



UNDP-PGE SPONSORED

Women's Leadership Programme

Module One

Core Management Skills

Summary of Course Content

16th – 20th January 2006

VBNK receives core funding support from EED and ICCO

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A Training Institute for Managers of Organisations Working for the Development of Cambodia

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Women's Leadership Programme

Module 1

Core Management Skills

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Women's Leadership Programme

A Training Programme for Women Manager of Government

Appendix

Follow Up Process - Documentation:

- 1 Learning Implementation Plan (LIP) Form;
Completed by participant at the end of each
Module.**
- 2 LIP Assessment Form; completed by participant
and mentor after implementing the LIP and
submitted to VBNK at the beginning of Module 2
and 3**

Programme Overview

Aim of the Programme

To offer a leadership development programme which addresses the needs and issues of women managers in Cambodia; to provide a forum to work on the key issues and core skills needed to develop their leadership potential.

Participants will be enabled to develop strategies and implementation plans to be more effective as managers in the context of Cambodian culture and the development sector.

Objectives of the programme

At the end of the programme participants will have:

- strengthened their self image and self confidence as managers and leaders;
- acquired a range of skills, tools and strategies to present themselves in a positive way and influence others, both within and outside the department and ministries;
- considered their role as women leaders in the context of government, development, Cambodian culture and their contribution to the empowerment of Cambodian women.

These programme objectives are in addition to the objectives for each module, which are detailed on the following pages.

Programme process

The WLP comprises a series of three linked modules, with structured follow up between modules; in a three way learning partnership between the participant, the institution and VBNK.

In order for the learning partnership to be effective, the institution is expected to appoint a **mentor**, whose role is to guide the participant in the implementation of her learning. Preparatory training is given to mentors in a one-day introductory workshop, conducted before the participants attend the first module. In addition, mentors are provided with pre and post course documentation (including the enclosed module content summaries).

However, the main responsibility for implementing the learning, and for taking the initiative to make best use of the mentor, lies with the participant herself.

Module 1: Core Management Skills

Aim of Module 1

To give participants an understanding of a manager's roles and responsibilities, an opportunity to reflect on their own style and issues as a woman leader and some tools to build their confidence and effectiveness.

Objectives of Module 1

By the end of the module the participants will have:

- 1. Understanding of their roles and responsibilities as managers;*
- 2. Knowledge of management, leadership styles and decision making processes that enhance a manager's effectiveness and confidence;*
- 3. Reflected on their own style, strengths and weaknesses as a woman leader;*
- 4. Knowledge of how to plan a presentation.*

Schedule for Module 1

	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
am	Introduction Session 1: Setting the context – gender, development and empowerment	Session 3: Roles and responsibilities of a manager	Session 4 (contd): Leadership, vision and empowerment	Session 5 (contd): Participatory decision making	Session 7: Presentation skills 1 – planning the presentation
pm	Session 2: I am a manager - self image, motivation and personal development	Session 4: Leadership	Session 5: Decision making	Session 6: Management Styles - in Cambodian cultural context	LIP Module evaluation

Module 2: Institutional Management Skills

Aim of Module 2

To give participants an understanding of how organisations function, in theory and in practice, and a range of strategies they can use to be more effective and influential within their own institution.

Objectives of Module 2

By the end of the module the participants will have:

- 1. Knowledge of various types of organisation structure;*
- 2. Understanding of workload distribution and delegation processes within an organisation;*
- 3. Understanding of various types of power and influence, their uses and their appropriateness in an institution;*
- 4. Considered how to use their learning so far to consolidate their position within their institution.*

Schedule for Module 2

	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
am	<p>Presentations</p> <p>Session 1: Introduction to organisational management</p> <p>Session 2 Weber's Bureaucracy</p>	<p>Session 3b: Institution Design B: Internal factors and Features of institution design</p>	<p>Session 4: Lines of authority and communication</p> <p>Types of power and their use in institutions</p>	<p>Session 6: Allocation of work</p>	<p>Session 8: Presentation skills 2 - presenting yourself in order to consolidate your position in the institution</p>
pm	<p>Session 3a: Institution Design A: External factors</p>	<p>Session 3b (continued):</p>	<p>Session 5: Power and influence in context:</p> <p>Conflicts for Cambodian women -position, perception and self image</p>	<p>Session 7: Delegation processes</p>	<p>LIP</p> <p>Module evaluation</p>

Module 3: Developing Professional Relationships

Aim of Module 3

To give participants an understanding of a range of skills and practical strategies for influencing others positively, developing constructive working relationships and building consensus and commitment. Linking this to the bigger picture of their role, as managers and as women, in contributing to the government and to the empowerment of women in Cambodia.

Objectives of Module 3

By the end of the module the participants will have:

- 1. Understanding of a range of influencing skills and strategies, their uses and appropriateness, and how they can be used constructively, in relationships both within and outside the institution;*
- 2. Practiced various influencing skills and strategies in role-play situations;*
- 3. Reflected on their own style, strengths and weaknesses in influencing others.*

Schedule for Module 3

	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
am	<p>Presentations</p> <p>Session 1 Introduction to influencing skills</p>	<p>Session 3 Influencing skills practice</p> <p><i>- case study and role play</i></p>	<p>Session 5 Negotiation</p>	<p>Session 7 (contd) Presentation skills 3</p> <p>Presenting yourself and your arguments externally</p> <p><i>- role play using live examples</i></p>	<p>Session 9 The big picture –</p> <p>The role of women managers as a force for change in Cambodia</p>
pm	<p>Session 2 Influencing styles</p>	<p>Session 4 Finding common ground</p>	<p>Session 6 Developing external relationships</p> <p>Session 7 Presentation Skills 3: Briefing and preparation</p>	<p>Session 8 Whose vision?</p> <p>Consultation and fair process</p>	<p>LIP (individual and group)</p> <p>Module evaluation</p> <p>Programme evaluation</p> <p>Close</p>

Session 1: Setting the context – Gender, development and empowerment

Gender

The term Gender was defined in the 1970's¹ to describe those characteristics of men and women that are **socially** or **culturally** determined (rather than biologically or physically). We use the term gender in order to stress that:

"Everything women and men do, and everything expected of them (except ... childbearing and breast feeding) can change, and does change, over time and according to changing and various social and cultural factors."

Definition of gender

"People are born female or male, but learn to be girls and boys who grow into women and men. They are taught what are the appropriate behaviour and attitudes, roles and activities for them, and how they should relate to other people. This **learned behaviour** is what makes up gender identity, and determines gender roles."

Gender is a dynamic concept

Gender roles vary from one culture to another, and from one social group to another with a culture (eg. urban/rural, rich/poor, age, class, etc.). As socio-economic patterns change over time, so gender roles change. Sudden crises, such as war or famine, can very quickly change what men and women do (although after the crisis old attitudes may return).

Some statistics

UN Statistics:

- Women perform 2/3 of world's work
- Women earn 1/10 of world's income
- Women are 2/3 of world's illiterates
- Women own less than 1/100 of world's property

The figures above show that, the world over, women are denied their human rights. Human Rights include social and economic rights as well as legal and political rights. All around the world, women are denied their rights to land, property, shelter, food, jobs, education and mobility, and even rights over their own bodies (reproductive rights).

Cambodia Statistics

- Women comprise 51.6% of the adult population
- 19.6% of households are headed by women
- 54% of agricultural workforce and 75% of the total adult workforce are women
- 58% of voters are women

But; figures from 1998² and 1999³ show that:

¹ By Ann Oakley and others

² Cambodia Human Development Report 1998, Ministry of Planning

Decision making

- 11 out of 122 (9%) members of the National Assembly are women and 8 out of 61 (13%) members of the Senate are women
- 2 out of 25 (8%) ministers and 4 out of 50 (8%) secretaries of state are women
- 7% of judges are women
- 6% of all legislators, senior government officials and managers are women

Education

- 38.9% of the female population are illiterate (compared to 17.1% of men)
- 42% of women above 15 years have never attended school (compared with 21% for men)
- school enrollment rates are:
 - 50% higher for men than women at age 15
 - 3 times higher for men than for women at age 18

Work and pay

- on average, men earn 50% more than women in the same occupation
- less than 33% of all professionals are women
- only 20% of all civil servants are women

Health and welfare

- maternal mortality rate for Cambodia is 500⁴ deaths per 100,000 live births (2,000 deaths per year)
- 16% of all Cambodian women (1 in every 6 women) are physically abused by their husbands.

Higher Education (in 1994)⁵

- 4.6% of students at the Agricultural Institute were women
- 15% of students at Phnom Penh University were women

Gender and work⁶

Work can be divided into 3 main categories. Women's roles include work in all these categories, and this is referred to as women's 'triple role':

- Productive work

This is the production of goods and services for consumption and trade – farming, fishing, employment and self-employment. When people are asked what they do they usually give their main productive work as their answer, especially if it is paid work or generates income. Both men and women do productive work and it tends to be allocated on the basis of gender roles. Women's productive work is often less visible and less valued than men's.

³ Gender and Development in Cambodia: An Overview, Siobhan Gorman, CDRI Working Paper No. 10, 1999

⁴ This statistic reflects issues around levels of poverty and access to health care as well as gender issues. Yet MMR is always influenced by women's status and access to health and education, as well as the priority – at national and community level – put on women's reproductive health, which is itself a reflection of women's relative status and position in society. In comparison; MMR is 200/100,000 in Thailand and 160/100,000 in Vietnam

⁵ Cambodia Country Report on Women in Development, State Secretariat of Women's Affairs, 1994

⁶ Taken from the Oxfam Gender Training Manual, Suzanne Williams; source - Two halves make a whole: Balancing gender relations in development CCIC/MATCH/AQOCI

- *Reproductive work*

This is work that involves care and maintenance of the household and family. It includes childbearing, caring for children, preparing food, collecting water and fuel, shopping, housekeeping and family healthcare. It is crucial to human survival yet is often not seen as 'real work'. In poor communities, reproductive work is hard and time-consuming work. It is almost always the responsibility of women and girls.

- *Community work*

This involves the organising of social events and services – ceremonies and celebrations, community improvement activities, participating in groups and organisations, local political activities etc. This type of work is often forgotten, but can take up a lot of volunteer time and is important for community life. Both men and women do community work and it tends to be allocated on the basis of gender roles.

Women, men, boys and girls are involved in all three areas of work. In many societies, however, women do all the reproductive work and much of the productive work. Just as women's reproductive work is undervalued; the productive work of women is often seen as an extension to their reproductive work and is likewise undervalued. For example, while men's agricultural work is often cultivating cash crops, women's is often subsistence food production for the family (and therefore not income-generating).

Women's workload can prevent them from participating in development projects -when they do, the extra time spent farming or attending training or meetings means less time for other tasks eg. childcare or food preparation. In fact, many development projects have made women's situation worse. This is largely because of the large gap between women's high (but unrecognised) contribution to the workload (and therefore to the economy) and their low political and social power.

Gender and development

Development is not just about increasing productivity and welfare, though these things are important. Development is also about:

- meeting the needs of those most in need
- increasing participation
- equality
- building self reliance

Development is therefore also about enabling people to take control of their own lives and escape from poverty. Poverty is caused, not by low productivity, but by oppression and exploitation. For example, the following is true for many rural women in developing countries:

“She is a hard working producer of food but she and her children are malnourished. In fact, the food is consumed by her husband rather than by her, by men rather than women and children, by landowners rather than tenants, by money-lenders rather than indebted small farmers, by city people rather than rural people, by rich consumers rather than poor producers.”⁷

⁷ Taken from the Oxfam Gender Training Manual, Suzanne Williams

To quote the Khmer saying: "*The trees are in the countryside but the fruits are in the city*".

The problem in women's development is not primarily about enabling them to be more productive or efficient. The central issue in women's development is women's empowerment - to be equal partners alongside men, participate equally in the development process and achieve control of resources on an equal basis with men.

In addition, the above example shows that women's inequality compared with men needs to be seen in a broader context of inequality and exploitation within a society. Much development work (particularly by NGOs and the civil sector) is fundamentally about challenging power differences and overcoming the inequalities that cause poverty. Women's development and "Gender and development" should be seen in this context.

Gender and Development (GAD) was preceded by Women in Development (WID), which looked at the needs and participation of women and it was primarily concerned with developing projects which involve women and address problems from a women's perspective. GAD is not just about women but about *equality in relationships* between men and women.

Empowerment

Empowerment is a much-used word in the development field, particularly in NGOs. It is a concept that has been used in Western countries in work and studies about overcoming and challenging discrimination (on the basis of race, gender, class etc.) in those societies. To empower means *to give power to others*.

Empowerment is difficult because of the way we tend to think and feel about power⁸; that it is that we tend to think of power as something of which there is a limited quantity. If you have more, I have less (so we have to compete for it); if I have power over you – I resist you increasing your power because you would increase your power at the expense of my power. This is known as **power-over**. However, there are alternatives which help lead to empowerment - because they enable us to give power to and share power with others without fearing that we will lose power ourselves:

- **power-to:** Power that is creative and enabling. This is the individual aspect of empowerment - people feel powerful when they learn skills, understand how something works, solve problems (eg. the feeling after giving a presentation for the first time)
- **power-with:** People feel empowered together, through being organised and united around a common purpose (eg. The Dammyatra peace walk);
- **power-within:** The spiritual strength we all have within us, that makes us human. This power is based on self-respect; an acceptance of ourselves that, in turn, extends to acceptance of and respect for others as equals.

⁸ Power can be defined as - the ability to change or influence the attitudes, values, behaviour, priorities and activities of others. Power and the different types of power will be covered in Module 2.

Reflection questions:

1. **Think of a time when you have felt empowered through power-to, power-with and/or power-within. What do remember about it? How did you feel?**

2. **Think of a time when you have helped empower another person through power-to, power-with and/or power-within. What do remember about it? How did you feel?**

3. **As managers, do we empower our colleagues? How? Do we do it enough? If no, why not?**

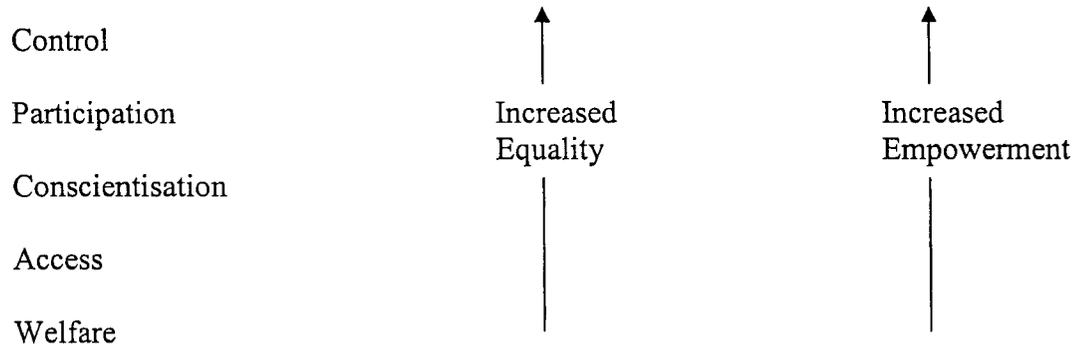
4. **As women, do we empower other women? Which women – colleagues, beneficiaries, partners...? Do we empower some women and yet dis-empower others? Why?**

5. **As women, should we empower men as well as women? Why / why not?**

6. **Are there particular aspects of Cambodian culture, which help or hinder empowerment? What are they?**

Women's Empowerment Framework (Longwe)⁹

Level of equality



1. *Welfare*

Level of material welfare (food, income, health care) relative to men.

2. *Access*

Access to land, jobs, credit, training, markets and services; relative to men. This level is normally addressed through reform of laws to remove discrimination and ensure equality of opportunity.

3. *Conscientisation (critical awareness)*

Understanding of the difference between sex and gender, belief in fairness and equality between men and women – ie. “Gender awareness”. Provides the basis for Participation.

4. *Participation*

Equal participation in decision making process (eg. needs assessment, project formulation, evaluation), women involved in community decision making in the same proportion as their proportion within the community itself (eg. 50% women in community = 50% women in the VDC).

5. *Control*

Women use their participation to achieve equality of control over resources, production, and distribution of benefits. Equality of control means *balance* of control between men and women.

Reflection question:

UNDP-PGE wants to increase the number of women workers and women managers. Why do you think is this? How would you explain your reasons in terms of the women's empowerment framework?

⁹ From a paper by Sarah Hlupelkile Longwe, taken from the Oxfam Gender Training Manual, Suzanne Williams

Case Study

Cambodia nutrition group and the co-operative

Cambodian women in Rattanakiry were very worried about malnutrition in their area. It seemed that more and more of their children were weak and sick and many died from simple causes such as diarrhoea. Others had symptoms of malaria and fever.

Then they heard that the food organisation was giving free milk to nutrition clubs, so they decided to form a group. Twice a week they met at the office to receive and distribute the milk. This helped them a little bit, but it was not enough to solve the problems. When they met, the women started to discuss what else they could do to improve the situation. In that area, there is the Provincial Department, which is made up of representatives of all the various development projects in the area including food organisation groups. The provincial development is responsible for all the projects, including obtaining funding from international donor agencies.

When one of the women from Cambodian Nutrition Group spoke to someone from the Provincial Development about their problems, he told them about an advisor in department who could teach them new recipes and help them to start vegetable gardens. Before long, the women had managed to contact with advisor, who taught them how to make food which can be stored for a long time, and to explain that for a good balanced diet you need energy-giving foods such as starch and fats, vitamins, and body-building proteins.

Unfortunately the group was unable to follow the recipes, due to shortages of cooking oil and the high price of flour. They understood about a balance diet, but this could not help them buy meat, chicken or even fish, which few people in Rattanakiry could not afford. Groundnuts had also been suggested as a good food, but they not grow groundnuts any more. The land on which they previously grew groundnuts is now used to grow cotton and tobacco.

The vegetable gardens were also a failure due to lack of water. The nearest stream was 2km away and the women had no time to go and fetch water for the garden. Many of the women spend long hours buying vegetables from a local farmer and then travelling to market to try and resell for a small profit. At other times of the year they were too busy in the fields even to do this.

Also in Rattanakiry was a co-operative, started by some people trying to earn an income by working together. First of all, they dug a fish pond, near the stream. This project was going well and they managed to sell a lot of fish in town. Now they wanted to start rearing small livestock - chickens or ducks.

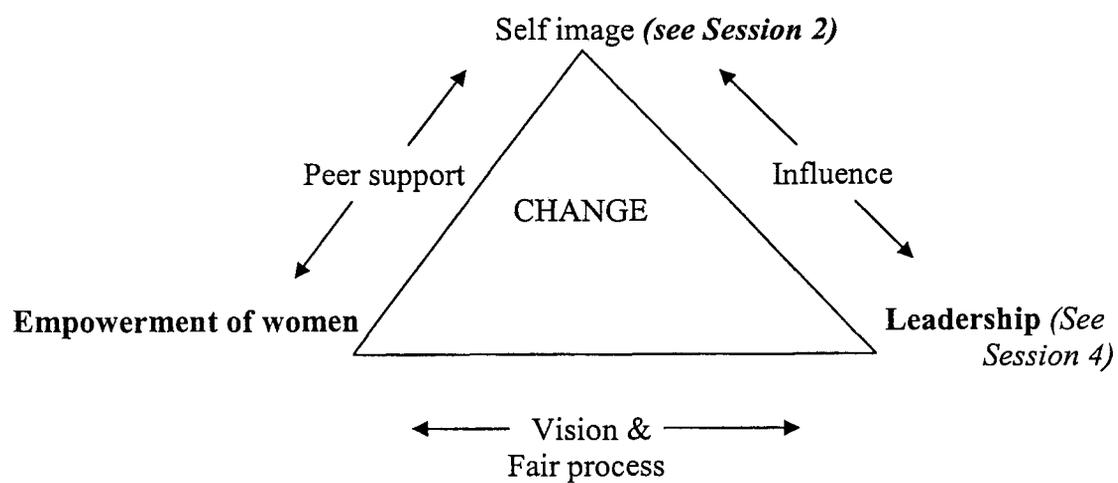
Some of these co-operative members were men who had wives in the nutrition group. But the men themselves never attended the meeting and knew nothing about nutrition.

One of the profits from selling fish, some men gave a little money to their wives, and some of the money was saved towards the new project for small livestock. The rest they spent on trips into town, and beer.

Whenever the men were at home, they expected their wives to prepare a proper meal for them - even if there was not much food and the rest of the family were sometimes left out. It seemed to the men that many of their children got ill and died and they wondered if their wives learnt anything at all in their nutrition group!

Conclusion

Conceptual framework of the WLP



PROMOTING GENDER EQUITY:

The major contribution, which women make to agricultural production, must be acknowledged so that interventions can be properly targeted. Since 65% of agricultural labour and 75% of fisheries production are in the hands of women. Poverty cannot be reduced unless policies and programmes equitably address the situation of Cambodian women. This is a gender issue.

Gender equity priorities have been linked to the proposed sectoral interventions. It is essential that gender disparities in Cambodia are well understood and reflected in all aspects of policy planning and development. More importantly, interventions must address the barriers to women making the most of opportunities presented so that they can also enjoy the benefits of development. The MOWVA has been active in advocating gender equality and equity through gender mainstreaming, which must be the responsibility of all line ministries. Further, it is recognised that gender mainstreaming will be ineffective as a strategy if it is not supported by budget allocations for interventions, which address gender disparities.

The RGC, led by the MOWVA aims to reduce gender-based disparities and improve gender equity in health, education, and control over agricultural resources, socio-economic and political empowerment and legal protection. This includes ensuring that women and girls receive full legal protection, as well as legal education concerning their rights and benefits such as access to land titles and natural resources. The main strategies to be adopted by MOWVA for poverty reduction include general measures such as promoting gender mainstreaming in all government departments, and specific measures such as collaboration with MOG for health, MOEYS for education, and MAFF, MOWRAM and MRD for agriculture and rural income generation. Legal barriers to women's equal rights are being and will continue to be addressed. Gender education and awareness will also be directed at key officials of the RGC at all levels.

The exclusion of women from participation in many sectoral consultations, whether at the community level or in government decision-making, means that their needs are not considered and addressed and that sectoral policies and programmes are partial and incomplete. Awareness of the disparities, which exist between women and men, is limited and old stereotypes, for example, that women only work in the domestic sphere while men go out to work in the fields, factories and offices still pervade. This might be a cultural ideal but it is far from the reality. Where the reality is (reluctantly) recognised, it is considered something, which should be corrected towards the ideal. These views contribute, sometimes consciously, more often unconsciously, to assumptions about what women can or should be able to do. Thus, they are poorly represented in decision-making positions at all levels of government. In turn, this means that women's perspectives do not make a contribution to policy making, implementation, and in monitoring and evaluation of programmes.

Good governance depends on more women being represented at all levels of government. It also depends on the inclusion of women in all consultative forums. Sometimes this may mean separate meetings of men and women until women have the education and the confidence to participate in public discussions.

The Royal Government will encourage political parties to place women on party lists in positions, which will allow them an equitable chance with men of being elected to parliament. It will adopt affirmative action policies in the recruitment and promotion of

women into decision-making positions in the public service. It will ensure that in all consultative processes, and in monitoring and evaluation teams, there will be an equal number of women and men.

In the decentralisation of local government, efforts were made prior to the commune council elections to encourage women candidates to stand and 954 were elected. The capacity of these newly elected women is being strengthened by the MOWVA and NGO training programmes which will be continued with donor support. The new Planning and Budget committees are composed of one woman and one man from each village covered by the commune. In other community committees, for example, Water Users Associations, the RGC recognises that a "critical mass" is necessary to give women the confidence to participate actively. Thus, it will aim for 50% women members overtime, starting with a concerted effort to have at least 20 % membership in the next three years.

Taken from the National Poverty Reduction Strategy- RGC

Session 2: “I am a manager” – Self-image, motivation and personal development

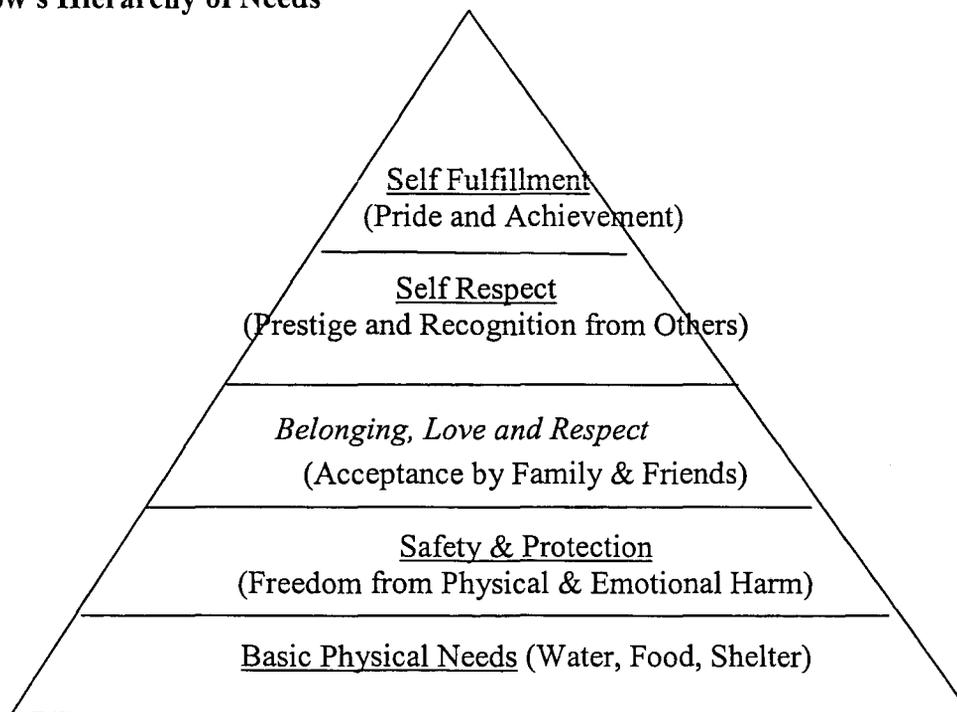
Development work is often difficult and stressful, so is the job of the manager. The participants on this programme are women managers in the development sector. This brings many challenges, which begs the question: “Why do we do it?” What motivates us to do this work?

Motivation theory

Definition: To be motivated - to want to work willingly.

There are various theories about motivation which try to generalise the main sources of motivation into a single model, eg. Maslow’s hierarchy of needs, Herzberg’s theory of motivation etc.

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs



The lower level needs relate to external factors such as food, security and money. These are known as external, or extrinsic motivation factors. The higher level needs relate more to motivation through the work itself, and the recognition and personal growth that comes from it. These are known as intrinsic motivation factors (because they are intrinsic to the work).

In this session the emphasis is on self motivation (we will look at motivation of others in Session 3: Leadership).

Self motivation

An individual's motivation and values are not fixed, they develop throughout her life in response to a variety of factors such as:

- Personal development and learning through life and work experience
- Influence of relationships and networks; within the family, community, professional networks; trends in the wider society
- The institution where she works; institution culture and values, opportunities and constraints

A key concept which helps to understand self motivation is the self image and its development.

Self image

Self image (sometimes known as self concept) is defined as "the sum total of other people's perception of us, together with our own perceptions of ourselves". In other words, self image is "how we see ourselves"; a combination of both our own feelings about ourselves and the reflected image we see of ourselves in expectations and feedback from others.

In many cultures there are cultural norms and rules about how people should behave, according to their position or status. For example, many cultures have clear rules about how, in general, women should behave, how younger people should behave towards older people, how ordinary people should behave towards people in authority, how staff should behave towards their supervisor etc. A person's self image (and their perception of others) is heavily influenced by their judgement of how well they follow those norms and rules.

Life is a journey or process through which we develop and stabilise our self image and our personal values. Throughout life we experience challenges (eg. new relationships, new roles) which test our self image – we integrate these new experiences with previous experiences in order to affirm our evolving self image. Affirmation of our self image gives us self esteem – in other words we feel good about ourselves.

On the other hand, new experiences which conflict with our existing self image are difficult to integrate, instead they challenge us to re-examine and maybe change our self image, or alternatively to reject the new information in order to maintain the self image.

Reflection questions

1. **In Western countries, work is an important aspect of self image and an important source of self esteem. In contemporary Cambodia, many development workers and managers work hard and have high commitment – which suggests that this work is becoming an important aspect of their self image. Do you think this is true? Why?**

2. **New experiences which conflict with previous experience can be difficult to integrate into the existing self image. For example, women in Cambodia who take on management roles have to integrate previous experiences of meeting the expectations of her as a Cambodian woman with new expectations of her as a manager. What do you think are the consequences of this?**

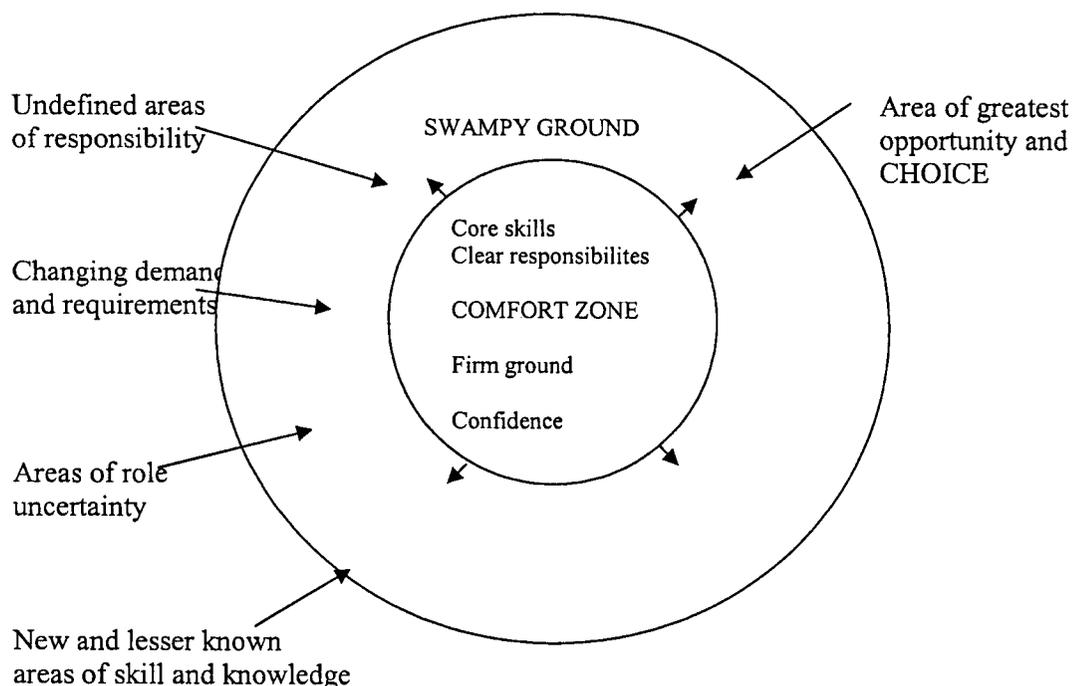
3. **We have said that life is a process of developing our self image and personal values. What are the important values which you hold, which guide you in your work?**

Personal development and the comfort zone

One concept which helps us to understand how we can deal with new experiences and challenges to our self image is the “comfort zone”.

In our work (and also in other areas of life) most of us operate within our ‘comfort zone’ (see Figure 1). Moving out of it is like stepping from the firm (safe) ground into swampy ground, to the edge of our capacity, knowledge, authority and confidence. We grow and develop by stepping out into the swampy ground and so expanding our ‘comfort zone’. In doing this, we challenge and develop our self image.

Figure 1: Comfort zone



Skill of the manager

There are essentially three types of skill for a manager:

1. **Technical skills:** These skills are often specific to the sector or specialist function in which the person is working eg. agriculture, micro-credit, health, HRD, gender etc.
2. **Interpersonal skills**, or "people" skills: skills in cooperation and communication, motivation and building relationships, nurturing, coaching and developing people;
3. **Conceptual or "thinking" skills:** skills in analysis and interpretation of information and situations, ability to anticipate and plan, ability to coordinate different activities and priorities, ability to see the 'big picture' and make links and connections (between events, issues, implications etc.).

The WLP focuses on the interpersonal and conceptual skills.

Reflection questions

1. **What skills do women have to have in order to fulfil the many roles expected of them (eg. as a mother, carer, family manager, household financial manager)? Are they technical, interpersonal or conceptual skills, or a combination?**

Why do you think people do not often value these skills? Why do we, as women, not always recognise our own skills and contribution?

2. **What skills do you have as a woman, that you can draw on in your work in your institution? Are they technical, interpersonal or conceptual skills, or a combination? What conclusion do you draw from this?**
3. **Which are the main skills and responsibilities related to your work which are within your comfort zone, at the moment?**

4. What skills and responsibilities are in the 'swampy ground', that you would like to develop / take on? What opportunities can you use to do it?

Images of women – cultural expectations and stereotypes

*"The first and most important level is the personal – the women herself. Often a woman has a management position, but does not see herself as a manager - someone who can make and influence decisions, lead and manage people. This low **self-image** is then reflected in the perceptions and attitudes of colleagues (reinforcing existing cultural stereotypes) and status in the organisation.*

*In the Cambodian cultural context, the woman manager is often caught between two extremes; a prevailing management style that is autocratic and "strict" and an expectation of female behaviour, conveyed in a variety of ways including *cbap srey**, which describes proper female behaviour as gentle, soft and submissive. Many women have been successful in finding their own style which is both effective and accepted by others. Yet many still struggle with this, together with the added pressures brought by cultural expectations of them as wives and mothers. Peer support would be a helpful counterbalance to this, but at this point that is often lacking. In fact the opposite is often the case; women are frequently more critical of other women, particularly of women managers, than of their male counterparts.*

Also, and in common with their male colleagues, many women managers are themselves on a steep learning curve and lack management skills. The combination of a lack of skills together with the cultural factors described above can seriously undermine a woman's confidence and performance in a management role. This reinforces existing prejudices of those around her about her suitability for a management position - and the ability of women managers generally – in a vicious cycle that further undermines her confidence and self-esteem."¹¹

*** *Cbap Srey***

Cbap Srey or 'rules of the lady' are traditional verses, written by Mr Ngoi over a hundred years ago. Yet ...

*"While the words of these verses may not be known throughout Cambodia, their meaning and instruction are passed on from generation to generation. Women protect their daughters by instructing them to meet the ideal of *srey krup leak* or 'perfect lady'. At present the verse is taught in Cambodian grade schools¹²:*

The following is a translation of some selected verses:

"Always speak sweetly and accomplish your tasks with dexterity, weave and work with the iron and the needle and finish each task forthwith you must grow old without a moment's distraction ... never turn your back to your husband when he sleeps and never touch his head without first bowing in his honour ... you must take care of your parents and never contradict

¹¹ Taken from concept paper on the WLP, Sally Brooks, VBNK

¹² Quoted from "Plates in a basket will rattle" written by Cathy Zimmerman, published by PADV

them ... never tattle to your parents anything negative about your husband as this will cause the village to erupt ... never go strolling to visit others ... respect and fear the wishes of your husband and take his advice to bear ... if your husband gives an order don't hesitate a moment in responding ... avoid posing yourself as an equal to your husband – and never above he who is your master; if he insults you, go to your room and reflect, never insult or talk back to him ... have patience, prove your patience, never responding to his excessive anger ... but using gentle language in response"¹³

Reflection questions:

- 1. In Cambodia, what images do we have of women?**

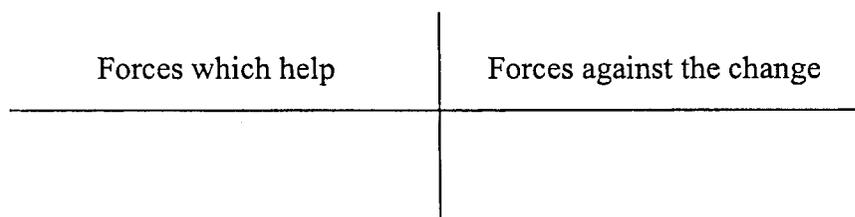
- 2. Are these images true of all women? Are some of them also true of men?**

- 3. Can you think of common proverbs or sayings about women? What images do these proverbs reinforce?**

- 4. What do you think is the impact of these images for women managers?**

Personal reflections

- 5. (Force field analysis) As a woman manager – what are the forces helping you to break traditional role expectations? What are the forces against the change?**



¹³ Same source as 2

6. List a few things that you would like other people to recognise about you (eg. the kind of woman I am, breakthroughs I have made ...)?

Good news and bad news¹⁴

Good news	Bad news
Men and women are capable of a full range of human behaviour	Powerful forces with and around us limit our ability to use that capacity
Physically and culturally, men and women have both similar and different strengths	Individuals are stereotyped as typical women or men and are not encouraged or given opportunities to develop
Men and women working together can learn from each other and complement each other in achieving their objectives	Women and men tend to blame each other and avoid what they do not understand about each other
Organisations can capitalise on the range of skills and creativity of both women and men who work there	Organisations tend to deny problems, suppress differences and maintain stereotypes
I can influence my stereotypes and my own self image by how I talk to myself	Many people do not make the effort because they do not see the possibilities of going beyond their stereotypes

Women and management roles; factors holding women back

- Lack of role models
- Feelings of isolation
- Cultural stereotypes and expectations of women (see earlier discussion of *Cbap Srey* and associated ideas about proper behaviour for Cambodian women)¹⁵
- Discrimination (eg. people tend to hire people like themselves)
- “Glass ceiling effect” (a subtle form of discrimination – a transparent barrier to women reaching higher levels of management)¹⁶

¹⁴ From 'Men and Women: Partners at Work', George F. Simons and G. Deborah Weissman

¹⁵ “I have yet to hear a man ask for advice on how to combine marriage and career” Gloria Steinam

¹⁶ From "Breaking the glass ceiling" by Ann Morrison

Things that can help

Find a mentor

Many women who have been successful say that having someone who was a mentor or role model was one of the factors which helped them have the skills and confidence to succeed. A mentor helps reduce the feelings of isolation and gives guidance and encouragement.

You can use a mentor in a number of ways. Think about the support you want and use the following checklist to decide the sort of relationship you want with your mentor:

- a role model you want to emulate;
- a dynamic person who fills you with enthusiasm or inspiration;
- a teacher/coach who can help you develop your skills;
- an influential person who can help to create opportunities for you;
- a good listener and sounding board (someone you can talk things over with and helps you problem-solve);
- a person skilled in giving feedback;
- someone who sets and works to high standards;
- someone who shares their experience and wisdom.

Build a support network

Another way to reduce feelings of isolation is to build a support network. For women managers it can be particularly helpful to build a network of women doing similar work and facing similar challenges.

Steps in building a network:

1. Make a list of contacts

Networking involves creating and using a wide ranging list of people – both inside and outside the organisation - who can help you (and you can help in return) in a variety of ways:

- providing a sounding board;
- giving feedback;
- providing personal development opportunities.

2. Make a point of getting to know them better

- Think about; how can they help you? how can you help them?
- One example of a potential support network is the participant group on this programme – how are you going to make use of this network?

Reflection question

1. What are possible problems with and blocks to building a support network?

2. So far, there is no woman manager support network within the community in Cambodia, though there is clearly a need for one. What do you think might be the reasons for this?

Keep a learning record

It can be useful to discipline yourself to write down experiences, reflections and ideas. This is useful as a source of information in the future and also as a process for personal reflection. You can keep your learning record in the following ways:

- Notebook – writing down notes as they occur to you;
- Personal journal or diary – write a regular record of important issues or events, eg. every week;
- Analyse critical incidents – write a detailed record of experiences that you feel have been important for your personal development.

In each case it is helpful to record:

- the *experience* - what happened;
- your *reflection* - what you think and/or feel about what happened;
- your *learning* – how what happened will affect what you do in the future.

Finally, **use** your learning record; refer back to it when you meet situations or challenges that are similar to ones you have already documented.

Session 3: Roles and responsibilities of a manager

Session 2 was about the 'self'. Now we will look at the role of the manager.

Definition of terms

Responsible:	being dependable, reliable, trustworthy
Responsibility:	a thing/task/person you are responsible for (in general) (eg. the driver has the <i>responsibility</i> for keeping the car in good running order)
Accountability:	something <i>specific</i> you are responsible or answerable for (eg. receipts)
Role:	the expectations about the sorts of behaviour appropriate to a job or position (eg. team leader, representative)
Task:	a <i>specific</i> piece of work that must be done (eg write a memo, check the mail, arrange a meeting with a community leader)

Roles of a manager

As a manager, different people/group of people have different expectations of us. Each of these sets of expectations represents a role.

Every management job is unique. However, research has shown that any management job can be analysed as a combination of roles (where roles represent what different sets of people expect of you). This is from a finite set of roles, which can be generalised for any management job (see checklist on the Page 6).

A clear job description can help a manager to understand her job, but this is not the whole answer. Confusion and ambiguity are normal in a management job, and the real test of an effective manager is how she uses her judgement to handle this uncertainty and ambiguity. (Or to put it another way, the real test is how she deals with the 'grey' areas, rather than the 'black and white'). A manager has to be pro-active in prioritising the roles within her job.

Job vs. role

We make the distinction between job and role. The 'job' is defined by an institution (usually in a job description), in the context of an institution structure, with work allocated to jobs within that structure. We will focus on the job in the second module.

'Role' is different. Role is defined, not just by the institution, but by the people with whom you interact at work. In particular, role comes from those people's expectations of you (though obviously linked to the requirements of the job). Role is a dynamic concept, which reflects the fact that individuals, and people's expectations of them, are constantly changing.

In Session 1 we used the model of the comfort zone to explain how a manager can shape her role within the organisation, through making choices, taking risks, trying out new skills and living with uncertainty. In this model the job, as defined by the job description, is not the end, it is the starting point. The rest is up to the manager herself.

Problems and issues with management roles

Think about all the people who have expectations of you; colleagues, your staff, your manager, beneficiaries, donors, project partners... plus your family, friends etc. If you try to meet these people's expectations all the time, you'll have problems!

1. *Role ambiguity*; due to no clear descriptions of expectations, or unclear communication about expectations.
2. *Role conflict*; you receive conflicting, incompatible or competing messages about what you do. For example, women managers receive conflicting messages of expectations of them as women and as managers. Where women have family responsibilities this can lead to role overload.
3. *Role overload*; too many roles means constant switching (changing) of work; so you never seem to achieve or finish anything.

Problems often arise when we change role, for example on promotion to a managerial position in the organisation. As the role changes, so will various people's expectation of us. We therefore need to take the initiative in re-negotiating some of these relationships. This is part of extending the comfort zone.

One example of this is the expectations of our staff, particularly if they were our peers in the previous role. This doesn't mean we cannot be 'friendly', but as a manager we now have a responsibility to the institution and our staff need to understand this. If not, this can lead to a case of role conflict, which will undermine our effectiveness as a manager.

Reflection question

It is sometimes said that this is a particular dilemma for Cambodian women managers; they feel have to make a clear choice between either being strict with staff so that they get respect, or being friendly to staff so they are liked – they feel they cannot have both.

- **Is this a problem for women managers in particular? Why?**
- **Is it really a black and white choice? Why? What other alternatives are there?**

Implementing some of the concepts and processes from this programme, for example applying open, fair processes and clear policy, can help us find a way to be an effective manager while maintaining good relationships with colleagues.

Things that can help:

1. Confidence in your abilities.
2. Understand your staff so you can get the best from them. This frees you up to deal with the things that do need your attention.
3. Courage to clarify expectations and, when appropriate, to say "no".

Management roles and the comfort zone

Most managers do not fill their role. Most of us operate within our 'comfort zone'. Moving out of it is like stepping from the firm (safe) ground into swampy ground, to the edge of our capacity, knowledge, authority and confidence. In doing so we have to deal with role ambiguity and role conflict.

We develop as managers by stepping out into the swampy ground and so expanding our 'comfort zone'. The first step to becoming a more effective manager is to know ourselves - our skills, strengths, attitudes etc. Then we can plan ways to move into swampy ground to build on these strengths, skills and learning. New management theories can help but it is only by *doing*, by putting the new knowledge into practice, that we expand our comfort zone and so become more effective.

The role of the manager

Note that in countries where the majority of voters pay tax, the government-voter link is very clear - the government provides services and, in return, the voters choose the government which they believe offers the most appropriate programme of taxation and public services. In Cambodia, since many people do not pay tax, and since many government programmes are funded by overseas donors, this link is less clear. However, this will change as systems of taxation continue to be introduced in Cambodia.

These factors make the job of the manager complex and challenging. They also make the job potentially very rewarding.

The manager – role, responsibility and values

- Role

The manager has to consider the expectations of a range of stakeholders (staff, provincial networking, international relationship, citizen, supporter, political party, ministers, board, donors, beneficiaries, partners, wider NGO community, government officers etc). Many of these stakeholders have expectations, not just about results and performance, but also about personal conduct and ethics. This includes behaviour both inside and outside work. This is because institutions have certain values which their stakeholders expect them to live up to.

- Responsibility

The job of any manager includes areas of responsibility, for people, tasks and/or resources. These are normally listed in the manager's job description. For the government, they use the

code of conduct to identify the job description. In addition to these job specific responsibilities, all managers carry an additional responsibility. This can be defined as 'management responsibility'.

As a manager, you cannot constantly check that your staff are doing the right thing. You have to be able to trust them. This means creating a climate, or environment of trust, among your staff. (If you do this successfully you are able to delegate more and so be more effective yourself). It would be very difficult to do this if you were not yourself responsible (in terms of the definition; reliable, trustworthy etc). Staff take more notice of what you do than what you say. So management responsibility means setting a good example, 'living' the principles of responsibility, integrity, honesty, fairness and consistency. Recognising and accepting this 'management responsibility' is key to being an effective manager. Effectiveness is about ethics as well as performance.

For the business manager, s/he is responsible and accountable to the business owners or shareholders. But for other sectors (the Government and NGO) manager, s/he is responsible and accountable to all stakeholders ('transparency' does not just apply to dealing with the donor). She is also responsible to a broader constituency.

- *Values*

In countries where there is a long history of active government the work of the government is usually driven by mission to improve society. This mission has relevance for both what the government does and how it conducts itself. In particular it will have a set of values and a code of conduct about the way the staff of government, known as civil servants, work and behave. In poor and developing countries where democracy is still young and there is no long history of democratic government this code of conduct often has not yet been created. Instead other factors such as the need to keep the job and political alliances are often more important factors in how people behave. However managers still have an important role in modelling and promoting the core values that are essential for effective government because if the managers do not try to introduce these values they will never become a part of how the government functions.

One summary way of looking at values for government could be to study the elements of good governance defined by the Asian Development Bank.

- Transparency
- Accountability
- Predictability
- Participation

Reflection question

What do you think are the values that underpin the work that institutions do in Cambodia? How important are these values and why? How do you, as a manager, model and promote these values?

The Roles of a Manager

	Roles	Importance to my job
1	Figure head role - ceremonial role	
2	Group leader role - responsible for managing and motivating a group of staff	
3	Liaison/representative role - communicating with other groups/organisations as a representative of your group/organisation	
4	Monitor role - collecting information from others	
5	Information sharing role - disseminating/sharing information with others	
6	Innovator role (creative) - developing new things, new ideas/projects/systems	
7	'Fire fighter' role - responding to problems/difficulties, handling discipline problems, conflicts, unexpected situations	
8	Resource allocator role - allocating time, work, budgets	
9	Negotiator role - negotiating with other groups/organisations, dealing with funders	
10	Performance assessment/appraisal role - discussing and assessing staff performance	
11	Staff development role - coaching, capacity building, personal development planning for staff or partners	

Case Study

Role and Responsibility

Sorina is the Director of the Media Department in the Ministry of Social Capacity Building. She has worked at the Ministry for many years and has gradually worked her way up the ladder to her present position. Many times men who are less well qualified have been given promotion for which Sorina had better experience and knowledge but finally Sorina has a Department of her own to run. All of the staff in the Department are men.

There is no manual, policy or any other document that says clearly what the Media Department is supposed to do and nobody has a job description. Mostly in the past the Department has recorded all events that involved the Minister, Secretaries of State or any other big public event that involves the Ministry.

One big problem that the Department has always faced is that it doesn't get enough money each month to buy all the tapes and film it needs to do its job. The equipment is out of date and not up to current broadcast quality standards. Now Sorina is getting pressure from the Director of the Training Department who says that Media are supposed to produce training resources and documentaries for the Ministry Trainers to use in their work.

Because she has been in the Ministry a long time it soon becomes clear to Sorina that her staff expect her to have better access to resources than the previous Director had. She finds however that the Director of Finance won't allocate resources unless she submits approved plans. But she can't make the plans as there is no way for anyone to tell her about the Minister's meetings etc. far enough in advance. When the staff realise that she doesn't have much chance of getting more resources they stop taking any notice of what she has to say.

Another problem in the Department is that the job of recording and organising the films never gets done, it is boring work compared to going out filming and everyone always claims it is someone else's responsibility. When Sorina tries to allocate it to someone he refuses because he says it is not his job. When the Minister wants to see the film of a meeting he went to a year before and no one could find it, Sorina got the blame.

Session 4: Leadership

There are 2 parts to this session:

- A. What is leadership?
- B. Leadership, vision and empowerment

Part A: What is leadership?

Firstly, what is leadership and how is it different from management?

Leadership vs. management

1. To lead – to go in front so as to show the way.
 2. Leader- is somebody that can influence people, somebody that people follow or is a person who guides or directs the group
 3. Leadership-a person related means of achieving goals and tends to be more to do with engaging people's feelings to get things done.
 4. To manage – to be in control or in charge.
 5. Manager is a person who controls the affairs of the organisation by managing staff or resources or both
 6. Management is a task-related means of achieving goals.
- Leadership is a very complex subject
 - Only in very large institutions can the most senior person be entirely free to 'lead'. In most institutions the leader also has to be a manager. This is not the case in Government where Ministers are appointed based on other skills.
 - Leadership is strongly culture based and cannot therefore be easily generalised across different countries.

Leadership theories

There have been many studies attempting to solve the puzzle – ‘what is leadership?’. Over the last 50+ years, management theorists and behavioural scientists in the West have conducted empirical research and developed theories and models to try to explain what leadership is and what it takes to be a good leader.

The following paragraphs attempt to summarise decades of study conducted by many people. The important thing to understand is that this represents an *evolution* of thought and understanding about a highly complex subject, over a long time. This evolution of ideas still continues. Secondly, most of these theories have been developed by people from Western cultures and based on empirical studies conducted in Western countries. The evolution of ideas and theories about leadership in other cultures eg. Asian, African and Pacific cultures still has a long way to go. We are all contributing to this evolution in the work we do now.

The first, fundamental question was – are leaders born or made? Are leaders born – in which case either you are a leader or you are not and there's nothing you can do about it; or are leaders made – in which case you can develop leadership skills.

Trait theories

The early theories were based on the belief that leaders are born – the assumption was that some people are born with certain traits or characteristics that automatically make them natural leaders. If we could identify those traits that make a leader – all we would have to do to identify leaders would be to go out and find people with those traits.

Many studies were done to identify the traits of a leader. The problem was that each study came up with different traits - so that it was not possible to generalise a set of traits that defined a good leader. In fact, for people identified in the various studies as good leaders, they had few traits in common: only intelligence, initiative and self-assurance. And because each study came up with different traits - it would be impossible for one person to possess all the traits listed as necessary by the all different studies. All this meant that trait theories were effectively useless.

Recent theories about traits do not seek to identify a 'leadership formula' or list of traits of a leader. It is now recognised that traits are important, but in a different way. Each individual has their own personality traits, their own strengths and weaknesses. The path to being a better leader is to know our strengths and weaknesses, recognise our own traits and then work out how to use them to the best advantage. The assumption here is that *everyone has some positive traits which they can develop if they choose to do so.*

So we have moved from a fixed perspective on traits (leaders are born) to a developmental perspective (leaders can be developed – or even better – leaders can develop themselves). One way we can develop ourselves as leaders is to consider our leadership style (see style theories – below) and their appropriateness to the situation (see contingency theories – below).

Style theories

The second group of theories focused on analysis of how a leader uses power. The theories look at the use of power on an *autocratic* (structuring) to *democratic* (supporting) continuum. The assumption is that people will work harder for leaders who employ some types of styles than they will for others. Lots of research has been done, trying to prove that democratic styles are more effective. However the evidence has not shown this. The problem with the theories is that they focus on style alone and do not take into account other factors such as culture, task and general environment. This means that style theories are not the answer either.

Contingency theories

Contingency means 'it depends...'. Contingency theories take into account other factors than just the leader, e.g. the relationship between leader and staff, and the nature of the task, the organisational or environmental context.

Studies show that an autocratic style is most effective when:

- a) the leader is strong and well respected;
- b) the task is clearly defined and structured. In this case the leader can get on with the task in a directive way.

The supporting style is most effective when:

- a) the leader is in a weak position with the staff group e.g. new to the post;
- b) the task is ambiguous – i.e. not clearly defined.

The studies around this theory show that it is sometimes most effective to be distant and directive with staff, and in other cases it is most effective to be close and supportive. In other words, there is no one 'right style' that applies all the time. Instead, it depends on the situation - you need to judge the situation and then select the style which is appropriate to respond to that situation.

Best fit theory

This is one contingency theory, which is useful for development managers in Cambodia as it includes the broader environment as one of key factors in selecting the leadership style (many theories have been developed based on large US Corporations and only focus on factors inside the institution). Best fit theory takes into account four sets of factors: - the leader, the staff, the task and the environment. This is the theory we will use as our theoretical base for leadership during this module.

Best Fit theory maintains that there is no such thing as the 'right' leadership style or traits, but that effective leadership will take place when there is a good fit between:

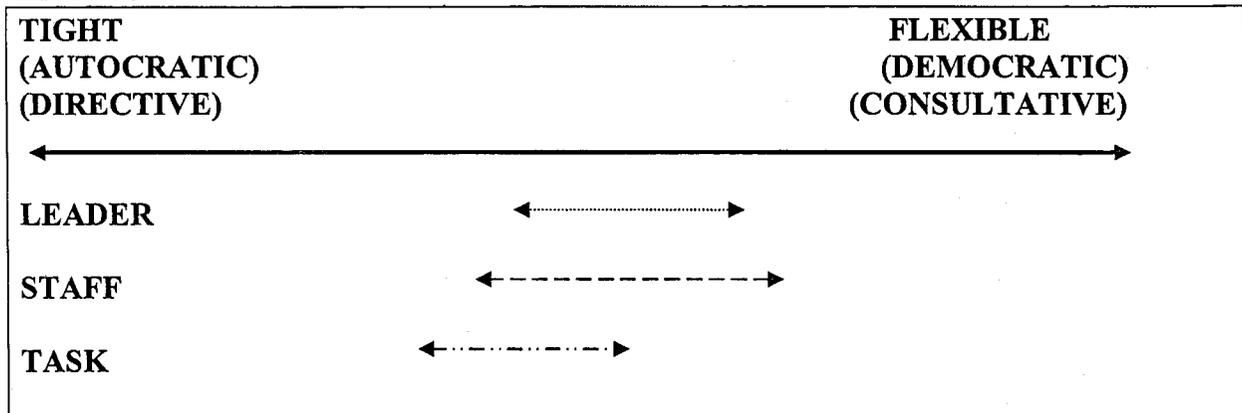
- a) **The style of the leader;**
 - b) **The expectations of the staff;**
 - c) **The nature of the task;**
- *all to be considered in the context of:*
- d) **The institutional and external environment (including cultural issues).**

See the diagram on the following page.

Best Fit theory

Each of the three factors a – c may be measured on a scale that runs from **tight** (autocratic, directive, structuring) to **flexible** (democratic, consultative, supportive).

ENVIRONMENT



If all three factors may be measured on the same part of the scale then the 'best fit' has taken place, but if one or two are on a different part of the scale from the others, then there is unlikely to be effective leadership and successful task completion.

LEADERS' ISSUES

1. The values held about staff and their involvement in the work.
2. His or her confidence in the staff
3. His or her usual style
4. His or her assessment of the necessity of their own personal contribution
5. His or her need for certainty
6. Levels of stress
7. Age

STAFF ISSUES

1. Their estimate of their own intelligence and competence
2. The nature of their relationship with the leader (involved or distant)
3. Their interest in the problem and their view of its importance
4. Their tolerance for uncertainty or need for structure
5. Past experience - involved or not involved
6. Culture factors and age

TASK ISSUES

1. Nature of the task
2. Time scale
3. Complexity of the task
4. Need for accuracy or creativity
5. Importance of the task

ENVIRONMENT ISSUES

1. The power position of the leader in the institution
2. The relationship of the leader to the group
3. The normal behaviour and style in the institution

Reflection questions

1. **If this kind of study was conducted in Cambodia do you think it would show the same result? Why/why not?**

2. **If this trend is true for Cambodia – what would be the impact of having more women managers in institutions?**
 - **Think about the values in institutions and development management. What could be the impact of having more managers who are women?**

3. **What are the blocks that stop women bringing their own qualities to a management role? Can you think of solutions to the blocks?**

Part B: Leadership, vision and empowerment

A good leader:

- has vision and communicates it
- empowers others
- understands the "power of fair process"

Leaders know where they are going, they have a vision to which they are drawn. A vision is a statement of what you want to see, a vision of what the future will look as a result of your efforts.

People follow leaders because they are inspired or excited by the leader's vision. Some managers say 'there's no way I can shape my programme/department/unit, that's up to the Director'. But leaders don't accept the status quo, they have vision and push for change. It starts with a vision, once you have a vision (what) you can work out a strategy (how) to get there.

In the past, people thought that management meant telling people what to do and then correcting them when they made mistakes. This view has been replaced by a more positive approach: Share your vision with staff; then they will help you get there.

What is your vision for Cambodia?

1. Communicating a vision

"The future belongs to those who believe in the beauty of their dreams"

Eleanor Roosevelt

Leaders generate excitement, interest and energy in others; they do this through communication. How you talk about your vision determines how much others want to follow you. There are two keys to speaking about your vision:

- consistency; and
- repetition.

Consistency

A vision does not change from day to day. Leaders concentrate on how the future will look as a result of their vision. They articulate the personal *values* which they hold, which underpin their vision. They do this informally, with anyone who will listen (not just in formal speeches). Consistency is important so others have a clear picture of where they are going.

Repetition

Once isn't enough. Your communication must be continuous and repetitive. If people hear your message *and see your behaviour is consistent with your message* then they know you are serious about your vision, and will begin to believe in it too. Repetition also helps the leader to keep focused on his or her vision.

Work with stakeholders

Who else has a stake in your vision? Stakeholders are people who can help or hinder you in achieving your vision (peers, supervisors, other departments or units, other institutions doing similar work, donors etc.)

Stakeholders can help – provide information, ideas, funds, cooperation, moral support. Stakeholders can also hinder – they may see your ideas as threatening their power and influence, competing with them for donor funds, upsetting the status quo etc.

Be strategic; identify who they are and list them down:

<i>Likely to help</i>	<i>Likely to hinder</i>
-	-
-	-
-	-

Create opportunities to communicate with them and influence them positively:

- invite them to a meeting
- take them out to lunch
- visit them at their office
- ask their advice
- send them a book or article
- invite them to serve on a committee or working group
- involve them in a planning session
- etc.

In Module 3 we work look in more detail at how to communicate your vision to various stakeholders.

Refer to your vision when making decisions

Your vision is your guiding light which underlies all your decisions and gives your leadership consistency. Your staff may not agree with all your decisions, but if they see the *consistency* behind them they can support and follow.

We will discuss this in more detail in the next session – Session 5: Decision making.

2. Empowering others

In Session 1 we introduced empowerment as one of the three linked concepts providing the contextual framework for this programme (gender, development and empowerment). We discussed how the *power-over* approach tends to discourage us from empowering others as we fear losing our power to someone else; and how other approaches such as *power-to*, *power-with* and *power-within* are more helpful alternatives which can help lead to empowerment.

The main approach used in this session is *power-to*, empowering others by enabling them to be creative, competent and resourceful. However, this is complemented by empowerment by *power-with* through teamwork and team-building. Ultimately this leads to empowerment by

power-within – the most important level of empowerment –strengthening the individual’s self image and building self esteem and self respect.

The three phases of empowerment

Empowerment means giving someone *power to*:

- i. Act
- ii. Judge
- iii. Response effectively

Too often, staff are given the *instruction* to act, but don’t have the *information* to judge or the *power* to command.

The first phase of empowerment – the power to judge

The first phase is to build good judgement. Good judgement needs good information and the ability to understand it. The more information and understanding staff have about the organisation, the more they feel part of it and the better they are able to judge what meets the goals of the institution and what doesn’t.

Staff need information, formal (what is presented to outsiders as the institution’s image) and informal (how it really is), on a number of levels:

- Institution level: history, vision, mission, goals, objectives etc.
- Department or unit level: objectives and plans
- Individual level: job description and personal objectives
- Informal culture of the institution

As well as having access to the information, staff need the opportunity and encouragement (and if necessary the training) to discuss, explore, analyse and interpret the information in order to understand its implications and put it into context.

Communicating your vision is the first important step to informing your staff and building good judgement.

Similarly when delegating, the more information you share with the person to whom you are delegating a task, the better the result. *Delegation is a process which we will look at in detail in Module 2.*

The second phase of empowerment – the power to act

Let the member of staff do the job or task. During this stage the empowering supervisor will stay out of the way and wait for them to share progress and any concerns.

The third phase of empowerment – the power to respond effectively

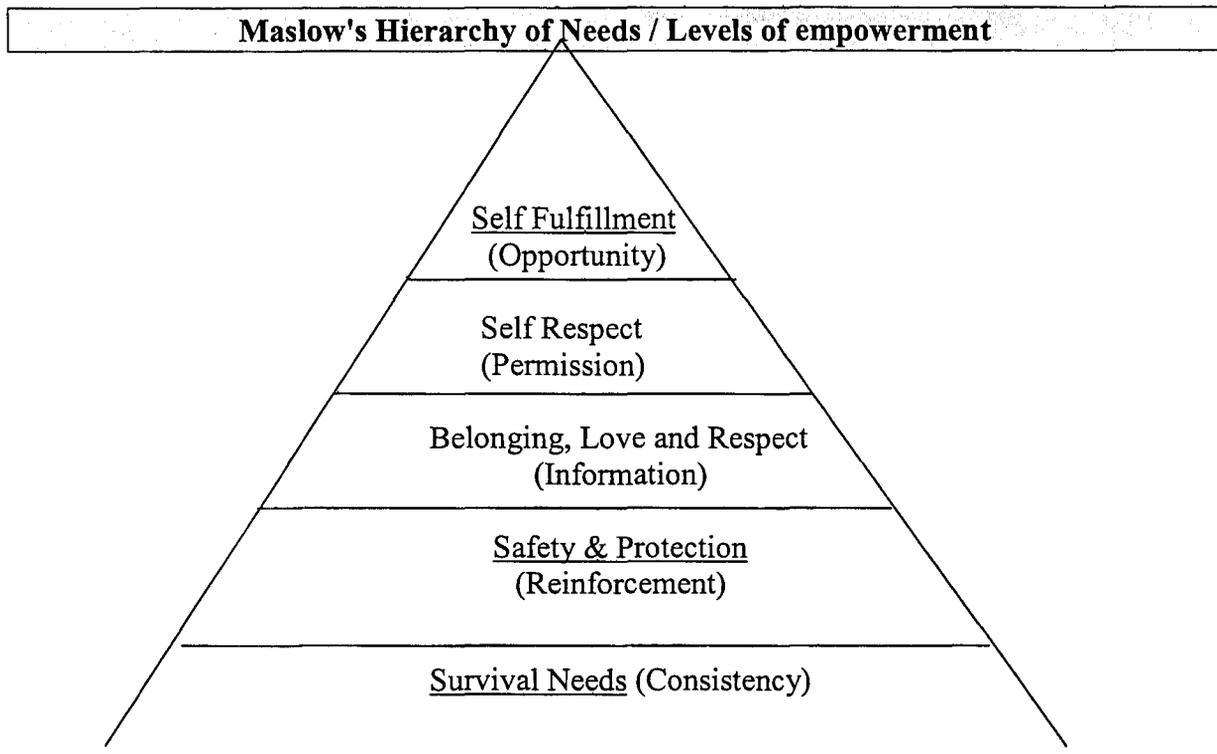
This is when the member of staff encounters a problem or unexpected situation. They need to respond, for example by:

- getting more or different resources;
- changing things that don’t work; or
- asking for help.

This is the real test of whether empowerment has really happened. If the judgement is there, from phase one, they will have the confidence to respond.

Empowerment and Motivation

We can relate the levels of empowerment to staff motivation using Maslow's hierarchy of needs¹⁷:



Consistency

Consistency in empowerment is key to repeated good performance. An institution has to be consistent in how it responds to staff attempts to improve – because in attempting to improve staff take risks (eg. risk of making a mistake). This level of empowerment relates to the *survival* level in Maslow's hierarchy and means a consistent welcome to staff who care enough to try and improve themselves and the institution.

Reinforcement

Reinforcement of positives (rather than focus on negatives eg. mistakes). This gives the staff the *security* to make mistakes and survive them – as its part of the learning. This feeling of security is Maslow's second level, and is a crucial foundation for empowerment.

Information

This information is 'what's really going on' the informal as well as the formal information (this doesn't mean gossip – just truthful information which is given to a trusted person). Access to this information is key to Maslow's third level – *belonging*. Without it staff do not feel they have a stake in what is happening because they don't know enough to care.

¹⁷ From 'How to Motivate People', Twyla Dell, Kogan Page.

Permission

This is permission which is implicit in the culture of the institution ; permission to offer ideas, discuss problems, propose improvements, to consider personal development beyond the present job, to cooperate with other departments or units. When these ideas are recognised and accepted, the staff gain *recognition*, respect and prestige – this corresponds to Maslow’s fourth level.

Opportunity

This is opportunity for staff to improve themselves, their skills and creativity. This relates to *self fulfilment* (or self actualisation), the top level of Maslow’s hierarchy.

For empowerment to be possible, the foundations of *consistency* and *reinforcement* have to be in place. But for empowerment to happen, ***the information level is the key***. If real information is not shared, people don’t feel they belong or are important to the institution. They don’t invest courage and creativity, and they don’t develop good judgement.

Staff know – when they have the right *information, permission* and *opportunity* – what can be done better and how they can contribute.

Another way of looking at empowerment:

"Empowerment is expanding the space for creativity"

3. The power of fair process

This last section brings together the two themes to good leadership – vision and empowerment. We have discussed the importance of vision and the leader’s role in communicating vision. The question is, whose vision? A leader’s vision, well communicated, can be powerful, but not as powerful as a vision that has been developed by a team through a participatory process. This is why some government ministries and many NGO now conduct participatory strategic planning processes in which all staff are involved in shaping the vision, and the strategy to reach that vision. This can be an empowering experience for staff, and it also produces better results.

We have also established that staff do not have to like or agree with every decision you make, but if they see the *consistency* behind them which relates to a vision they accept and own, then they can support and follow. In fact, the importance of consistency (on the part of the manager and the institution) has been a key theme throughout this session. Consistency is a value that is closely related to openness. If there is consistency, people know where they stand, what to expect, what the rules are. *Outcomes* may vary, but there should be a consistency and openness about *processes, ie. how* the decision are made and *who* is involved.

Again, if there are consultative processes within institutions (for example, to develop policy), staff will feel more ownership of the ‘rules’ and will be more accepting of decisions they don’t like – because they can see why the decision was made. If they can see that ‘fair process’ has been conducted, they are less critical of the result. Note that it is important, not just for fair process to be followed, but for it to be seen to be followed.

Skills and techniques for conducting fair, open processes will be covered in more detail in Module 3.

Session 5: Decision making

There are 3 parts to this session:

- C. Individual decision making
- D. Participatory decision making
- E. Decision making and leadership

A. Individual decision making

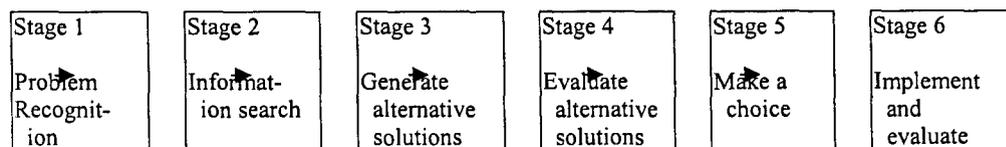
Why study decision making?

Decision making is important for the effectiveness of an institution. Decisions in institution include the setting of goals and objectives, strategic planning, activity planning, institution structures and policy, work allocation, personnel and staffing, resource allocation, time and workload management, etc. Some management writers have based their approach to management on an analysis of how and where decisions are made. Decision making is also important for individuals in an institution and evaluation by others.

The main reason to study decisions is to enable us to make better quality decisions than we do now. The quality of our decisions is often poorer than we realise. In order to increase our effectiveness in decision making, we must first understand the decision making process.

The decision making process

Decision making is more than just making a choice. It also includes the activities that happen before making the choice. It is a *process*, a series of steps that lead up to the choice. The following diagram shows the six stages of the decision making process:



Stage 1: Problem recognition

The problem recognition stage is where we recognise that there is a difference between what is expected (indicated by goals and objectives) and what is actually happening.

Problem recognition involved two things; firstly recognising when this difference (or discrepancy) exists and secondly; evaluating this discrepancy. Is it important? Is it a problem and what are the causes?

In practice, decision makers often start with a too narrow view of the problem. For example, we respond to theft by increasing security and punishment rather than finding out why theft is happening. We try to stop the symptoms (consequences) rather than finding out the causes.

Failing to accurately identify the problem is one cause of poor decision quality. We can improve our decision quality by investing the time to identify and analyse the problem clearly.

Stage 2: Information search

The decision maker must gather information about both the causes of the problem and possible ways to solve the problem. This means collecting facts, data, ideas and opinions.

This is often the stage that is handled least well. Research into the nature of management jobs shows that managers spend most of their time in interaction with others, often moving from one short interaction to another, several times a day. During many of these short interactions they will be expected to make decisions.

The real situation for a manager therefore makes it hard for him to systematically collect and objectively analyse information before making a decision. In reality, she will rely heavily on soft information ('gut feeling', the 'feel' of the situation, rumours, gossip) rather than hard information (facts, data, analysis) to make decisions.

Hard data	Soft data
Facts, results, events, statistics, observable effects or deviations, time factors, performance levels	Opinions, gut feelings, attitudes, personality conflicts, stresses and frustrations, rumours and gossip

In addition, we all have a tendency towards 'selective perception' or 'hearing what we want to hear'. This means that we tend to hear, listen more attentively to, and remember those facts, ideas and opinions that agree with or confirm what we already believe. Our selective perception makes us less open to ideas that are new, different or challenge our beliefs and values and leads us to stick with old ideas that are known, practiced and accepted.

Managers can improve the quality of their decisions by investing time and effort to collect hard information about the problem. While both soft and hard information are useful in decision making, soft information should be tested to see if there is hard information to back it up.

Stage 3: Generate alternative solutions

Once the decision maker has collected the information, she needs to organise it in a meaningful way. Then she can explore alternative solutions or choices, usually by narrowing

down a large set of alternatives down to a much smaller set of plausible, appropriate alternatives.

To generate plausible solutions she needs to use her experience and creativity, integrate information and make judgements about the future. It is often the most difficult stage of the decision making process.

In reality, decision makers tend to combine this with the next step; generating and then evaluating alternative solutions, one by one. This means that, instead of evaluating all alternatives against one set of criteria; decision makers are evaluating these alternatives one at a time, in a less consistent way.

Worse still, because we are evaluating each solution as it is generated, we will often accept the first solution which is satisfactory. In practice this usually means the most readily available, well-practiced solution. We never know if it is the best, or optimal decision, because we never took the time to generate the other possible solutions.

This is the main failing of decision makers at this stage. In reality, managers make many decisions which are only satisfactory or acceptable. If managers separate the two steps of generation and evaluation of alternatives, they are more likely to identify the optimal, or best solution, thus making a better quality decision.

One well known technique for separating the two steps of generation and evaluation is the brainstorm technique. Ideas are given out and recorded first, and evaluated after. Another advantage of this technique is that it separates idea generation; a creative activity from idea evaluation; a critical/analytical activity.

Brainstorm guidelines¹⁸

1. Question	Facilitator announces the key question. eg. 'What do we know about the problem?'
2. Give out	Participants give out as many ideas as possible
3. Accept	All ideas, however, impractical or crazy, are accepted
4. Record	Recorder lists all ideas for everyone to see
5. Keep on track	Facilitator reminds participants of the key question to keep the discussion on track
6. No editing or evaluating	Facilitator reminds participants that no one is allowed to edit, criticise or evaluate any suggestion until the process is complete
7. Build	Participants build on the ideas of others. This triggers new thoughts and ideas. This requires a ' <i>yes and ...</i> ' rather than a ' <i>yes but ...</i> ' attitude (see below).

¹⁸ Taken from 'Systematic problem solving and decision making', Sandy Pokras (Kogan Page).

Brainstorming is a simple but a very useful technique which forces us to 'suspend' judgement and fully explore a question or issue before reaching a conclusion.

Yes and ...

A complementary technique is 'yes and ...'. Because of the above tendency, too often our immediate response to an idea is 'yes but ...'. Yes but ... implies 'there is something wrong with this idea. I don't want anything to do with this bad idea'. Yes but ... kills an idea before has it has even been explored.

Yes and ... is positive and constructive, *building* on ideas of others. Yes and ... implies 'there is something that can be improved about this idea. I am willing to work to improve it as best I can'.

Stage 4: Evaluate alternative solutions

Most important task at this stage is to identify the criteria with which to evaluate the possible solutions in a systematic and consistent way. One tool which helps you to do this is the criteria matrix

Criteria Matrix

For this you need first to define a set of criteria, then evaluate each option against the criteria, as follows:

	←	Evaluation	Criteria		→	
Alternative solutions	Criteria 1	Criteria 2	Criteria 3	Criteria 4	Criteria 5	Numerical Rating*
Solution A	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	1
Solution B	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	No	2
Solution C	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	3
Solution D	No	No	Yes	No	No	4

* Numerical rating: 1=Top preference, 4=Lowest preference

In using the criteria matrix approach, the important skill is in deciding on the criteria. For institutional problem solving, you might need to define criteria in some or all of the following areas:

- Staff; impact on staff and ability of staff to implement
- Resources and finance
- Views of stakeholders
- Time
- Impact on goals and objectives

Stage 5: Choice of action

By now the decision maker has evaluated a set of alternative solutions or possible choices. Now she must make a choice.

If she has approached the evaluation of alternative solutions in a systematic way, choosing the solution is very straightforward. However, there are additional factors which influence our final choice. These are:

- **Values**; both our own personal values and the institution values (shared values understood by members of an institution);
- **Gut feeling**; does this solution 'feel right', are we comfortable with it (is it within our comfort zone)?

We have discussed how gut feeling should not be a substitute for thinking (eg. in Stage 2), but can be used *at the end* of thinking, as a judge of the final choice of solution.

There will be uncertainty and ambiguity about the consequences of most actions. The main problem at this stage is that the decision maker is often under pressure to make a decision quickly. In reality, we often miss out stages 2, 3 and 4 and make a choice, too quickly. Since we haven't gone through the earlier stages we rely on our values and beliefs to judge what is good and bad about different alternatives and to make the choice.

Stage 6: Implementation and evaluation

Now the decision maker has to implement the solution. She will also want to evaluate it. Did the difference or discrepancy identified in Stage 1 disappear? Did we solve the problem? If not, she has to go back to Stage 1 (Problem recognition) and start again.

Decision making and effectiveness as a manager

The quality of a manager's decisions is a key factor in determining how effective she is. We can improve the quality of our decisions by completing each stage of the decision making process, ensuring we complete the stages of problem recognition, information search and generating/evaluating alternative solutions. In particular, we can improve our decision quality by:

- clearly identifying the problem and its causes;
- collecting and organising all relevant information (both hard and soft information) in a systematic way; and
- separating the processes of generating and evaluating alternative solutions.

B. Participatory decision making

Why have participatory decision making?

There is a strong emphasis on participatory decision making in development management, particularly in NGOs. While it is not happening to the same degree in the public sector yet, there does seem to be an increasing awareness among many public sector institutions that participatory decision making is a valuable process. Styles of management and leadership which encourage participation and consensus building are being encouraged (see later sessions on Management styles and Leadership). For NGOs, participatory processes are important in all areas of work; eg. community development, project design and management. These processes are not common in Government. This session concentrates on participatory decision making within the institution, in other words, involving staff in decision making.

There are several advantages to participatory (or group) decision making:

- a group can collect more information;
- a group tends to take a broader perspective and consider more approaches and alternative solutions;
- ownership of the decision; those participating will be more satisfied with the decision, and more supportive and committed to its implementation – ‘the power of fair process’.

There are also disadvantages to participatory decision making:

- groups work more slowly and take more time to reach a decision;
- often a group will agree a compromise which is not necessarily the optimal (best) solution;
- groups can often be dominated by one individual or a small clique
- dependence on group decisions limits the ability of managers to act quickly and decisively when necessary;
- participatory processes can be dogged by disagreements and conflict;
- an individual who disagrees with the rest of the group may ‘disown’ the final decision and not support its implementation;
- unrealistic expectations of staff about the level or nature of participation can lead to disappointment.

Research conducted to prove that participatory decision making produces better decisions has been inconclusive. What is clear is that participatory or group processes result in greater *satisfaction* with the decision, on the part of those involved in the process. This makes participatory decision making particularly appropriate for many of the decisions made by development managers, since using participatory processes helps gain people’s commitment to decisions and reduces the likelihood of conflict and resistance.

As a manager, the first decision is how to go about making the decision; individually or using a participatory process. Secondly, you have to decide on what process; *how* staff will participate.

We have already said that in order to increase our effectiveness in decision making, we must first understand the decision making process. Similarly, to involve staff in decision making, you first have to understand the decision making process itself. Then you can decide on the level of participation; in which stages of the process staff will be involved. This will depend on:

- the type of decision (for example, you might involve staff to Stage 5 when deciding on activity plans or work allocation, but only to Stage 3 when making a decision about staff promotion);
- the situation;
- the people involved.

People sometimes think that participatory decision making means that staff make the choice (Stage 5). This is not necessarily true. There are different levels of decision making, depending on which stages of the decision making process staff are involved in. As a manager, you need to:

- be clear about the stages of the decision making processes and how they apply to the particular problem and situation;
- make a judgement about the level of participation that is appropriate;
- communicate this clearly to your staff so their expectations about the process are realistic.

Part C: Decision Making and Leadership

Some tips for leaders

1. Refer to your vision when making decisions

As we said in Session 4, your vision is your guiding light which underlies all your decisions and gives your leadership consistency. Your staff may not agree with all your decisions, but if they see the *consistency* behind them they can support and follow.

2. Judge when you have enough information

‘An expert is someone who has succeeded in making decisions and judgements simpler through knowing what to pay attention to and what to ignore’.

Edward DeBono (from ‘Simplicity’)

As a leader it is your job to keep yourself up to date and informed about important trends and developments. You need to anticipate the future, not react to it.

The challenge of leadership is to judge when you have enough information to make a decision – *you will never have all the information*. Sometimes you can have too much information – so that you get lost in the data and ‘can’t see the wood for the trees’. A leader looks for the patterns, trends and connections rather than getting lost in the data.

The reality is that sometimes you will make the ‘wrong’ decision, but that is part of the learning.

3. Free yourself up to lead

Reflection questions:

- 1. Do you get bogged down with the daily details of decision making?**
- 2. Are your staff constantly bringing you everything for approval?**

You cannot be a leader if you are constantly having to make decisions about detailed matters. If you answered yes to the above questions, maybe its time to delegate some of your smaller decisions to your staff.

4. Remember the power of fair process – use fair, open processes

We have discussed the advantages of participatory decision making and the 'power of fair process' in Session 3 on Leadership and in Part B of this session.

Women managers and decision making - Some feedback from Cambodian women managers

Making decisions, especially difficult decisions is harder for women manager because:

- Women have a higher relationship orientation, tend to know more about staff as people eg. their personal and family situation (not just in relation to their job). They are therefore more aware of the potential consequences of decisions on staff than are their male colleagues. This makes it harder to make difficult decisions.
- Women managers are more concerned about fairness than male managers.
- Women worry about decisions and how they will affect people. Even after the decision is made, they still worry –they find it harder to put a decision behind them and move on to the next thing.

What do you think?

Session 6: Management styles

What is Management?

In the Session on Leadership, we differentiated leadership from management as follows:

7. **To lead – to go in front so as to show the way.**
8. **To manage – to be in control or in charge.**
9. **Management is a task-related means of achieving goals.**

Management styles

We have said that each management job is different. We have also said that it is the manager herself who *shapes the management role*. One of the ways in which the individual manager shapes her own role is by the management style(s) she uses, and in response to what situations.

Most people have a *primary* or preferred management style that they use most of the time. They will usually have second or *supporting* style that they fall back on when the primary one does not seem appropriate. In this session we:

- consider one theory of management styles
- discuss the need to be flexible and responsive in the use of management style;
- consider what is the most appropriate *primary* style for the development manager.

One theory of management styles

This model includes four possible management styles:

1. ***Systems Managers***
 - emphasises the importance of rules and procedures
 - pay particular attention to the maintenance of records and systems
 - become very involved in detail
 - tend to use a formal debate style in meetings
 - are perceived by their staff as being very bureaucratic
 - view staff only as part of a work system rather than as people in their own right
 - deal with mistakes as disruption to the system
 - are extremely rational and logical
 - are rarely innovative
 - very closely monitor performance through control systems
 - make decisions on the basis of the rule book and precedence

- emphasise the importance of written communication

Systems managers perform best in work areas such as accounts and administration, usually at lower levels.

They find it difficult to achieve their objectives in dynamic situations where high interaction with others is required.

They lack strategic management skills and are much happier with routine operational work.

2. *Power Managers*

- dominate staff
- instruct and give specific step-by-step instructions to staff
- constantly pressurise others to achieve results
- use meetings to inform and direct rather than consult
- suppress conflict by refusing to discuss it in an open way
- make decisions without reference to the staff
- assess staff on their ability to achieve the immediate task in hand
- punish mistakes
- frequently use punishment and rewards (“carrot and stick”) to motivate staff
- are often perceived as being concerned only with the task and as placing little emphasis on the needs of people
- have an immediate time perspective - "do it now"
- tend to be reactive rather than proactive

Power managers perform best in work areas where the span of control is high, where they have considerable power and where the emphasis is on achieving the immediate task in hand.

Often production supervisors or military officers need to use the power approach.

3. *Peer Managers*

- are concerned with developing staff
- influence rather than instruct or direct
- prefer to have close personal relations with staff
- find it unpleasant to discipline staff
- may be overly concerned with improving morale, at times at the expense of task achievement

- tend to smooth over conflict; find conflict difficult to handle
- manage small groups of 'high knowledge' people well but prefer to deal with staff individually rather than as a group
- do not take action about mistakes, leaving it to the staff member to correct their own performance
- tend to emphasise long term vision and goals rather than short term tasks achievement
- conduct meetings in a harmonious, creative way
- encourage staff to be innovative

Peer managers perform best in situations where all staff are focused on a single discipline, such as high knowledge professionals and or where creativity and innovation are required.

In work areas where staff have a lot of freedom and autonomy, peer managers' skills will be most appropriate.

Managing a group of university professors, or design artists are examples of specific areas in which peer managers perform well.

4. *Team Managers*

- emphasise the value of working in groups
- communicate best in group settings
- use many meetings to consult with and get the opinions of group members
- set team performance standards to gain the commitment of staff and motivate them
- use mistakes as learning opportunities
- prefer to take consensus decisions which integrate the interests of all individuals
- judge staff by their willingness to participate in team activities
- investigate the causes of conflict in the interests of group harmony
- may be perceived by staff as being indecisive
- have a future orientation

Team managers perform best in situations where staff have a variety of professional or functional responsibilities and where the objectives are best achieved in the integration of these interests.

Such managers will tend to be found most often in the higher echelons of the organisations and this style is often most appropriate for Departmental Directors in the public sector, and Chief Executives in the private sector.

It is important to remember that the type of work and the style the manager uses need not necessarily be the same. However, a manager whose style is completely different to the nature of their work is unlikely to be very successful in their role.

Reflection question:

- 1. In Cambodian culture, which styles are associated with men, and which styles with women? Why?**

- 2. In Cambodian culture, are there some styles which are difficult for women managers to use? Why?**

- 3. For women to progress in institutions, do you think they should adopt the same management style as male managers, or develop their own style? Why?**

- 4. Research in other countries and feedback from some Cambodian women managers suggests that women managers tend to be more participatory and are more concerned with process and fairness. What does this mean for management style?**

Style Flexibility – when to change and when to maintain your management style

Managers have complex situations to manage and therefore it is unlikely that one style will be appropriate for all situations, all of the time. Managers need to examine their jobs carefully for different roles or responsibilities which require different approaches.

Sometimes managers come under pressure to change their style – usually from their primary style to a different style. In these situations they have to assess whether this change is appropriate – would it be a change for a good reason (eg. appropriate to deal with the situation or solve the problem) or for a bad reason (eg. easy option, losing patience)?

It is important that the manager is clear about what is her primary style. Consistency in management style is important so that staff and colleagues know where they stand and what to expect.

If a manager decides to change from her primary style (eg. team style) to face a certain situation (eg. change to power style to respond to an emergency), she needs to continue to monitor the situation, and herself, and judge when it is appropriate to change back to her primary style. In this case the primary style is like an anchor – she can flex to a different style temporarily but always comes back to the primary style.

There are four options when considering changing management style:

- Changing style – style flexibility (appropriate) and style drift (inappropriate); and
- Maintaining style – style resilience (appropriate) and style rigidity (inappropriate)

These options are shown on the table on the following page:

Style Flexibility

	APPROPRIATE	INAPPROPRIATE
CHANGE	STYLE FLEXIBILITY	STYLE DRIFT
MAINTENANCE	STYLE RESILIENCE	STYLE RIGIDITY

STYLE FLEXIBILITY

Appropriate flexibility in the style used

Being able to assess a situation and decide on the right style to use in those circumstances.
Changing when needed, but coming back to the main style when the need is over.

STYLE DRIFT

Inappropriate flexibility in the style used.

Changing style for reasons that are not helpful or appropriate to the circumstances.
Not being consistent, changing for the wrong reasons.

STYLE RESILIENCE

Appropriate maintenance of style under pressure.

Holding on to style for all the right reasons

Not letting problems or other negative circumstances interfere with using the right style.
Resisting external influences that want change for the wrong reasons.

STYLE RIGIDITY

Maintenance of style even when change is called for.

Inability to assess and/or respond when circumstances require a change.

Holding on to style for all the wrong reasons.

Ignoring good reasons or circumstances for change.

MANAGEMENT STYLE CASE STUDIES

THE MINISTRY OF SOCIAL CAPACITY BUILDING

CASE STUDY No. 1: THE PUBLIC RELATIONS DEPARTMENT

The Public Relations Department of the Ministry of Social Capacity Building has a Director, Deputy Director and 8 staff. The Director reports to the Secretary of State. The Department's mandate is to work with a range of other Ministries and with external organisations like the newspapers, radio and television stations to publicise the work of the Ministry. They have to work very closely with the Media Department in order to do their work.

The Director is focused on networking and meeting as many people outside the Ministry as possible, which means that she is often out of the office. None of the staff have job descriptions and not even the Deputy knows what they are supposed to be doing when the Director isn't there to give them a task to work on.

The staff are supposed to be friendly and promote good relationships with all the other Departments and external contacts. The Director has a dampening effect on meetings and although they are comfortable to communicate during her absence, the staff seem reluctant to speak when she is present. In the meetings she encourages the staff to speak openly in front of visitors but they seem to be inhibited to do so. The Director seems to have the skills to supervise the Department staff but isn't around often enough to do so.

Unfortunately the Director does not get on well with the Director of the Media Department and they have a lot of conflict between them about who should be doing what for the Minister. Often if the Minister is going out to visit a project the Director will issue urgent orders to all her staff to stop what they are doing and accompany her with the Minister.

CASE STUDY No. 2: THE ASSETS AND PROCEDURES DEPARTMENT

The Assets and Procedures Department is responsible for all the buildings, resources and other assets that the Ministry has in Phnom Penh and all over the country. They are also responsible for issuing all the procedures and rules for every other department about how to manage, account for and report on the assets and resources.

The Director has worked in the Department for seven years. She used to be the Deputy Director with special responsibility for procedures before being promoted to Director last year. One of her staff has been promoted to take over her old job as Deputy Director.

The Director is well respected in the Ministry for her knowledge and experience. She understands everything about the assets, resources and the procedures in detail and many people, including her former staff, still come to her for information and advice.

The problem is that she is having difficulty "letting go" of her old job. The new Deputy Director complains that the Director is constantly involving herself in the details of his job, and he is losing confidence because of this.

The Ministry is in the process of conducting of a major review of all its policies and systems. The Secretary of State had hoped that the Director, with all her experience, would be an important member of the Review Committee and would contribute some new ideas. However, while she has been invaluable as a recorder in these meeting - making detailed minutes of discussions - she has not contributed any new ideas about ways to change or improve things. The Secretary of State has also hoped that she would involve her staff in the review process, but she has not done this. In fact she seems very resistant to changing any of the procedures and it appears that she would prefer it if no changes were made at all. Sometimes, he has been forced to go round her to other staff to get the work done.

CASE STUDY No. 3: THE FUNDRAISING DEPARTMENT

The Fundraising Department is responsible for working with donors to get money for the projects that the Ministry wants to implement. They are also responsible for all the monitoring and reporting back to donors. At first the Department didn't have any staff or structure, it was the Director working together with the Minister, who is his friend, to try to get money to get the work of the Ministry started. Then the Director brought in a few of his friends as staff and they have all been working for him every since.

The Director treats the Department as his own and there are rumours of corruption. He denies this and has told staff that anyone telling stories to the donors will be dismissed.

The Director has developed the skills to network effectively but is now this so much that he is rarely at the office. Concern has recently been expressed that at a time when the most experienced staff person has just retired, the Director has committed the Department to doing even more reporting on two big infrastructure projects, without consulting any of the staff who would be involved.

The Director has issued a memo saying that whenever he is absent, his authority and responsibilities for staff management are delegated to the Department Accountant, his brother-in-law, and the staff are demotivated. Currently the atmosphere in the Department is very unhappy.

CASE STUDY No. 4: THE TRAINING DEPARTMENT

The Training Department is responsible for all the training of the Ministry's staff and for most of the training that needs to be done on Ministry projects. The Director is very skilful in training and generally thought by everyone to be the best trainer in the Department. He has two Deputy Directors, 14 training staff and 3 administrators.

Everyone appears to be very good friends and the Department is run in a very participatory way. The Director believes in being participatory and encourages everyone to express their opinions in meetings, which are held often. He involves everyone in decision-making, which is carried out by consensus.

The Director does not seem to think that there was any need for conflict resolution systems or processes. He explains that he gets on well with all the staff and they respect him and that the

staff together can solve any problems that might emerge. He is also very casual about time keeping as is the rest of his staff and it is not uncommon for him and others to be late arriving, even at the start of trainings.

The Director is a very easy-going and friendly person who is well liked, even is if he very forgetful and a bit absent-minded. There is a lovely, friendly atmosphere in the Department and everyone remarks on this.

Session 7: Presentation Skills I - Planning a presentation

Good presenters are made not born. There is a popular myth that people who are good at speaking are naturals, they were born that way. In fact, most of them were not; they have become good by working at it. *Anyone* can become a good presenter if they are prepared to work at it.

If you want to become a better presenter, get someone – a friend, colleague or **mentor** - to help you. Ask them to give you feedback on strengths and areas where you need to improve.

Essentials for a good presentation:

- put the audience first
- a good opening – get their attention
- clear signposting – audiences like to know where they are going
- an interesting subject – even if the subject is seen as boring, you can present it in a way that is original and creative
- PREPARATION – a good presentation is 90% preparation

"Fail to prepare and you prepare to fail"

Planning and preparing a presentation

1. *Put your audience first*

To design and deliver a presentation that is right for a particular audience you need to know your audience, to put yourself in their place (or "in their shoes"). The biggest mistake many presenters make is to focus too much on themselves (what do *I* want to say?) and not enough on their audience (what do *they* want to know?).

Reflection question

Putting the audience first is the key to an effective presentation. Yet many people find this difficult – their attention keeps slipping back to themselves. Why do you think this is?

Research your audience

Find out *who* they are, how many will be there, where they are from, their age/seniority, their jobs/roles in their institution, their preferred language, previous knowledge of your subject/institution, etc. It may be helpful to divide them into categories – this will help you fit your presentation to their level of knowledge and interest in the subject. If your aim is to persuade – it is helpful also to identify who the decision makers are.

Find out *why* they are coming to your presentation, and identify who are there because:

- they have to attend (ie. they have been told to)
- they *want* to know about the subject
- they *need* to know about it

In each case ask yourself:

- what do they want to know - what are they interested in?
- what are *their* objectives in attending your presentation?
- how will you meet their expectations? how will they benefit from attending? (if you present your message in terms of what the audience wants, they are more likely to listen to and accept what you say)
- what are their feelings about the subject - are they enthusiastic, worried, cynical etc.? (this is important information when designing the presentation)
- where do they stand on the issue in question – are they likely to accept or agree with your point of view?

Remember, your audience can and probably will switch off - if:

- they are bored
- they don't get the information they expect or need
- they don't understand what you say
- they get distracted
- they feel threatened or offended

2. *Objectives*

You should be able to write down in one sentence the main message of your presentation.

Identify the purpose. Why are you making the presentation? Is it to motivate, inform or persuade? How do you want your audience to change as a result of the presentation?

What are the *3 key points* you want your audience to take away with them?

Reflection question

Many presenters do not bother to work out the aims of their presentation. Instead they start to prepare by thinking; "what do I want to say? " What do you think the consequences of this approach might be?

3. *Venue and timing*

If possible, get to know the venue before you give your presentation. Check practical issues such as; how big or small is the room, what equipment is needed/available, room layout. These are important factors in deciding which type of visual aids to use, for example.

Know what time your presentation starts and how long you have. If your presentation is one part of a programme of several presentations, know how and when your presentation fits into the overall programme. In particular, know what comes immediately before and after your presentation. This helps you to make appropriate links, and also helps you judge how your audience will be feeling when you meet them. You will need this information before finalising the content of your presentation.

Make sure you will have a clock or watch, particularly when you have been allocated a slot in a programme or meeting. If you have said you will speak for 10 minutes your audience will resent it if you go on for 20. Say too little rather than too much – people can always ask questions of they want to know more.

Do not risk running out of time so that you have to rush your ending – this is an important part of the presentation, you want it to be firm and decisive, not hurried.

4. *Structure*

Your structure should include a beginning, a middle and an end (*tell them what you are going to tell them, tell them, then tell them what you've told them*).

The Beginning:

- introduce yourself
- outline the content and structure of your presentation
- grab the attention of your audience, eg. with some surprising statistics, a quotation, a question or (short) anecdote¹⁹
- make appropriate links to previous presentation
- *learn* your opening sentences

The Middle:

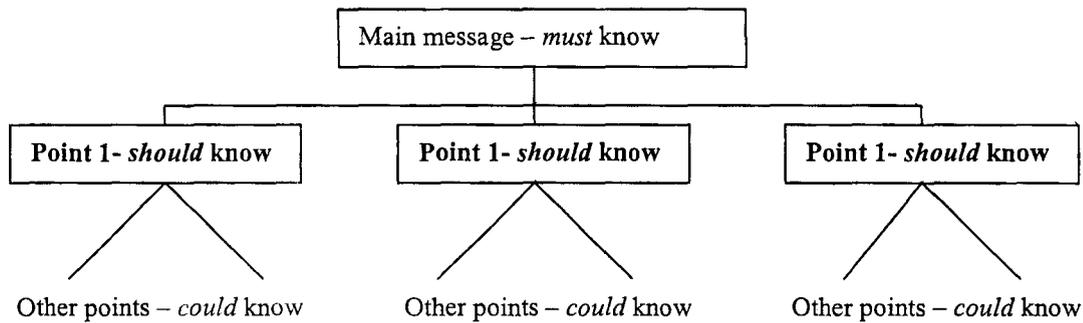
This is the main part of the presentation and should be written first, as follows:

- identify the main message
- select the key points
- decide on a clear logical structure (eg. problem ►solution, big picture ►specific)
- add in the detail eg. concrete examples (but only add detail that supports the key points)

See the Box on Page 4 for a technique for structuring a presentation.

¹⁹ A very short story, usually one that illustrates a key point

Structuring your presentation



Having created this hierarchy of points, you can structure your presentation from bottom to top, top to bottom, left to right etc.

Decide whether you are going to present both sides of the argument (eg. if most of the audience is likely to disagree with your argument, or if they need the full picture), or only one side (if most of the audience are already in agreement with your argument). Even if you are only planning to present one side of the argument, *always prepare the other side of the argument* so that you can answer any questions.

Remember that people concentrate most at the beginning of a presentation and at the end - when they see you are concluding and your presentation is nearly finished. So - if you have 5 points, with 5 the strongest and 1 the weakest point; start with 4, then go through 1, 2, 3 and end with 5.

Signposts

Help yourself and your audience to stay on track by building signposts into your presentation - things that you say or show to remind your audience where you are in the presentation. For example:

- *I have 3 points to make, 1..., 2..., 3..., in summary my 3 points were ...*
- *Those are the facts. Now I want to take you through the consequences ...*
- *Having explored the problem, I now want to propose a solution ...*
- *Going back to the question we started with ...*

The End

- make a clear conclusion - linked to your original objective
- give a *brief, concise* summary of the key points
- state what you expect your audience to do/believe/know as a result of your presentation
- be firm and decisive
- ensure you have met their needs and stated benefits *for them*
- *never* introduce new points at the end
- leave time for questions
- make appropriate links to next presentation

Reflection question

People often end presentations by sitting down abruptly, as if they are relieved it is all over. Why do you think they do this? What effect does it have on the audience?

5. *Writing the words*

Identify what information your audience needs to achieve your objective and put across the main message of your presentation.

Focus on your message and key points (refer to box on page 4):

- what *must* people know? - these are your key points
- what *should* people know? - these points will help you get your message across and help the audience to understand
- what *could* people know? – these points are *not vital* but could make the presentation more interesting (eg. examples, stories, additional facts).

Avoid giving too many facts, your audience will only remember a few. Don't try and cover too much – use handouts to give more information. Too much information distracts your audience from the main message – carefully select what to put in and what to leave out.

Use facts to back up your key points, rather than opinions. Check your facts to make sure they are accurate - refer back to source materials and documentation, *don't* rely on memory or guesswork.

Relate the subject to the audience and their experience – when you are describing a new concept, relate it to something they are already familiar with. Say "*we, you, our*".

Use simple sentences, use normal spoken (not written) words. Avoid long words, jargon and acronyms (unless you are sure your audience understands them). Present numbers using graphs, tables or diagrams (not in long sentences and paragraphs).

6. *Preparing the notes*

Above all, use what type of notes feel comfortable for you. Don't be afraid to let the audience see you are using notes – it shows you have prepared.

Try to prepare brief, concise notes to use as a guide. Try not to read from a script – as this makes you pay more attention to the script than the audience (and you lose eye contact). The exception to this is the opening sentences – it is best to script these and learn them (so you still won't lose eye contact). Short notes are more user-friendly and easier to follow and keep focussed on the main points – long notes can bog you down in detail and can even get muddled up.

Use notes as a guide for:

- key points
- when to use visual aids (eg. OHP, poster, flipchart)
- timing

Your notes should help you to keep on track and ensure you don't leave out any key points, but allow you to focus on your audience.

Your visual aids can serve as useful signposts, but don't use overheads and flipchart as a substitute for notes – by including too much information and too many words or facts. Remember these are *visual aids* to illustrate the information you are giving verbally.

7. *Visual aids*

Use visual aids to achieve something in your presentation which can't be achieved with words alone. Remember that a visual aid is a *means* of explaining ideas and not an end in itself. Visual aids include OHP, flipcharts, posters, video's, slides, props, and many more.

Visual aids must be appropriate and suitable for both the venue and the size of the audience – hence the need to check both of these as an early part of your preparation.

Why do we use visual aids? Research shows that people remember 10% of what they hear, 20% of what they see, and 65% of what they *see and hear*. Make your visual aids as *visual* as possible; use key words not sentences, pictures, graphs not lists of numbers. Keep them simple and clear. Be creative.

Don't put too much information on each visual aid, as this will distract them. Keep it short and simple.

Show visual aids long enough for understanding, but not too long to be distracting. Speak to the audience, not to the visual aid. Don't talk at the same time as showing a visual aid, let the audience absorb it first, then talk.

Reflection question

Some people put up OHP's and then read them to the audience. Why do you think they do this? What effect does it have on the audience?

8. *Dry run*

This is your chance to check the design of your presentation – the content, structure, materials, visual aids etc; and your delivery and timing. It is particularly important to check the time duration of your presentation – remembering to include time for questions.

It is important to rehearse with your visual aids. This will give you practice using them and any equipment, as well as test the design.

Practice aloud. If possible, ask someone to listen and give feedback. Get them to ask questions to give you practice. If not, try a mirror or a tape recorder or even record on video so you can play it back and watch and/or hear it yourself. Ideally, do your dry run in the room where you will be doing your presentation.

Remember – memorise ideas not words. Rehearsing helps bring a presentation to life in your terms and your language and helps build your confidence.

9. Prepare for questions

Use your dry run to practice answering questions. Anticipate possible questions or ask your mentor or a colleague to ask the questions and give you feedback on your answers.

Why do people ask questions?

- to check understanding
- to start a discussion
- to keep participants interested and alert
- to encourage participation
- to share ideas
- to get feedback

Ask for questions

Decide in advance when you will ask for questions – during or after your presentation. Whatever, you decide – state this clearly at the beginning of the presentation. This lets the audience that know you welcome questions, and lets them know if they can ask questions as they occur or if they need to write them down to ask later. Also let them know how they should identify themselves eg. raise a hand, stand up etc. Make sure you *do* ask for questions, in your tone of voice as well as in your words.

Listen to questions

When you are asked a question, identify why the question is being asked. If it is for clarification – look for signs that others have not understood either. If it is for more information to satisfy curiosity – try to gauge other people's interest too. In both cases this will tell you how full an answer to give. Others may ask a question to prove something (to others or to you). If you can identify what it is they are trying to prove this will help you answer the question.

Remember:

- Always *listen* to the question
- Be sure you *understand* the question before you answer it
- *Repeat* the question so everyone else can hear it
- Give your whole *attention*, don't use it as an opportunity to drink a glass of water
- Listen *patiently*, however long the question is. For long questions try to identify the key question in it
- When listening to the question – try to relax and appear calm
- Avoid looking surprised, and don't laugh - even if the rest of the audience does

Answering questions

- Take time to plan your answer
- Keep it short and concise. Save longer explanations and discussion for the break

- Make your answer relevant to the audience eg. using an example
- If they want you to give your own opinion – try to support it with facts
- Answer in a sensitive and helpful way – others will be looking to see how you handle the early questions before they ask one themselves
- If you don't know the answer, say so, confidently
- After answering ask – "have I answered your question?"
- If appropriate, summarise the presentation so far before moving on

10. Team presentations

All the previous points apply to both individual and team presentations. The following are a few additional points which apply to team presentations:

- *Build* a team; support each other, identify individual strengths and weaknesses and capitalise on the strengths
- *Work* effectively in a team; ensure there is no overlap or repetition, no surprises, cooperate to solve problems as they arise
- *Rehearse* as a team; all listen to each part of the presentation, assess the overall presentation (not just the individual's own presentation), rehearse links, agree how the team will be introduced (all at the beginning or as each member speaks), agree how to deal with questions.

Finally ... in an emergency

Sometimes we have to give a presentation at short notice (eg. in a meeting). Even if you have as little as 10 minutes, you can still prepare:

1. Write down the aim of your presentation
2. Consider your audience – why should they be interested in what you are going to say?
3. Use 1. and 2. to compose simple opening or beginning
4. Write down 3 or 4 key points – note how these points link to your aim
5. Think how to present 4. in a way that is appropriate for your audience
6. Decide on your ending – what do you want your audience to do as a result of your presentation? Present this clearly and decisively.

In this session we have focussed on planning the presentation – preparation and design of content and structure. In later modules we will look at delivering presentations; internal presentations and meetings (ie. within the organisation) in Module 2 and external presentations in Module 3.



**WOMEN'S LEADERSHIP PROGRAMME
LEARNING IMPLEMENTATION PLAN**

NAME:	POSITION TITLE:
INSTITUTION:	MENTOR:
MODULE TITLE:	DATES:
1.	WHICH OF THE SUBJECTS HAVE YOU CHOSEN TO WORK WITH FOR THIS LEARNING IMPLEMENTATION PLAN? You may choose more than one, but it is probably most realistic to just concentrate on one new area of learning.
2.	WHAT ROLE OR ARE OF RESPONSIBILITY IN YOUR JOB DOES THIS SUBJECT RELATE TO?
3.	WHY HAVE YOU CHOSEN ROLE OR RESPONSIBILITY FOR THE PLAN? Is there a problem that you are trying to solve? or, Is there a skill area, which you need to strengthen or improve?
4.	WRITE AN OBJECTIVE FOR IMPROVEMENT. What do you hope to achieve by working on this role or responsibility with the new knowledge that you have? <i>By the time I attend the next module of the programme I will have ...</i>
5.	WHAT WILL DEMONSTRATE THE SUCCESSFUL ACHIEVEMENT OF YOUR OBJECTIVE AND USE OF YOUR LEARNING? How will you be able to show that you have been successful or made progress? What measures can you or others use to assess your success? Can you identify any specific indicators?

6.	WHAT ACTIVITIES ARE NECESSARY TO ACHIEVE YOUR OBJECTIVES? List the things you will have to do step by step.
7.	WILL ANYONE ELSE BE AFFECTED BY YOUR PLAN? For example your staff. You need to make sure they understand and agree with your ideas.
8.	WHAT RESOURCES WILL YOU NEED? Will you need any extra resources – remember that time is a resource and new activities or methods of doing something can take more time than things that are already known.
9.	WHAT POTENTIAL PROBLEMS MIGHT YOU HAVE? For example, someone else who will be affected by your plan but may not agree with the way you want to do things now.
10.	WHO WILL HELP YOU WITH THIS PLAN? This includes thinking about who can help you to solve problems.

SIGNED: _____

DATE: _____



**WOMEN'S LEADERSHIP PROGRAMME
LEARNING IMPLEMENTATION PLAN (LIP)
ASSESSMENT OF PLAN ACHIEVEMENT**

NAME:	POSITION TITLE:
INSTITUTION:	MENTOR:
COURSE TITLE:	DATES:

PARTICIPANT'S ASSESSMENT

1.	WHAT WAS THE OBJECTIVE YOU WERE TRYING TO ACHIEVE?
2.	WHAT WERE THE INDICATORS OF SUCCESS?
3.	HAS THE OBJECTIVE BEEN ACHIEVED? IF YES, WHAT INDICATORS DEMONSTRATE SUCCESS? IF NO, WHAT WENT WRONG?
4.	WHAT FACTORS HELPED OR HINDERED THE ACHIEVEMENT OF THE OBJECTIVE? What difficulties or problems did you encounter? How did you try to solve them?
5.	WHICH SKILLS WERE YOU TRYING TO IMPROVE THROUGH IMPLEMENTING THIS PLAN? WHAT DO YOU THINK HAS BEEN THE MOST IMPORTANT CHANGE IN YOUR SKILLS AND ABILITIES DUE TO IMPLEMENTING THIS PLAN?
6.	WHAT DO YOU THINK YOU WILL NEED TO FOCUS ON NEXT, IN ORDER TO FURTHER DEVELOP YOUR SKILLS IN THIS AREA?

7.	DESCRIBE ANY OTHER USES YOU HAVE MADE OF THE LEARNING YOU GOT FROM THE COURSE.
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MENTOR'S ASSESSMENT

1.	PLEASE GIVE YOUR ASSESSMENT OF HOW REALISTIC AND PRACTICAL THE PARTICIPANT'S PLAN WAS.
2.	HAS THE OBJECTIVE BEEN ACHIEVED? IF YES, WHAT INDICATORS DEMONSTRATE SUCCESS? IF NO, WHAT WENT WRONG?
3.	WHAT FACTORS HELPED OR HINDERED THE ACHIEVEMENT OF THE OBJECTIVE? What difficulties or problems did she encounter? How did she try to solve them?
4.	PLEASE COMMENT ON THE USEFULNESS OF THE CONCEPTS TAUGHT IN THE LAST MODULE. Was the participant able to put the theory into practice? Do you have any suggestions to help the trainers relate the concepts to the real situation?
5.	GIVE DETAILS OF THE PROCESS THAT YOU HAVE FOLLOWED IN FULFILLING YOUR ROLE AS THE TRAINING MENTOR.
6.	WHAT IS THE MOST SIGNIFICANT CHANGE YOU HAVE OBSERVED IN THE PARTICIPANT. What suggestions do you have for the trainers to help her develop her skills and confidence further?

PARTICIPANT: _____ **DATE:** _____

MENTOR: _____ **DATE:** _____

The participant should bring the completed form when they attend the next module of the programme.