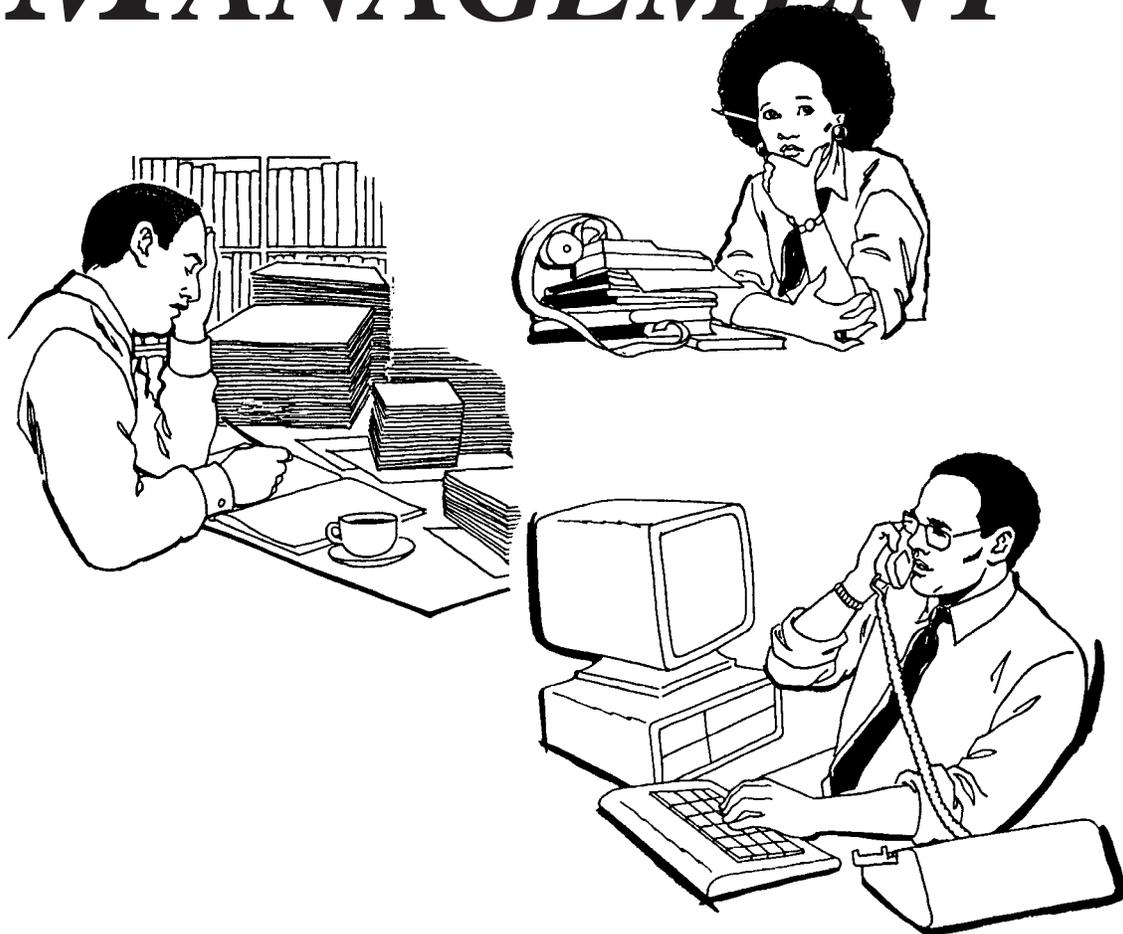


RISK

Reference Material

PROGRAMME

MANAGEMENT



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RISK MANAGEMENT

BACKGROUND

Government and non-government agencies have the responsibility to manage situations created by impacts, emergencies and disasters. These occur as a consequence of hazards to which the countries are exposed.

One of the first organised preparedness activities was the organisation of a fire fighting brigade in the United States by Benjamin Franklin, more than 200 years ago. Going back much further is the biblical example of Noah constructing the arc in anticipation of a deluge, incorporating the elements of preparedness and mitigation against the effects he foresaw.

Only recently has the study and analysis of risk management begun in a systematic form. The study of risk concentrates on the idea that risk management is more than just responding to disasters. Critical factors that comprise risk are **hazard** and **vulnerability** – they are considered characteristics or circumstances related to the probability of creating unwanted results.

HAZARD

An external factor to a person, object or system represented by the potential occurrence for a natural or man-caused event to occur in a specified place with an expected intensity and duration.

VULNERABILITY

An internal factor of a person, object or system exposed to a hazard and which corresponds to how it may be affected. The extent to which a community's structure, services or environment is likely to be damaged or disrupted by the impact of a hazard.

RISK

The probability of exceeding a specific level of social, environmental and/or economic damage over a predetermined period of time.

“Acceptable risk” refers to the specific value of damage a community is willing to accept. It is based on quantifying the damage expected to occur from a specific hazard. It depends not only on the hazard, but also on the susceptibility and capacity of the affected community to respond.

Risk is a function of the hazard and the level of vulnerability, and is directly proportional to both of these factors. In order to prepare an accurate assessment of risk, it is necessary to analyze both the hazard and the level of vulnerability.

Adverse event, disaster, emergency and incident

These terms are the generally accepted definitions used throughout the world by the disaster community.

ADVERSE EVENT

Natural or man-made event which causes intense negative impacts on people, goods and services and/or the environment.

DISASTER

Natural or man-made event which causes intense negative impacts on people, goods and services and/or the environment, exceeding the affected community's internal capacity to respond.

EMERGENCY

Adverse event that can be taken care of by local community resources.

INCIDENT

Natural or man-made event that requires the action of emergency services to protect lives, goods and environment.

Risk Management and Development

RISK MANAGEMENT

Efficient planning, organization, direction and control processes aimed at risk analysis and risk reduction, adverse event management and post-disaster recovery.

Some years ago, we talked about the disaster cycle, with its three phases and seven stages. Today, it is considered that areas and components maintain a symbiotic relationship that aren't necessarily sequential.

Instead, we concentrate on the four areas of risk management: Risk Analysis, Risk Reduction, Adverse Event Management, and Recovery (see below) and their related components (here you can see the connection with the stages of the "disaster cycle").

1. Risk Analysis

Risk Analysis is the systematic use of available information that allows risk management organizations to determine the probability of certain adverse events occurring and their related consequences.

Risk analysis has been transformed from a simple function to an essential area of risk management. The inputs generated from risk analysis are fundamental to all other components of risk management, such as risk reduction, disaster management and recovery actions and so mandatory in all development processes.

Components of Risk Analysis

- Identifying the nature, extent, intensity and magnitude of the hazard.
- Determining the existence and degree of vulnerability.
- Identifying the measures and resources available.
- Constructing probable risk scenarios.
- Determining acceptable risk levels as well as cost-benefit considerations.
- Establishing priorities for time and movement of resources.
- Designing effective and appropriate management systems for implementation and control of these processes.

2. Risk Reduction

Risk reduction is the newest, and still evolving, aspect of risk management aimed at eliminating or reducing risk (either by intervening in the hazard, the vulnerability or both). In this area, there is a clear and explicit effort to avoid the occurrence of disasters.

AREAS	COMPONENTS
Risk Analysis	Hazard and Vulnerability Studies
Risk Reduction	Prevention, Mitigation
Adverse Event Management	Preparation, Alert, Response
Recovery	Rehabilitation, Reconstruction

Approaches towards risk management have been fragmented, rather than comprehensive, and overly dependent on the view of the specific discipline involved in the assessment. These scattered efforts have not facilitated the work of decision makers. Decision makers require a comprehensive, inter-sectoral and multi-disciplinary approach

Components of risk reduction: prevention and mitigation.

PREVENTION

Actions aimed at eliminating risk by preventing the event from occurring or preventing damage by avoiding or limiting the subject's exposure to the hazard.

The following are some examples of prevention measures:

- Permanent relocation of houses, production centres and infrastructure located in hazardous areas (landslides, floods, volcanic eruptions, etc.). When prevention is possible, and exposure of a subject to the hazard has been eliminated, then there is no vulnerability and no risk associated with this hazard.
- Relocation of the hazard (refinery, hazardous materials warehouses, airport). In this case, the hazard itself has been eliminated, therefore the subject is no longer exposed and the risk is eliminated (for this particular hazard).

Other examples that might not prevent the event but can prevent a possible disaster are:

- Water irrigation and channelling systems to prevent droughts.
- Automatic sprinklers and extinction systems to impede fires.

- Automatic shut off valves to control leaks and spills of chemical substances.
- Barriers and capture systems to contain oil spills.
- Security systems to interrupt a sequence of failures which may arise in nuclear and industrial plants.

The Damage Assessment and Needs Analysis processes of an event can provide data that will help eliminate, in the future, vulnerabilities (relocation of towns) or hazards (closing or moving a plant of hazardous materials).

It is clear that in most of these examples, the concept of Prevention is reflected in actions to avoid phenomena from causing disasters. It is currently common to find the words "impede", "protect" or "control" in international literature, as alternatives for the word Prevention, words which are usually more geared to intervention of the threat.

These measures might be expensive and not viable when analyzed in an existing condition. Nevertheless, it is important to think about future developments. For example, when an urban plan is being developed, or when considering a change in the use of land, it is important to include Prevention as part of the criteria for decision makers.

MITIGATION

A set of actions aimed at reducing the impact and effects of an event.

Although some events can be prevented, most of them cannot. Mitigation tends to reduce the damaging effects to life and property caused by non-preventable disaster forces. Fred Cuny says in his book, *Disasters and Development*, "Mitigation efforts offer the best and most economical methodology for disaster management".

Some example of mitigation measures include:

- Regulator dams, channels and borders, or dykes to control floods.
- Energy dissipation work for landslide and flood reduction and control in steep gradient basins.
- Issuing natural resource management regulations and ensuring their compliance.
- Regulating land use, establishing fiscal and financial incentives for appropriate land occupation and use.
- Issuing building and construction regulations to reduce physical vulnerability, and exercising vigilance to guarantee compliance with the regulations.
- Regulating and monitoring dangerous substance trans- portation and the routes used.
- Issuing and monitoring public health, industrial security and contaminating waste management regulations.

3. Adverse Event Management

Adverse event management is the aspect of risk that supercedes the term Disaster Management. A decade ago, disaster-related activities focused predominantly on this area – Response. Disaster Management, the term commonly used to cover the management of all response related activities, enjoyed political support at the national level as well as from international organizations, and has attained a high level of acceptance among first responder organizations and professionals. Considerable technological advances in recent years have no doubt brought benefits to disaster management.

Disaster Management began to show results, the capacity to face disasters was increased, and situations generated by adverse events were controlled before becoming disasters. For that reason, it has been decided to use the term **Adverse Event Management**, because it is more generic and it encompasses emergency

situations through to disasters. It also encompasses those activities necessary for a timely response, such as evacuation procedures, victim care, and the reduction of property loss.

Adverse Event Management works hand-in-hand with risk reduction so that response capabilities are adequate to deal with disasters and reduce the level of damage. If this is done successfully, disasters become emergency events, rather than catastrophes; fewer lives, goods and services are lost; less resources are spent on recovery; and the affected population can quickly return to normal.

Components of adverse event management: preparedness, alert and response.

PREPAREDNESS

A set of measures and actions aimed at reducing the loss of human life and other damage.

Examples of preparedness include the following measures:

- Database of physical, human and financial resources.
- Training personnel for DANA and for emergency action.
- Informing the community about the risk and the way to respond to an adverse event.
- Selecting and display of evacuation routes and shelter areas.
- Strategic location of resources – warehousing.
- Implementation of communication and public information networks.
- Simulation exercises – search and rescue, aid and assistance, and security.

ALERT

A state of formal declaration of the near or imminent impact of an adverse event.

Alert has been typically included as part of preparedness. It is also a component of disaster management. Usually, different types of alert are defined depending on the level of certainty that an event will occur.

Actions common in the alert stage:

- Establishing monitoring networks, i.e.:
 - Satellite images, remote sensors and tele-detection.
 - Volcano watch and monitoring networks.
 - Mud flow and landslide detectors.
 - Seismologic networks for earthquakes and tsunamis.
 - Hydro-meteorological networks for climate behaviour.
- Utilizing existing resources for communication, i.e.:
 - Mass media with pre-recorded messages.
 - Radio, email, fax and telephone communication networks.

The alert is the formal, and in some cases, legal notice of the action adopted due to successive evaluations of threat indicators, which tends to limit the impact of the event through preparedness measures.

Declarations of alert must be:

1. Public – given by all available media.
2. Timely – any delay may imply that the danger is not real or imminent.
3. Clear and concise – there must be no contradictions.
4. Official – emanating from accepted or trustworthy sources.

When an event becomes imminent then an **alarm** is issued.

ALARM

Signal given for people to follow specific instructions, due to the occurrence or imminence of an adverse event.

The alarm is transmitted through physical means such as the human voice, lights, flags, sirens. It is common to use a colour code (yellow for imminent and red for current).

RESPONSE

Actions undertaken when facing an adverse event to save lives, reduce human suffering, and diminish property loss.

Examples of response actions include:

- Evacuation of risk areas.
- Search and rescue of affected people.
- Medical assistance for stabilization.
- Temporary shelter, food and clothes supply.
- Quarantine and security.
- Damage assessment.
- Supply management.

4. Recovery

Recovery includes all the measures that initiate re-establishing normal living conditions for the community affected by an impact, emergency or disaster.

Components of recovery:

- Rehabilitation – temporary measures to restore basic, short-term critical services;
- Reconstruction – long-term, permanent solutions to reinstate the normal living conditions of the affected population.

Based on recent experiences, some guiding principles for reconstruction efforts have been established and adopted, which recognize that

each situation deserves specific analysis of existing conditions, idiosyncrasies and capabilities of the affected population.

REHABILITATION

The restoration of basic services and the beginning of the repair of physical, social and economic damage.

Re-establishing basic services such as:

- potable water and food supply
- power
- health
- transportation and communication
- housing

This is another stage in which damage assessment and needs analysis will have a definite influence on the efficiency with which the basic services and life lines are restored.

RECONSTRUCTION

The medium- and long-term repair of physical, social and economic damage, and the return of affected structures to a condition equal to, or better than, before the disaster.

Reconstruction examples include the following:

- Physical rearrangement of the community.
- Construction of permanent housing and public buildings.
- Road and highway restoration.
- Agricultural reconstruction.

Relationship between the core areas of Risk Management

On many occasions areas and components do not have a clear line between them. There is a clear link between the four core areas of Risk Management and therefore, the implementation of one affects the others as well as the general development process of the population and so-

ciety. Socioeconomic development is intimately related to all areas.

Development can therefore positively influence Risk Management by creating appropriate conditions for risk reduction intervention, or it can generate harmful situations leading to greater vulnerability and increased risk. However, the development process itself may be compromised when existing risk conditions evolve into disaster situations.

During Response, a manager might take decisions to promote a faster recovery. In the case of Rehabilitation and Reconstruction, (after a disaster), the manager can include in these activities measures to avoid damage – whenever possible – (Prevention), reduce losses (Mitigation) and have resources designated to repair any damage (Preparedness). All of these actions will be based on the analysis of the hazard, vulnerability and damage.

For this course, we have also adopted the following definition:

DEVELOPMENT

The cumulative and lasting increase, tied to social changes, in the quantity and quality of a community's goods, services and resources, with the purpose of maintaining and improving the quality and security of human life.

APPROACHES TO MANAGEMENT

Organisations are work groups formed to accomplish goals and objectives that are too complex for a single individual to achieve. Organisations can be viewed as systems that take inputs and transform them into outputs. This transformation process or system must be regulated in some manner. This regulatory process is called *management*.

Management theory has been studied for more than 100 years. These studies have resulted in the development of a number of approaches to management. For our purposes here, we will look at four approaches:

- Classical
- Behavioural
- Systems
- Situational

Why look at management theory? Studying theories helps us understand underlying processes, and on that basis, choose an effective course of action. With this knowledge, we can apply different management theories to different situations in the organisations.

Classical approach

In this approach, the manager is the central controller and regulator of the organisation. Management is the process in which the scientific method is used. The fundamental management activities or functions, constitute an operative process of Planning, Organising, Directing and controlling called the management process.

This process approach is very common and has been used extensively in business, especially manufacturing. Any activity to be studied by a manager can be described with this basic procedure. The answers to the following questions are sought:

- a) What is the activity's purpose and nature?
- b) What is the explanation for the activity's structure and operations?

Advocates of this approach see management as a universal process, independent from the type or level of the organisation. They also recognise that both the external as well as the internal environment, to which the process is applied, greatly differs between organisations and levels.

This approach to organising and managing resulted in the concept of *bureaucracy* developed by Max Weber. Today, many think of bureaucracies as vast, impersonal organisations that put impersonal efficiency ahead of human needs.

Behavioural approach

The core of this approach is based on the behaviour of both the individual and the group in the organisation. Mary Parker Follett defined management as "the art of getting things done through people". The behavioural approach is sometimes called the human relations approach. This approach introduces the methods and concepts of the appropriate social sciences into management, especially psychology and anthropology, from the dynamics of individual personality to the relationship among cultures.

The human relations approach stresses interpersonal and intrapersonal relationships and their effects on the study of management. This approach emphasises the art of managing as well as the scope of human relationships, in management terms. The manager is considered a leader and as such all activities are treated as if they were management situations. The influence and motivating effect of the environment

on human conduct in the organisation has been exhaustively studied.

Since there is no question that management encompasses human behaviour and the interaction of human beings, this school's contributions are beneficial to the study of management.

The supporters of this approach consider management to be a social system, or in other words, a cultural interrelationship system. An organisation is considered a social organism, subject to all the conflicts and interactions of its members.

This approach takes into consideration the formation, importance, role and function and operation of "informal groups", whose rise is considered primarily to be a result of social relationships. Factors taken into account include ethics, community influence, unions and the company's style. The contribution of the Human Relations approach to management is demonstrated in the application of the social sciences to the study of human behaviour in organisations.

Systems approach

The systems approach to management emphasises the total environment of the organisation. The cycle of input, transformation to output, and renewed input is identified for any organisation or department. The changes in the organisational environment are assessed continually in a structured manner to determine the impact of change. This ecological approach directs attention to the awareness that a change in any one aspect of the environment has an effect on the other aspects.

Systems are fundamental to most activities. What is taken to be an activity could really be the result of many sub-activities. To think in terms of systems simplifies and unites the concept of numerous activities the manager supervises. An administrative plan, for example, could be considered to be a system the components of which are people, money, machines, materials, information and authority. The manager in the systems approach tries to establish a systematic structure to describe relationships between activities. This approach provides the means to clearly appreciate the critical variables, limitations and interactions within the organisation and its environment.

Situational approach

This approach emphasises the link between organisational processes and the characteristics of the situation. The approach has been developed by managers and consultants who tried to apply the concepts of the major approaches to real-life situations. According to the contingency approach, the manager's task is to identify which technique will, *in a particular situation, under particular circumstances, and at a particular time*, best contribute to the attainment of management goals.

The contingency approach builds upon the systems approach by focusing on the relationships between system parts. The classical approach may be useful in defining an organisation with the constraints of operating within the confines of a government. The behavioural approach might be appropriate for working with the public and other organisations.

Management process phases

Management theorists have separated the management process into several phases. Various authors have used Planning, Organising, Directing and Controlling. Some have used staffing, co-ordinating and motivating. We have chosen to use the four phases of Planning, Organising, Leading and Controlling. Staffing is included in Organising and Leading. Understanding these phases has great value, for they are the synthesis of a manager's functions. Specification of the objectives and means, framed within a policy and expressed in a plan, is the product of the **Planning** phase.

To execute all activities programmed in the plan, the human resources which are going to carry out the corresponding tasks in the different work areas, should be available. In addition, the relationships between the different areas with their human and physical resources and the organisation's objective should be established. The product will be an organic structure, generated in this phase, which receives the name of **Organising**.

The execution of the operative work or performance will require, for its effective fulfilment, stimulation and co-ordination of the organisation's members and an organisation of individual and group work following the plan guideline. The phase in which the manager gives direction, motivates and influences workers and co-ordinates interactions is called **Leading**.

Supervision of activities previously set in the plan for verification and compliance in time and manner, early detection of deviations and opportune detection, constitute the **Controlling** phase and results in plan accomplishment.

The Control phase closes the system cycle by providing the manager with the **feedback** required for replanning, reorganising and orienting a change of course, according to the circumstances faced by the institution. The process may start in any of the phases, since it is continuous. All organisations regardless of their size, should take into account the management process phases at all levels.

MANAGEMENT

The process of planning, organising, leading, and controlling the efforts of organisation members and of using all other organisational resources, including time, information and funds to achieve stated organisational goals.

WORK GROUP MEETINGS

Meetings are a very important part of every work group. Groups meet for a number of purposes including: the regular staff meeting, information sharing, problem solving/decision making, and training. In order to understand the work groups, it is useful to first understand the groups.

GROUP

Three or more persons in mutual contact and interaction who are conscious of a certain important element in common.

Types of groups

Primary or informal group

A group formed by relationships beyond those needed for normal task accomplishment.

Characteristics

Emotional ties, held together by individual feelings, group has its own objective.

Organisation

Oriented to preserving group unity. Foundation is in social satisfaction.

Structure

Variable and dynamic. Members play different roles, i.e., leader, role model.

Example

Family, social club, informal work group.

Secondary or formal Group

A group formed for task accomplishment, by organisation charts or directives.

Characteristics

Formal, contractual, held together by a need to accomplish a task—objectives of organisation.

Organisation

Formal, derived from organisation charts.

Structure

Limited by regulations, policies and procedures.

Example

A company or agency.

GROUP DYNAMICS

The manner in which the members of a group show their acceptance or rejection of suggestions, improvements or changes.

In order to carry out effective work, a group should know the following:

Goals The group's goals and objectives necessarily derive from the institution's goals and objectives, but the group must have a secondary goal to remain as such.

Cohesion Degree of attraction the group exercises over each one of its members.

Norms Group norms usually are unwritten rules the members gradually learn.

Structure Informal structures are usually established in all organizations. The manager who believes the only organic structure is the formal one, or recognizes the informal but fails to use it, is condemned to put up with the consequences of his subordinates' "informal" behaviour.

Members and leadership If the members' power and status is relatively even, the level of participation will be greater. Democratic leadership will also stimulate greater participation, since it would include actions such as informing, guiding, summarizing, mediating, encouraging and supplying the opportunity for all to speak. This knowledge allows understanding the need to carefully prepare meetings, so as to guide individual and group behaviour toward the desired outcomes.

MEETING

The gathering of 2 or more persons for the purpose of sharing information or taking action.

Many of the meetings held are viewed as unsuccessful or not necessary by those participating in them. There are some key steps to having successful meetings.

EFFECTIVE MEETINGS

First, let's look at the qualities of an effective meeting.

- The meeting is well prepared.
- Participants understand and carry out their roles.
- There is an efficient and effective meeting process.
- The meeting environment is safe and encourages participation.
- The full potential of the group is realised.
- Meeting time is used well with a minimum of diversion.
- Clear agreements are reached.
- Decisions are by a consensus that is fully supported.
- The group leaves the meeting ready to implement the decisions that were made.
- There is a clear understanding of who will do what by when to follow through on agreements.

So how do we achieve these qualities? As with most activities, there are a number of things that one can do before a meeting to help make it successful. They include:

- An agenda that has been prepared with input from meeting participants and sent out in advance of the meeting.
- A purpose and desired outcomes that clearly answer the questions "Why meet?" and "What will be success?".
- The correct participants are in attendance.

- The meeting place is appropriate and necessary arrangements are made.
- Ground rules are established and attendees roles described. (See page 4-2)
- The decision making method is known. (See page 4-4)

During the meeting there are more actions to be done:

- Use a group memory to record the meeting (See page 4-2).
- Have someone designated as the recorder to complete the group memory.
- All participants are facilitative in their behaviour.
- The leader/facilitator enforces the ground rules and maintains an environment that is safe for the participants to provide input.
- The leader/facilitator keeps the group focused on the agenda and subjects.
- The meeting is not interrupted by outside distractions.
- Problem solving/decision making tools are used. (See page 4-3)

A meeting is considered by participants to be unsuccessful if no action occurs after the meeting. Therefore it is very important that whenever possible, decisions be consensus decisions, and commitments obtained for completing follow-up action and the actions completed.

CONSENSUS DECISIONS

What is a consensus decision? A definition of consensus is:

**Everyone has been heard,
everyone agrees,
and is willing to support the decision.**

Consensus decisions are desired because when we agree to a decision we are much more likely to support and implement the decision.

The alternative to consensus decisions, the majority vote, results in someone being a loser. Losers are not likely to support a decision with which they disagree. The other alternative, the leader decision, is “not *my* decision”. Consensus decisions take longer to achieve but the results are worth the effort.

MEETING TOOLS

Lets look at some of the tools for effective meetings.

Group memory

One of the most useful tools for successful meetings is the group memory. Using flip charts on the wall and coloured pens to record the meeting has many benefits:

- the group stays focused.
- everyone knows what has been said.
- repetition and restatements are reduced.
- it is easier to organise ideas.
- agreements are reached and remembered.

Organising your flip charts helps to organise the group. Pre-make an agenda, desired outcomes, ground rules and issues to be discussed. Have flip charts separated to record:

- chronological notes.
- decisions (Document every decision and make sure there is agreement).
- an action plan (Indicate who will do what when).
- a “file” for items to be discussed later (Use to defer discussion but not avoid it).

Ground rules

Establish ground rules on how the group will proceed—then abide by them. This helps a group stay on track and avoids lots of conflicts.

Desired outcomes

As with all activities, if you don’t know where you are going, you won’t know how to get

there and you won’t know when you have arrived. Develop desired outcomes for every meeting. Get group agreement on them before proceeding.

Agenda

Develop an agenda for every meeting. Involve the participants in the meeting in building the agenda then get agreement before starting the meeting. Use the agenda to keep the group focused during the meeting.

Agreements

Successful meetings are a series of small agreements that result in final consensus on the desired outcomes. A good rule is **do not proceed unless you have agreement**. You will end up coming back to the point where you lacked agreement. Record your agreements on the group memory so that you can refer to them.

ROLES

There are several roles that can be filled in a meeting that will help the group be successful.

First is the *leader/manager*. This is usually the person who called the meeting. The effective leader/manager :

- Contributes his/her ideas without dominating the meeting.
- Gets agreement on desired outcomes and agenda.
- Makes sure everyone has a chance to participate.
- Keeps discussion orderly and on track.
- Identifies constraints.
- Listens to other’s ideas.

The *group member*:

- Contributes ideas.
- Listens to other’s ideas.
- States concerns openly.
- Makes commitments.

A *facilitator*:

- Does not contribute ideas or evaluate group members' ideas.
- Helps leader and members focus energy on the task and stay on track.
- Makes sure everyone has a chance to participate.
- Defends others from personal attack.
- Manages the meeting process and makes suggestions on how to proceed.

The *recorder*:

- Creates a visible record of the meeting—the group memory.
- Writes group members' ideas using their own words.
- Remains neutral and does not participate.
- Uses key words and phrases.
- Tries not to paraphrase or interpret.

FACILITATIVE BEHAVIOURS

Things you can say or do at the beginning or during a meeting to help a meeting to be successful.

- Use active listening...
Boomerang - Repeat the question to the questioner for more input.
Parroting - Repeat a statement exactly as stated. This forces the speaker to hear his or her own words.
Paraphrasing - Stating in your own words what you think you heard said by someone.
- Listen as an ally. Listen to understand not rebut...Listening for comprehension is a powerful facilitative behaviour.
- Ask open-ended questions... Asking yes or no questions forces people to take a stand.
- Be positive—encourage participation ...Participation means involvement which will result in better decisions.

- Focus on the desired outcomes... This helps keep a group on track and moving toward consensus decisions and solutions.
- Don't be defensive... Avoid arguments by not arguing back. Do not take comments personally.
- Accept and legitimise... Acknowledge others points by accepting and legitimising the ideas. Use active listening techniques and record on the group memory.

PROBLEM SOLVING TOOLS

Problem solving/decision making meetings need to have some process tools in order to be successful.

- Brainstorming - A method for generating ideas and building lists. The rules for brainstorming are: no evaluations are made during brainstorming, any idea is OK, time limits or number of ideas are useful, and everyone participates.
- Sort by... Once you have created a list of ideas in brainstorming, it may be useful to sort them in some way-categories, types, etc.
- Rank Order - A technique for putting ideas in order of importance to the group. The total number of ideas is divided by 3. Group members then vote for that number of ideas according to their personal preference. This tool does not eliminate an idea or make a decision. It only gives the group a sense for where the group is at that moment.
- Word Clarification - Frequently there are words that need to be defined before groups can proceed. Agreeing on definitions can be very important. It is helpful for the facilitator or leader to review any decisions,

actions or sensitive statement for group agreement on definitions.

- Build-up and eliminate - A commonly used tool to combine and reduce ideas into statements that all will support. Two or more ideas may be combined into one, thus building up one idea and eliminating others. Taking the best parts of 2 or more ideas can frequently result in agreement.

DECISION MAKING

Decision making options

We have said that the decision making method should be known before a problem solving/decision making meeting starts. We have also discussed the value of consensus decision. But what are the decision making options?

Decide and announce

The leader/manager makes a decision and announces it to individuals or the group.

Examples:

- Organisational restructuring
- Dealing with an emergency

Gather input from individuals and decide

Leader/manager requests input from individual staff members and then makes a decision.

Examples:

- Collecting editing remarks before publishing a document.
- Decision on reorganisation.

Gather input from group and decide

Leader/manager calls a group meeting to collect input, then makes a decision.

Example:

A task force or study group makes a recommendation for management decision.

Consensus

Leader and group reach a decision that everyone understands, can support and is willing to implement.

Example:

Work group makes a decision on future programme plans.

Note: This option needs a fall-back option agreed on at the outset in case consensus can not be reached within the time allowed.

Delegate consensus within constraints.

Leader/manager delegates the decision to a group to be made by consensus and within the constraints set by the leader.

Example:

Leader delegates a decision on office space rearrangement.

Group decision making process

- Get everyone's perception of the problem/issue. Allow time for expression of feelings (venting).
- Develop a definition of the problem and get group agreement.
- Determine what is causing the problem and why it is a problem.
- Develop alternatives.
- Clarify and evaluate alternatives. Make sure all understand.
- Develop a consensus decision.
- Plan for implementation.

PLANNING

The **Planning** phase of management consists of the formulation of policies, goals and objectives, and the strategies and activities to achieve them.

Planning must allow for:

- The organisation to obtain and dedicate the physical, human and financial resources required to achieve its objectives.
- The members to carry out the activities in the selected strategies, and
- Monitoring of activities to ensure that objectives are achieved, and to impose corrective measures where they are deemed necessary.

The need to plan exists at all management levels. Planning is greater, more general and longer term at the high levels and, as it descends the management levels, it becomes more specific and for shorter periods.

PLAN

A **Plan** is a result of a planning process and can be defined as: A statement of policies goals and objectives, and the resources, strategies and activities needed to achieve the goals and objectives.

The components of a plan are:

- *Policies*. Statements of the limits within which management actions can take place.
- *Goals*. General statements of what is hoped for or anticipated.
- *Objectives*. Measurable desired outcomes established to achieve the stated goals.
- *Strategies*. The course of actions and the allocation of resources necessary to achieve goals and objectives.

- *Activities*. Specific acts taken to implement the strategy.

- *Programmes*. The selection of goals, policies, procedures, rules, task assignments, steps to be taken, resources to be employed, and other elements necessary to carry out a given course of action including capital and operating budgets.

There are two main types of plans.

Strategic plans are developed to meet the organizations broad goals and are long term.

Tactical or operational plans show how the strategic plans will be implemented in day-to-day activities. They are short to mid-term and more narrow, focusing on “how-to”.

There are four major *differences* in the two types.

Time- Strategic plans involve years or even decades. Operational plans are much shorter, months or 1-2 years.

Scope-Strategic plans affect a wide range of organizational activities. Operational plans involve short term measurable objectives.

Complexity-Strategic plans are deceptively simple and broad. Operational plans are narrow, complex and detailed.

Independence-Strategic plans are original and stand alone. Operational plans are tied directly to strategic plans or even to parts of strategic plans.

Operational plans may be further subdivided into:

Standing Plans- (Pre-programmed) An established set of decisions used by managers to deal with recurring or organizational

activities. Standing plans are developed to be implemented as necessary. Emergency response plans are standing plans. Standard Operating Procedures (SOP's) are a part of standing plans.

Single Use Plans- (Non-programmed)

Activities that will occur only once and have details that are specific to that activity and are time and funding specific, are single use plans. A mitigation activity to build a levee might be a single use plan.

PROGRAMME

A programme is a single use plan that covers a relatively large set of organizational activities and specifies major steps, their order and timing, and responsibilities for each step. A programme is derived from the activities in a plan that have similarities and can be combined to be managed and funded. In the disaster management world some examples are:

- Shelters Programme
- Training Programme
- Public Information Programme
- Mitigation Programme
- Hazard Monitoring Programme
- Injury Reduction Programme

Programmes are the principal tools used to accomplish an organisations goals and objectives. They include those components that a manager needs to evaluate an organisations effectiveness and achievement of objectives.

PROJECT

The smallest increment of the plan implementation process is a project. A project is a group of activities within a programme that has a specific allocation of funding and a definite timetable for completion. The objectives and the product are clearly defined. Detailed construction plans, design criteria and specifications are included.

Some examples are:

- A shelter retrofit project for a specific shelter.
- The development of a specific training course.
- The preparation of a brochure on hurricanes.
- The construction of a levee.

The Manager's Guide to Planning contains details on the planning and programming process.

Following on page 3 is an example of the organisation of a National Disaster Plan and its' programmes and projects.

Page 4 is an example of how a record might be kept of a programme or project. The real record will probably be much larger in order to contain all of the information. Covering the status and problems sections with plastic so they can be updated could be useful. A computer can be used to make smaller versions and update the information periodically.

NATIONAL DISASTER PLAN

- Government Policy regarding disasters.
- Goal(s) of the National Disaster Agency(NDA).
- Objectives of the National Disaster Plan(NDP).
- Strategy for implementation of the NDP
- Activities to achieve the objectives.
- Programmes of activities.

- Preparedness Programme**
- NDA policy regarding preparedness.
 - Preparedness goals of NDA.
 - Objectives of preparedness programme.
 - Strategy of preparedness programme.
 - Preparedness activities.
 - Preparedness projects.

- Shelter Programme**
- NDA policy regarding shelters
 - Shelter goals of NDA.
 - Objectives of Shelter programme.
 - Strategy of Shelter programme.
 - Shelter activities.
 - Shelter projects.

- Mitigation programme**
- NDA policy regarding mitigation.
 - Mitigation goals of NDA.
 - Objectives of mitigation programme.
 - Strategy of mitigation programme.
 - Mitigation activities.
 - Mitigation projects.

1. Justification
2. Analysis
3. Objectives
4. Feasibility
5. Viability/sustainability
6. Coverage/scope
7. Duration
8. Phases
9. Description of activities
10. Expected results
11. Staffing
12. Relationships
13. Administration
14. Flow chart/timelines

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9. Description of activities
10. Expected results
11. Staffing
12. Relationships
13. Administration
14. Flow chart/timelines

Shelter Inspection project

- Shelter Manager project**
- NDA policy regarding shelters
 - Project goal.
 - Project objectives.
 - Shelter strategy.
 - Project activities.
 - * Recruitment
 - * Training
 - * Exercises
 - * Secure resources

Shelter Retrofit project

PROGRAMME/PROJECT RECORD										
Name: _____					Date: _____					Sheet _____
Policy	Goal	Objective	Strategy	Methodology	Action	Location	Responsibility	Status	Problems	

PLANNING AND PROGRAMMING EXAMPLE

National Cholera Eradication Plan (NECP)

Policy

Health for all for all of the citizens of Aribak

Goal

To control and eradicate Cholera.

Objectives

1. Establish a task force to prepare and implement a comprehensive cholera management programme.
2. Eliminate Cholera from the country within 3 years.

Strategies

1. Maintain epidemiological vigilance.
2. Develop and implement control measures.
3. Implement prevention measures.

Activities

1. Investigate suspected cases of Cholera.
2. Treat proven cases of Cholera.
3. Identify people in contact with Cholera cases.
4. Identify transmission sources.
5. Provide community information.
6. Improve water treatment.

Programmes

1. Microbiology and Diagnostic Laboratory
2. Medical Assistance
3. Epidemiological Vigilance
4. Environmental Sanitation
5. *Training and Information*

National Cholera Eradication Plan (NECP)

Training and Information Programme

1. Justification

The National Constitution of the Republic of Aribak “guarantees the Health of all its inhabitants”. The Ministry of Health is responsible for implementation, giving priority to the less fortunate of the population. This is why, in view of the Cholera epidemic the country is enduring, the NCEP has been prepared. The Training and Information Programme is the key to the Cholera Prevention strategy and is directed at the communities at risk.

2. Diagnosis

The Cholera epidemic is caused by a microorganism, whose host is man. It is transmitted orally through food or liquids contaminated with feces originating from infected patients. This pathogen appeared in Aribak three and one half months ago and has caused a great number of victims (500 dead and over 50,000 people infected). As would be expected, most come from the lowest socio-economic levels. This depressed group represents more than 85% of the country’s total population. Since this disease has not occurred in recent times in the country, the general population and the Health Sector lack the necessary information and training to undertake control and prevention.

3. Objectives

- Develop a Cholera Public Information Campaign, with national coverage through mass media, in order to obtain active public participation.
- Conduct training for personnel of the Health Sector and other institutions involved in Cholera management, in such a way that the epidemiological vigilance, control and prevention measures, are developed with the same criteria throughout the country.

4/5. Feasibility/Sustainability

There is a close relationship between the measures that tend to prevent and control Cholera, and the measures to prevent and control Acute Diarrhoea Disease, which allows the use of the existing infrastructure, human resources and financing available.

The programme can be carried out and comply with the proposed objectives; it is equally capable of continuing to function on its own means, in accordance with the following analysis:

Socio-cultural feasibility

The Training and Information Programme has a direct relationship with the affected population. It is conscious of the problem but requires basic conceptual tools, within the technical

context, to contribute its own solutions.

Financial feasibility

There are current funds for Primary Health Attention Programmes (PHA), which will reinforce Acute Diarrhoea disease prevention and the specific contents for Cholera prevention and control. Administrative management of the resources will be developed in accordance with PHA regulations in force.

Technical feasibility

The Training and Information Programme will be implemented with the support of the World Health Organization and the Government of the Republic of Chao Chin, using in the second phase, the Health Sector and other institutions' human resources which have been trained for this purpose.

6. Coverage

The Training and Information Programme will have national coverage (20,000,000 people) with emphasis on the coastal population, estimated at 3,000,000 people. Approximately 5,000 private and Public Health Sector officials will be involved.

7. Duration

The Cholera Eradication Training and Information Programme will last 2 years, to be extended as required.

8. Phases

The programme phases are:

- Cholera diagnosis and evolution in Aribak
- Analysis of the Cholera Information component in the country
- Evaluation of the training needs of the Health Sector and other sectors
- Project design
- Proposal presentation and study
- Approval
- Assignment of resources
- Implementation
- Development
- Completion
- Continuation
- Monitoring and feedback (evaluation)

9. Description of activities

- Workshop for Health Educators - Train all Community Health Educators on Cholera prevention and control.
- Education materials production - Produce printed material to distributed by health educa-

tors.

- Mass media campaign - Production of TV and radio spots to inform public.
(Note: Each of these activities will become a project.)

10. Expected results

- Reduction of the incidence of Cholera in the country, during the next 12 months, through the Cholera Public Information programme, with the community's active participation.
- Standardization of Cholera epidemiological vigilance, control and prevention throughout the country.

11. Responsible Personnel

- Health Investigation Institute Director - ultimately responsible
- National Epidemiology Director - responsible for operations
- Government Information Service media specialists - attached to programme
- Health Educators - supporting programme

A specific work plan shall be established for each one.

12. Relationships

The Programme has a direct relationship with the Primary Health, Basic Sanitation, and Epidemiological Vigilance Programmes. It will equally be directly related with the local public service companies (water and sewage systems).

13. Administration

The programme will be administered within the Ministry of Health. All government and Ministry policies and procedures will be adhered to. The use of any Ministry or other government resources not assigned to the programme will be approved in advance by the PS for the Ministry.

14. Flow chart

Based on the project phases, a deadline for them shall be established once the assigned resources are available.

BRIEFINGS

A briefing is an informational presentation made to an individual or a group about a plan, a programme, a problem or some action taken. Briefings need to be planned, focused and practised. A briefing should be treated like any other presentation in terms of preparation and the use of visual aids. An outline should be prepared for the presentation and practised. Briefings are usually presented to important people under time constraints.

Factors to consider

1. Who is your audience?
2. Where is the briefing taking place? Your place or theirs?
3. What is the relevance of the subject to the audience?
3. How complex is the subject?
4. How much does the audience know about the subject?
5. What does the audience really need to know?
6. What is the audience attitude about the subject?
7. What is the desired outcome of the briefing?

Basic formats for briefings

1. Informative - A presentation solely for the purpose of presenting information. No action is required or expected. Data is usually presented sequentially and may use a data-conclusion approach or a data-comparison/contrast approach.
2. Persuasive - A persuasive briefing is one in which you wish to persuade the audience to accept your recommendations or preferred alternative. The information is usually presented in the order of problem, information, alternatives, conclusion, rational.

3. Decision making - The audience is expected to make a decision based on the information presented and/or select one of several alternatives. Information is presented as in persuasive but instead of a conclusion, the presentation stops at the alternatives and the selection is left up to the audience.

Briefing outline

1. Introduction
 - State who you are and who worked on the report.
 - Tell why you are making this presentation.
 - Explain what is expected at the end of the briefing.
2. Problem or Opportunity definition and analysis.
 - A brief description of the problem or opportunity.
 - Why it is a problem or opportunity.
3. The report -this is the body of the presentation
 - Explain the process used to study the problem.
 - Include the main points or facts.
 - List options or alternatives identified and analysis.
 - Include any barriers to implementation and possible solutions.
4. Conclusion
 - The report results or recommendations and any decisions that need to be made.
5. Discussion
 - Respond to questions from the audience and if appropriate, lead the group to make a decision.

Briefing Materials

1. Make sure the material is relevant and appropriate for the audience
2. Be sure of your facts and quotes.
3. Don't overkill with too much material.
4. Watch the use of statistics. Present them in an understandable way.
5. Keep your material error free. Check the mathematics and spelling. Learn pronunciations.
6. Use credible sources and give credit.
7. Only use quality materials.
8. Try them out on a sample of your audience.

Preparing Visual Aids

Flip Charts

- Use only dark coloured pens (black, brown, blue, green & purple) for text.
- Alternate colours for separate points to increase readability.
- Use red only for highlighting or indicating something very important.
- Use only key points and limit to 10 lines per page.
- Print in block letters at least 1 1/2 inch in height.

Transparencies

- Use at least 18 point type or letters 1/4 inch for text.
- Use coloured films and pens to make interesting. Use red as with flip charts.
- Limit text to key points and 10 lines per transparency.
- Keep graphics simple.

Using Visual Aids

1. Prepare all of your materials in advance.
2. Don't talk to your visual aids. Have an assistant help with the displays.
3. Remove any visual not currently being used.
4. Watch where you and your assistant stand so that you do not block the view of the audience. Use pointers if you want to indicate specific items on a visual.
5. Give the audience time to view, read and understand what they are seeing.
6. Learn how to operate any equipment you are going to use.

ORGANISING

In order for the resources of a group or institution or organisation to function as an efficient whole, they need to be structured, or organised. That is, work needs to be arranged and allocated among members of the organisation, and a system must be developed for coordinating the activities of the various members. Thus the purpose of an organisational structure is to establish a formal system of roles that people can perform so that they may best work together to achieve the objectives of the organisation

Definition

Two or more persons who work together in a structured way to achieve a specific goal or set of goals.

There are four tangible components in any organisation:

1. Work
2. Relationships
3. Work place
4. People.

1. Work

A job can be defined as the group of tasks one person has responsibility for accomplishing.

The tasks or functions to be carried out can be inferred from the objectives of the organisation. In an organisation there may be dozens or even hundreds or thousands of individual tasks which need to be completed. Tasks will be carried out more efficiently if they are located in certain groups. These groups are called “organisational work units.” There can be any number of ways of combining a multitude of tasks into jobs. The most common way to combine tasks is by function. This means putting tasks that are related into one category and assigning an individual to carry out the tasks.

In designing jobs, the requirements of the enter-

prise have to be taken into account. But other factors must be considered in order to realise maximum benefits; they include individual differences, the technology involved, the costs associated with restructuring jobs, and the internal climate. The organisational structure must also be taken into account. Individual jobs must fit the overall structure.

In any efficient organisation, there must be job descriptions, or written expressions of the work to be carried out. A job description based on job analysis usually lists important duties, authority-responsibility, and the relationship to other positions.

Typical components of a job description are:

- General work description
- Activities
- Tasks for each activity
- Steps for each task and key tasks
- Standards for the tasks

The job description must provide a clear idea of the performance requirements for a person in a particular position but must also allow some flexibility so that the employer can take advantage of individual characteristics and abilities. (Samples on 6-6/8)

2. Relationships

A second component in an organisation is relationships, or the communication and interaction between people and their work.

Therefore, arranging employee-task, employee-employee relationships and the relation of a work unit with another work unit is of vital importance in the organisation. Difficulties with relationships are the most frequent cause for conflict in organisations.

Departmentalisation - Once tasks are combined into jobs, the jobs need to be combined into units, or departments. It is important, therefore, to group the activities which will contribute most effectively to the achievement of the organisations' objectives. A department may be the service department, the purchasing department, the accounting department, etc.

The most common way to combine jobs is by function. Under this approach, departments or units are formed by grouping together jobs on the basis of specialised activities or functions. A hospital might have departments of admitting, records, payroll, nursing, housekeeping, and staff physicians.

Tasks can also be combined by services, situations, territory or geography, or by the process utilised.

- **Services** - grouping by the services which the organisation provides.
Example: A city provides garbage collection, police protection, maintenance of roads, etc.
- **Situational** - grouping of functions created by a specific circumstance, lasting only while the situation exist.
Example: A temporary housing department.
- **Geographical** - grouping of services demanded by a particular geographical area.
Example: The Eastern Caribbean States, or the Bahamas Family Islands.
- **Process** - grouping by procedures for carrying out work.
Example: A planning department.

Structure - The organic structure is the series of relationships established to place and orient personnel in the carrying out of a task within the standards set by the institution's objectives. Organisational design establishes the formal structure of an organisation — the jobs people perform, the kinds of departments they work in, the authority relationships among them, and the number each manager supervises.

In this so-called *organic structure*, relationships may be formal, informal, or a combination of both.

Formal conduct is communication in strict adherence to the line, or "chain of command."

Formal conduct is encouraged by stimulating a sense of duty and finding satisfaction in the job. Regulations, established chain of command, and communication lines are followed. However, formal organisational conduct must be flexible. There should be room for discretion, for utilisation of creative talents, and for recognition of individual likes and capacities in the most formal of organisations. Yet individual effort in a group situation must be channelled toward group and organisation goals.

Informal conduct is defined by Keith Davis¹ as a ***"network of personal and social relationships not established or required by the formal organisation, but arising spontaneously as people associate with one another."***

Informal conduct may be found within a formal organic structure, generated by socio-cultural factors and individual preferences, dislikes and values. Informal conduct contributes to personal efficiency and satisfaction in its own and unique way. It is much easier to ask for help on an organisation problem from someone you know

personally, even if he or she may be in a different department, than from someone you know only as a name on an organisation chart. The relationships in the informal organisation can add significant energy to the formal organisation, helping it achieve its objectives. Alternatively, the informal organisation can cause conflict and stress, reducing personal and organisational effectiveness.

In designing an organisational structure, it is important to recognise that there is no single best pattern of departmentalising to use and that responsible managers must select patterns that will assist in accomplishing organisational objectives in light of the particular situation.

Unity of Command Principle

An important variable in organisational design is how many subordinates one supervisor manages. This element is called span of control, or span of management. The most effective span depends on the kind of jobs being supervised, how critical is quality control, how skilled the workers are, how autonomous the jobs are, how skilled the manager is, and how centralised is decision-making in the organisation. Over an entire organisation, the span of control determines the number of levels of management.

There are some simple and significant guidelines for determining span of control:

- No person should have more than one boss.
- Each person must know what superior he/she must answer to.
- Each boss must know who depends on him/her.

The command unit principle specifies that a continuous chain of command and communication should be instituted from the director to each person. This line can be seen as a two way

system, with communication easily flowing up as well as down the system.

During disasters, the command unit is preserved, while giving the opportunity to “skip” the formal chain, allowing subordinates to directly communicate with a colleague and outside the line when conditions so demand. This is done by previously designating the circumstances that allow the change. (pre-planned)

Types of structure

The best known and more frequently applied types of structure are Line, Line with advisory group (staff) and Functional. There is frequently confusion among managers as to what “line” and “staff” are; consequently, this is an area in management which causes difficulties and friction, as well as loss of time and effectiveness. Nevertheless, “line” and “staff” relationships are important in an organisation, and the authority relationships of members of an organisation inevitably affects the operation of the organisation.

“Line authority” is that relationship in which a superior exercises direct supervision over a subordinate. “Line” represents the primary chain of command, directly related to the organisations own functions.

The main advantage of a line structure organisation is in the simplicity of relationships. The lines of responsibility are clear and unequivocal. Responsibility and authority tend to be more precise and comprehensible, since there are no specialists that may cross the organisational lines. A second advantage resides in the speed with which the organisation may act, or make decisions. Perhaps the ultimate and more scientific or technical answer to a problem may not be obtained, but in any case it will be obtained in a relatively brief period.

The main disadvantage of line structure is its lack of ability to deal with rapid change or growth, which sometimes occurs in an organisation. At some point in that growth, speed and flexibility of response do not compensate for the lack of specialised knowledge and the expertise brought about by experience. The director, of whom everything is expected, can no longer master the complexity.

The “Staff” relationship is advisory. The function of people in a pure staff capacity is to investigate, research, and give advice to line managers.

The main advantage of a line/staff structure comes from specialised expertise. The managers’ actions may become more scientific by virtue of the more skilful and profound study of the organisations problems. In addition, the reach of his real control may be extended. Some types of staff personnel operate as an extension of the manager’s right arm and support the manager in coordination and control actions.

Disadvantages of staff management fundamentally come from the increasing number of relationships within the organisation and their complexities. If several specialists carry out part of the functions extracted from the existing chain of command, they will know more about their speciality than their own line superiors. Some way must be found to place these collaborators into the organisation without destroying the command unit.

“Functional” authority is the right that is delegated to an individual or a department to control specified processes, practices, policies, or other matters relating to activities undertaken by persons in other departments. Functional authority is the one in which it is agreed that the advisory group specialists (staff) will have the power to issue orders regarding their speciality,

while the circumstance for which it is established lasts.

If the principle of unity of command were followed without exception, authority over these activities would be exercised only by their line superiors. But numerous reasons — including a lack of special knowledge, a lack of ability to supervise processes, and the danger of diverse interpretation of policies — explain why these “functional” managers are occasionally not allowed to exercise authority.

The main advantage of functional structure is maximum use of specialisation. Here, we have advanced from the staff specialist’s advising capability to the functional specialist’s authority to actually set policy, and in some cases, to control important decisions. This can result in a consistency in actions and decisions throughout the organisation.

The primary disadvantages come from breaking the principle of responsibility to only one superior and the consequent weakening of the command unit. The main problem here is the potential for conflicts in the chain of command, as well as a tendency to maintain authority centralised in the upper levels of the organisation’s structure.

Organisation manual

An organisation manual describes authority and responsibility for each one of the functions or positions, the limits of authority and the degree of responsibility of each position.

A basic organisation manual should contain:

- A statement of the objectives of the organisation
- An organisational chart of the organisation
- Brief descriptions of the functions of the major positions

- Detailed description of organisational relationships
- A synthesis of personnel policies

3. Work place

The physical environment and general working climate in which the employees carry out their jobs.

The location of the work place, machines, desks, forms, lighting, working hours, the willingness of management to listen to subordinates, and the general spirit and attitudes of the management are some of the factors which make up the environment. All of these factors can significantly influence the results obtained in any organisation.

In recent years, two new approaches have been introduced in an attempt to improve the physical and social environment within organisations. One of the most interesting approaches is a **quality of working life (QWL)** programme. In the development of a QWL programme a labour-management committee is usually charged with finding ways of enhancing the dignity, attractiveness, and productivity of jobs. The recommendations of the committee could include such things as improved lighting, re-painting or re-decorating the workplace, re-arranging offices, or even re-organisation of the organisation structure, changes in working arrangements, and other things that might improve organisation health and productivity.

A second approach is called **job enrichment**. Job enrichment attempts to build into jobs a higher sense of challenge and achievement. Jobs may be enriched by (1) giving workers more freedom in deciding about such things as work methods and working hours; (2) encouraging participation of subordinates and interaction between workers; (3) giving workers a feeling of

personal responsibility for their tasks; (4) taking steps to make sure that workers can see how their tasks contribute to a finished product and the welfare of the enterprise; (5) giving people feedback on their job performance, preferably before their supervisors get it.

An application of job enrichment in a disaster situation would be to make certain that workers who have been working long hours in secretarial or communications tasks, in a confined building, have the opportunity to get out to the disaster sites to see how their own work has contributed to the overall effort.

4. People

Refers to the harmonious relationship between the employee's work and his/her personal characteristics and aptitudes.

People spend a great deal of time on the job, and it is therefore important to design jobs so that individuals feel good about their work. This requires an appropriate job structure in terms of content, function, and relationships. This is vitally important to the organisation.

Once the job is designed, it is critical that persons with the essential experience, capacity, conduct, and interests be assigned to the job. Most problems in job placement are due to a poor match between the demands of the job and the qualifications of the person.

EXAMPLE JOB DESCRIPTION

JOB: Medical Services Specialist

GENERAL DESCRIPTION: The Medical Services Specialist will assist all higher level personnel in the routine care and treatment of patients in hospitals, field clinics and treatment facilities.

Duties include:

1. Carry, direct and escort patients.
2. Assist in quieting and restraining patients.
3. Help serve meals.
4. Treat minor cuts and wounds.
5. Measure and record vital signs.

Partial Job Inventory

JOB TASK ANALYSIS

DUTY 5: Measure and record vital signs.

Tasks and steps in performing tasks:

Task 5.1 Measure oral temperature.

Standards:

1. Thermometer will be sterilized in 70% Ethyl alcohol for at least 5 minutes before use.
2. Thermometer will be read at or below 96.0°F before use.
3. Thermometer will be placed under tongue for at least 3 minutes before reading.
4. Thermometer will be read to within $\pm 0.2^{\circ}\text{F}$.

Conditions: Given an assigned patient, oral thermometer and 70% Ethyl alcohol.

Task 5.2 Measure rate of pulse.

Standards:

1. The 2nd and 3rd fingers will be placed over arterial points.
2. Pulse beats will be counted for at least 2 minutes.
3. Pulse will be counted to within ± 2 counts/minute.

Conditions: Given an assigned patient and a watch with a second hand.

Task 5.3 Measure rate of respiration.

Standards:

1. Inhalations will be counted for at least 2 minutes.
2. Inhalations will counted to within ± 2 counts/minute

Conditions: Given an assigned patient and a watch with a second hand.

Task 5.4 Record temperature, pulse and respiration.

Standards:

1. Temperature will be recorded exactly as read to within $\pm 0.2^{\circ}\text{F}$ of actual temperature under Column TA on TPR graphic sheet.
2. Pulse will be recorded to within ± 2 counts/minute under Column PR on TPR graphic sheet.
3. Respiration will be recorded to within ± 2 counts/minute under Column RR on TPR graphic sheet.

Conditions: Given and assigned patient, TPR Graphic sheet, watch with second hand, ink pen, clip board and temperature/pulse/respiration readings from

JOB PERFORMANCE REQUIREMENTS

DUTY 5: Measure and record vital signs.

Measure and record temperature, pulse and respiration when assigned a patient(s) and given a TPR* graphic sheet, oral thermometer, 70% alcohol, watch with a second hand, ink pen and clip board.

All measurements will be recorded immediately after reading and within the following degrees of accuracy:

Temperature:	±0.2 degrees Fahrenheit
Pulse:	±2 counts/minute
Respiration:	±2 counts/minute

* TPR = temperature, pulse & respiration.

KEY COMPONENTS:

1. Thermometer will be sterilized in 70% ethyl alcohol for a least 5 minutes before use.
2. Thermometer will be read at or below 96.0°F before use.
3. Thermometer will be placed under tongue for at least 3 minutes before reading.
4. The 2nd and 3rd fingers will be placed over distal arterial pressure points.
5. Pulse beats and inhalations will be measured separately and counted for at least 2 minutes, using a watch with second hand to calculate rate/minute.
6. Pulse beats and inhalations will be recorded as number/minute on TPR graphic sheet under Columns PR and RR with temperature recorded under Column TA. Recording will be made immediately following each measurement.

LEADING

Once a plan has been written and the organisational structure with its different functions defined, the organisation's members should work toward the achievement of goals in an orderly manner. This requires working directly with the people, fulfilling the leadership, co-ordination and motivation functions. This then, is the application of the management process phase we call leading.

Definition

Leading is integrating the efforts of individuals and groups so that once assigned, the tasks are completed, and individual, group and organisational objectives are met.

“The function of managers is influencing people so that they will contribute to organisation and group goals; it has to do predominantly with the interpersonal aspect of managing.” - Koontz

Elements of leading:

- Authority, power and influence
- Responsibility and accountability
- Leadership
- Motivation
- Decision making
- Delegation
- Communication
- Co-ordination

AUTHORITY

Henry Fayol (1841-1925) defined authority as “the power to make decisions and have them carried out.”

Regardless of how one defines authority, there are several forms of authority, or basis for authority:

- Ownership, law or position (Legitimate)- The Owner of a movable or immovable object decides how it should be used or managed. In other cases it is the law that grants the necessary authority to those who must enforce it. In some organisations, it is the official's position which provides him/her the authority to fulfil the obligations inherent in the position. The influencee accepts the right of the influencer to exert this power.
- Reward—One person having the ability to reward another person for his/her actions or behaviour.
- Coercive-One person having the ability to punish another for not meeting requirements or for his/her behaviour.
- Competence (Expert)-Based on the perception that the influencer has relevant expertise or special knowledge that the influencee does not have.
- Emergency-Power given or assumed in a situation requiring someone to have power to influence others.

RESPONSIBILITY

A second component of leading is responsibility. Responsibility can be described as “The obligation and commitment a person has of completing the tasks assigned to him or her, in the best possible way and be accountable for it.” Responsibility is inseparable from authority. Authority cannot be given without responsibility. At the same time, responsibility should not be expected unless the person has the authority to implement, or to accomplish the assignment.

LEADERSHIP

Definition

The process of directing and influencing the task-related activities of group members (and others).

Leadership is a relationship between several complex elements which we will group into three, which are considered fundamental:

The leader

The person possessing the “power” to influence the task related activities of the followers. The ability to lead effectively is one of the keys to being an effective manager.

Followers

Leadership requires that the leader relates to people, for without followers there is no leader. Followers have an important influence over the leadership style. If the group feels a great need to achieve objectives, its members tend to better accept the leader’s approach to the task, while in other cases they will be more sensitive to whether or not the leader worries about his/her subordinates’ well being.

The situation

Different situations require different type of leadership. If the group faces an emergency situation requiring rapid action, authoritarian leadership will be more appropriate. However, if the group must carry out a creative task, a “let do” (laissez-faire) attitude will yield better results. When the objective to be achieved by the group requires everyone’s participation in a quiet environment, the democratic leadership style would be best.

TYPES OF LEADERSHIP

Autocratic Based upon formal authority, the leader decides and commands. The followers faithfully obey without questioning.

Democratic The group is correctly and sufficiently informed, emphasis is made on participation, encouraging its initiative and creativity, and respecting its interests and needs. The leader is integrated into the group and only guides by sincere cooperation.

Natural This type of leadership usually arises from informal groups, in which spontaneous leaders for different purposes may evolve. Natural leaders may influence the success of particular actions, even though the group has formal leaders.

Situational Is the one in which the leadership style is adjusted to a particular situation. Leader and follower adapt to the existing situation and establish a certain degree of modification in their relationship.

Ambivalent That in which the leader’s behaviour is the primary factor. For example, depending on the case, the leader may allow the group to act with great freedom and in another apparently similar situation, adopt an authoritarian or autocratic attitude.

In order to adjust to different situations, at different organisational levels, leaders must possess abilities in three areas:

- **Technical**-Based on the competency of the person in the specific field.
- **Human relations**-The ability of the leader to motivate and integrate people into the work situation.
- **Conceptual**-The capacity of the leader to envision, to foresee, develop, and relate ideas. It is essential to making critical decisions. The higher the manager’s level in the organisation, the greater will be the demand for conceptual expertise.

In review, leadership is a complex relationship involving:

- the leader
- the followers (subordinates)
- the situation

A leader must have followers, and be capable of keeping them. For this, the following attributes are essential:

- a pleasing personality
- convincing communication skills
- a worthy cause to represent

MOTIVATION

Motivation is a general term applying to the entire class of drives, desires, needs, wishes, and similar forces.

Definition

The factors that cause, channel, and sustain an individual's behaviour.

Koontz - Human motives are based on needs, whether consciously or subconsciously felt. Some are primary needs, such as the physiological requirements for water, air, food, sleep, and shelter. Other needs may be regarded as secondary, such as self-esteem, status, affiliation with others, affection, giving, accomplishment, and self-assertion. Naturally these needs vary in intensity and over time among different individuals.

In this definition we see that motivation corresponds to a person's behaviour. It involves an interior force in human beings with great emotional content. A manager must be motivated toward the work's progress and success, to be able to motivate others. He/she should know those working for him/her, have a notion of their personal needs and desires as well as possessing the capability of understanding their behaviour. The objective consists of finding a Will To

Do, so that the work is done through satisfying the person's needs and the institution's demands.

Four major types of theories have been developed for explaining why humans are motivated.

- Needs theories propose that humans put forth effort in order to fulfil needs.
- Equity theory-argues that humans are motivated by comparing the results of their efforts with the results others obtain.
- Reinforcement theory-sees effort as a natural consequence of learning which behaviours are rewarded and which are not.
- Expectancy theory-attempts to integrate elements of the other theories. An understanding of each of these motivation theories will help leaders and managers establish the conditions which encourage employee, or follower motivation.

You are encouraged to read some of the following:

- > Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs - *Abraham Maslow, Motivation and Personality* (New York: Harper & Row, 1954).
- > McClelland's Needs theory - David C. McClelland, *The Achieving Society*, (Princeton, N.J.: Van Nostrand Company, 1961).
- > B.F. Skinner - Reinforcement theory - Fred Luthans and Robert Kreitner, *Organizational Behavior Modification and Beyond: An Operant and Social Learning Approach* (Glenview, Ill.: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1984)
- > Victor Vroom - Expectancy Theory - Victor H. Vroom, *Work and Motivation*, (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1964).

Forms of motivation

Among the most important attributes facilitating motivation are:

- **Enriching the position**-Relates to the importance of the position content. To deliberately enrich it to incorporate greater responsibility, scope of work and challenge in relation to the position holder's needs, will have a motivating effect.
- **Rotating positions**-This motivation method is gathering popularity. To periodically switch an employee from one activity to another, helps in minimising boredom and work indifference. In the job description, a mixture of tasks should be included so that the worker's development and the satisfaction of his personal needs are possible and encouraging.
- **Managing by objectives**-The practice of allowing the employee to participate not only in determining his own personal objectives, but also on the way they will be carried out, all with the superior's final approval, contributes tremendous motivating qualities. In this approach, the employee places his will at the service of results and not of activities, of forces and not mistakes, of intelligent management and not improvisation.
- **Participation**-The best way to achieve the worker's contribution to the company's objectives is to allow his participation. The person must know that his ideas help shape the decision finally made and realises that his own contribution is effective. When participation exists, the person's desire to feel important and contribute to progress is recognised by his superiors and advantageously used.

The best results become evident when the worker:

- a) is conscious of the objectives sought,
 - b) has adequate knowledge to handle the present problem and
 - c) is granted the time he needs to analyse the problem's limitations and important ramifications.
- **Recognition**-In general, people need to be accepted as members of a group and feel a desire to hold a position. People want their presence, achievements and contributions to be important. Motivation reaches its highest value when this recognition comes from those belonging to the same or similar work group. Also, the person being recognised must know why and must feel he deserves it.
 - **Growth**-The desire to develop and grow exists, in varying degrees, among all employees. These desires materialise in the need to realise their own potential and the aspiration of being promoted. A progressive director tries to satisfy these needs, by creating and maintaining a work environment where drive and growth can prosper.
 - **Execution**-The manager must ensure that the goal constitutes a challenge to the subordinate, but that it is attainable. The task must make sense and be valuable in the eyes of the person, who must be evaluated immediately after his work is done. The emphasis placed on execution should be effective in satisfying needs such as the desire to carry out an interesting task and that this work is useful.
 - **Responsibility**-When responsibility is not specifically determined, many individuals will let others do the work, thinking it is not their responsibility. Every worker needs to

clearly know his obligations. This will help him do the job he knows he must do. The persons desire to be assigned specific tasks and to be judged by his compliance, is a clear example of motivation accomplished through the adequate use of responsibility.

- Pay-All tasks should be fairly rewarded. Money, in addition to allowing the recipient to satisfy needs, is an important motivation element.

DECISION MAKING

Refer to the Pre-work material and Work Group Meetings Reference Material for discussions on decision making.

Alternative selection

Harold Koontz provides some excellent advice on the selection of alternatives:

When selecting among alternatives, managers can use three basic approaches: (1) experience, (2) experimentation, and (3) research & analysis.

- Experience-Reliance on past experience probably plays a larger part than it deserves in decision making. Experienced managers usually believe, often without realising it, that the things they have successfully accomplished and the mistakes they have made furnish almost infallible guides to the future. This attitude is likely to be more pronounced the more experience a manager has had and the higher in an organisation he or she has risen.
- Experimentation-An obvious way to decide among alternatives is to try one of them and see what happens.
- Research and Analysis-One of the most effective techniques for selecting from alternatives when major decisions are involved is research and analysis. This approach means solving a problem by first compre-

hending it. It thus involves a search for relationships among the more critical of the variables, constraints, and premises that bear upon the goal sought.

Implementing a course of action

Once the solution is selected, it needs to be implemented. Execution will include:

- Detailed programming with precise indication of necessary resources, flow chart and goals to be reached.
- Communication to all people involved directly or indirectly.
- Motivation of the operators to insure a favourable attitude toward the selected course of action.
- Direction, supervision, control and evaluation.
- During evaluation, the results obtained will be compared to the expectations, mainly to acquire experience allowing better future decisions.

Important clarifications

- Indecision-Paralysis of the decision making process. There is only perception of the problem and no advance in the process.
- Affirmative decision-When a particular course of action is selected.
- Negative decision-When the alternative of waiting without acting is selected.

Chester I. Barnard (Harvard University), when asked about the importance of not deciding, said: "*The beautiful art of directive decision making consists in NOT deciding issues that are not pertinent at that moment, in NOT deciding prematurely, in NOT making decisions which cannot be implemented and in NOT making those which should be made by others.*"

DELEGATION

In any organisation, regardless of how small it may be, it is difficult for the manager to personally carry out all tasks. This necessitates the delegation of authority to another person to perform specific tasks. Thus delegation is the assignment of a manager's own functions to another person with the necessary authority. The delegate has the power of deciding on aspects related to the specific task and assumes the corresponding responsibility. However, the delegating manager reserves for himself/herself the authority and final responsibility for the area. Some managers refuse to delegate; indeed, they try to do everything themselves, thus debilitating the organisation.

Requirements for delegating:

Admitting the need. The manager must believe that delegating is necessary in order to accomplish the task, or necessary in order to multiply his/her efforts, or that it will help the overall group effort. The manager must also recognise that delegating will benefit his/her subordinates and empower them to contribute their best.

Deciding what type of decision to delegate Not all authority can be delegated. The manager must decide what type of decisions can be made by the subordinate. It is advisable that the manager prepare a list so that decisions to be delegated are previously determined. This ties delegation with planning and makes delegation a part of the overall management strategy.

Careful selection of the delegate. The task should be given to the appropriate person, someone considered capable of succeeding. Consideration should also be made for giving the opportunity to those people who are not using their full potential. When a delegate, or follower, has reached the highest level of "task

readiness," delegation is most appropriate. Achieving this high level of task readiness implies that the follower has both the ability to complete the tasks at a high degree of expertise, and also has the internal motivation.

Helping the delegate It is important to help the delegate, without telling the person what to decide and how to actually implement the assignment. As a general rule, if the person asks for help, they should be given help, but providing answers denies the benefits of delegation. Thus, the delegator must personally be available, stimulate and formulate questions destined to discover and explore the possible solutions to the problem.

Establishing a delegation control system The delegator needs to be kept informed, in order to know what is happening and to be in a position to apply corrective measures should they be necessary. The most logical system would be periodic written reports, or meetings with the delegate.

COMMUNICATION

Chester Barnard viewed communication as *the means by which people are linked together in an organisation to achieve a common purpose*. This is still the fundamental function of communication. Indeed, group activity is impossible without communication, because co-ordination and change cannot be imposed.

Communication is a medium essential to management. Every manager/leader should work to develop and perfect the capacity to communicate. This will insure that his/her instructions are being correctly understood and followed.

Effective communication is two way

For communication to exist, there must be at least two persons. If one speaks, the other

hears; if one writes, the other reads. However, the fact that someone has heard or read a message and acknowledged receipt of it, does not mean effective communication has occurred. Communicating is more than speaking or writing, it also includes understanding. Communication is basically made to influence behaviour. This behaviour will be ruled by the interpretation of the message by the recipient. Therefore we can say that: The recipient's perceptions, and not the issuer's intentions, rule what is understood. We are now in a position to integrate these principles into a definition.

Definition

Communication is the transfer of information from one person to another, with the information being understood by the receiver.

Forms of communication:

- According to the direction
 - ascending
 - descending
 - horizontal
- According to rules
 - formal
 - informal
- According to signs
 - verbal
 - non verbal: graphic and corporal

Up to this point, we have discussed the components of leading, without mentioning a fundamental activity, co-ordinating.

CO-ORDINATION

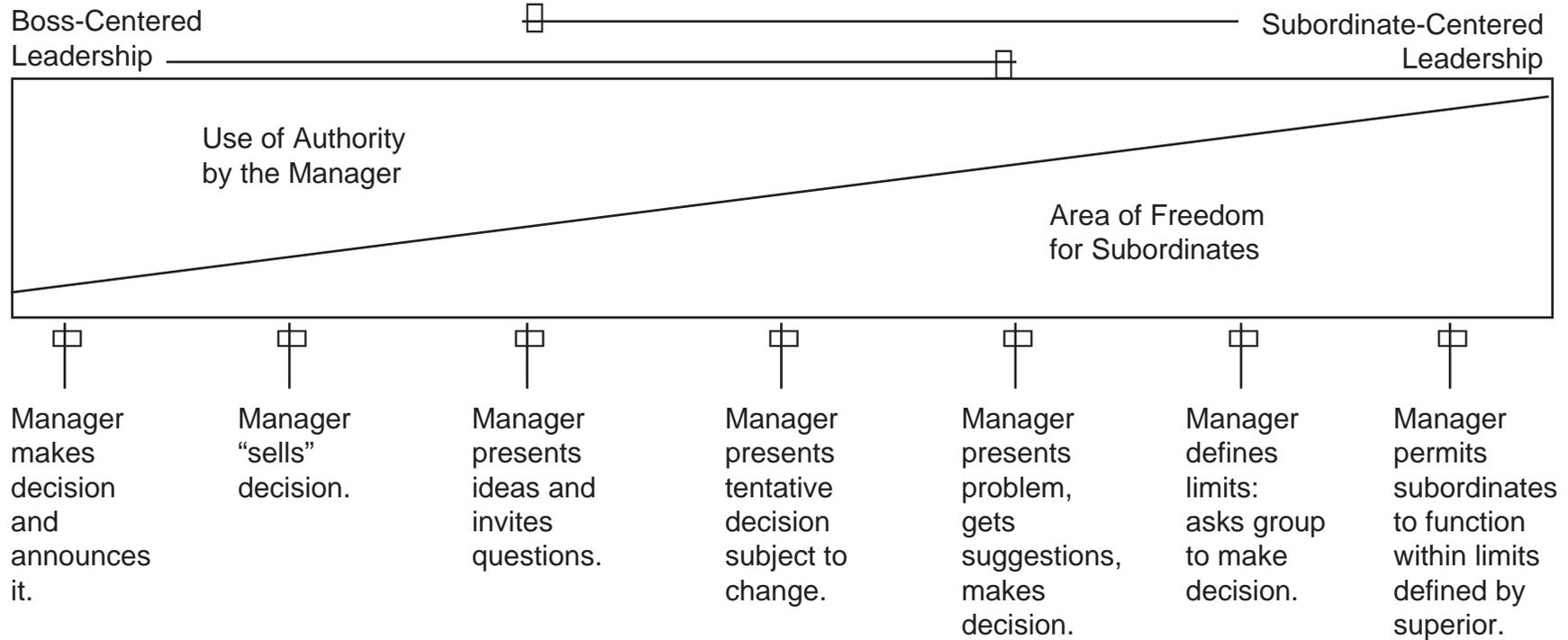
Definition

Co-ordination is the process of integrating the objectives and activities of separate work units or functional areas in order to realise the organisation's goals effectively.

Co-ordination is the synchronisation of individual efforts with respect to their magnitude, timing and direction, so as to accomplish unified action toward the objective.

Some authors consider co-ordination to be a separate function of the manager. It seems more accurate, however, to regard it as the essence of leadership, for achieving harmony among individual efforts toward the accomplishment of group goals. Thus co-ordinating requires all of the attributes we have been describing throughout this unit, such as authority, responsibility, leadership, motivation, and the ability to communicate effectively.

Continuum of Leadership Behaviour



CONTROLLING

Definition

The comparison of the actual performance of a management process with pre-established standards, the detection and measurement of deviations, and applying necessary corrective actions.

Basic Control steps

1. *Establish criteria/standards*.and methods for measuring performance results. This step must be completed in the planning phase.
Example: Criteria: Cost, time, quality, quantity. Methods: monitoring, supervision, final evaluation.
2. *Measure performance*. An on-going process with the actual frequency of measurement being dependent on the type of activity and control process.
3. *Compare actual results with planned objectives*. Do they meet the standards. What is the deviation?
4. *Take corrective action*. Apply when performance is not up to previously established standards. Actions may be, among others:
 - Modifying the activities so the results are those desired in the plan.
 - Modifying the quantity and/or quality of the necessary resources to accomplish the performance.
 - Re-evaluating control measures to ensure they are adequate for the plan and its objectives.
 - Revising, or in some cases, reconsidering the whole plan.

Aspects most frequently subject to control:

- Comparison of results expected and obtained.
- Methods or strategies used to accomplish expected results.
- Feasibility of achieving the objectives through the goals reached.
- Plan of action and need to correct any of its stages.

Instruments

Those tools that we say must be specified in the planning phase are basically composed of:

- Quantified flow chart
(Example: Gantt Bar Diagram)
- Budgets
- Programme/project objectives

- Quantified flow charts

A project's activities may be graphically presented in the form of tables, graphs and/or a series of diagrams. This graphic presentation is a useful way of visualising the relationship between activities and the time required to complete them. Drawing the diagrams may be an operation done by a manager and subordinates, giving a greater benefit, since participation of the personnel increases the diagram's precision and viability, as well as the personnel's dedication to the plan of action. Examples are PERT charts and Gantt charts. One of the most popular techniques used in project planning, scheduling, report and control is the flow chart.

- **Budgets**

A financial resource statement of funds reserved for certain activities in a given period of time. They are, above all, a means to control an institution's activities. A well planned budget harmonizes the organisation's strategy with its structure, its members and the tasks to be carried out.

- **Programme/project objectives**

Comparing results with desired outcomes is a direct indication of the level of success. Did you meet your objectives?

Types of control

Pre-action

Steering

Yes/No screening

Post-action

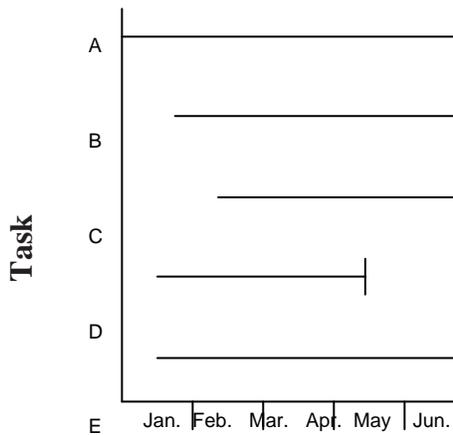
1. Pre-action control is exercised through planning and allocation of resources to be used in the operation. Human resources must cover the work requirements; materials should satisfy the accepted quality levels and be available at the appropriate time and place. The equipment must be within arm's reach when needed and the financial resources available in the adequate amounts and times.

2. Steering control, also known as feedforward control, is designed to detect deviations from some standard or goal and to allow corrections to be made before a particular sequence of actions is completed. Steering controls are effective only if the manager can obtain timely and accurate information.

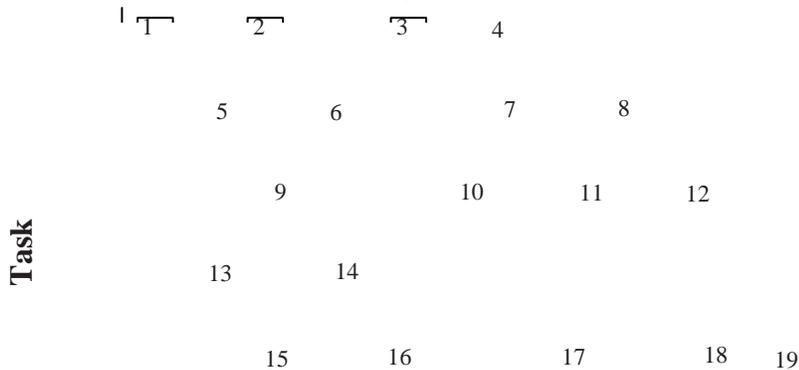
3. Yes/No or Go-No Go controls provide a screening process in which specific aspects of an activity must be approved or conditions met before continuing. A project requiring a series of approvals as steps are completed would have such controls.

4. Post-action/final/end-of-project control measures the results of a completed action and gives feed-back. The causes of any deviations from the plan or standard are determined and the information applied to similar future activities. Post-action results are also used as a basis for rewards.

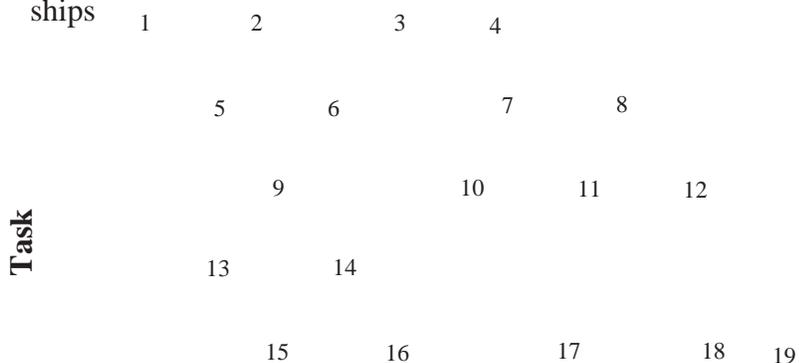
1. Gantt chart



2. Gantt chart with reference points



3. Gantt chart with points of reference and relationships



Transition of a Gantt chart to PERT. The Gantt chart shows in part 1 the time programmed for completing a task, such as purchasing (Task A) and the programs related to carrying out other tasks, such as fabrication of parts (Task B). When each one of these tasks is divided into points of reference, such as the preparation of purchasing specifications (Task A-1) and after determination of the networks relationships between each task's points of reference and those of other tasks, the results obtained are the basic elements of a PERT chart.

ATTITUDES AND PERSONAL QUALITIES OF THE RISK MANAGER

1. The ability to inspire and motivate

To be able to lead a reluctant, community concerned with short-term issues, towards a more responsible longer-term desire to reduce losses from impacts, emergencies and disasters.

To be able to mould a team which may be suffering from shock, exhaustion, fear or depression, into an effective work force, the Risk Manager must be able to inspire and motivate. Similarly, he/she must be able to inspire hope in disaster victims, and confidence in the programmes he/she develops.

2. The ability to generate faith and confidence

To be able to put your confidence in some other person or agency, to enable delegation to occur without endless meddling or crosschecking to verify that it is being carried out.

Whether in response operations or in mitigation, the Risk Manager must be able to place confidence in another person or Agency, or must be able to delegate responsibilities to others, without constant meddling, or cross checking to verify that the tasks are being carried out.

It is important that the Risk Manager recognise actions which have been well executed, and to recognise work well done. Moreover, this will benefit the whole group, and increase motivation.

To accept different ways of working or different solutions to those you would have expected. To develop a sense of judgment of

personal character to know who to trust to do what and with what level of responsibility.

3. Kindness, respect and compassion

To be able to treat others with respect, care and concern. To practise the gentle art of tolerance by understanding the pressures and weaknesses of others and by avoiding destructive criticism of another person or agency.

To have time to respect another person's position even if it is very different to your own. To recognise you may be wrong, and if you are proved to be wrong to be able to apologise and, if necessary, to publicly admit to your error of judgment.

4. Impartiality

To have a deep concern for justice for nations, communities and individuals.

Avoiding any action that rewards friends and supporters at the expense of those who criticise or cause trouble.

5. Integrity, honesty and dependability

To be scrupulously honest in dealing with resources - money, material and people.

To avoid any of your staff needing to supplement their income by taking bribes, it is essential to check whether they are paid an adequate wage for their jobs - even if this is above the prevailing market rate - thus not requiring them to be dishonest.

Integrity is the basis of all scopes of management functions, tasks and procedures. Integrity is the bedrock of a whole range of management roles, tasks and procedures. For ex-

ample, the basic reasons why managers introduce monitoring or evaluations is due to a concern to manage resources effectively.

A manager without such ethical standards would never bother with such tiresome distractions that at best will rock the boat and create further work, and at worst reflect badly on the operating team.

6. Responsibility and accountability

Accepts the need to 'give account' for his or her actions to those to whom they are responsible.

Managers will also see the need to make everyone in their organisation accountable to someone else so that there are no free agents acting in a situation of independence which can deteriorate all too rapidly into anarchy.

7. Courage, confidence and persistence

The ability to make good, clear, but at times unpopular decisions and stick by them despite the barrage of subsequent criticism.

One should not fall into the excessive confidence of stubbornness.

8. Adaptability and flexibility

To be able to recognise that the chosen course of action has to be modified in the light of new conditions/situations.

This can pose serious problems to many highly organised managers who wish to appear resolute - sticking to a course of action with stubborn commitment. Such individuals tend to regard a flexible approach as a symptom of weakness.

9. Creativity and imagination

To be able to see recurrent issues and old problems in new ways, and then to be capable of unexpected solutions that replace well-worn stereotype answers. To continually challenge accepted reasoning and conventional wisdom.

Creativity is often displayed by looking at a problem from a different angle. Creativity only occurs when there is genuine trust between members of an organisation. This is due to the inhibiting effect of fear in taking risks; this ability to take risks is frequently the result of creative decision making.

10. Patience and serenity in a crisis

To be able to remain calm, stable, to act methodically within a turbulent and highly chaotic disaster situation.

Five ways to maintain patience and calmness in a crisis:

- Follow a plan and don't dispense with normal management techniques.

A major comfort for officials working in a major emergency will be to work within a preparedness plan, and to know their role within the plan. It will be even better if they have rehearsed the plan through simulation exercises or drills.

'Preparedness builds confidence - unpreparedness causes stress.'

As you follow the preparedness plan, don't suspend the sequence of normal administration/management process — break tasks down into manageable elements:

- gathering information
- weighing the possible courses of action
- discussion with those whose ideas you trust
- making clear-cut decisions
- obtain feedback on the effect of the decisions.

To summarise:

Follow your plan (but not in a slavish manner) and be highly methodical, thinking out actions carefully and putting them into priority order, constantly reviewing progress, and making changes as necessary to the plan.

- Delegate and work with others

While some staff are:

- meeting the needs of victims

Others need to be:

- gathering information on needs and resources

While others will be:

- revising the disaster preparedness plan in the light of their new experience

And others need to be:

- managing events in the light of this plan.

If this type of delegated structure exists, the stress of overwork, and over commitment will be reduced by a clearer definition of roles.

To summarise:

Rarely act alone and seek regular advice, teamwork can be mutually supportive in times of crisis where stress can slow some individual down to a standstill as they contemplate a vast, unprecedented task, where

there are distressing human elements present.

- Avoid distractions from all sectors

Special measures must be adopted to prevent the senior management teams from being distracted from their tasks by non-essential tasks such as intrusion of the press, taking VIP's or political candidates to visit the affected area, etc. Such tasks can normally be delegated. In addition it is vital for HQ staff to avoid distracting their own key field staff in this crisis.

It is worth noting that while compassion is a vital quality in a risk or disaster manager, close contact with those in acute need can make an effective manager/leader into a less useful person at a critical time. Therefore, trained social workers/medical staff/counselors, are better able to tackle these cases.

- Cut Bureaucracy

Certain time-consuming management techniques will need to be suspended in a crisis such as:

- writing memos to colleagues (talk to them, it is faster)
- cash accounting - to provide staff who are in the field needing to spend small sums a block figure so that they can avoid calculating petrol/meal costs, etc.

The aim will be to cut bureaucracy to its absolute minimum and these cuts can all be practised in simulations and built into a preparedness plan.

- Guard your health, cover your weaknesses, and practice patience

Be particularly careful to avoid “Disaster Heroism” (i.e. 80-90 hour weeks, missed meals, no relaxation, no contact with your own family - as your ‘coping mechanism’) **DON’T JOIN THE VICTIMS!**

Know your skills, and also understand your weaknesses (husbands, wives, children and colleagues can normally be counted on to provide this information!) Make absolutely certain your weaknesses are covered by others by effective delegation.

When all those around you who are in ‘flat spins’ support and encourage them, and where necessary relieve them of pressure until they are operational.

11. Personal health care

Be able to link a concern for the health and welfare of disaster victims/refugees with the maintenance of your own health.

Be concerned for your own physical and mental health and that of your staff, particularly during stressful emergency conditions by means of:

- careful management of time
- healthy diet
- moderate alcohol intake
- avoidance (or reduction) of smoking
- regular exercise
- regular sleep patterns
- avoidance of overwork
- time for relaxation
- time with family

12. A Sense of humour

The sense of humour is perhaps unique in all the thirteen attitudes in these guidelines in that

if used wisely has the capacity to be a positive contribution to a very difficult situation but conversely when used insensitively it has limitless powers of destruction.

On the positive side humour can help an individual to recognise the funny side of a situation - however desperate or stressful. Humour can lighten tough burdens, weld dispirited people together and release pent-up nervous tension, and when used wisely (and often instinctively) it can help people to avoid bureaucratic cant and hypocrisy.

The negative potential of misplaced humour is the devil's own weapon in trivialising an important situation causing additional distress to people who are suffering and by laughing at someone's expense causing discomfort and even pain. The person to beware of is the resident comedian (or less frequently comedienne) with their tiresome ‘laugh a minute.’

13. Openness, Teachability and Humility

Avoid the chic-sophistication that comes from world-weary specialists who have ceased to listen in their over-riding concern to communicate their superior wisdom and knowledge.

Open people have sufficient confidence in themselves to be prepared to appear weak, ignorant or even foolish in asking for help. They will want to learn in all situations, be open to new knowledge, insights and fresh ideas. They may not enjoy criticism but they may even invite it, accept it and seek to apply it to their ways of working or relating to others. Openness implies accessibility to others who may have needs you can fill or skills, knowledge and insights you may lack.

Open people are direct in their dealings with others. They will avoid indirect criticism of poor performance by telling A about the weakness of B, in the expectation or desire for A to then pass on the criticism to B. Rather to be open with people telling them directly and privately of any criticism, and expecting them to do the same in return.

Teachable people have enquiring minds that will grasp the new challenge despite the inherent risks. They will be always seeking opportunities to learn from contact with others, by reading writing and study courses. And, they will want to encourage such learning processes in others they work with. Teachable managers will by definition be wanting to promote staff development programmes.

Humble people possess one of the rarest of human qualities, to be more concerned for others to grow and shine than themselves. They delight in working for the common good of others and other groups and they guard assiduously against the waste, vanity and self-interest of competition that aims to elevate themselves or their department or agency over others.

It is clear that it will be extremely difficult, if not impossible, to find someone having absolutely all these characteristics. However, people will be found possessing some of them. Therefore, it is convenient to look for these qualities when incorporating personnel and attributing the weight they have ahead of diplomas, grades, experience and others. When forming teams, gather those who will complement in such a way the group will be the one displaying said attitudes. The manager should consciously cultivate these qualities in his daily work and will be in charge of demonstrating

his appreciation for them, when observing them in his team's members. Work meetings, as well as training activities, should include discussion on qualities, attitudes and values.