:

1. Define and discuss the characteristics of interpersonal communication
2. List the techniques to use to improve interpersonal communication
3. Improve listening skills
4. Differentiate high and low self concept
5. Indicate signs of Assertiveness, Non-assertiveness and Aggression
6. Indicate signs of manipulation and ways to improve skills in assertiveness
7. Apply some of the principles and techniques of effective interpersonal communication
8. Suggest ways of organizing ourselves to be more effective in our work
9. Discuss the general communication model applicable to persuasion
10. Share personal experiences in interpersonal relationships, assertiveness and communication

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PART II. Interpersonal Influence - Objectives

The participants of the training are expected to be able to do the following on the completion of the sessions:

1. Identify and discuss six major bases of social power
2. Indicate the techniques that low-status persons use to influence others
3. Discuss various techniques to use to produce obedience and to influence others
4. Describe some of the factors which affect our impressions and strategies to improve our perceptions
5. List and describe several rules of power in interpersonal relations
6. Avoid some of the ineffective behaviors in trying to influence others
7. List and describe general qualities and skills of effective leaders
8. Indicate some characteristics of high and low producing groups' supervisors
9. Discuss the common expectation of employees and steps to take to get work done
10. Share personal experiences in influencing, perception and impression management

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Part I: Interpersonal Communication- outline

Topics to discuss and to do exercises on:

1. Introduction
2. Improving skills in Interpersonal Communication
3. Listening - purpose and problems
4. How to improve listening
5. Self - concept
6. Assertiveness: characteristics and problems
7. Signs of none assertiveness
8. Assertive styles of response
9. Aggressive style of response
10. Coping with manipulation
11. Improving skills in assertiveness
12. Organize yourself - as a possible leader
13. Communication model
14. Two to three exercises - individually and in group

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PART II. INTERPERSONAL INFLUENCE - OUTLINE

Topics to discuss and to do exercises on:

1. Basis of social power
2. Categories of influencers
3. Techniques to produce compliance/ obedience
4. Strategies (power tactics) to use to influence
5. Factors affecting cooperation and competition
6. Factors affecting peoples' impression
7. To improve skills in perception
8. Pitfalls to avoid in perception
9. Relationship skills to use to influence
10. Leadership Qualities
11. Leadership Skills
12. Supervisors Characteristics
13. Employees expectations
14. To get work done
15. Two to three exercises - individually and in group

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Part I. INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION

1. Introduction

Interpersonal communication, like any form of behavior, can vary from extremely effective to extremely ineffective. No interpersonal encounter is a total failure or a total success; each could have been worse, but each could have been better. We emphasize that each communicative act is different and that any principle or rule must be applied judiciously, with full recognition of the uniqueness of each communication event. These characteristics of effectiveness could be considered from three perspectives.

Humanism The first is the humanistic perspective, which stresses openness, empathy, supportiveness, and, in general, qualities that foster meaningful, honest, and satisfying interactions. This approach is in the tradition of humanistic psychology articulated by Abraham Maslow, Gordon Allport, Carl Rogers, and numerous others. This approach begins with the general qualities that philosophers and humanists feel define superior human relationships (for example, honesty, openness, and positiveness). From these general qualities, we then derive specific behaviors that should characterize effective interpersonal communication.

Pragmatism The second is the pragmatic or behavioral perspective, which stresses interaction management and immediacy, and in general, qualities that contribute to achieving a variety of desired goals. This approach derives from the more recent pragmatic approach to communication articulated by such writers as Paul Watzlawick, William Lederer, Don Jackson, and others. This approach starts from specific skills that research finds effective in interpersonal communication, then groups these specific skills into general classes of behaviors (for example, interaction management skills, other-orientation skills).

Social Exchange and Equity The third perspective is that of social exchange and equity theory. This approach is based on an economic model of rewards and costs; it assumes that a relationship is a partnership in which rewards and costs are exchanged. Some patterns of exchange prove productive and others destructive of relationships.

These approaches are not mutually exclusive, but actually complement each other.

A. The major qualities recommended by **Humanistic** approach for effective interpersonal communication include:

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1. Openness - willingness to self disclose, to reveal some information about oneself; to react honestly to incoming stimuli.
2. Empathy - to be in the same shoes of others and to feel and experience from others view; playing the others role in ones mind.
3. Supportiveness - description of behaviors rather than evaluation; straight forward and spontaneous communication; provisional (open- minded, tentative).
4. Positiveness - stating positive attitudes about self and others; showing interest and care.
5. Equality - both parties are valuable and worthwhile human beings; accepting and approving others.

B. Qualities of effective interpersonal communication, according to **pragmatic** approach (Behavioral or competence model) are the following:

1. Confidence - effective communicator has social confidence, shows comfort with the other person controlling any anxiety; being relaxed, flexible rather than tense and regid.
2. Immediacy - showing feelings of interest and liking; providing full attention.
3. Interaction Management - controls the interaction verbally and nonverbally; speaking and listening; words and physical expressions matching.
4. Expressiveness - showing involvement in the interpersonal interaction, owning ones thoughts and feelings and talking responsibility; stating disagreements where needed. Gestures also demonstrate expressions.
5. Other-orientation - listening attentively to the other person; taking about the other persons too. Providing feedback and showing empathy. Respecting others attitudes, belief and behaviors.

C. **Social Exchange** approach to interpersonal communication effectiveness argues that we develop relationships in which our rewards will be greater than our costs.

1. Rewards include fulfilling the needs for security, sex, social approval, financial gain, status, etc.
2. Attempt to incur the least cost (loss or punishment) are common practices and often ineffective;
3. When expectations are fulfilled, people are satisfied.

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4. People usually attempt to maintain equality or equity in their share of resources.
5. Increasing rewards, focussing on the present, and fairness increase interpersonal attraction and communication.

2. IMPROVING SKILLS IN INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION

- To become effective sender and receiver of interpersonal messages.

1. Broaden your experience - actively reach out and start new relationships;
2. Realize that growth takes time - give time, at various settings;
3. Use existing relationships in new ways - existing is to be a testing ground; try new patterns;
4. Develop Openness - Be open to change; check out views to life and feelings, pause and think about self.
5. Improve the exactness of your communication - check what you mean; clarity and being sensitive to situations.
6. Improve language - words, voice, sentences, nonverbal approaches, etc. to be improved.

3. Listening

Purpose and problems of listening:

A. Purpose of listening
   1. For enjoyment
   2. For information
   3. In order to evaluate
   4. In order to understand

B. Misconception of listening
   1. Listening is easy
   2. Listening ability is largely a matter of intelligence
   3. Daily use of listening eliminates the need for special training
   4. Improving reading ability also improves listening ability

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C. Most common problems (causes of poor) listening are:

1. Premature dismissal of a subject as uninteresting
2. Avoiding difficult listening
3. Criticizing delivery and physical appearance - external aspect
4. Faking attention - pretending listening; not giving attention
5. Listening only for facts - ideas and feelings are missed
6. Letting emotion - laden words rouse personal antagonism - antagonisms and negative behaviors
7. Wasting the advantage of thought speed over speech speed - (speech speed is 125 words/ minute, reading speed is 1,200 words per minute...).

D. How to improve listening behavior

1. Listen to difficult materials - speeches, conference, TV-- participate
2. Determine the purpose behind the communication situation and your subsequent role in listening - to inform, to instruct, to entertain, to persuade... (Determine why you are listening)
3. Create an interest in the subject - concentration increases
4. Adjust to the speaker - avoid distractions. Down play the idiosyncrasy of the speaker.
5. Adjust to the physical situation - fight distractions, close the door, TV... sit Face to Face!
6. Keep the emotions in check - hold your fire, don't be too excited... (Withhold evaluation till the end).
7. Listen primarily for ideas and patterns of reasoning - recognize main points & central ideas. Discriminate between fact & principle, idea and example, evidence and argument.
8. Use spare time wisely - speaking and thinking rates differ and most people think 4 times faster than they speak. Review, read between lines, anticipate the next point.

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4. SELF-CONCEPT

I. Characteristics of low self concept

1. Low trust of self/own actions
2. Talk about self in criticism and weaknesses
3. Inability to accept praise gracefully
4. Too much defensiveness (e.g. about blame)
5. Degradation of self
6. Persistent whinning/complaining
7. Pessimistic attitude towards society, life.

II. Characteristics of high self-concept:

1. Talking about issues and others more than self
2. Ability to accept praise and blame gracefully
3. Gives credits to others for their share
4. Willing to try new methods, games, approach
5. Having empathy for others
6. A confident tone of voice - can easily say "I do not know," "I was wrong" etc.
7. Lack of dogmatism about social life, competition, etc.
8. Optimistic attitude about social life, competition, etc.

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*G. Myers & M. Myers 1992

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5. ASSERTIVENESS: Characteristics and problems

- Assertiveness is a willingness to stand up for one's rights but with respect for the rights of others.
- It means thinking, saying, and acting on the fact that each of us is unique and wants certain things; without infringing on the rights of others and feel comfortable about our behavior.
- Caring for oneself without being too selfish or egotistical (excluding others).
- Self affirmation is healthy; we should maintain and defend our basic human rights.
- It is showing concern for ourselves, protecting ourselves and being ourselves.
- Each of us have:
  a) Right to be treated with respect
  b) Right to have and express feelings, opinions
  c) Rights to set own priorities
  d) Right to say no w/o feeling guilty
  e) Right to be listened to & taken seriously
  f) Right to get what we paid for.
- Social structures perpetuate that people be treated in certain ways, roles (age, color, sex, status..).
- All have fundamental rights in interpersonal communication and all are equal.. despite titles or roles. What makes us hold back (not assertive):
  1. Laziness
  2. Apathy
  3. Feelings of inadequacy
  4. Fear of being considered unworthy, unloved or unacceptable
  5. Fear of hurting other person or making him or her angry
  6. Fear of getting no rienforcement
  7. Fear of not knowing how to accomplish our desired goal

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8. Feeling that if we do not do it, someone else will.

- Effective discussions should take place in non apologetic and non defensive way!!
- Too polite, restrained, tactful, diplomatic and modest acts (behaviors) are usually NON-ASSERTIVE.

6. SIGNS OF NON-ASSERTIVENES

- Being assertive tells where you stand. It gives us choice. Others will not decide for us. Doing the following are signs of Non-assertiveness:

1. Staying in the back of the group
2. Sticking to the middle of the road position or refrain from taking a stand.
3. Allowing others to make decisions for us
4. Pass by potential friendships because they seem like too much effort
5. Always keep our voice low or avoid eye contact to keep from calling attention to ourselves
6. Verbally argue with others despite our real feelings
7. Bring harm or inconvenience to ourselves to avoid harming or inconveniencing others
8. Procrastinate to avoid problems and to keep from making decisions
9. Always consider ourselves weaker and less capable than others
10. Always escape responsibility with excuses and "good" reasons

- Self doubt leads to further inadequate behaviors

7. ASSERTIVE STYLE OF RESPONSE

1. Allow others to complete their thoughts before we speak
2. Stand up for the position that matches our feelings or the evidence
3. Make our own decisions based on what we think is right
4. Look to friendships or opportunities to learn more about ourselves and others and to share ideas

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5. Can spontaneously and naturally enter into conversations using a moderate tone and volume of voice
6. Try to understand the feelings of others before describing our own
7. Try to avoid harm and inconvenience or find rationale means for coping
8. Face problems and decisions squarely
9. Consider ourselves strong and capable, but generally equal to most other people
10. Face responsibility with respect to our situation, needs and rights.
    - Communicate in open, direct, honest and appropriate manner. Go after what you want, knowing limitations!!

8. AGGRESSIVE STYLE OF RESPONSE

If we are aggressive, we might:

1. Interrupt others when they are speaking
2. Try to impose our position on others
3. Always make decisions for others
4. Use and abuse friendships
5. Always speak loudly and otherwise call attention to ourselves
6. Accuse, blame and find faults with others despite their feelings
7. Bring harm or cause inconvenience to others despite their feelings
8. Speak beside the issue, distort the facts, or misconstrue the truth to get our solutions accepted quickly
9. Always consider ourselves stronger and more capable than others
10. Accept responsibility and positions of authority for the purpose of manipulation or to give us a means of vehemently expressing ourselves.
11. Try to accomplish our life goals at the expense of others.

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9. COPING WITH MANIPULATIONS

(Getting out from under)

Manipulation would mean being exploited, used, or controlled or being treated as things rather than persons.

Some of the signs of manipulation are:

1. People using their position outside of the JD.
2. When people give in easily, quickly.
3. When people have all the answers,.. pretend that they are listening to us.. but already have made up their minds.
4. When people become too dependent on us .. asking for constant guidance.. always apologizing
5. When people are overtly aggressive, unkind, or threatening to us. You'll be sorry if....?!
6. When people are excessively, unreasonably affectionate and some people "kill us" with kindness
7. When people are extremely critical and they bulldoze us with their "standards".
8. When people are overtly supportive... undying protection .. Let me take care of it type.

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10. IMPROVING SKILLS IN ASSERTIVENESS

1. We should understand our rights, being a human being.
2. Have faith in yourself and your ability
3. Take responsibility for yourself - you are in control of your thinking, feeling and behavior and stick to "accepted" standards
4. DO NOT OVER - APOLOGIZE - explain the situation... should not be accepted by the other party
5. DO NOT TRY TO REARRANGE SOMEONE ELSE'S LIFE - Can be compassionate, may give advice but the person with the problem has the responsibility for his/her life and behavior.

6. Feel free to change your mind - Our goals and interests change; facts and realities change. (Unreliable, wishy - wishy, scatter brained, etc. might be the labels we might get!!)
7. Feel free to make mistakes - Nobody is perfect... errors get committed. Admit mistakes and apologize for them and correct them.
8. Learn to recognize unanswerable questions - we should not be intimidated by inquiries. Do say "I do not know"...
9. Feel free to say "I do not know". There are legitimate, answerable questions that we do not have the answer to.. Ask for more time, find out, etc.
10. DO NOT DEPEND ON THE GOOD WILL OF OTHERS -= Everyone likes and needs to be liked. But our actions will irritate some. Some might be hurt.. that is part of life.
11. Feel free to be illogical - Logical is not always the answer in dealing with wants, motivations, and feelings. Sometimes our guess works.
12. Feel free to say "I don't understand", - though experience teacher us, sometimes we do not understand the "whys" of behavior.
13. Feel free to say "I do not care", - Be satisfied with what you have. We don't need to be perfect, like or dislike this or that.

11. ORGANIZING YOURSELF - As possible leaders

The following are some practical suggestions to help us to organize our personal work and to spend our time more effectively (Adair, 1983, p. 154):

1. Develop sense of time - record where your time goes;
2. Plan ahead - A day, a week, a month ahead in terms of priorities and deadlines.
3. Make the most of your best time - Important tasks on times you function best. Have quiet moments for creative thoughts.
4. Capitalize on marginal time - squeeze small activities (e.g. news) into major activities (meetings).
5. Avoid clutter - sort papers into categories
6. Do it now - "Procrastination is the thief of time"
7. Learn to say "No" - do not let others misappropriate your time; decline tactfully.

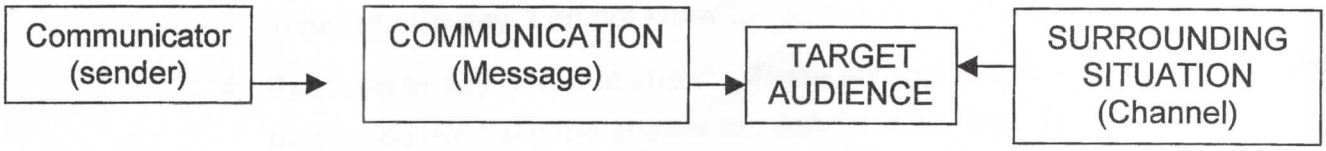
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8. Use the telephone as a time - saving tool - keep telephone calls short
9. Delegate - share responsibility
10. Meetings - keep them short, sharpen your skills.

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12. COMMUNICATIONS MODEL

A Model of the process of communication mostly useful in persuasion situation follows.



There are several factors which affect the effectiveness of communications. The major factors are listed below.

12.1. Regarding The Message

- Clarity, simplicity, organization
- Presenting both (all) sides of the issue, emphasizing the wanted
- Using loaded words
- Creating disonance
- Selective exposure
- Order of presentation (Primacy and Recency effect)
- Organization, logic, and clarity
- Active participation of the target
- Asking for a large shift rather than small shift.

12.2. Regarding the Source of Message:

- Communication credibility and prestige
- Age, sex, profession, etc. of the source
- Objectivity of the communicator
- Similarity of the communicator
- Intentions of the communicator
- Voice, tone, clothing etc.

12.3. Regarding the Situation

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- Distractions, extraneous factors
- Conduciveness of the environment
- Fear/anxiety arousing
- Sensory deprivation
- Other more attractive variables

12.4. Regarding the Audience/Terget

- The involvement level
- Motivation
- Availability of incentives
- Background, values, weakness, etc,
- Personality and personal problems,
- Needs being effected, etc.

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PART II: INTERPERSONAL INFLUENCE

1. Introduction

Power, status and influence have overlapping meanings. Power and influence are often used synonymously. But often, influence designates the end state, while power designates the means to an end. Power is to be understood in terms of force, resources and norms, while status is to be understood in terms of attribute, position or prestige. Influence refers to the outcome of an interaction.

2. POTENTIAL KINDS OF SOCIAL POWER

1.	Reward	-	For advantages, incentives
2.	Coercive	-	To avoid punishment
3.	Expert	-	To do the right thing
4.	Referent	-	Desire to be like "X"
5.	Legitimate	-	To conform to social expectations
6.	Informational	-	To behave rationally

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3. CATEGORIES OF INFLUENCERS

1.	High status	-	controlling access and resources
2.	Equal status	-	Conformity, fear of deviance
3.	Low status	-	Ingratiation, helplessness, being consistent or organized

4. LEADERSHIP

A. According to some sources, some of the most important qualities and traits of a leader are the following:

1. Energy, drive, achievement orientation
2. Appearance, presentability

3. A sense of cooperativeness
4. Initiative
5. Intelligence, congnitive complexity
6. Self confidence, high self-esteem
7. Sociability, talkativeness, communication
8. Tact and diplomacy
9. Moral courage and integrity
10. Will power and flexibility , fairness
11. Emotional stability
12. Knowledge of human relations
13. High level of organization
14. High culture of labor, work discipline
15. Credibility - expertise, trust worthiness and charisma
16. Ability to listen, to care, etc.

B. LEADERSHIP SKILLS TO BE LEARNED AND PRACTICED

Social psychology and management studies tell us that the following skills are essential for a good leadership, particularly when conducting meetings. We encourage that persons in leadership position (units and department heads, executive and beyond) to learn and practice the skills.

1. The ability to state a problem in such a way that the group does not become defensive, but instead approaches the issue in a constructive way.
   - Sharing the problems with the group e.g. how to make the job safe; to establish a community center.
2. The ability to supply essential facts and to clarify the area of freedom without suggesting a solution.
   - Turn over the problem to the group, no long speeches are necessary
3. The ability to draw persons out so that all members will participate and contribute.

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- Keeping the discussion moving; accept all kinds of contributions and also accept conflicts

4. The ability to wait out pauses.
   - Participation should not be forced
   - Let others also talk; give time
5. The ability to restate acumulately the ideas and feelings expressed in more pointed, and clearer form than when initially expressed by a member
   - Show acceptance (not agreement or disagreement) of ideas and understanding of them.
6. The ability to ask questions that stimulate problem solving behavior
   - Make all members think about the same thing at the same time
7. The ability to summarize, as the need arises
   - Moving the discussion along, indicating progress and restating the problem in a new form.
8. The ability to deal with deadlocks
   - Searching for other alternative

We should note that one can improve the above and other skills by practicing, evaluating and continuing to improve (practicing again and again using the correct principles).

5. TECHNIQUES TO PRODUCE COMPLIANCE/OBEDIENCE:

1. External pressure like reward, punishment
2. Pressure from the situation - deindividuation
3. Foot - in - the - door technique - small request
4. Transgression and Guilt - social justice
5. Motive/emotion/arousal - threaten, Fear
6. Bystander Intervention - others' obeying

D. STRATEGIES (POWER TACTICS) USED TO INFLUENCE

1. Reason, Logical Argument
2. Expertise, Claim of Superiority

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3. Compromise, Giving up Partially
4. Bargain, Reciprocate Favors
5. Persuade/Convince, communication skills
6. Persistence, Assertion, social skills
7. Thought Manipulation
8. Hinting, Indirect Attempt
9. Emotion Manipulation, Alter Expression
10. Threat and Claim of Negative Consequences
11. Deceit, Lies or Flattery
12. Evasion, Avoiding Oppositions
13. Reward, promise, etc.
14. Liking, showing affection
15. Punishment - aversive stimulation
16. Moral appeals - ethics

7. FACTORS AFFECTING COOPERATION & COMPETITION

1. Incentives
2. Threats
3. Motivation
4. Communication
5. Personality
6. Situation/context

8. FACTORS AFFECTING PEOPLES' IMPRESSION

1. Context
2. Background
3. Central Trait

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4. Physical Attractiveness
5. Primacy & Recency Effect
6. Stereotypes, Prejudices
7. Expressive Style

9. TO IMPROVE SKILLS IN PRECEPTION

1. Get information
2. Listen/observe
3. Make yourself available
4. Do not jump to conclusions - be open
5. Establish proper climate /rapport
6. Give it time- be closer/accurate
7. Be willing to Adjust/Flexible

10. PITFALLS TO AVOID IN PERCEPTION

1. Snap Judgements
2. Too much Defensiveness-Projection, Rationalization
3. Stereotypes, Prejudices, Biases
4. Predisposition - Hearing what one wants
5. Preoccupation - Having mind "Too Busy"
6. Lack of Appreciation for others' ideas and views
7. Limited Perspectives - Others' Views, Errors

11. RELATIONSHIP SKILLS TO USE TO INFLUENCE

" Rules of Power" which will increase the individuals' power and influence:

1. Act impeccably - Working towards excellence
2. Do not reveal all of yourself to others - others knowing a great deal about us could help them predict our behavior.

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3. Use time - do not waste time in developing skills and not using them; have daily schedules of activities.

4. Accept your mistakes - explain, apologize, but not too defensive.

5. Do not make waves - more waves (moves, concern with trivia) could bring about failures.

6. Show assertiveness - "Say " no" if you mean it.

7. Confront power game players - refuse manipulation and doing favors for unacceptable returns.

8. Communicate your knowledge, preparation and confidence

9. Associate with those with power - interact and be friendly with competent people; join the right group, establish networks.

10. Protect and reinforce your power - exercise fairness and use it when necessary. Do not let others use or abuse you.

11. Make powerful statements and speeches - Avoid hesitations, uncertainties, over politeness and self-critical statements.

12. Keep yourself informed - About your environment, your organizations, new developments, etc.

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12. SUPERVISORS CHARACTERISTICS

A. Low producing work groups' supervisors tend to have

1. More punitive attitudes
2. Had less trust in employees
3. Were less sensitive to need and feelings of workers
4. Were less inclined to give recognition for a job well done
5. Had lower performance standards
6. Had less pride in the group
7. Were poorer listeners
8. Were poorer communicators
9. Placed less emphasis on teamwork.

B. High producing groups' supervisors tend to:

1. Give more freedom to the subordinates
2. Be satisfied with the amount of authority and responsibility given for the task
3. Spend more time on planning and organizing work
4. Leave details to the workers
5. Communicate and listen well

13. EMPLOYEES' EXPECTATIONS

EMPLOYEES ARE ENTITLED TO EXPECT THE FOLLOWING FROM THEIR ORGANIZATION

1. Clean accountability and authority specifications for all roles
2. Competent managers (leaders, bosses)
3. Opportunities to participate in task assignment and policy development
4. Challenging work - opportunities to use individual working capacity to the fullest
5. Timely managerial feedback regarding personal effectiveness
6. Fair differential remuneration based on level of work
7. Assurance of continued employment so long as no redundancy and the individual is capable of doing the work
8. Entitlement for equal opportunity and to compete for higher vacancies.

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14. TO GET WORK DONE

SEQUENCE OF STEPS/PROCEDURES TO GET WORK DONE

1. Be clear of the task (work) to be done to be assigned
2. Develop a plan to achieve the goals - pathway, operations
3. Formulate the tasks to be given to subordinates - expected outputs.
4. Assign taks - specifying parameters or quality, quantity, resources, deadline.
5. Establish task reporting procedures
6. Provide performance accounting and feedback - proper context
7. Coach and supervise as needed
8. Conduct personal effectiveness appraisals - clear information
9. Decide and act on merit recognition as required
10. Carry out supporting actions, such as selection, promotion, reprimand, demotion, etc.

It is obvious that leadership competence, proper organizational structure, good communication, and clear standard would be required to be effective.

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EXERCISES

- On Communication
- On Self Assessment
- On The Application of Concepts and Techniques
- On Interpersonal Relationship Skills
- On Assertiveness
- On Leadership Qualities, etc.

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1. SELF-ESTEEM CLARIFICATION CHECK LIST

(Personal and only for training purposes)

Indicate how you feel about the area/aspect (about yourself) from very inadequate (1) to very adequate (4). The weight is as following.

1=Very Inadequate, 2=Inadequate, 3=adequate, 4=very adequate

=(very bad) =(bad) =(good) =(very good)

1. How you feel about your physical appearance	1 2 3 4
2. How you feel about your job relationships	1 2 3 4
3. How you feel about your job competence	1 2 3 4
4. How your feel about your general ability	1 2 3 4
5. How you feel about your income	1 2 3 4
6. How you feel about your role in job	1 2 3 4
7. How your friends think about your ability	1 2 3 4
8. How your boss thinks about you in general	1 2 3 4
9. How your family members think about you in general	1 2 3 4
10 How you feel about your family background	1 2 3 4
11. How relevant others think about your family background	1 2 3 4
12. How you feel about your romantic/sex life	1 2 3 4
13. How your feel about your economic situation in the future	1 2 3 4
14. How you feel about your general health	1 2 3 4
15. How you feel about your leadership abilities	1 2 3 4

Total score: _____

Did you score below 38 points?

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2. Leadership Qualities for Management - Exercise

Rank order the following attributes in order of most valuable (1), second most valuable (2), and so on till 25 (least valuable).

1. Capacity for abstract thought _____
2. Skills with numbers _____
3. Curiosity (desire to know) _____
4. Capacity for lucid (clear) writing _____
5. Single mindedness _____
6. Ambition (aspiration, desire to achieve) _____
7. Willingness to work long hours _____
8. Ability to "stick to it" _____
9. Open-mindedness _____
10. Ability to administer efficiently _____
11. Astuteness (shrewdness, sagaciousness) _____
12. Capacity to speak lucidly _____
13. Enterprise (taking initiative, entrepreneur) _____
14. Willingness to take risks _____
15. Ability to adapt quickly to change _____
16. Ability to meet unpleasant situations _____
17. Ability to spot opportunities _____
18. Understanding of others _____
19. Analytical ability _____
20. Willingness to work hard _____
21. Imagination _____
22. Enthusiasm _____
23. Integrity (Honesty) _____
24. Leadership (guiding, directing) _____
25. Ability to take decisions _____

Adair, 1983, P. 13. Are 10 of the ranks from after number 10?

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3. ASSERTIVENESS/AGGRESSION/PASSIVENESS EXERCISES

After each person has responded individually, discuss these situations and the responses in groups of five or six in any way you feel is meaningful.

1. A fellow worker borrowed a book and has not returned it in two weeks.
2. The people behind you in a movie are talking loudly.
3. Your neighbor is playing a stereo so loud you have difficulty studying.
4. You are shortchanged by 25 cents at a supermarket.
5. Your meal in a restaurant arrives cold instead of hot.
6. A neighbor's dog repeatedly defecates in front of your house.
7. A neighbor's dog barks constantly during the day when the owner is out.
8. A friend borrows birr 5 but does not show any interest in returning it.
9. A neighbor repeatedly drops by for coffee without being invited.
10. A fellow student does not work on a group project for which each member will receive the same grade.
11. A teacher gives you grade that you feel is unfair.
12. You are attracted to someone in class and want to ask the person for a date.
13. Your business partner does not do half the work.
14. A friend is continually late for appointments.
15. A group of fellow students is unfairly speaking against someone you know.
16. A persistent salesperson keeps showing you merchandise you do not want to buy.
17. Your friend wants to borrow your expensive watch and you are afraid he or she will lose it.
18. Your boss takes advantage of you by asking you to take on all sorts of extra responsibilities.
19. You are at a party where you know no one but the host.
20. Someone asks you for a date but you do not want to go.

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4. SOME NONVERBAL SEX DIFFERENCES

The following statements summarize some of the research findings on sex differences in nonverbal communication. For each statement, insert *men* or *women* in each blank space. After completing all 15 statements, consider the questions for discussion.

1. _____ seem to be slightly more accurate at judging emotions from observing facial expressions than _____.
2. _____ seem better able to communicate emotions by facial expressions than _____.
3. _____ smile more than _____.
4. _____ are generally approached more closely than _____.
5. _____ reveal their emotions facially more readily than _____.
6. _____ extend their bodies, taking up greater areas of space, than _____.
7. _____ maintain more eye contact than _____ in mixed-sex dyads.
8. Both men and women when speaking, look at _____ more that at _____.
9. In mixed-sex dyads, _____ interrupt _____more often.
10. Some research indicates that _____ speak with greater volume than _____.
11. If a man and woman are walking toward each other, the _____ will be more apt to move out of the _____ 's way.
12. Unattractive _____ seem to be less accepted than unattractive _____.
13. _____ both touch and are touched more than _____.
14. _____ engage in greater mutual eye contact with a same-sex partner than _____.
15. Same-sex pairs of _____ sit more closely together than do same-sex pairs of _____.

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5. POSSIBLE EXERCISES/ ACTIVITIES

(As one group, 2 to 3 groups, or Individuals)

1. Make a list of the groups you belong to and the reasons for belonging to them.
2. Play a role as an employer and employee and discuss about salary.
3. Play a role of teenage child and a parent and discuss sexual freedom, discipline.
4. Play a role of a boyfriend and a girlfriend discussing jealousy.
5. Explain the major steps and preparations you would recommend to a young college graduate called for employment interview at Tesfa Airlines (i.e., the preparation before and the reactions during the interview).
6. Make a brief list of the most important characteristics of a leader that you know (i.e., the characteristics that you admire).
7. List down the steps you would take getting ready to deliver a speech as a candidate for an administration/ political post.
8. List the steps you would take to persuade an angry crowd to disband (to disperse).
9. Ask yourself if you do the following:
   - 9.1. Start some conversation (discussion) with others
   - 9.2. Encourage participation
   - 9.3. Reinforce desired behavior
   - 9.4. Discourage monopolizing
   - 9.5. Check that all sides of the issue (question) is addressed (heard)
   - 9.6. Summarize discussion
   - 9.7. Resolve differences and direct discussion toward solution

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6. LEADERSHIP EVALUATION FORM - EXERCISE

Evaluate the effectiveness of yourself and/or another group leader in serving variety of roles and functions (Adopted from J. A. Devito, 1998):

	4 points	0 point
1. Introductory Remarks		
1.1. Greets members	Yes ___ ___ ___ ___	No
1.2. Introduces topic(s)	Yes ___ ___ ___ ___	No
1.3. Introduces members	Yes ___ ___ ___ ___	No
1.4. Explains procedures	Yes ___ ___ ___ ___	No
1.5. Gets group going	Yes ___ ___ ___ ___	No
2. Maintenance of Interaction		
2.1. Keeps members on time schedule	Yes ___ ___ ___ ___	No
2.2. Keeps to agenda	Yes ___ ___ ___ ___	No
3. Communication guidance		
3.1. Encourages conflict resolution	Yes ___ ___ ___ ___	No
3.2. Clarifies	Yes ___ ___ ___ ___	No
3.3. Ensures members understanding	Yes ___ ___ ___ ___	No
3.4. Involves all members	Yes ___ ___ ___ ___	No
3.5. Encourages expression of differences	Yes ___ ___ ___ ___	No
3.6. Uses transactions	Yes ___ ___ ___ ___	No
3.7. Secures relevant information	Yes ___ ___ ___ ___	No
4. Development of Effective Interpersonal Climate		
4.1. Works for members satisfaction	Yes ___ ___ ___ ___	No
4.2. Builds open atmosphere	Yes ___ ___ ___ ___	No
4.3. Encourages supportiveness	Yes ___ ___ ___ ___	No
5. Ongoing Evaluation and Improvement		
5.1. Encourages criticism	Yes ___ ___ ___ ___	No
5.2. Encourages process suggestions	Yes ___ ___ ___ ___	No
5.3. Accepts disagreements	Yes ___ ___ ___ ___	No

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5.4. Directs group self-evaluation Yes ___ ___ ___ ___ No

5.5. Encourages improvement suggestions Yes ___ ___ ___ ___ No

6. Concluding Remarks

6.1. Summarizes Yes ___ ___ ___ ___ No

6.2. Involves audience Yes ___ ___ ___ ___ No

6.3. Closes discussion Yes ___ ___ ___ ___ No

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7. MYSELF AS A COMMUNICATOR - EXERCISE

How you see yourself in your communication with others has a strong effect on what you do. Answer the following questions for 3 levels of communication and evaluate yourself.

1. Intrapersonal Range of Influences

1.1. Intellectual level

- Reading , listening, watching
- Sensory inputs processed
- Vocabulary recognition
- Language acquisitions
- Data gathering
- Data storage in brain
- Planning, worrying

1.2. Skills level

- Overcoming accents
- Training memory
- Pronunciation practice
- Organizing data and arguments
- Solving puzzles
- Ear and eye training
- Problem definitions

1.3. Emotional level

- Self-image development
- Acquisition of values
- Expressions of needs
- Artistic listening and watching
- Concepts of self and others
- Worrying
- Anticipating pleasures

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2. Interpersonal Range of Influences

2.1. Intellectual level

- Giving instructions
- Reporting observations
- Taking orders
- Telling data
- Logical persuading
- Debating, arguing
- Listening to data

2.2. Skills level

- Conversational skills
- Listening skills
- Interviewing
- Leading groups or organizations
- Selling products
- Movements and gestures
- Adapting behavior to feedback

2.3. Emotional level

- Sharing feeling
- Persuasion concerning values
- Discussions of artistic expressions
- Playing music, reading together
- High-pressure selling
- Reporting inferences

3. Public Communicational Level/ Range of Influences

3.1. Intellectual level

- Public reports
- Judicial proceedings
- Parliamentary practices

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- News reporting
- Law making
- Documentary productions
- Notification writing

3.2. Skills level

- Political speaking
- Public addresses
- Organization of data by speakers and listeners
- Debating, open forum, discussion techniques
- Reports, digests, etc.

3.3. Emotional level

- Mob actions
- Panic situations
- Mass movements in society
- Artistic performances in music, drama, movies, etc.
- Art exhibits
- Oral interpretation

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8. GOALS OF SELF AND OTHERS - EXERCISE

Rank the following 12 goals in order of their importance to you at this time in your life. Use 1 for the most important, 2 for the next most important, and so on, using 12 for the least important.

Goal/ Item	Rank
1. Emotional Security	---------
2. Sexual Love	---------
3. Independence	---------
4. Knowledge	---------
5. Family Love	---------
6. Financial Security	---------
7. Friendship	---------
8. Self-regard	---------
9. Work	---------
10. Excitement	---------
11. Beauty	---------
12. Creative Self-expression	---------

Could discuss about the difference between your rankings and others' rankings.

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9. INDIVIDUAL INVOLVEMENT INVENTORY

How many of the following statements are TRUE for you!

	True	False
1. I try new procedures rather than discount them.		
2. I take responsibility for my own learning.		
3. I laugh at my own mistakes.		
4. I listen discriminately to what I hear and its relevance for me.		
5. I value openness to change in others and expect it of myself.		
6. I am willing to take risks in learning situations.		
7. I approach old tasks in new ways.		
8. I am willing to alter my expectations when I learn others have different expectations.		
9. I am an active learner rather than passive learner.		
10. I try to learn in all situations.		
11. I am patient with other people as they learn although at times it is very difficult.		
12. I believe that words (statements) do not necessarily reflect the speakers feelings.		

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10. CREDIBILITY ASSESSMENT SCALE - EXERCISE

Below is a scale designed to measure credibility. Rate yourself twice. (A) As you feel you really are, and (B) As you feel others like colleagues see you. Use the points of 4, 3, 2, or 1 for each scale.

1. Trustworthy	4	3	2	1	Untrustworthy
2. Friendly	4	3	2	1	Unfriendly
3. Honest	4	3	2	1	Dishonest
4. Experienced	4	3	2	1	Inexperienced
5. Informed	4	3	2	1	Uninformed
6. Skilled	4	3	2	1	Unskilled
7. Aggressive	4	3	2	1	Meek
8. Emphatic	4	3	2	1	Hesitant
9. Active	4	3	2	1	Passive
10. Bold	4	3	2	1	Timid

A. Total score as you feel you really are _____.

B. Total score as you feel others see you _____.

Difference _____.

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11. ASSESSING SUPERVISORY SKILLS

Please mark your appropriate feelings about the following situations.

I do the following	Always			Never
1. Explain clearly what others have to do.	4	3	2	1
2. Provide the information subordinates need to do their job and to feel part of the team.				
4. Help others set work goals for themselves.				
5. Evaluate others performance & help them know where they need to improve.				
6. Observe and follow up work assignments				
7. Give praise, recognition and support when others perform effectively.				
8. Reprimand & discipline as needed.				
9. Enforce rules and regulations appropriately.				
10. Deal with grievances and complaints promptly and satisfactorily.				
11. Involve others in decisions which affect them.				
12. Assign responsibilities to me and to others appropriately.				
12. Help staff solve common problems together.				
13. Make good use of my and others time.				
14. Am a good listener (verbal and nonverbal).				
15. Create meaningful & challenging work for self and others.				
16. Have work and performance standards for self.				

_____

Total Score

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12. WORKSHOP EVALUATION FORM

Please circle your answer (assessment) concerning various aspects of the session (workshop).

1. Are the objectives of the course (session)relevant?

   Not relevant 1 2 3 4 Very relevant

2. Were the objectives attained?

   Not at all 1 2 3 4 Fully attained

3. How useful was the workshop?

   Not at all 1 2 3 4 Very useful

4. Were the teaching materials well prepared?

   Not at all 1 2 3 4 Very well prepared

5. Did the instructor deliver (present) the content adequately?

   Not well 1 2 3 4 Very well

6. Would you recommend the instructor for similar other trainings?

   Not at all 1 2 3 4 Yes highly

7. Write below any comments you might have about the objectives, content, the materials (modules), and the instructor.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Thank you for the evaluation!!

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