MLPS&HRD

Building Honest and Effective Public Services for the People of Southern Sudan

Public Service Master Curriculum

In partnership with

CONTENTS

GLOSSARY

AIE	Authority to Incur Expenditure
CBU	Capacity Building Unit
CCSS	Coordinating Council of Southern Sudan
CPA (1)	Comprehensive Peace Agreement
CPA (2)	Critical Path Analysis
CPM	Critical Path Method
DFID	UK's Department for International Development
DG	Director General
EAP	Employee Assistance Programme
GONU	Government of National Unity
GOSS	Government of Southern Sudan
HR	Human Resources
HRM	Human Resource Management
IT	Information Technology
M & E	Monitoring and Evaluation
MLPS&HRD	Ministry of Labour, Public Service and Human Resource Development
PERT	Project Evaluation and Research Techniques
SEADGOSS	Support to Effective Administrative and Democratic Governance in Southern Sudan
SMART	Specific, Measurable, Attainable, Realistic and Time-bound
SPLA	Sudan People's Liberation Army
SPLM	Sudan People's Liberation Movement
SWOT	Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats
TOT	Training of Trainers

Components of the Master Curriculum

The Master Curriculum comprises eight areas (e.g. 1. Orientation to Public Service). Each of these areas is divided into a number of topics (e.g. 1.1 Government Overview) which are defined at three levels of detail:

- A *description* of the topic (normally a single paragraph)
- An *overview* giving the headlines of what is covered in the topic
- An *expansion* of the overview which consists of detailed information

Descriptions are given in Section D while *overviews* and *expansions* are in the Appendices: there is a separate Appendix for each area.

FOREWORD

It gives me great pleasure to write this foreword on this unique document, the Master Curriculum for the training of public service employees in Southern Sudan. I call it Unique because it is the first of its kind to be developed in Southern Sudan in terms of scope of coverage, comprehensiveness and depth of content analysis.

This Master Curriculum addresses the training needs of all the cadres of employees in the public Service in Southern Sudan in terms of their general and professional knowledge requirements necessary for them to perform effectively as Public Servants. Whereas it does not aim at making them professionals in the various curricula areas, the Curriculum however, aims at giving them a general appreciation of those technical fields that impact on their work. There are therefore, units that address the needs of Senior Management Staff, Middle level Management Staff and even the Junior Staff.

It is my hope and belief that after undergoing training through this curriculum, the Public Servant will become a high performer in his or her work. This will not only be in terms of work output itself, but also in terms of attitude towards work. The positive attitude towards work plus the increased efficiency should translate to a committed, loyal and focused work force.

The curriculum should have a major positive impact on the overall delivery of services to the people by the Public Servants. This will in the final analysis translate into faster development of our great nation, the southern Sudan. It will also be a great boost to the morale of the employees, whose knowledge and skills will be greatly enhanced when they are taken through this Curriculum. In additional, such learning will form the basis for their further training in more specialized fields, depending on their specific aptitudes and preferences.

As the Master Curriculum, this curriculum will be available for use by other training providers in Southern Sudan. It is hoped that it will guide training provided to public servants in Southern Sudan by the various organizations and agencies as much as possible. However, we as a Ministry are cognizant of the fact that the curriculum may not be perfect. We therefore do welcome any suggestions that may lead to its further improvement. Such suggestions can be forwarded to the Capacity Building Unit (CBU) of the ministry of Labour Public Service and Human Resource Development (MLPS & HRD), or to Skills for Southern Sudan.

Let me take this opportunity to give thanks and appreciation to all those institutions and individuals who have worked so hard to make this a reality. Thanks and appreciation to H.E General Salva Kiir Mayardit, the President of Government of Southern Sudan who provided visionary leadership in that Southern Sudan needs a competent, loyal and committed workforce. Also, I would like to mention DFID for availing the funding necessary to carry out the project. The close associate of DFID, that is Skills for Southern Sudan, need a special mention for overseeing the successful completion of the task. Let me pay special tribute to the Director of Skills, Mrs. Eunice N. Kamau, for her tireless efforts in steering the process, and her broad vision in conceptualizing the whole project. I would also like to give my appreciation to the staff of the MLPS &HRD, and specially the Capacity Building Unit for their immense contributions. The Ministry of Education, Science and Technology as well as the Civil Services Commission also needs to be appreciated for having availed their staff to provide specialized information to the team that developed the Master Curriculum. Finally, I would like to recognize in a special way the contributions of all those consultants from Sudan, Britain and Kenya who selflessly gave their expertise in terms of curriculum development, and subject content to make this curriculum the success that it is.

I therefore, heartily endorse this Master Curriculum for the use of Public Servants in their training and development, and look forward to the positive benefit it will bring to the Public Service and to those who serve the people of Southern Sudan. To all of you, I say Thank you.

H.E Awut Deng Acuil

Minister
Ministry of Labour, Public Service and Human Resource Development,
Government of Southern Sudan

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The Ministry of Labour, Public Service and Human Recourse Development (MLPS&HRD) wishes to acknowledge with gratitude the numerous people and organisations, named below, who in one way or other played a role in ensuring the successful development of the Master Curriculum.

The First Draft Curriculum was prepared via funds from the DFID to Skills for Southern Sudan (Skills). The curriculum builds on previous work of capacity building training in 2006/7 conducted jointly by MLPS&HRD in partnership with Skills, and also the feedback received through the Monitoring and Evaluation (M & E) Study conducted jointly by MLPS&HRD and Skills in July and August of 2007. The M & E Study was also funded through the DFID.

Members of the team who worked to prepare the First Draft Curriculum included the following:

- Mr James Tipo, Director General, Capacity Building Unit, Southern Sudan.
- Dr Ken Ideus, Project Leader, United Kingdom.
- Professor Andrew Malek, Moi University, Kenya.
- Mr George Kangethe, Civil Service Consultant, Kenya.
- Mr Patrick Wairu, Curriculum Consultant, Kenya.
- Mr Peter Curran, Consultant and Training Specialist, United Kingdom.
- Ms Mirella Ibwaha, Senior Inspector, Capacity Building Unit, Southern Sudan.
- Mr Peter Amoko, Inspector, Capacity Building Unit, Southern Sudan.
- Mrs Emelia Luka, Staff, Skills, Southern Sudan.

The Second Draft Curriculum which contains the expanded detail of each curriculum area, was prepared by the following team at the Curriculum Development Workshop held at Jumuia Conference Centre, Limuru, Kenya, 7-18th July 2008:

- Mr Elisapa Gineba Kaja, Commissioner of Civil Service Commission, Juba, Southern Sudan.
- Mr Omot Okony Olok, Director Curriculum Development, Ministry of Education Science and Technology, Juba, Southern Sudan.
- Mr Peter Amoko Moses, Inspector, CBU, MLPSHRD, Juba, Southern Sudan.
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- Mr Patrick Wairu, Curriculum Consultant, Nairobi, Kenya.
- Mr Peter Curran, Consultant and Training Specialist, United Kingdom.
- Mrs Emelia Luka, Programme Assistant, Skills for Southern Sudan, Juba, Southern Sudan.

The Third Draft included minor amendments and additions derived from the Stakeholders' Workshop of August 2008, and subsequent work by the Curriculum Development Team during September and October of 2008. This Fourth Draft contained further additions made in December 2008, before publication of this Master Curriculum.

Dr. Mark Zangabeyo Jerome

Under Secretary
Ministry of Labour, Public Service and Human Resource, GOSS

Public Services Master Curriculum
Government of Southern Sudan

Structure of this Document

The document begins with a rationale for a comprehensive Master Curriculum followed by a set of Principles to guide its development and implementation. Following this is an outline of the Master Curriculum by area and sub area. Areas represent clusters of topics that have been grouped for development delivery purposes. Each curriculum area has been expanded in further detail, provided in the appendices.

A. Why a comprehensive Master Curriculum?

As the Government of Southern Sudan develops and evolves into a full government structure, its systems and supports need to evolve as well. In some cases, those support systems need to evolve faster to be able to provide enabling services to that evolution.

Training to date has been provided on a responsive basis, based on immediate and identified needs. While this is necessary, it does not in and of itself, proactively address the broader needs of a developing government Public Service structure in a sustainable fashion. An M & E study carried out in 2007 found this wanting, especially when interviewing those looking ahead at a more mature Public Service structure.

A comprehensive Master Curriculum will enable advanced planning within States and Ministries for the developing staff in the Public Services from Messengers and Cleaners through to Undersecretaries. It also provides a framework for sustained, systematic and progressive development of Government staff and functions. It will provide a sound basis for creating a Civil Service Institute at some point in the future and getting university accreditation.

B. Principles Guiding the Master Curriculum and its Delivery

- The Master Curriculum and those who deliver it form a Public Services Training Delivery Framework for Southern Sudan, evolving into an Institute that covers the development of Public Service Staff from Support staff up through Undersecretaries. The result of this effort is a set of curricula for forming and operating quality public services.

- While the current programme is focused on training, new curricula would include training as part of an integrated set of methodologies such as attachments, secondments, exchanges, e-learning or acquiring professional/academic qualifications.

- The “Framework” would incorporate a developmental perspective, taking into account the degree of experience and level of responsibility assumed for recipients of a given curriculum area. For example a leadership curriculum should address the various levels of Inspector, Director, Director General and Undersecretaries. It would aim to develop professionalism within each functional area with clear development pathways and career progression.

- Training is more than the imparting of skill but should be part of building relationships and networks both across government, i.e. between States and vertically between GOSS and the States.

- The institute should be involved with induction and orientation of new Public Service staff regardless of level and should have processes in place appropriate to the various levels.

- Training-staff development would include and go beyond the Training of Trainers (TOT) process. In other words, some courses would be facilitated by experienced persons who know and can coach/mentor others in what is being taught.

- A number of topics should be offered at different levels for example to provide for basic, intermediate and advanced learning in different topics.

- Given the prevailing circumstances each curriculum should be dynamic enough to provide accelerated development in key capacity gap areas as they are identified. Therefore the Master Curriculum requires systematic, periodic review to ensure that it embraces change and remains relevant.

- Programmes within the Master Curriculum should be integrated and consistent, building on an overall framework of learning and content. This would necessitate the formation of professional bodies within each functional area to oversee training in those areas.

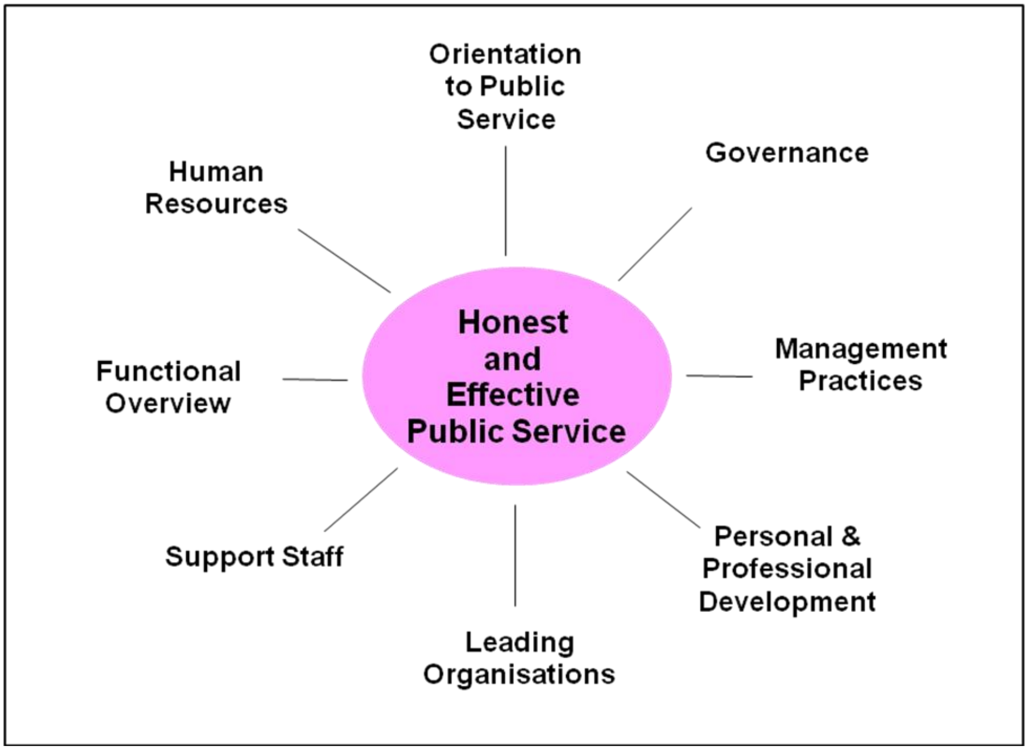
- Programmes, wherever possible should include a work experience, on interim between two or more formal or group sessions. This could be in the form of study tours, industrial attachments, etc.

- Completing certain Master Curriculum areas successfully, would ideally lead to credit with a recognised academic institution in the region to allow for further formal training for those who choose to do so. This would be accompanied by the issuance of certificates of achievement in Public Service Provision, Management and/or Leadership Development, which should be recognised for the basis for career progression.

- The Master Curriculum aims to give clear guidance on how staff should discharge their duties professionally, ethically and in full respect of the human rights of the people they serve and interact with.

C. Structure of the Master Curriculum

The structure is designed to address the developing needs of the Public Service employee from initial orientation through key functions, ongoing personal development, and on through the higher levels of leadership and governance.



As illustrated above, the Master Curriculum Framework comprises eight areas:

1. Orientation to Public Service – what it means to work in Public Service.
2. Governance – so that managers and staff understand the importance of good governance and how to promote it.
3. Management Practices – knowing what being a manager is all about.
4. Personal and Professional Development – the skills to progress professionally and personally.
5. Leading organisations – the skills and knowledge for strategic leadership.
6. Support staff – the roles and duties of support staff.

7. Functional Overview – understanding the different functions that managers have to deal with (e.g. procurement, human resources, legal, accounts, Information Technology, etc).

8. Human Resources – understanding good people management practices.

D. Topics in the Master Curriculum

The topics within each area of the Master Curriculum are listed on the tables below, together with target audiences and duration of each of the associated training courses. Where topics are suitable for staff at a number of levels, these courses would be delivered separately for each level (e.g. Director Generals and Directors, Administrative and Professional, etc). The following descriptions have been used on the table below:

Senior managers: all Super Grades (1-6) including Secretary Generals, Under Secretaries, Director Generals, Directors, Deputy Directors, Chief and Assistant Chief Technical Officers.

Middle managers: all Administrative and Professional staff (grades 7-9) including Senior Inspectors/Officers, Inspectors/Technical Officers, Assistant Inspectors/ Officers and Graduate entrants.

Support staff: Sub-professional & Technical including Secretaries (grades 10-14), Unclassified Skilled (grades 11-15), & Unclassified Unskilled (grades 16-17).

List of topics with target audience and duration

Area	Topic	Title (abbreviated)	Time (days)	Target audience
1. Orientation to Public Service	1.1	Government Overview	2	Suitable for staff at all grades. Particularly important for staff new to the Public Service.
	1.2	Ministries, Key Departments and Roles	1	
	1.3	Processes and Procedures in the Public Service	1	
	1.4	Role of a Public Servant	2	
2. Governance	2.1	Good Governance Practice	1	Primarily aimed at senior & middle managers but also suitable for staff at other grades, particularly Topics 2.1, 2.2 and 2.8.
	2.2	Ethics and Regulations	2	
	2.3	Formulating and Setting Policy	1	
	2.4	Governing Bodies	1	
	2.5	Governance Structure S. Sudan	1	
	2.6	Setting Direction and Strategy	1	
	2.7	Basics of Operating Models	1 (2)	
	2.8	Diversity Management	1	

(2) Denotes a course can be extended up to this duration for more skills practice**.**

List of topics with target audience and duration (continued)

Area	Topic	Title (abbreviated)	Time (days)	Target audience
3. Management Practices	3.1	Management Practices Overview	2	Aimed at senior & middle managers.
	3.2	Role of a Manager	3	
	3.3	Planning	2	
	3.4	Organising	1	
	3.5	Controlling	1	
	3.6	Directing-Leading	2	
	3.7	Managing Change	1	
	3.8	Records Management	2	
4. Personal & Professional Development	4.1	Interpersonal Skills	1	Aimed at senior and middle managers. Also suitable for some Sub-Professional & Technical staff.
	4.2	Making Clear Presentations	2	
	4.3	Effective Meetings	1 (2)	
	4.4	Communicating Electronically	1	
	4.5	Personal Styles & Preferences	1 (2)	
	4.6	Problem Solving Methods	2	
	4.7	Communication Skills	1	
	4.8	Managing Interpersonal Conflict	1 (2)	
	4.9	Decision Processes	1	
	4.10	Influencing Skills	1 (2)	
	4.11	Coaching and Counselling	2	
	4.12	Managing Small Projects	2	
	4.13	Time and Personal Management	1	
5. Leading Organisations	5.1	Leading Organisations Overview	1	Aimed at senior managers. Also suitable for middle managers developing towards senior management.
	5.2	Vision, Mission and Values in Organisations	1	
	5.3	Setting Strategic Direction	1	
	5.4	Strategic Planning	1	
	5.5	Leading Organisational Change	2	
	5.6	Organisational Culture	2	
	5.7	Designing Organisations for Purpose	2	
	5.8	Developing Teams	1 (2)	
	5.9	Engaging and Aligning Staff	1	
	5.10	HR Planning & Resourcing	1	
	5.11	Overview of HR Practices	2	
	5.12	Governance Overview	1	

(2) Denotes a course can be extended up to this duration for more skills practice**.**

List of topics with target audience and duration (continued)

Area	Topic	Title (abbreviated)	Time (days)	Target audience
6. Support Staff	6.1 6.2 6.3 6.4	Role of a Secretary Role of a Messenger Customer Care Ethics and Code of Conduct for Support Staff	1 1 1 1	Aimed at support staff such as secretaries, clerks, messengers, cleaners, and other customer facing staff.
7. Functional Overview	7.1 7.2 7.3 7.4 7.5 7.6	Public Procurement Basic Accounting and Finance in Government Legal Aspects of Public Administration Planning and Budgeting Information Technology Human Resources	1 2 1 1 1 2	Aimed at senior and middle managers, & staff in Sub-Professional grades who work with other functions.
8. Human Resources	8.1 8.2 8.3 8.4 8.5 8.6 8.7	HR Policy and Procedure Developing Staff Setting Pay and Promotions Job Descriptions Managing Performance Hiring and Termination Employee Assistance	1 2 2 1 2 2 (3) 1	Aimed at senior and middle managers. Also suitable for HR staff as part of their training in HR.

(3) Denotes a course can be extended up to this duration for more skills practice**.**

Each of the topics in the Master Curriculum is defined at three levels of detail: A *description* of the topic (normally a single paragraph); an *overview* giving the headlines of what is covered in the topic; and an *expansion* of the overview which consists of detailed information.

The descriptions of the topics, area by area, are given below in Section D. A map of the Master Curriculum showing areas and the topics within them is shown at the end of Section D. The topic overviews and expanded detail are given, area by area in the appendices.

E. Overview of the Master Curriculum with Topic Descriptions

The following pages give brief descriptions of the topics in the Curriculum, listed area by area.

<u>Curriculum Area 1</u>: Orientation to the Southern Sudan Public Service

Topic	Description
1.1 **Government Overview: Constitution, CPA, GOSS, GONU, and the three arms of Government**	Understanding context, i.e. the bigger picture is very important in the execution of one's responsibilities and duties. Knowledge of the key documents that set out the direction and guidelines for the set-up and running of the government are key to providing this context. The Interim Constitution, the CPA and other documents outline the intended relationships between the different levels of Government in Southern Sudan.
1.2 **Ministries, Key Departments and Roles within the Government's Constitutional offices**	Execution of Public Service duties in one ministry often requires the involvement of other Ministries or Departments of Government. While not needing to know all Ministries in detail, it is important for Public Servants to be aware of the various Ministries, Departments, Commissions and their basic functions.
1.3 **Processes and Procedures in the Public Service**	The Public Service has unique processes and procedures that cover the full range of activities in the delivery of Public Services. It is incumbent upon the Civil Servant to be aware of these procedures and follow them in the carrying out of their duties in a responsible and accountable manner.
1.4 **Role of a Public Servant, Code of Conduct and Responsibilities**	Being a Public Servant is a privilege and a special responsibility. A core value of the Public Servant is found in the name itself "Servant". Public Servants are there to provide service to the Public and are stewards of the Public's resources and welfare. A Code of Conduct provides the guidelines for expected behaviour of Public Service employees.

* See Appendix A for overviews and expanded detail.

<u>Curriculum Area No. 2</u>: Governance

Topic	Description
2.1 **Good Governance Practice**	Government institutions and organisations are increasingly being required to embrace and implement the basic principles of good governance. Such good governance would entail among other things: • Adopting democratic principles in their management practices. • Being accountable to stake holders and society as a whole in the totality of their actions. • Showing transparency and openness in the implementation of policies. • Showing respect for human rights in their operations. • Demonstration of respect for Gender and Gender Balance. It is therefore very important that we fully understand these issues of good governance and their implications to the Government of Southern Sudan in its endeavour to provide efficient and honest Public Service.
2.2 **Ethics and Regulations**	Increasingly, people and society are demanding ethical conduct in the management of organisations, including governments and government departments. The goal of ethics is to help people think through the moral and social implications of their actions in the performance of their duties. This therefore calls for moral behaviour. Moral behaviour is governed by beliefs or feelings of what is right or wrong, regardless of self-interest or immediate consequences of a decision to do or not to do specific duties under particular conditions. On the other hand, regulations are necessary, as clear rules of expected conduct for the realisation of corporate objectives. It is therefore important that we fully understand these concepts for proper realisation of government objectives, goals, vision and mission.
2.3 **Formulating and Setting Policy**	Policy is a guide to making decisions. It provides a guide and a framework for subordinates' decisions. Strong and clear policies encourage the delegation of decision making. As such, a policy has been defined

	as an understanding by members of a group that makes the actions of each member of the group in a given set of circumstances more predictable to other members. The way that such policy has been formulated will therefore determine the quality of the decision made, and the effectiveness of the delegation thereof. The responsibility of formulating such policy is vested in the top management of government service.
2.4 **Governing Bodies**	In most organisations, there are various bodies that are responsible for the governance of such an organisation. These would include the Board of Directors and the various operating committees. In a similar manner, there are certain bodies responsible for governance in Southern Sudan. These include: The Government of National Unity; the Interim Government of Southern Sudan which incorporates the Executive, the Legislative and the Judiciary; the various commissions and constitutional offices, and the Civil Society. Each of these bodies has its particular mandate and responsibilities in governance within Southern Sudan.
2.5 **Governance Structure for Southern Sudan**	There is a clear governance structure for the Government of Southern Sudan. This Structure, in broad terms is comprised of: • The Government of National Unity (GONU). • The Government of Southern Sudan (GOSS). • The State Governments. • The Counties. • The Payams. • The Bomas. Each of these elements has in turn its own structure with given authority and responsibility areas. It is important to understand the role played by each of these elements in facilitating provision of efficient and honest service to the People of Southern Sudan.
2.6 **Setting Direction and Strategy**	An organisation, including the government, operates in an environment which by its nature poses many risks, while providing diverse opportunities for growth and expansion. Strategy therefore consists of the organisation's designs for facing the risks and uncertainty, seizing the opportunities presented by

	the environment, and using the unique competencies of its resources. The top management of the organisation is therefore responsible for setting such strategies. Well laid out strategies drive policy formulation and give new direction to the employees in terms of what is expected of them, and their desired mode of operations and performance. They make the employee become more focused in the execution of their duties.
2.7 **Basics of Operating Models**	Operating models are important in that they enhance the efficiency of the organisation in the provision of goods and services. The models tend to clarify the unique value concept which would enable the organisation (Government) to excel in its performance. They clarify the value that needs to be created and the foundations for creating such value. They further clarify the manifestations of such value in quantifiable form, and the factors that would enable us to create the value. In government service, such value is reflected in the quality of the service delivered to the public.
2.8 **Diversity Management**	A manager should carry out his or her duties without any bias against any group or category of people. In this respect, he or she should be impartial in dealing with people of different gender, minorities, and people of different age groups, racial backgrounds or religious inclinations. The issue of gender imbalance is especially critical within the government of Southern Sudan where very few women are engaged in core departments. There should be room for equal opportunities in terms of employment, promotion and access to welfare benefits. The manager should not condone any form of discrimination or harassment to any person due to the person's background. This calls for a lot of restraint and self-discipline on the part of the manager. This is applicable to managers at all levels.

*See Appendix B for overviews and expanded detail.

<u>Curriculum Area 3</u>: Management Practices

Topic	Description
3.1 **Management Practices Overview**	This topic covers the definition and the basic functions of management. It is designed to give a thorough overview in preparation for the more in-depth and focused programmes which follow.
3.2 **Role of a Manager**	What is the role of a manager in the Public Services? This module describes the role of the manager and makes the distinction between “Management” and “Leadership”. In short: Management can be called the “art of getting things done through other people”. Management is the process of planning, organising, and controlling the efforts of the organisation’s members and using all other organisational resources to achieve stated organisational goals.
3.3 **Planning**	Planning is a management function which involves determining, in advance, the courses of action that could be taken in relation to the possible occurrence of a given event. It also involves the process of searching mentally for possibilities of future problems that might appear, and designing the possible courses of action that should be taken in that event. It therefore involves looking at the future and determining the best courses of action to take in order to achieve the goals of the organisation, of the Government or a Government department. As such, planning should be in line with the vision and mission of the organisation, and guided by its strategies and policies.
3.4 **Organising**	Organising is the aspect of management that focuses attention on the structure and process of allocating jobs and tasks in order for common objectives to be achieved. It can also be considered as the element of management concerned with change or growth of the structure. Organising creates the roadmap to implement management plans, and gives clarity on who will do what in terms of roles and responsibilities.
3.5 **Controlling**	Management control is a systematic effort to set performance standards with planning objectives, to design information feedback systems, to compare actual performance with these predetermined

	standards, to determine whether there are any deviations and to measure their significance, and to take any action required to assure that all corporate (Government) resources are being used in the most effective and efficient way possible in achieving organisational objectives.
3.6 **Directing-Leading**	Leadership may be defined as the process of influencing and directing the task related activities of group members. Directing is a leadership function at the strategic apex. Leadership at this level is aimed at creating the mission, the vision and the core values of the organisation. At other levels, leadership involves mobilising resources to achieve tasks, including motivating and directing people towards meeting the team or department goals. Leaders are expected to build effective teams, bringing together various skills and coordinating efforts towards achieving tasks.
3.7 **Managing Change**	Change is constant in organisational life. Changes can be planned, unplanned, expected or not, perceived as good or bad. Whatever the case, managers need to have the tools to manage these changes effectively to the benefit of the organisation and the people they serve. These tools include means for handling change from the perspectives of: people, process, and technology. Of these, the most challenging is usually “people”.
3.8 **Records Management and Filing**	Records and recordkeeping is a very important aspect of all organisational activities. It is important to maintain records for future references. All office communications are done either orally or through correspondence. All such information has to be processed and arranged in appropriate form to be preserved or retrieved in future as the need may arise. The systematic preservation and maintenance of such records for future reference is known as **Filing.** The efficiency of an office and the organisation as a whole depends to large extent on how good its records management and filing system is.

***** See Appendix C for overviews and expanded detail.

<u>Curriculum Area 4</u>: Personal and Professional Development

Topic	**Description**
4.1 **Interpersonal Skills**	The way employees in an organisation relate to one another affects to a large degree the actual performance of the employees, and of the organisation as a whole. There is therefore need to ensure that employees relate well and amicably to one another, and that conflict is minimized to the lowest level possible. Employees should therefore know how they should relate with their superiors, their colleagues and their subordinates in order to enhance the quality of service delivery to the public. Interpersonal skills enable the employees to do this.
4.2 **Making Clear Presentations**	Presentations are one method of communication that has gained importance in intra and inter organisational communication. This is because in presentations issues can be projected and clarified better, often through the use of multi-media techniques. Presentations are useful in many areas of communication such as training, making proposals, and reporting. However, the outcome of such presentations depends on how well they are carried out. There are several tools, practices and skills to enhance the impact of presentations.
4.3 **Effective Meetings**	Meetings are very important tools in the management of any organisation including the Government. The way such meetings are conducted determines the extent to which the deliberations are useful. It is therefore important that each of the parties plays his or her role well. Such parties to a formal meeting include the chairman, the secretary, and the members. It is important to understand clearly the roles of each of these parties, so that we can always play our part in enhancing the meetings in which we are involved. In less formal meetings similar roles are played but often in more implicit ways. It is also important to understand the types of meetings, i.e., meetings to inform, meetings to review, meetings to decide, and how to design and lead them effectively.
4.4 **Communicating Electronically**	Communicating in organisations has in the recent past moved from basic paper-based communication to electronic communication. The use of mobile

	phones, e-mail and the Internet as means of communication have assumed phenomenal proportions. This does not in itself mean that communication has simply improved as a result. It is thus becoming an almost mandatory requirement that we, as employees acquire competencies that will enable us to effectively communicate electronically in our day-to-day work activities.
4.5 **Personal Styles and Preferences**	Our own individual personalities affect the way we behave and relate to others while working in teams. Our personalities have been moulded by factors such as childhood experiences, social and economic backgrounds, life experiences, not to mention genetic makeup. Personality can be categorised in terms of dimensions such as extroversion versus introversion, sensing versus intuition, thinking versus feeling, and perceiving versus judging. Individual personality types can be described by different combinations of these dimensions. We as employees and managers need to understand such personality types so that we can appreciate the reasons why people behave the way they do and as part of a team. Such understanding enables us to design strategies for accommodating and harnessing the diverse personalities within our teams so as to ensure that the team becomes cohesive and effective.
4.6 **Problem Solving Methods**	There are many problems that usually confront us in the performance of our duties. Some of these problems may be simple problems; others may be either difficult or complex. Solving these problems depends on how well we are able to identify the actual problem, so that we can apply the appropriate methods in solving it. In many cases, most of us spend a lot of time dealing with the symptoms rather than with the actual problem. There are proven tools and methods available to us to help solve even the most baffling of problems.
4.7 **Communication Skills**	We all need to communicate with other people in the performance of our duties. Such communication may be either formal or informal. It could also be either written, verbal or non-verbal. How effectively we communicate determines the subsequent actions that arise. It can lead to the making of either the right

	decisions, or the wrong decisions. There are however, certain skills in communication that we need to learn to ensure that our communication attains its intended purpose and elicits the desired action and reaction. In addition, communication is a two way process and involves our listening to what others are communicating to us.
4.8 **Managing Interpersonal Conflict**	Inter-personal conflict arises when there is some form of misunderstanding between employees, or between an employee and his or her manager. The employees could be in the same unit or department, or in different departments. Such conflicts might be caused by various factors, including role ambiguity, role conflicts, inadequate or unclear communication, and even lack of adequate operating resources and facilities. Such conflicts are common in the work setting. However, the important thing is in being able to manage the conflicts effectively when they occur or being able to prevent their occurrence. This is in order to ensure that they do not interfere with work efficiency and delivery. It is therefore important for us to acquire practices that help us either prevent or manage interpersonal conflict effectively. However, not all conflict is negative since “challenge” by others, if handled well, can be productive in prompting reflection and better decisions.
4.9 **Decision Processes**	Decision making is a crucial aspect of every employee’s and manager’s work activities. The nature of the decisions made in any given situation determines the quality of output in terms of delivery of service. Some decisions may be of a routine and recurring nature while others may be unique and non-recurring. In either case wrong decisions may be very expensive in terms of time lost, costs incurred, or even loss of the positive image of the organisation. We therefore need to focus the correct process in making decisions in order to reduce the chances of making such wrong decisions.
4.10 **Influencing Skills**	The role of a manager at whatever level is to get work done through others. However, those employees who have to do the work need to do so willingly, joyously, continuously and productively. It is therefore necessary that the manager is able to exert

	positive influence on the employee so that they can do so. There are certain skills that the manager needs to master so that he/she can be able to get such compliance from the employees. These skills are what are referred to as influencing skills. There are other times when we need to get things done through those over whom we have no direct control or line of authority. This can present us with some of our biggest challenges. Having the skills and ability to influence others to help us accomplish our objectives is highly needed in today's working world.
4.11 Coaching and Counselling	One of the ways of getting employees to master their jobs is through coaching. This involves taking the employee through their "paces" in the performance of the job using a one-to-one approach involving both guidance and self-discovery. This ensures that the employee learns, through the practical experience and personal guidance of the coach (sometimes their manager) to do their job better, or a particular skill, or to overcome a performance obstacle. In addition the manager should also be actively involved in counselling those employees who may be experiencing either work related problems, or personal social problems. For this, the manager needs to acquire skills in counselling so that he/she is actually helpful to the employee concerned.
4.12 Managing Small Projects	A project may be considered as an undertaking, outside the usual business of the organisation, department or unit that. The project usually has a definite starting and ending time, and has its own budgetary allocation. It need not be very big. It could be as small as the installation of new furniture in the office. However, no matter how small, it has to be managed well for it to be successfully completed. There are therefore certain procedures and processes that a manager needs to comprehend in order to be able to manage projects effectively. Most projects include the phases of *scoping, planning, doing,* and *completing*. Skills required include time, financial and inventory management. Techniques used in project management include Project Evaluation and Research Techniques (PERT) and Critical Path Analysis (CPA).

4.13 **Time and Personal Management**	Time may be considered as one of the most scarce and non-renewable resources at the disposal of the employees. We have only so much time in which to accomplish the myriad tasks required of us. Some of these tasks are very important, some are very urgent, while others are both of these! But other tasks may be unimportant while being urgent. Others are quite petty and not urgent. As employees and managers we should be able to distinguish between these aspects of our tasks so that we can allocate time in a manner that maximises our output in terms of both quality and quantity. This largely depends on our own personal management. There are certain tools that help us to manage our personal affairs more efficiently, which then helps us to use the time available to us optimally.

*See Appendix D for overviews and expanded detail.

<u>Curriculum Area 5</u>: Leading Organisations

Topic	Description
5.1 **Leading Organisations Overview**	An overview containing four groups of topics: • Strategic Management • Organisation Development • Strategic Human Resource Management • Governance Overview This is an overview of the topics covered in further detail in 5.2 to 5.12.
5.2 **Vision, Mission and Values in Organisations**	These three elements create the heart and soul of an organisation. Vision gives hope and clarity about a desired future state. Mission gives the purpose behind the vision, and values are what give the emotional energy and moral structure to those working in the organisation. Values define what is important and enable aligned decision making and behaviour.
5.3 **Setting Strategic Direction**	Setting strategic direction is closely related to vision as it gives major directives for reaching that vision, empowering senior leaders to take action in line with that direction.
5.4 **Strategic Planning**	Strategic planning is the process by which the organisation translates it vision and strategy into plans and programmes with measures and milestones. Planning processes are typically managed over regular time periods (e.g. a 5-year plan, an annual plan, quarterly updates, etc.) and linked to financial and other forms of reporting.
5.5 **Leading Organisational Change**	Change in organisations is constant, what is less constant is the capability of leaders to effectively guide their organisations effectively through those changes. Leaders need the ability to both conceive of change and implement those changes as well respond to changes that are thrust upon their organisations.
5.6 **Organisational Culture**	Culture is made of the shared beliefs, values, ethics and intentions of a group. These shared beliefs and values lead to various collective behaviours and make our lives in those groups more predictable and secure. Cultures in organisations tend to promote

	performance or detract from it. The leader's role is both to understand and help shape culture to the extent that it supports the overall intentions of the organisation.
5.7 **Designing Organisations for purpose**	Before designing or re-designing an organisation, whether a whole department or a single unit, it is always good to ask "What are we trying to do here? What is our purpose?" Organisations designed with purpose at the centre are much more likely to be effective than others. They are also much more likely to engender motivation and commitment.
5.8 **Developing Teams**	Most work in organisations is done in some form of team structure. Developing teams includes assuring the capabilities in the team to deliver its expected results and in building the culture and atmosphere to enable a "team" to accomplish much more in terms of both quality and quantity that aggregated individual efforts.
5.9 **Engaging and Aligning Staff**	Research over recent years shows us convincingly that effective leaders engage members of their organisations rather than coerce them in a particular direction. It is through engagement that we get alignment and commitment, which gets better results than mere compliance. Getting all members of the organisation pointed in the same direction, of their own accord, is a substantial element of the art of leadership.
5.10 **HR Planning and Resourcing**	To achieve its long-term vision, strategy, and short-term plans, an organisation needs to plan for, attract, recruit and retain the people with the necessary skills. Organisations use resource planning to anticipate the people it will need. Such plans are based on the organisation's planned activities, and on the rates of people exiting (e.g. through turnover, retirement, etc.). Resourcing is undertaken through internal movements, and external recruitment.
5.11 **Overview of Human Resources Practices**	For an organisation to function well it needs skilled and motivated employees. A range of HR practices are necessary including: HR policies & procedures, HR planning, recruitment and selection, training and development, pay and promotion, performance

	management, discipline grievance and termination, health and safety, and industrial relations.
5.12 **Governance Overview**	An overview of governance concepts and the tenets of good governance practice.

The topics of this curriculum area have been linked together into the following groups:

Strategic Management (Topics 5.2-5.4)

- Vision, Mission and Values in Organisations.
- Setting Strategic Direction.
- Strategic Planning.

Organisation Development (Topics 5.5-5.7)

- Leading Organisational Change.
- Organisational Culture.
- Designing Organisations for Purpose.

Strategic Human Resource Management (Topics 5.8-5.11)

- Vision, Mission and Values in Organisations.
- Developing Teams.
- Engaging and Aligning Staff.
- HR Planning and Resourcing.
- Overview of HR Practices.

Governance Overview (Topic 5.12)

*See Appendix E for overviews and expanded detail.

<u>Curriculum Area 6</u>: Support Staff

Topic	Description
6.1 **Role of a Secretary (includes front office staff)**	Front office and Secretarial staff have a key role to play in the functioning of a healthy and effective government. It is important to know what these roles and duties are and how they relate to the rest of government.
6.2 **Role of a Messenger (includes cleaners)**	As the Government of Southern Sudan is building and developing, Messengers and Cleaners in particular play valuable roles. Messages, both verbal and in writing, need to be delivered to keep things functioning in a timely manner. Offices should be clean and pleasant to work in, especially when there is so much to be done. Learning what “quality” is about in these roles is very important.
6.3 **Customer Care**	Front office staff and secretaries are often the real day-to-day face of government. How we treat customers of our offices has a strong impact on how the public feels toward the Government. Learning to treat customers and visitors well also leads to a more enjoyable and rewarding job.
6.4 **Ethics and Code of Conduct for Support Staff**	Public Service employees have a special responsibility to the people to follow a code of conduct and the public has a right to expect that code to be followed. It is very important that all staff know what that code of conduct is and what it means for daily life in the office.

*See Appendix F for overviews and expanded detail.

<u>Curriculum Area 7:</u> Overview of Functional Areas

Topic	Description
7.1 **Public Procurement**	As the Government uses public funds for its purchases, this is a very critical area for Public Service employees. It is imperative that rules, regulations and guidelines for the purchasing and disposal of goods are followed at all times. Managers should be aware of these rules, even if their role is not directly involved in making purchases.
7.2 **Basic Accounting and Finance in Government**	All offices operate on a budget at some level. Knowing the basics of finance and accounting is critical for all managers. While departments may have finance managers and staff, each line manager should know the status of the accounts of his or her own unit or department. Being able to read basic business accounts is a skill all managers can use.
7.3 **Legal Aspects of Public Administration**	What are the roles of the various legal staff and how are they to be used? Operating within legal frameworks is critical to the effective running of civil society, and knowing how to use legal advice is imperative.
7.4 **Planning and Budgeting**	It is said that those who forget to plan, plan to be forgotten. Planning and budgeting are core to the role of any manager. Interpreting the will and policy of the government and effectively planning for people, financial and material resources, and preparing a budget are key to effective service delivery.
7.5 **Information Technology**	Information Technology (IT) is much more than computers and data bases. IT involves all the tools and processes the manager deploys in the organisation to gather and have access to the information he or she needs to do the job effectively.
7.6 **Human Resources**	More and more, organisations are only as good as their people are at doing their jobs. Understanding the basic human resource processes of setting policies and procedures, human resource planning, rewarding, recruiting, developing, training and appraising staff is critical to the effective management of most organisations.

*See Appendix G for overviews and expanded detail.

<u>Curriculum Area 8:</u> Human Resources

Topic	Description
8.1 **HR Policy and Procedure**	Effective organisations have clear policies and procedures in place for most issues to do with employees. Managers and supervisors at all levels should be aware of these policies and now where to go when they need policy decisions or guidance.
8.2 **Developing Staff**	As the world is constantly changing, the skills and knowledge people need to do their jobs effectively are also changing. This applies whether one is in a single job over time or whether one changes jobs through transfer or promotion. Units, Departments and Ministries have a responsibility to attend to the development of staff, not only for the sake of the staff but for the sustainable functioning of Government at all levels. Development strategies include training, coaching, secondments, delegation, etc. How staff are developed depends on factors such as their levels of experience and performance, their progressional path and potential.
8.3 **Setting Pay and Promotions**	In the absence of proper guidelines, pay and promotion quickly get out of hand and become personal actions versus considered and prudent professional actions. Guidelines are in place for how to do this well and all managers involved in making pay and promotion decisions should be aware of the policies and intentions of the Government in this regard. Setting pay appropriately is important for organisations in attracting, retaining, rewarding and motivating staff. Promotions are important for giving staff a sense of progression and recognition, and from the organisation's point of view for resourcing positions of higher responsibility.
8.4 **Job Descriptions**	While daily assignments may vary, a job description gives the employee a clear view of what their role is and how it fits in the organisation. Likewise, job descriptions are a critical aid to managers when planning their staff needs and in making allocations within their planning and budgeting processes. They are necessary for recruitment when jobs are advertised, for performance appraisal when an employee is measured against the objectives and

	tasks that make up their job, and for job evaluation when jobs are ranked according to value to the organisation for grading and pay purposes.
8.5 **Managing Performance**	Managing performance is an activity that takes place at the organisation level and at the individual level. From a human resources perspective, it is critical that the process for evaluating individual performance is in line with the organisation's performance management system, which includes setting targets, monitoring and appraising performance. Performance management at the individual level yields information that can be used over time for pay and promotion decisions.
8.6 **Hiring and Termination**	Hiring is a constant activity to meet the organisation's resourcing needs, and involves the recruitment and selection of young starting staff as well as mature hires. Line managers are often involved in this process and should be aware of the policies and procedures to be used. Likewise, termination is an issue often faced, whether through retirement or other means such as dismissal, and must be handled with prudence and care and always in the light of fair and just treatment.
8.7 **Employee Assistance**	Employees often face problems in their personal lives that spill over into their jobs and work performance. While supervisors can, through counselling, assist employees somewhat, they are often not qualified or able to deal with serious personal problems. At times employees may need to be referred to external experts such as physicians or other professionals. The process of referring employees to outside help is often referred to as the Employee Assistance Programme (EAP).

* See Appendix H for overviews and expanded detail.

Curriculum Map

Topic	Area 8. Human Resources
8.1	HR Policy & Procedure
8.2	Developing Staff
8.3	Setting Pay & Promotions
8.4	Job Descriptions
8.5	Managing Performance
8.6	Hiring & Termination
8.7	Employee Assistance

Topic	Area 1. Orientation to Public Service
1.1	Government Overview
1.2	Ministries, Key Departments & Roles
1.3	Processes & Procedures in Public Service
1.4	Role of a Public Servant

Topic	Area 2. Governance
2.1	Good Governance Practice
2.2	Ethics and Regulations
2.3	Formulating & Setting Policy
2.4	Governing Bodies
2.5	Governance Structure S. Sudan
2.6	Setting Direction & Strategy
2.7	Basics of Operating Models
2.8	Diversity Management

Topic	Area 7. Functional Overview
7.1	Public Procurement
7.2	Basic Accounting & Finance in Government
7.3	Legal Aspects of Public Administration
7.4	Planning & Budgeting
7.5	Information Technology
7.6	Human Resources

Topic	Area 3. Management Practices
3.1	Management Practices Overview
3.2	Role of a Manager
3.3	Planning
3.4	Organising
3.5	Controlling
3.6	Directing-Leading
3.7	Managing Change
3.8	Records Management

Topic	Area 6. Support Staff
6.1	Role of a Secretary
6.2	Role of a Messenger
6.3	Customer Care
6.4	Ethics & Code of Conduct for Support Staff

Topic	Area 4. Personal & Professional Development
4.1	Interpersonal Skills
4.2	Making Clear Presentations
4.3	Effective Meetings
4.4	Communicating Electronically
4.5	Personal Styles & Preferences
4.6	Problem Solving Methods
4.7	Communication Skills
4.8	Managing Interpersonal Conflict
4.9	Decision Processes
4.10	Influencing Skills
4.11	Coaching & Counselling
4.12	Managing Small Projects
4.13	Time & Personal Management

Topic	Area 5. Leading Organisations
5.1	Leading Organisations Overview
5.2 – 5.4	Strategic Management
5.5 – 5.7	Organisation Development
5.8 – 5.11	Strategic Human Resource Management
5.12	Governance Overview

Appendix A

Curriculum Area 1: Orientation to the Southern Sudan Public Service

Topic 1.1: Government Overview – Constitution, CPA, GOSS, GONU and the three arms of Government

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
GOVERNMENT OVERVIEW – CONSTITUTION, CPA, GOSS, GONU AND THE THREE ARMS OF GOVERNMENT	By the end of the course unit the participating manager should be able to: a) Explain the functions of Government and the relationship between GONU/GOSS/ State b) Describe the structure and functions of GOSS	i. Foundation of Government and the relationship between GONU/GOSS/States a. The Interim Constitution of GONU/GOSS b. The CPA c. State Constitutions ii. Structure and Function of GOSS a. Executive b. Legislative c. Judiciary d. Commissions e. Advisors f. Statutory Bodies g. States	– Lectures – Discussions – Exercises – Brainstorms	– Trainers – Guest speakers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids – Interim Constitution – Handbook – CPA	2 days	Knowledge and concept test

Topic 1.1 Expanded: Government Overview – Constitution, CPA, GOSS, GONU and the three arms of Government

i. Foundation of Government and the relationship between GONU/GOSS /States	a. The Interim Constitution of GONU/GOSS The Government of Southern Sudan (GOSS) has its foundation in the Interim Constitution of Southern Sudan. It comprises the former territories of Equatoria, Bahr Ghazal and Upper Nile as of January 1, 1956. Today the territory of Southern Sudan consists of ten states as per the Comprehensive Peace Agreement, the Interim Constitution of the Government of National Unity and the Interim Constitution of Southern Sudan. The ten (10) states are: Northern and Western Bahr El-Ghazal, Warrap and Lakes, Unity, Upper Nile and Jonglei, Eastern, Central and Western Equatoria. The transitional areas are Abeyyai area, Blue Nile and Nuba Mountains. The Abeyyai is administratively linked to the Presidency, whereas Blue Nile and Nuba Mountains are linked to Southern Sudan as marginalised areas. b. CPA The CPA (Comprehensive Peace Agreement) consists of the Six Protocols which were negotiated and agreed upon at various towns in Kenya by the Government of the Sudan (GOS) and the Sudan People's Liberation Movement (SPLM) under the auspices of the Inter-Government Authority on Development (IGAD) and finally signed on January 9, 2005 in Nairobi, Kenya. c. State Constitutions The Constitution of every State of GOSS gives powers and responsibilities to the states in various areas of governance. The devolved powers granted by the Government of Southern Sudan sets limits to this action for the State. The Governor is the Chief Executive in the state, assisted by a council of Ministers and Advisors. The state also has a Legislative Assembly and Judiciary.
ii. Structure and Function of GOSS	a. Executive The Executive consists of the President, Vice-President, Ministers and the Council of Ministers. The Civil Service is the policy implementation arm of the government. The President is the first Vice President of the Government of the Republic of Sudan. The President of GOSS is the Head of GOSS. Commander-in-Chief of SPLA, and Chairman of SPLM. The Executive authority of GOSS is vested in the President, the Council of Ministers and Advisors. The President of GOSS presides over an autonomous region within the Republic of the Sudan. b. Legislature At GOSS level in accordance with the Interim Constitution of Southern Sudan, the Southern Sudan

Legislative Assembly (Parliament) has powers to approve all taxation, borrowing and expenditure by the Government. It is a law-making body, which exercises its legislative powers though bills assented to the President of GOSS on all matters assigned to it by the Comprehensive Peace Agreement, The Interim Constitution of Southern Sudan, and the Interim National Constitution of the Republic of Sudan. The officers of the Parliament are the Speaker, the Clerk, and various Chairpersons of Committees of Parliament. The Minister for Parliamentary Affairs implements the administrative functions of Parliament. Parliament is independent of the Executive and the Judiciary, and has its own administrative and remuneration structures.

c. Judiciary

The Judiciary is responsible for the enforcement of law through the courts. The courts are concerned with the administration of justice and interpretation of the laws. The Judiciary comprises the Chief Justice, the High Court, the Court of Appeal, and Circuit Courts in the States. It is independent of both the Executive and the Legislature and has its own administrative and remuneration structures.

d. Commissions

The commissions are independent bodies set up by the constitution. They are mandated by law to address those aspects which require specialized and full time attention. The Commissions, for example, deal with Human Rights among others. The commission, which consists of a Chairperson, his/her Deputies, and other named Commissioners, are appointed by the President of GOSS.

e. Advisors

The Government sometimes finds it necessary to appoint qualified persons to deal with certain of its functions. These are called Advisors, and they are appointed by the President. They are responsible for advising the President and the Government on the specific issues to which they have been appointed.
[NB. The roles of certain Advisors are not clearly differentiated from the function of Ministers which has the potential to create conflict or confusion].

f. Statutory Bodies

The Statutory Bodies are created by Statutes and more specifically by an Act of Parliament. They have specialised roles and they report directly to parent Ministries, e.g. Water and Power Corporations, Postal Services and Public Utilities. They are semi-autonomous in the execution of their mandates, and are expected to operate like business entities in the absence of a strong private sector.

g. States

	The Government of Southern Sudan (GOSS) is comprised of ten (10) states, namely: Northern and Western Bahr El-Ghazal, Warrap and Lakes, Unity, Upper Nile and Jonglei, Eastern, Central and Western Equatoria. The States enjoy some degree of autonomy through power devolution by the Constitution of GONU, GOSS and States Constitutions. Where there is conflict between GOSS rules and State rules, normally GOSS rules will prevail. The Chief Executive in the States is the Governor, appointed by the President of GOSS. The Governor is assisted in the State by an independent assembly and a judiciary. Each State has its own independent Constitution. Each State consists of Counties that are individually administered by a Commissioner in collaboration with the Payam Council and Bomas. The Governor has the administrative and supervisory authority over all Public Service employees in the State. **References:** The Interim Constitution of Southern Sudan, 2005. The Interim National Constitution of the Republic of Sudan, 2005. The Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA). State Constitutions.

Topic 1.2: Ministries, Key Departments and Roles within the Government's Constitutional Offices

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
MINISTRIES, KEY DEPARTMENTS AND ROLES WITHIN THE GOVERNMENT'S CONSTITUTIONAL OFFICES	By the end of the course unit the participating manager should be able to: a) Discuss the Roles of Ministries and Departments b) Explain the relationships between Ministries and Departments c) State the regulatory /Advisory role of Constitutional Offices	i. Ministries and Departments a. The Core Functions of Government b. Ministerial and Ministries/ Departmental Policies ii. Relationship between Ministries and Departments and Role of: a. The Presidency b. The Council of Ministers c. Government Circulars d. Undersecretary e. Undersecretaries' Forum f. Governor's Forum iii. Constitutional Offices, e.g., a. The Public Services Commission b. S. Sudan Commission on Human Rights c. S. Sudan Anticorruption Commission	– Lectures – Discussions – Exercises – Brainstorms	– Trainers – Guest speakers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids – Interim Constitution – Handbook – CPA	1 day	Knowledge and concept test

Topic 1.2 Expanded: Ministries, Key Departments and Roles within the Government's Constitutional Offices

i. Ministries and Departments	a. The Core Functions of Government A government has the responsibility of providing strategic direction in public affairs and to manage such affairs through the formulation of public policies. In general the government is responsible for: • Law and order • Security and Protection of its Citizens • Development (Provision of Service) While formulating the core functions of each Ministry the fulfilment of the above responsibilities must be borne in mind. b. Ministerial and Ministries/Departmental Policies In essence, all Public Policies are referred to as government policies. However, Ministries and departments address certain sectoral issues that require specialized approaches to policy formulation. For example, the Ministry of Education or Agriculture and Animal Resource do have policies geared towards the development of those respective sectors.
ii. Relationship between Ministries and Departments	a. The Presidency The President of GOSS is the symbol of Unity and Purpose for Southern Sudan. The President is appointed through the CPA, and assumes his position by virtue of being the Commander in Chief of the SPLA and Chairman of SPLM. He represents the Government of Southern Sudan in all its aspects, and is the first Vice President of the Republic of Sudan. He is the only Executive and Diplomat of GOSS. He appoints the Ministers and chairs meetings of the Council of Ministers. b. The Council of Ministers The Council of Ministers consists of the President, Vice President and other Ministers appointed by the President. The council of Ministers is the Executive arm of GOSS. The Ministers are political heads of their respective ministries. c. Government Circulars The Government from time to time issues circulars to Ministries, Departments and States to communicate to the public certain emerging issues, for example:

	• Changes in the organisation and responsibilities of government agencies. • Change in government policy. • New rules, regulation and procedures. d. Undersecretary The Undersecretary is the top Civil Servant in a given Ministry, appointed by the President of GOSS, and reports to the Minister. e. Undersecretaries' Forum The Undersecretaries' Forum is an informal consultative forum. It provides an opportunity to the top executives in the Public Service to discuss and review the operations of government. It is a good opportunity for the Undersecretaries to improve on issues related to improving service delivery to the Public. f. Governors' Forum The Governors' Forum helps to unify all Government business in the States. It reviews development activities in all states and helps to develop coordinated future policies and direction of Government business in respective State organisations.
iii. Constitutional Offices	By constitutional offices we refer to those government agencies that have been established through an Act of Parliament or where provision has been made for such an Act of Parliament to be passed. Examples of this include various Commissions such as: a. The Civil Service Commission The Civil Service Commission is an independent entity established by law. By virtue of being a constitutional body, it enjoys powers and privileges in the discharge of its mandate which is to advise on selection, recruitment, promotion and disciplinary matters in the Civil Service. b. Southern Sudan Commission on Human Rights This is a Constitutional Commission which addresses Human Rights issues in Southern Sudan in accordance with Human Rights and other International Conventions. c. Southern Sudan Anti Corruption Commission This commission is in line with operationalising governance principles in Southern Sudan. It aims at addressing corrupt practices in Southern Sudan Public Services. These commissions have been highlighted because of their relevance to Public Service. There are a number of other commissions.

Topic 1.3: Processes and Procedures in the Public Service

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
PROCESSES AND PROCEDURES IN THE PUBLIC SERVICE	By the end of the course unit the participating manager should be able to: a) Apply and conform to Government regulations and procedures b) Comply with Government financial regulations in spending public money. c) Follow the laid down procurement procedures. d) Uphold confidentiality toward Government information where appropriate.	Government Regulations and Procedures i. Service regulations ii. Financial regulations iii. Procurement regulations iv. Protective security (classified Information)	– Lectures – Discussions – Exercises – Brainstorms	– Trainers – Guest speakers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids – Interim Constitution – Handbook	1 day	Knowledge and concept test

Topic 1.3 Expanded: Processes and Procedures in the Public Service

i. Service regulations	The Government of Southern Sudan (GOSS) promulgated certain service guidelines, which are contained in the *Policy Framework for the Public Service of Southern Sudan* (2007) and the *Manual of Public Service Procedures* (2007). The guidelines provided in these documents relate to issues such as: • Recruitment of personnel for public service. • Treatment of demobilised SPLA soldiers. • Establishing grade and salary structures. • Personnel management and procedures (including performance management). • Pensions and other non-wage benefits. • Office administrative procedures. • Interacting with the public. • State and local government issues. These stipulations are expected to provide governance direction as regards the requirements of the civil service. Many of these service regulations are in the area of personnel (human resource) management, e.g. recruitment, grading, pay and promotions, performance management, pensions, and other personnel management procedures such as staff leave, allowances and benefits, discipline, grievance, and termination. For Southern Sudan, they are dealt with in the *Policy Framework* (2007) and/or *Procedures Manual* (2007). In the Master Curriculum, the topics of Area 8 describe these regulations and also give best practice from other organisations, for examples: Topic 8.1: HR Policy and Procedure; 8.3: Setting Pay and Promotions; 8.5: Managing Performance; 8.6: Hiring and Termination.
ii. Financial regulations	**Financial regulations.** It is necessary that regulations be put in place to govern the ways in which government finances are spent. Government expenditure is primarily concerned with recurrent expenditure issues, such as paying for civil service workers and maintenance of government facilities and equipment, as well as development expenditure issues. The government, apart from being involved in initiating and running development projects, is expected to provide a conclusive environment that will stimulate development through the initiatives of the private sector. Government funds for all these activities are sourced through various ways, from both domestic sources (such as tax) and foreign sources – mainly in the form of donor funding for a young nation like Southern Sudan. The use of such funds is usually put under intense scrutiny by all the stakeholders, hence the need for thorough financial controls.

	In Southern Sudan, interim financial regulations dealing with the administration of government finances are based on the stipulations of certain documents including: • The Interim Constitution of Southern Sudan, 2005. • Financial regulations and procedures. • Treasury circulars. These regulations are the ones which, among other things, establish authority levels in terms of what a given government office can commit for expenditure and the conditions thereof, as well as the pay structures. There is need for regular and systematic auditing of any expenditure authorised through the stipulations of the financial regulations. **Use of funds.** Managers need to be clear on what their authority levels are in terms of expenditure, and understand the processes by which funds are to be used and accounted for. Managers also need to understand what is considered an inappropriate use of funds, for examples: • Buying goods and services at rates higher than the competitive market rate, or from a supplier where the buyer has a vested interest (see procurement regulations below). • Using funds for purposes that are not truly for the business. • Claiming expenses that have not been incurred on the organisation's business. • Any unauthorised expenditure, or expenditure that exceeds the individual's authority level. • Decisions over one's own pay or other rewards. Sometimes the funds are used in an inappropriate way inadvertently, in which case the manager needs to be educated in the correct use of funds. If it happens purposely then there may be a case of corruption to answer for. The stated GOSS policy on corruption is one of zero tolerance. As the Policy Framework (2007) describes, corruption needs to be tackled in three ways: i. Prevention (by reducing the opportunities for corruption, mainly by ensuring that government regulations are as simple and transparent as possible). ii. Enforcement (where swiftness and certainty of punishment is more effective than severity of punishment). iii. Education (to produce a climate where honesty is the norm and corruption the exception). The Southern Sudan Anti-Corruption Commission has been established to combat corruption through tackling

	administrative malpractice such as nepotism, favouritism, tribalism, sectionalism, gender discrimination, bribery, embezzlement, and sexual harassment. Ways of countering corruption are dealt with in more detail in Topic 2.2 of the Master Curriculum (Ethics and Regulations). Basic accounting procedures are dealt with in more detail in Topic 7.2 of the Master Curriculum.
iii. Procurement regulations	**Good procurement practice.** The government needs resources, human and material, to carry out its mandate. These materials have to be procured from the market. However in procuring the recourses, it is necessary that guidelines be put in place to ensure that the objectives of good procurement practice are achieved. Such objectives include: • Procuring goods/ and services in the most cost effective manner as possible. • Procuring goods and services delivered in the timeliest manner. • Procuring the goods and services in the most transparent, just and fair manner as possible. • The goods and services procured are fit for purpose, i.e. of the correct specification, quality and quantity necessary to do the job. This means that the cheapest is not always the most cost effective since factors such as specification match, quality, reliability and servicing/maintenance also need to be considered. Procurement of goods and services in the civil service involves the use of public funds. It is therefore important that value for money be an overriding consideration. It is important that regulations in relation to quality, quantity, reliability, delivery time and disposal be established in order to streamline the procurement procedure. **Cost effective procurement.** As described above, procurement needs to be cost effective, which means ensuring that the goods and services are bought from the supplier who can meet the specification at the best price. Most organisations therefore, to ensure they meet their needs in the most cost effective way, undertake one or more of the following procurement methods: • Compare prices, aiming to get the best deal. • Obtain quotations from suppliers. • Undertake a tendering process by which suppliers put forward their offer to supply a particular service or product. The larger the purchase, the more likely it is that a tendering process is used. Tendering processes can be by *open tender* (open to any supplier to participate) or *restricted tender* (a particular list of preferred suppliers are invited to tender). For a more detailed discussion on procurement refer to Topic 7.1 of the Master Curriculum.

iv. Protective security (classified information)	In the context of protective security, by security, we refer to the need to safeguard government classified information, materials and people. Every government office must be concerned with security issues. In this respect, it is important that the civil servant is aware of: • The major threats to official secrets, namely espionage and leakage. • The classification of official documents – in Southern Sudan there are four categories of classified documents: *top secret, secret, confidential* and *restricted*. • The nature of access to classified materials – in Southern Sudan, employees are only allowed access to the level of documents to which they have been cleared. Documents are classified using a number of criteria such as security rating, commercial sensitivity, etc. Public servants should be able to identify who should be privy to information in any of these classifications. However, sometimes classification can be misused e.g. by withholding information that should be in public domain. As such, care should be taken on the way documents are classified. This needs to be in tandem with human rights legislation that upholds the right for people to access information that is held on them. More detail on records management, including the classification of documents, can be found in Topic 3.8 (Records Management and Filing) of the Master Curriculum. **References:** MLPS&HRD (January, 2007). *A policy framework for the Public service of Southern Sudan.* MLPS&HRD (February, 2007). *Manual of Public Service Procedures.* *The Interim Constitution of Southern Sudan, 2005.* Kenya Civil Service. *Handbook for Civil Service Staff Induction* (Republic of Kenya).

Topic 1.4: Role of a Public Servant, Code of Conduct and Responsibilities

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
ROLE OF A PUBLIC SERVANT, CODE OF CONDUCT AND RESPONSIBILITIES	By the end of the course unit the participating manager should be able to: a) Discuss the role of the public service b) State the role of a public servant c) Conform to the ethical standards of the service d) Demonstrate accountability and transparency in Government business	i. Role of the Public Service • Formulating service delivery ii Role of the Public Servant • Formulating • Interpreting • Reviewing • Implementing • Public Policy iii. Ethical Standards iv. Good governance practices	– Lectures – Discussions – Exercises – Quizzes – Brainstorms	– Trainers – Guest speakers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids – Interim Constitution – Handbook	2 days	Knowledge and concept test

Topic 1.4 Expanded: Role of a Public Servant, Code of Conduct and Responsibilities

i. Role of the Public Service	The civil service is the policy implementation arm of the government. In executing its role, it is guided by Government rules and regulations and Public Policy pronouncements. In carrying out its functions the Civil Service plays a critical role in the socio-economic development of Southern Sudan.
ii. Role of the Public Servant	The workers in the civil service are referred to as civil servants. These civil servants are recruited into the civil service impartially on the basis of competence and merit. The principal recruiting agency for the Civil Service is the Public Service Commission. There are several cadres in the civil service ranging from the top leadership, the middle level and the support staff. Civil servants are expected to politically neutral in the execution of their roles, and committed to service provision in the professional areas. The civil servant is responsible for: • Identification of problems which require action • Identification of means of addressing them • Formulation of policy • Implementation and coordination of policy • Handling sensitive information responsibly The Manual of Public Service Procedures (2007: Chapter 2) describes in more detail, the duties of public servants – overall that they must dedicate their full service to the people of Southern Sudan, serving them with efficiency and respect. To do this, they should observe ten basic duties, summarised below: i. Not to go absent from duty without permission or reasonable grounds. ii. Be punctual, devote self to duty, carry out duty faithfully and diligently. iii. Obey and maintain orders or instructions from superiors. iv. Conduct self in a gentle manner towards superiors, colleagues, subordinates and the public. v. Participate in planned training courses inside or outside Sudan. vi. Avoid improper or unfitting conduct. vii. Not to disclose confidential or secret information. viii. Perform duties in accordance with the laws regulations and instructions. ix. Not without written permission to take or keep any official document. x. Carry out the duties attached to his or her post or any other duties of a like nature within or outside Sudan as GOSS directs.
iii. Ethical standards	The civil servant is expected to execute his/her responsibilities in accordance with the ethical principles of morality and integrity. These include fairness, honesty and truthfulness, appropriate disclosure of information, and compliance with policies, procedures and regulations. Topic 2.2 (Area 2 of the Master Curriculum) covers these principles in more detail.

	The Government of Southern Sudan is keen on promoting a chart-oriented civil service which is both ethical and accountable. The civil service should demonstrate the values of the ethical conduct are the protection of professionalism, human rights, integrity of the character and good service. Ethical and unethical actions always affect somebody, and in the final analysis tend to shape ones values and character. To guide the expected behaviour of civil servants, a code of regulations is provided. This code for Southern Sudan is embodied in the Policy Framework (2007) and in the Manual of Public Service Procedures (2007), among other documents. These regulations stipulate the policy, procedures and rules and guidelines governing civil service operations. The Policy Framework (2007) contains a set of core values to guide ethical behavior. These are also articulated in the Manual of Public Service Procedures (2007). Since the Public Service must be efficient, effective and responsive to people, the following core values will guide the conduct of all civilian employees of GOSS and its subordinate government entities: i. Impartiality. ii. Professionalism. iii. Transparency and Accountability. iv. Responsiveness to the client. v. Inclusiveness (non-discrimination). vi. Equity and affirmative action (including gender, minority ethnic groups and disabled persons). vii. Integrity. viii. Efficiency. The Procedures Manual (2007) goes on to state that *“All aspects of the GOSS personnel procedures, systems, regulation, and individual employee behaviour, including recruitment, discipline, advancement, and compensation modalities must be tested and evaluated against these core values.”* The Policy Framework (2007) states that *“The effective embodiment of these core values into the new public service will lead to administrative efficiency and effectiveness. Equally important, it will also produce the right balance between the need for administrative continuity and independence from undue political pressures, on the one hand, and the requirement of loyal responsiveness to the government leadership of the day and faithful implementation of its policy decisions.”* The core values above emphasise responsiveness to the citizens and the accountability of public servants. This accountability includes external accountability to public institutions (e.g. the Legislative Assembly), and to the general public, as well as internal accountability to superiors. As the Procedures Manual (2007) describes, the focus of every public servant should be on providing quality and timely public service to the citizens of Southern Sudan. This means putting the public first and so creating a

	customer and results-oriented culture. The following ***principles*** should guide the conduct of every public servant: i. Provide clients with adequate information about services in a straight-forward and open manner. ii. Clearly explain the standards of service that clients may expect. iii. Communicate clearly and effectively. iv. Treat clients with dignity, courtesy and respect. v. Uphold transparency and accountability. vi. Place the common good of the Service, the client and the general public above self-interest. vii. Utilise resources prudently to attain best value for users and citizens. A code of conduct is to be formulated for all employees of the Southern Sudan Public Service, based on and giving explanation of these core values.
iv. Good governance practices	Civil Servants are answerable and accountable for their commissions and omissions in service delivery. They are to demonstrate the tenets of good governance practice. Good governance practices would entail: • Timely delivery of Services. • Accountability and transparency. • Honesty. • Integrity. • Prudence in management of resources. • Democratic principles. • Respect for human rights. • Diversity. ***Corruption*** is the opposite of good governance. The Policy Framework (2007: Sections 11.1-11.3) deals with fostering integrity and combating corruption, defining corruption in government as *"misuse of public power for private gain".* Corruption hinders economic efficiency and development and is especially bad for the poor and vulnerable. As the framework states; *"Accordingly, integrity should be one of the core values of the new public service of Southern Sudan, and the issue of corruption should be approached not on an isolated basis, but as part and parcel of the promotion of efficient and effective public sector management in all its aspects".* The stated GOSS policy on corruption is one of zero tolerance. As the framework describes, corruption needs to be tackled in three ways: iv. Prevention (by reducing the opportunities for corruption, mainly by ensuring that government regulations are as simple and transparent as possible). v. Enforcement (where swiftness and certainty of punishment is more effective than severity of punishment).

	vi. Education (to produce a climate where honesty is the norm and corruption the exception). The Southern Sudan Anti-Corruption Commission has been established to combat corruption through tackling administrative malpractice such as nepotism, favouritism, tribalism, sectionalism, gender discrimination, bribery, embezzlement, and sexual harassment. Governance is addressed in more detail in Area 2 of the Master Curriculum, in particular Topic 2.1 on Good Governance Practice. **References:** MLPS&HRD (2007). *A Policy Framework for the Public Service of Southern Sudan.* MLPS&HRD (2007). *Manual of Public Service Procedures.* *The Interim Constitution of Southern Sudan,* 2005.

Appendix B

Curriculum Area 2: Governance

Topic 2.1: Good Governance Practice

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
GOOD GOVERNANCE PRACTICE	By the end of this course unit, the participating manager should be able to: a) Explain the meaning of, and need for good governance in government b) Describe the essential features of good governance c) Understand how good governance can be upheld and enacted in Southern Sudan d) Conduct Government affairs in accordance with good governance principles	i. Meaning and need for good governance – Efficiency of service provision – Customer/client satisfaction – Good public image of Government institutions ii. Essential features of good governance iii. Good governance in Southern Sudan – GOSS laws, structures, policies and procedures – GOSS core values	– Lectures – Discussions – Exercises – Quizzes – Brainstorms	– Trainers – Guest speakers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids – Examples	1 day	Knowledge and concept test

Topic 2.1 Expanded: Good Governance Practice

i. Meaning and need for good governance	What does governance mean? This refers to the way in which strategic decisions are made in an organisation, including a government ministry or department. It is concerned with the determination of the broad issues concerning resources of the organisation – how they are deployed and how conflicts among the various stake holders of the organisation (Government) are resolved. Good governance therefore ensures that the best strategic decisions are made for the achievements of objectives and that the resources of the organisation are put to the best and most optimal use. It also ensures conflicts are minimised and where there they occur, they are resolved in the most available manner. *The fish rots from the head* is the title of a book on corporate board governance by Bob Garratt, emphasising the importance of good governance at the top of the organisation. This is because an organisation's senior leaders and managers set strategy, make key decisions and control resources and have the most power in the organisation. By their example , and the structures and policies they institute, they set patterns of behaviour and what is acceptable/ not acceptable throughout the organisation. So, they have a key responsibility for good governance. But good governance is not only a strategic issue under the responsibility of top management. Good governance is expected of all managers and employees of the public service since all have responsibilities in the use of government resources in the service of the public. Whenever a management decision is made, resources deployed, goods procured, or services delivered to the public, it is important that these are undertaken with good governance practices in mind. Good governance practice is important in the following ways: • It increases the efficiency of the service or service delivery by the staff. This is because the staff are better motivated, informed empowered and led. It is also due to the fact that when business processes are undertaken in the proper way and agreed way, the whole organisation functions according to its processes and procedures and is therefore more efficient. • It enhances the level of customer satisfaction because of the high level of efficiency in service provision. Satisfied customers are loyal customers. • It promotes the public image of the organisation (Government) as a consequence of the satisfaction of the customers. Such positive customer image is good as it increases the level of support from the stakeholders for the Government. This may translate to greater donor support and even greater compliance with tax payment requirements by the citizens, which makes available revenue that is necessary for the conduct of government business. • It counters corruption and unethical practices – when good governance practices are in operation, it is

	much more difficult for corrupt and unethical practices to get a hold because they are so obviously unacceptable to managers and staff, and are quickly exposed and dealt with.
ii. Essential features of good governance	Good governance is determined by a number of factors. It is about the way things are set up and organised, such as legislation, formal structures, management roles and responsibilities, policies and procedures. It is also about the way people behave within these laws, policies, roles and structures – the values they hold and the overall culture of the organisation in which they work. Good governance in public service can be registered in various ways which include: • *Laws and structures* – the legislation that determines the powers, roles, responsibilities, regulations and rights of those working in the public service, and the structures that determine reporting relationships and how duties are discharged contribute to good governance, provided they are well conceived and upheld. The separation of powers, such as in government between the executive, legislature and judiciary or in a commercial organisation between a non-executive chairperson and a chief executive, is a good governance measure in that power is dispersed and decisions can be questioned. Clearly defined structures and reporting relationships, roles and responsibilities help ensure accountability. • *Policies and procedures* – policies guide how decisions should be made and work conducted, and provide boundaries of what is acceptable and what is not. Procedures detail how these policies are to be enacted and the processes and rules that should be followed. Policies and procedures in areas such as financial control, procurement, recruitment, reward and promotion to name a few, help create an environment of good governance because they set out how activities should be conducted, and what is and is not allowed. Robust procedures and processes in these areas, again provided they are upheld, can minimise bad governance and counter corruption (which is when procedures are misused or circumvented for personal gain). • *Core values* – the values of an organisation shapes and displays its underlying culture, i.e. “how thing are done around here”, and hence guide individual behaviours. If the core values held by employees and espoused by the organisation comprise ideals such as integrity, transparency and accountability (as described below), then they will support good governance practices. • *Democratic practices* – the upholding of democratic practices, which entails involving staff in decision making in areas that affect them. It involves consensus building rather than uplifting decisions even where decisions have already been made. It involves ‘selling’ the decision through appropriate communication. • *Accountability* – this means that managers at all levels should be responsible for their decisions and actions and should be prepared to be answerable for them. This ensures that managers are more diligent and thorough in whatever they do, since they will ultimately be answerable for their actions. Such

	a principal of accountability extends to the accountability of the public service to its customers, the public, to whom the public service are ultimately accountable. • *Transparency* – this means that managers have to conduct their affairs in an open manner whereby all interested parties can see and undertake what is happening. There should be no room for secrecy and underhand dealings. For example, the principle of transparency means that receipts are required for all business expenditure, that clear and auditable accounts are kept, and that procurement tendering processes are run according to published rules. • *Human rights* – respect for human rights, which means that managers should act in accordance with human rights and other related convections. In relation to human rights, this means the recognized rights of individuals are upheld in respect to all manner of activities such as working practices, promotion, deployment, discipline, etc. • *Fairness* – this is closely related to human rights issue. A manager should not only be fair in his/her dealings with employees and external contacts, but should be seen to be fair. This is especially the case in issues related to procurement and disposal of government property. Fairness means treating people and issues without favour or discrimination but based on objective assessment and reasoned judgement in line with ethical principles. This promotes a sense of justice and enhances the good public image of government. • *Dissemination of information* – this is an aspect of transparency. It means that information should be disseminated – made available and communicated to those who are entitled to see it – in a timely manner. The information should be complete and accurate. • *Gender and gender balance* – good governance practices mean that people are not discriminated against on grounds of gender, and that actions are taken to promote gender balance in areas such as representation, promotion to higher levels, pay levels, management roles, etc.
iii. Good governance in Southern Sudan	In Southern Sudan, the laws enshrined in The Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) and The Interim Constitution of Southern Sudan, 2005 clearly set out the composition, powers and functions of the governing bodies in GOSS, particularly those of the Legislature, the Executive, and the Judiciary. Limits to their powers are defined, and how these powers can be removed if misused. Various rights are described and upheld by law, including human rights and the equal rights of men and women. Various independent Commissions exist to ensure that things are working as they should be, e.g. the Civil Service Commission, the Anti-Corruption Commission, and the Human Rights Commission. The structure of government and its constituent parts are more fully described in Topics 2.4 and 2.5, and in Area 1 of the Master Curriculum. The Interim Constitution also sets out in Article 142(1) the values and principles that should govern the civil service, which have been articulated as the set of core values in the documents: A Policy Framework for the

Public Service of Southern Sudan (2007), and the Manual of Public Service Procedures (2007). These core values are described in Section 3.3 below. The Policy Framework and Procedures Manual also provide a comprehensive set of policies and procedures in the areas of:

- Recruitment, appointments and promotions.
- Grade structure and pay structure.
- Duties of employees.
- Disciplinary and grievance procedures.
- Performance management.
- Entitlements to benefits and allowances.
- Termination and pensions.
- Office administration and classification of documents.

These policies and procedures clearly set out how public servants are to be recruited, treated, managed and rewarded. They also set out the duties of employees and how they should undertake those duties. Setting out such policies and procedures in written form is a way of promoting good governance in itself. In addition, their contents are fully aligned with the principles of good governance.

From the foregoing, it is clear that Southern Sudan has the laws, structures, policies and procedures to establish and sustain good governance. However, to be effective they have to be upheld and enacted, which leads us to the values that need to be embraced by those in power, and in fact by all members of the public service if good governance is to result.

GOSS has set out both in its Policy Framework (2007) and Procedures Manual a set of ***core values*** to guide the conduct of public servants:

i. Impartiality.
ii. Professionalism.
iii. Transparency and Accountability.
iv. Responsiveness to the client.
v. Inclusiveness (non-discrimination).
vi. Equity and affirmative action (including gender, minority ethnic groups and disabled persons).
vii. Integrity.
viii. Efficiency.

These core values are to guide the conduct of all employees, and to ensure that the public service is efficient, effective and responsive to people. The Procedures Manual (2007) states that all activities, procedures, systems and individual behaviour must be tested against these core values.

The good governance practices outlined above are ethically aligned to these core values and express ways in

	which these core values can be operationalised. The core values of impartiality, transparency, accountability, efficiency and integrity are particularly relevant to good governance, since if an organisation and its operations are run according to these values, it will be well governed. GOSS core values are described in more detail in Topic 2.2 of the Master Curriculum. **References:** R. Garratt (2003). *The fish rots from the head: The crisis in our boardrooms: Developing the crucial skills of the competent director*. 2nd Edn. London: Profile Books. *The Comprehensive Peace Agreement* (CPA). *The Interim Constitution of Southern Sudan, 2005.* MLPS&HRD (January, 2007). *A Policy Framework for the Public Service of Southern Sudan.* MLPS&HRD (February, 2007). *Manual of Public Service Procedures.*

Topic 2.2: Ethics and Regulations

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
ETHICS AND REGULATIONS	By the end of this course unit, the participating manager should be able to: (a) State the meaning and importance of ethics in management. (b) Describe the manifestations of ethical behaviour in the conduct of Government affairs. (c) Comply with the requirements of moral behaviour in the conduct of Government affairs. (d) Comply with the established Government regulations in providing services to the public	i. Meaning and importance of ethics – A search for standards of moral conduct – Reflection of personal values – Satisfaction of customer demands – Improvement of work climate ii. Manifestations of ethical behaviour – Ethical behaviour – GOSS core values – Combating corruption iii. Compliance with requirements of moral behaviour (beliefs or feelings of what is right or wrong) – Moral behaviour – Moral dilemmas	– Lectures – Discussions – Exercises – Quizzes – Brainstorms – Case studies	– Trainers – Guest speakers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids – Examples	2 days	Knowledge and concept test

		(conflict of interests involving ethical choice) iv. Compliance with policies & regulations – The need for policies & regulations – Types of regulations e.g. operating procedures				

Topic 2.2 Expanded: Ethics and Regulations

i. Meaning and importance of ethics	Ethics is the study of moral obligations involving the distinction between right and wrong. In other words, these are moral principles that control or influence a person's behaviour, i.e. a system of moral principles or rules of behaviour. Ethical conduct is connected with beliefs and principles that are deemed morally correct or acceptable. From a management perspective, an ethical decision is one that is reasonable, or typical stakeholders would find acceptable, and is aligned with the policies of the organisation. In contrast, an unethical decision is one that managers will try to hide because it breaches accepted moral principles/codes of behaviour by e.g. unfairly favouring the manager him/herself or by showing bias to one group of stakeholders over another for factional reasons. An awareness of ethics in GOSS is important because it helps managers and employees think through the moral and social implications of organisational decisions in order to best meet the needs and aspirations of the people of Southern Sudan. Correspondingly, the Government intends to promote a client-orientated Civil Service that is both ethical and accountable. Such values, which convey a sense of integrity, responsiveness, and accountability, must be strictly adhered to by Civil Servants in the process of delivering Public Services to the citizens. In addition, these terms denote high order values of professionalism that include: professional conscience (i.e. ensuring all your work is done to the highest professional standard), honesty, neutrality, self-denial and a passion for excellence. Ethical conduct in organisations can promote the following: a. Establishment of standards of moral conduct – so that the employees have benchmarks on which to base their conduct for providing services. b. Reflection of personal values – values are an integral part of an organisation's culture and they create a sense of solidarity, belonging and purpose. People come with their own personal values, which drive their ethics and behaviour. The values and ethics of an organisation in part reflect the personal values of its employees, but also help shape these values so that people align with the organisation's culture and act in ethically aligned ways. c. Satisfaction of customer demand – the public are the "external customers" of the Civil Service. There are also many "internal customers" who depend on our services to help them do their jobs of meeting the needs of the public. Our customers must come first in our work. Following the principles of quality and service will guide our continuous efforts for excellence in Public Service. An ethical approach includes openly declaring targets and service standards so that the public know what they can expect, and inviting and accepting feedback for correction and improvement whenever performance fails to match expectations. Civil Servants should listen to their customers and encourage feedback on the quality and effectiveness of services.

	d. Improvement of work climate – ethical behaviour of managers and employees improves the work climate for all “internal customers” since if decisions affecting them (e.g. selection, promotion, reward, etc.) are made with ethical principles in mind (e.g. fairly, openly, without bias), then people are assured of equitable treatment and increase their sense of commitment to the organisation.
ii. Manifestations of ethical behaviour	Ethical behaviour is working in accordance with the core values of the organisation and by keeping to its policies, procedures and regulations. So it is manifested in ways such as: a. Fairness – a manager should be just and fair when dealing with his/her subordinates. This will increase a sense of trust. E.g. fairness means allocating jobs and tasks on the basis of who has the relevant skills and experience rather than because the person is of a particular gender, creed or tribe. Fairness means hearing a person’s reasons for a particular course of action before judging them. Fairness in a meritocracy means rewarding and promoting people on the basis of performance and ability. b. Honesty and truthfulness – “Honesty is the best policy”. Managers should be honest in their dealings with subordinates, and honest in the operation of the services they provide to customers. This means managers should always tell the truth and not hide, change or cover up some vital information to protect him or herself, or deny benefit to subordinates or customers. As with fairness, honesty and truthfulness generate trust and respect, and also encourage reciprocal behaviour. But dishonest behaviour, which usually comes to the surface, creates suspicion, perceptions of unfairness and resentment. c. Disclosure of information – ethical behaviour means disclosing information that affects people (the public and employees) and that they have a right to see. Some information may have to remain confidential; if that is the case then the honest response of a manager is to say ”I’m sorry, I can’t disclose this information at this time because it is confidential for the following reasons...” d. Compliance with policies, procedures and regulations – behaving ethically means doing things according to the rules laid down by the organisation (see iv below). In the document A Policy Framework for Southern Sudan, it states that (Sections 1.1-1.3); *“The new public service must be efficient, effective and responsive to the people. Aside from appropriate compensation and personnel management procedures ... this goal requires, among other things, that certain core values be disseminated and internalized by all public servants, public managers, politicians and leaders”.* In light of this, the Southern Sudan Public Service will embody a set of core values in accordance with Article 142(1) of the Interim Constitutions of Southern Sudan, and reiterated in the Policy Framework (2007), and in the Manual of Public Service Procedures. These core values are:

	• Impartiality. • Professionalism. • Transparency and Accountability. • Responsiveness to the client. • Inclusiveness (non-discrimination). • Equity and affirmative action (including gender, minority ethnic groups and disabled persons). • Integrity. • Efficiency. The Policy Framework (2007) goes on to state that *"All aspects of the new government procedures, systems, regulation, and individual behaviour will be continuously tested and evaluated against these core values. The effective embodiment of these core values into the new public service will lead to administrative efficiency and effectiveness. Equally important, it will also produce the right balance between the need for administrative continuity and independence from undue political pressures, on the one hand, and the requirement of loyal responsiveness to the government leadership of the day and faithful implementation of its policy decisions".* A code of conduct is to be formulated for all employees of the Southern Sudan Public Service, based on and giving explanation of these core values. The Policy Framework (2007: Sections 11.1-11.3) deals with fostering integrity and **combating corruption**, defining corruption in government as *"misuse of public power for private gain".* Corruption hinders economic efficiency and development and is especially bad for the poor and vulnerable. As the framework states; *"Accordingly, integrity should be one of the core values of the new public service of Southern Sudan, and the issue of corruption should be approached not on an isolated basis, but as part and parcel of the promotion of efficient and effective public sector management in all its aspects".* The stated GOSS policy on corruption is one of zero tolerance. As the framework describes, corruption needs to be tackled in three ways: i. Prevention (by reducing the opportunities for corruption, mainly by ensuring that government regulations are as simple and transparent as possible). ii. Enforcement (where swiftness and certainty of punishment is more effective than severity of punishment). iii. Education (to produce a climate where honesty is the norm and corruption the exception). The Southern Sudan Anti-Corruption Commission has been established to combat corruption through tackling administrative malpractice such as nepotism, favouritism, tribalism, sectionalism, gender discrimination, bribery, embezzlement, and sexual harassment.

iii. Compliance with requirements of moral behaviour	Complying with the requirements of moral behaviour is often a matter of conscience – we look inside ourselves and ask "Is this the right thing to do?" Sometimes the answer is easy, particularly if the issue is a straightforward matter of right or wrong, or specifically covered by an organisational policy or regulation (see iv below). Then it is a question of doing what is right, which may sometimes involve making a stand if there is pressure to do otherwise. However, there are times when the issue is more complicated and we are faced with a moral dilemma. For example: • The options available to us might all appear 'wrong' – it may be right to reject them all, or if you have to choose, to pick the "least worst" option. • What appears to be the 'right' option might have very negative consequences – with any dilemma, the consequences have to be weighed up against the moral principles that are held. • The options are finely balanced and we just can't decide which is best – we might have to get more information or seek advice. • There is a lot of pressure to do something that you are not sure is the right thing to do (e.g. to give a kick-back in a procurement transaction) – reflect, then express your concerns; you may have to decide if this is an issue you need to make a stand on according to your principles. As a manager, whenever faced with a moral dilemma before deciding it is helpful to: • Reflect on your personal moral compass, the moral principles you live by – what does your conscience say? • Test it against the organisation's core values, and any relevant policies or regulations. • Think about consequences of particular paths of action, but without negating your moral principles. • If you're in doubt, seek the advice of someone you trust and respect, test your views out on them first.
iv. Compliance with policies & regulations	Keeping to the organisation's policies, procedures and regulations (in word and spirit) is a key way of working ethically. It is when people subvert, ignore, or go around policies that corruption of one kind or another creeps in. For example, organisations usually require that employees account for any business expenditure by producing a receipt that shows that a certain amount of money has been spent. If receipts are not kept and produced when requested, the organisation has no record of what was spent, so there is no knowing what the person who made the purchase actually spent, which lays the organisation open to abuse. Another area pertinent to Southern Sudan is recruitment. Whereas the recruitment policy (as stated in the document "A Policy Framework for Southern Sudan") needs to be mindful of the social goal of broad representativeness, of gender considerations, equity and affirmative action, and of special consideration for

	certain groups (e.g. demobilised SPLA soldiers), the framework states that "individual recruitment into the new public service of GOSS shall be based exclusively on individual merit and qualifications directly relevant to performance under the job for which the individual is being considered". So to recruit someone solely because they are a member of one's family would not comply with recruitment policy, and would therefore be unethical. This, among other things, justifies the need for policies and regulations – they aim to standardise (regulate) the way activities are undertaken so that the organisation's resources are used well and in pursuit of its aims. They lay down how things should be done, the boundaries (i.e. what is not allowed), what is in the employee's control and when they need to seek higher approval. That they are in line with the organisation's core values, vision and mission means that complying with them is a way of behaving ethically. Organisations have policies, procedures, and regulations at many levels and of many types. E.g. in HR management, there are overall policies on recruitment and procedures of how to carry out recruitment. In operational areas, there are operating procedures that clearly state how an operation should be carried out. There are health and safety regulations. **References:** MLPS&HRD (January, 2007). *A Policy Framework for the Public Service of Southern Sudan.* MLPS&HRD (February, 2007). *Manual of Public Service Procedures.*

Topic 2.3: Formulating and Setting Policy

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
FORMULATING AND SETTING POLICY	By the end of this course unit, the participating manager should be able to: (a) Explain the meaning and importance of policy in a work environment (b) Discuss the factors to consider in policy formulation (c) Describe the process of policy formulation and setting (d) Describe the types of policies commonly found in organisations including government institutions	i. Meaning and importance of policies – Common group understanding of issues – Guide to decision making – Facilitate delegation – Enhance consistency and fairness – Counters incorrect or corrupt practices ii. Factors to consider in policy formulation – Vision, mission, core values – Operating environment – Resource capability iii. Process of policy formulation – Policy formulation – Ingredients of a good policy	– Lectures – Discussions – Exercises – Quizzes – Brainstorms	– Trainers – Guest speakers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids	1 day	Knowledge and concept test

		– Various roles in policy formulation iv. Types of policies – Product/service policy – Process policy – Marketing policy – Procurement policy – Human resources policy – In the Public Sector				

Topic 2.3 Expanded: Formulating and Setting Policy

i. Meaning and importance of policies	a. A common group understanding of issues. Policies are sets of plans or actions agreed upon by Government, political parties, business, or other groups. Terry and Franklin (2003) define them as revealing the manager's intentions for the future time periods, and are decided prior to the need for such intentions. A policy may be verbal, written or implied, generally the most effective ones are those written and made available in writing for all to refer to when needed. They define the areas in which decisions are to be made; they also spell out the general direction and area to be followed. By keeping within the stated areas, the manager's work is performed in keeping with the overall planning of the enterprise. b. A guide to decision making. Policies make good guidance for decisions along the set boundaries of the enterprise's plans. The responsibility of formulating policies is vested in the top management of the organisation e.g. in the Government of Southern Sudan (GOSS) it will be with the Cabinet, and in GOSS Ministries and Departments. Good policies should permit a certain amount of flexibility so that interpretations specific to a particular level or unit of the organisation are accommodated. Hence, the importance of policies in the setting of guidelines of the organisation's intended actions and specified behaviour of members in the execution of policies. c. Facilitate delegation. Policies help in the delegation of decision making to subordinates because, if written and available, they lay out for everyone in the organisation direction, intentions, ways of operating, boundaries, etc. This enables managers to delegate more easily because the people they delegate to will also be aware of and working to the same policies – everyone is "singing from the same hymnbook". d. Enhance consistency and fairness. Policies enhance consistency and fairness both for staff within the Public Service, and for its customers, the public. HR policies in areas such as recruitment, selection, performance management, promotion, pay, benefits and allowances, training, leave, discipline and grievance help ensure that staff are treated equitably and fairly and have the opportunities to progress and reach their potential. Policies on education, health, housing, agriculture, employment, etc. lay out clearly what the public are entitled to and they levels of service they should expect. e. Counter incorrect or corrupt practices. Policies help staff do things the correct way and, when they get it wrong by mistake, can help guide them back to good practice. They also help counter purposeful bad practice or corruption (when things are done wrong for personal gain). To do this policies need to be: • *Clear* – on what is acceptable and what is not, the correct way to do things, boundaries, exclusions and exceptions, the rules and procedures, etc. • Implemented in *transparent* ways – so that it is obviously applied universally across the organisation for everyone to see.

	• *Communicated widely* – so that all managers and staff know what is expected and can therefore remind each other when policies are being contravened or ignored. The Policy Framework (2007: Sections 11.1-11.3) deals with combating corruption. As the framework describes, corruption needs to be tackled in three ways: • Prevention (by reducing the opportunities for corruption, mainly by ensuring that government regulations are as simple and transparent as possible). • Enforcement (where swiftness and certainty of punishment is more effective than severity of punishment). • Education (to produce a climate where honesty is the norm and corruption the exception). Of these ways of combating corruption, having good policies helps with both *prevention* (good policies contribute to making government regulations simple and transparent), and *education* (good policies mean that people know what is acceptable and what is not).
ii. Factors to consider in policy formulation	a. Vision, mission and core values. Policies are built along the organisation's vision, mission and its set of core values. The vision and mission of an organisation are statements of what its outlook is into the world of the business sector in its intended business area. They are in short, visionary and philosophical statements of what business they intend to venture into and statements of what they intend to do and how they will tackle the risks that might be entailed in that sector. Vision, mission and core values is a contemporary way by which an organisation makes known to its world how it is setting about its business in its operational environment. An organisation's ***vision*** sets out the organisation's future intent – its overall goal, where it intends to get to, what it is looking to achieve. Its ***mission*** is its reason for existing, its overall purpose. The organisation's ***strategy*** is devised to achieve the vision and fulfil the mission. An organisation's ***core values*** state what is fundamentally important in the way it goes about its business; such values express and drive the organisation's culture. With these strategic pieces in place, policies are formulated to support what the organisation is trying to achieve. They should be aligned to the organisation's overall intent and purpose. They should espouse and reflect its values.

	Vision, mission and core values are described in more detail in Topic 5.2 of the Master Curriculum. b. Operating environment. A careful analysis of the operating environment of an organisation gives it a bird's eye view of the constraints and opportunities that are available. This type of approach to business planning has proved useful and been a useful vehicle to organisational success. Since governments are now striving to operate in a business-like manner, government and public sector organisations are nowadays encouraged to adopt these business-type plans because of their proven success. Analysis of the operating environment, e.g. using a SWOT analysis (internal Strengths, Weaknesses, and external Opportunities and Threats), is a prerequisite for strategic planning as described above. It is also an important input to policy formulation, particularly in the area of public services, since it helps define what is needed and what is possible. Policies need to be cognizant of the needs of the public and of the opportunities available, but also of the constraints and threats of the environment. Such an analysis means that policies that are developed are more likely to be relevant, realistic and deliverable. Without such an analysis, there is the danger that policies are not related to the real world, or are overly optimistic in what can be delivered. c. Resource capability. Another consideration in policy formulation is resource capability – are the resources available, and are they able to undertake the policies that are being set? If not, it forces those formulating the policies to consider either amending the policies to match resource capability, or else putting actions in place to develop or acquire the resources necessary.
iii. Process of policy formulation	**The process of policy formulation** involves a manager to state the problem in a clear manner so that it is understood by the parties involved in the process. The first step is to assemble all relevant information about the activity involved, analyse the information in terms of its relevance to plans and establish new policies, premises and constraints. Joint formulation of policies between senior level managers and subordinate managers is advised because when they are formulated from the top they tend to generate resentment from the lower level as they will seen to be imposed from above. So the steps are: • State the issue/problem that the policy should address. • Assemble all the relevant information about the activity. • Analyse the information. • Compare with existing polices, competitors, best practice. • Devise new policy including premises and constraints. Consultation during policy formulation is essential to keep policies relevant. Such consultation can be with customers, e.g. through surveys or focus groups. It can also be with managers and staff. This has two purposes:

	firstly, getting people involved who are nearer to policy implementation can add to the quality and usability of the policies; secondly, their involvement will increase “ownership” of those policies and therefore help enhance their implementation. Policy formulation in the absence of effective consultation can overlook practicalities and produce policies that are difficult to implement. To be useful policies need to: • Be relevant – i.e. they deal effectively with the issue/problem being addressed. • Be clear – i.e. unambiguous, with directive statements that are explained in enough detail so that they can be communicated and implemented easily and consistently. • Deal with predictable exceptions – so that particular circumstance and exceptions have been thought through and covered by the policy. • Have some flexibility to deal with local variations without corrupting the policy. Getting the balance between clarity/direction and flexibility is not easy. Policies that are too directive can come unstuck and irrelevant when circumstance vary; policies that are too flexible are open to the abuse of being swayed by every circumstance. **Ingredients of good policy.** A good policy is rarely a single statement, nor is it pages and pages of confusing detail. Good policies have some common ingredients such as: • Title – clearly describing what the policy is. • Purpose – indicating what the policy is for. • Defined audience – who is the policy aimed at, for example is it an internal staff policy, or a policy applied to customers? • Summary – that outlines the essence of the policy and the issues that it addresses. • Guiding principles – the principles that guide the policy, what it is based upon. • Policy statements – a number of statements that are the main part of the policy. These should include necessary premises and constraints/boundaries, and be numbered or otherwise labeled for easy reference. The nature of the statements should be clear, i.e. are they: o Binding, to be complied with – most will probably be of this type, requiring referral to a higher authority to do anything different (the higher authority should be specified). o Professional guidance – i.e., this is the best way to do it and we strongly recommend doing it this way.

	- Suggestions – this is how we suggest you do it, but its up to you to decide. - Detailed information pertaining to the statements – necessary details to clarify the statements and explanation of exceptions and how they will be dealt with. - Procedure – some policies have a more detailed procedure associated with them to show how they are to be implemented. - Dates – the date the policy came into force, and the date that it will be reviewed – this helps the reader know that they have the most up-to-date version. - Links – how the policy relates to other policies, and to the organisation's vision, mission, values, etc. References to other relevant regulations or laws. - Owner – the person or department responsible for the policy – who people should go to if there are questions of interpretation, problems, requests for an exception, or suggested improvements. - Acknowledgements – recognising those who have formulated the policy, including sponsor, author(s), groups who may have been consulted, etc. - Approval authority – the organisation or person that gives the policy its authority. A signature or stamp may be required. Not all policies will have all of these ingredients – a very simple policy might comprise a title and a single statement, dated and endorsed. However, more comprehensive policies will have many of the ingredients mentioned above. There are various **roles** involved in policy formulation: a. Executive and senior manager role. Generally speaking, the responsibility for policies (particularly the high level, organisation-wide policies) is with top management, in GOSS: the Cabinet and senior managers of Ministries and Departments. However, as mentioned above, undertaking this task jointly/in consultation with subordinate managers helps ensure that policies are owned further down the organisation. b. Input of middle level managers. Since it is middle level managers that are involved in implementing policies, it is beneficial if they have a role in policy formulation as described in (a) above. Also, within their own area of responsibility, there are occasions when they will develop specific policies for their unit or team, ensuring alignment with the organisation-wide policies. c. Application by subordinates. Once policies have been formulated, they need to be disseminated and well

	communicated so that everyone in the organisation People need to understand areas of flexibility in the policy and what freedom there is to interpret the policy differently in different circumstances, and when they should seek advice or approval.
iv. Types of policies	Policies are either product or services oriented. These include the following types: • Process policies– to do with the process by which a particular product is made. • Marketing policies– relate to marketing activities and how products are advertised and sold. • Procurement policies – deal with supply. • Human resource policies – those that relate to employees (e.g. recruitment, reward, etc.) • Health and safety – policies to keep employees and customers safe, often related to legal obligations. The managers in charge of these functional areas are key to setting these specialist policies. There are many types of policies pertaining to every activity of the organisation. In the Public Sector, the main products are services supplied to the public. So there are policies related to the type, level and quality of these services, and what the public are entitled to. Policies will be in the areas such as: • Housing – provision of social housing, new housing building, planning, etc. • Environmental services – clean water, waste disposal, recycling, environmental protection. • Education – attendance, age groups, curriculum, etc. • Healthcare – primary healthcare, maternity, provision of clinics and hospitals, drugs. • Employment – provision of jobs, job centres, unemployment benefits, etc. Such policies should set out what people can expect, and should be publicised so that people know their rights and so that service delivery can be measured and, where necessary improved.

Topic 2.4: Governing Bodies

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
GOVERNING BODIES	By the end of this course unit, the participating manager should be able to: a) Describe the structure of governing bodies in organisations b) Describe the structure of Governing bodies for Southern Sudan c) Explain the roles of each of the various governing bodies for Southern Sudan d) Describe your own role on or in relation to governing bodies	i. Governing bodies in organisations – Stakeholders – Board of Directors – Operating committees ii. Governing bodies for GOSS – The Interim Government of Southern Sudan – State governing bodies – Various commissions and constitutional offices – Civil society iii. The Civil Service Commission iv. Roles of Governing bodies – General administration – Security provision – Justice – Watchdog	– Lectures – Discussions – Exercises – Quizzes – Brainstorms	– Trainers – Guest speakers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids	1 day	Knowledge and concept test

Topic 2.4 Expanded: Governing Bodies

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<tr><td>i. Governing bodies in organisations</td><td>In all organisations there are various bodies that are responsible for their governance. In business organisations this usually includes a Board of Directors with a Chairperson and/or Chief Executive, and various Operating Committees. The Board of Directors sets vision, mission and strategy and takes executive decisions. Operating Committees are charged with particular aspects of the business’s operation.

All organisations also have Stakeholders, i.e. those who have some stake or interest in the organisation. In a business these would include shareholders (those who have invested money in the business), but a wider definition would also include customers, suppliers, employees and others who have some interest in the success of the enterprise.

In a similar manner nation states also have bodies responsible for governance, and stakeholders who have an interest in the enterprise. In the case of nation states, the Government is the primary governing body, comprised of a number of elements including the Executive, Legislature and Judiciary. The primary stakeholders are the citizens of the country, including those employed by the Government.</td></tr>
<tr><td>ii. Governing bodies of GOSS</td><td>GOSS is comprised of a number of governing bodies described below.

a. The Legislature. This comprises all the Members of Parliament plus the Speaker and the Attorney General. The Legislature is charged with:

• Formulation of laws and policies.
• Regulation of financial management by the Executive.
• Authorisation in financial management through the budgetary system.

b. The Judiciary. This is comprised of the Chief Justice, the Court of Appeal, the High Court Judges, and Magistrates of various functions. The Judiciary is charged with:

• Administration of justice.
• Judicial interpretation of issues especially those that are constitutionally based.
• Enforcement of laws.
• Regulating the actions of the Executive where the Executive may use its powers excessively.

The Judiciary is supposed to be independent in order to provide checks and balances in the management of law and order. But due to the need for complementarity in the performing of Government matters such independence may not be completely realised. Moreover, members of the Judiciary are appointed by the President and therefore owe their allegiance partly to the Executive.</td></tr>
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	c. The Executive. This is comprised of the President and the Council of Ministers. The Executive has the responsibility for: • Interpreting and implementing Government policies. • Maintaining law and order. • Protecting the nation against external aggression. • Overseeing the national development initiatives. But in the Executive, GOSS plays a major role in policy formulation and implementation. This is due to: • The powers of discretion and the responsibilities bestowed on H.E. the President who is the Executive Head of GOSS. • The Civil Servants and other administrative agencies play a major role in influencing policy decisions because of the delegated authority and power derived from H.E. the President. d. State governing bodies - Southern Sudan comprises of ten autonomous states. Each of these states has its own governing body comprising of State Governor, State Legislative Assembly and Judiciary. Each has a State Government consisting of Counties, Payams, and Bomas. e. Commissions – in total, there are 19 Commissions including: Civil Service Commission, Anti-Corruption Commission, Human Rights Commission, HIV/AIDS Commission, Public Grievances Commission, Employees' Justice Commission, etc. Each of these has appointed Chairpersons, Commissioners, it own vision and mission, and a structure similar to the one described above. A Chairperson of a Commission is at the level of a State Minister. As an example, the Civil Service Commission is described in (iii) below. f. Civil society
iii. The Civil Service Commission	The Southern Sudan Civil Service Commission was instituted in a Presidential Decree in accordance with Article 143 of the Interim Constitution of Southern Sudan to consolidate and organise a Civil Service capable of recruiting qualified and skilled human resources (among Southern Sudanese inside and those from the Diaspora) to achieve a level of balanced socio-economic development in the post-war era. The much publicised and acknowledged policy on gender and affirmative action for women and proportional representation of communities in the employment opportunities at the GOSS level, States and local administration has to be implemented. a. Vision – to enhance excellence in governance within the Public Services to achieve competence in Public Administration that shall be accountable, equitable, efficient, effective, transparent and corruption free in its performance and responsiveness to the needs of the people. b. Mission :

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To promote democratic principles and values in the Public Service.
Ensure that equity and meritocracy are the guiding principles of Public Service management.
Fight corruption, nepotism and tribalism, and institute transparent, fair and efficient procedures for recruitment, selection, promotion, and development of Civil Servants.

c. Structure of the Commission – it is headed by the Chairperson, with a Deputy and three Commissioners. The role of the five Commissioners is governance policies, strategic direction, and leadership of the Commission. The Commission recommends to GOSS the principles and general policies connected with the conditions of service and privileges and submit proposals to the Presidency. It also coordinates with Ministry of Labour, Public Service and Human Resource Development (MLPSHRD) on matters related to HR development, utilisation, and Service benefits, and with the States on matters of Public Service delivery.
d. The Executive – The day-to-day management of the Commission is headed by the Executive Director who implements the policies and programmes of the Commission and reports to the Chairperson. Under the Executive Director, other Directorates follow such as: Career Selection and Recruitment; Policy Formulation; and Administration and Finance.
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<tr><td>iv. Role of governing bodies</td><td>
a. General administration. There is a decentralised system of Government with devolution of powers: National, Southern Sudan, States, and Local Levels. Linkage between the National Government and States in Southern Sudan shall be through GOSS. Governing bodies at all levels, particularly National, Southern Sudan, and States Governments shall respect each other's authority, collaborate rather than compete.
Southern Sudan governing bodies shall perform their functions and exercise their powers so as to:

Not encroach on or assume powers of each other.
Promote cooperation by rendering assistance and support to other levels of Government.
Promote open communication and coordination between all levels of Government.
Adhere to procedures of inter-Government interactions.
Respect the status and institutions of other Governments.
Promote amicable settlements of disputes before attempting litigation.

b. Security provision. It is the role of governing bodies at all levels to provide security in the following ways to:

Maintain law and order to ensure a civil society.
Apprehend criminals and offenders in general.
Defend the country from external aggression.

c. Justice – it is the role of governing bodies to uphold and administer justice and enforce the laws of the land. In GOSS, as described below these laws are formulated by the Legislature, and administered by the Judiciary.
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	d. Watchdog – some governing bodies also perform a ‘watchdog’ role, e.g. the Civil Service Commission has the role of ensuring a capable Civil Service. Other Commissions monitor the implementation of policy and the upholding of citizens’ rights (e.g. Audit Chamber Commission, which audits public organisation accounts). **References:** *The Comprehensive Peace Agreement* (CPA). *The Interim Constitution of Southern Sudan, 2005.* *The Interim National Constitution of the Republic of the Sudan, 2005.*

Topic 2.5: Governance Structure for Southern Sudan

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
GOVERNANCE STRUCTURE FOR SOUTHERN SUDAN	By the end of this course unit, the participating manager should be able to: (a) Describe the broad structure of the Government of Southern Sudan (b) Describe the structure of the elements within the Government of Southern Sudan broad structure (c) Discuss the inter-relationships and interdependencies of the elements in the Government structure of Southern Sudan	i. Broad structure of the Government of Southern Sudan – The Government of National Unity (GONU) – The Government of Southern Sudan (GOSS) – The State Governments – The counties, payams and bomas ii. Structure of the elements iii Inter-relationships and interdependencies of the elements – Information sharing – Resource sharing – Training	– Lectures – Discussions – Exercises – Quizzes – Brainstorms – Field visits	– Trainers – Guest speakers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids	1 day	Knowledge and concept test

Topic 2.5 Expanded: Governance Structure for Southern Sudan

i. Broad structure of the Government of Southern Sudan	A government is a political entity (organisation or system). It is created to manage the public affairs of a nation. It is founded on the principles of a "Social Contract" as espoused by philosophers Jean Rousseau, John Locke and Hobbes. The Social Contract is based on the understanding that people of a given political entity surrender their personal interests to be managed by an individual or group of individuals. The organisation so formed becomes a government with responsibility to discharge certain duties for the citizens. The Government of national Unity (GONU) is the institution around which the people of Sudan are politically organised. GONU's purpose emanates from the CPA and the National Interim Constitution of Sudan. The National Interim Constitution is the supreme law of the land of Sudan. It regulates the relations of and allocates the powers and resources and functions between the different levels of Government, as well as prescribing the wealth sharing between the GONU and GOSS. It guarantees freedom of belief, worship and religious practice in full for all Sudanese citizens. GOSS has a unique status within the GONU in that it has its own President and a good degree of autonomy. The Interim Constitution of Southern Sudan 2005 is the supreme law by which Southern Sudan shall be governed during the interim period (2005 – 2011). This Constitution and the CPA clearly lay down a foundation for a united, peaceful and prosperous society to be called Southern Sudan, which whilst diverse, is committed to peaceful co-existence and a state built on "unity in diversity". The Government of Southern Sudan (GOSS) is the institution around which the people of Southern Sudan are politically, economically, socially and culturally organised. GOSS's purpose emanates from the will of the people of Southern Sudan, the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA), and the Interim Constitution. GOSS represents a multi-cultural, multi-ethnic, multi-lingual, multi-religious, and multi-racial population. GOSS is based on justice, equality, respect for human rights, and the rule of law. In spite of diversity, there is peaceful co-existence. GOSS is therefore committed to a state built on "unity in diversity". The Government of Southern Sudan (GOSS) is comprised of ten (10) States. The States enjoy some degree of autonomy through power devolution by the Constitution of GONU, GOSS and States Constitutions. Where there is conflict between GOSS rules and State rules, normally GOSS rules will prevail. The Chief Executive in the States is the Governor, appointed by the President of GOSS. The Governor is assisted in the State by an independent assembly and a judiciary. Each State has its own independent Constitution. Each State consists of Counties that are individually administered by a Commissioner in collaboration with the Payam Council and Bomas. The Governor has the administrative and supervisory authority over all Public Service employees in the State.
ii. Structure of the elements	As described in Section 2.3, the Government of Southern Sudan (GOSS) is composed of a number of governing bodies including the Executive, the Legislative and the Judiciary.

The Executive is comprised of the President and the Council of Ministers. The Executive has the responsibility for interpreting and implementing Government policies, maintaining law and order protecting the nation against external aggression, and overseeing the national development initiatives.

Ministries include:

• Presidential Affairs • Cabinet Affairs • Parliamentary Affairs • SPLA Affairs • Internal Affairs • Finance and Economic Planning • Health • Labour, Public Services and Human Resources Development • Water Resources and Irrigation	• Telecommunications and Postal Services • Roads and Transport • Gender, Social Welfare and Religious Affairs • Regional Cooperation • Legal Affairs and Constitutional development • Rural Development and Cooperative • Environment, Wildlife and Tourism	• Animal Resources and Fisheries • Education, Science and Technology, Culture • Youth and Sports • Industry and Mining • Commerce, Trade and Supply • Information and Broadcasting • Housing, Land and Public Utility • Agriculture and Forestry

The legislature comprises all the Members of Parliament plus the Speaker and the Attorney General, and is charged with the formulation of laws and policies, the regulation of financial management by the Executive, and the authorisation in financial management through the budgetary system.

The Judiciary is of the Chief Justice, the Court of Appeal, the High Court Judges, and Magistrates of various functions. It is charged with the administration of justice, judicial interpretation of issues especially those that are Constitutionally based, enforcement of laws, and regulating the actions of the Executive.

A similar structure is replicated in the States, each of which has its own Chief Executive (the Governor), an Assembly, and a State Judiciary. However, GOSS ministries also have personnel (Civil Servants) based in the States.

The ten States are:

• Northern Bahr El-Ghazal • Western Bahr El-Ghazal • Warrap • Lakes	• Unity • Upper Nile • Jonglei	• Eastern Equatoria • Central Equatoria • Western Equatoria

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Independent Commissions include:
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<td>• Anti-Corruption Commission
• HIV AIDS Commission
• Audit Chamber
• Human Rights Commission
• Centre for Census
• Land Commission
• Peace Commission</td>
<td>• Statistics and Evaluation
• Civil Service Commission
• Demining Authority
• Public Grievance Chamber
• Demobilization, Disarmament & Reintegration Commission
• Employees Justice Chamber</td>
<td>• Reconstruction and Development Fund
• Relief & Rehabilitation Commission
• Fiscal, Financial, Allocation and Monitoring Commission
• War Disabled, Widows & Orphans Commission</td>
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<td>iii. Inter-relationships and interdependencies of the elements</td>
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There are inter-relationships and interdependencies between the elements described above, both at GOSS and State levels. These exist for the purposes of:

Information sharing – so that information can flow efficiently between Ministries, GOSS and the States.
Resource sharing – so that resources – financial, material and human – can be utilized where they are most needed and bring most benefit overall.
Training – this is a good example of inter-relationships working well, whereby training organised by the CBU in GOSS is made available to public servants in GOSS and the States. The cross-fertilization of employees from GOSS and the States at training events is an excellent way of creating strong networks that encourage further sharing of information and resources to the benefit of Southern Sudan.

References:
The Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA).
The Interim Constitution of Southern Sudan, 2005.
The Interim National Constitution of the Republic of the Sudan, 2005.
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Topic 2.6: Setting Direction and Strategy

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
SETTING DIRECTION AND STRATEGY	By the end of this course unit, the participating manager should be able to: (a) Explain the meaning and importance of strategy for an organisation (b) Describe the strategic management process	i. Meaning and importance of strategy – Designs for facing risks and uncertainties – Gives direction to employees (expectations, operational modes and performance levels) – Strategic management process ii. Strategy formulation – Environmental analysis – Establishing organisational direction (mission and objectives) – Strategy implementation	– Lectures – Discussions – Exercises – Quizzes – Brainstorms – Field visits	– Trainers – Guest speakers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids	1 day	Knowledge and concept test

Topic 2.6 Expanded: Setting Direction and Strategy

i. Meaning and importance of strategy	Strategy is an organisation's plan for dealing with risks and uncertainty, as well as opportunities available in an organisation's operating environment. It is top management's responsibility to formulate strategies and communicate them to all relevant parts of the organisation. Strategy will emanate from the organisation's vision, mission and its core values. An organisation's strategy is its high level plan to achieve its vision, fulfil its mission and enact its values. It looks where the organisation is going and tries to map out how to get there. Strategy must cover all vital aspects of the organisation and deal with the risks and opportunities presented in the organisation's operating environment. Strategy sets direction and guides implementation of operating policies. It also guides the objectives and plans of departments and teams, and ultimately the objectives and work of individuals, since for the strategy to be implemented, the work of the whole organisation needs to be aligned with it. In this way, a strategy enables day-to-day decisions to fit in with the long-term interests and vision of the organisation. Although the strategy for the organisation is set by top management, it is also necessary that strategy be set at other levels in the organisation for individual departments, units and teams. Of course, such strategies must be aligned with the overall strategy for the organisation. So, managers at all levels have some role in setting strategic direction for their area of responsibility.
ii. Strategy formulation	Strategy formulation involves environmental analysis to understand what the risks and opportunities are, and then devising of the strategy to deal with the risks/take advantages of the opportunities to achieve the organisation's vision. a. Environmental analysis – since strategy is concerned with dealing with the risks and opportunities in the organisation's operating environment, to formulate strategy it is necessary to undertake an analysis of that operating environment. A common way to do this is to use a SWOT analysis technique by which internal Strengths and Weaknesses, and external Opportunities and Threats are examined. This gives an organisation a clear picture of its internal capabilities and where its weaknesses or gaps lie, which will influence strategy. Where weaknesses or gaps are found an organisation might decide to rectify these (e.g. by recruitment or training), or might decide that it will not try to operate in areas of weakness. An examination of opportunities might highlight new areas to aim for, which might also have implications for internal capabilities and resourcing. Identifying threats is important for an organisation as it plans ahead; its strategy will need to include ways of mitigating these threats.

	b. Devising strategy In commercial organisations, the environmental analysis is used to set out strategy in terms of which products and services will be taken to which markets, taking account of threats and opportunities such as competitors, developments in technology, gaps in the market, etc. In public service, it is about how the government will deliver services to its customer base, the public. The environmental analysis shows where it may need to enhance its capabilities or improve its service. At the highest level, a strategy usually comprises a small number of themes (articulated as statements of strategic intent) that if implemented will help the organisation achieve its vision by grasping opportunities, using its strengths, removing or mitigating its weaknesses, and avoiding or overcoming threats. A strategy needs to be easily communicable and needs to link to tangible items that can be measured so that progress can be monitored. For example, if the vision of MLPSHRD is defined as “creating an honest and effective public service” then an *example* of a four-statement strategy to achieve this vision might be: • To enhance the leadership skills and knowledge of management practices of managers in all levels of the organisation so that they lead their teams effectively and with confidence. • To put in place robust finance and accounting procedures throughout the Ministry and to ensure their operation is efficient and effective, and that reporting is accurate and regular. • To establish ways of capturing feedback – comments, concerns, complaints – from the public, and to have in place mechanisms for responding quickly and thereby improving the service and enhancing the reputation of the Public Service. • To improve the working experience and skills and career development of all our staff so that individuals feel valued, are aligned with the organisation’s goals, and are continually challenged and developed. Remember, this is only an example! From such an overall strategy, strategic plans would be developed to ensure each of the items above is progressed. Each department would be expected to align its work and plans to this overall strategy. In addition, environmental analysis (e. g. Using SWOT) and devising strategy are activities that can also be undertaken at department, unit or team level in producing strategies for these units that are aligned to the organisation’s strategy.
iii. Strategy implementation	Implementing strategy involves: a. Communicating the strategy – so that managers and employees know where the organisation is going,

	what its strategic emphases are, and how it will go about achieving its vision. b. Ensuring alignment – the alignment of plans beneath the strategy, and of objectives in departments, units, sections, right down to the objectives of individuals. Involving departments and teams in devising their own strategies, plans and objectives (in line with the organisation's overall strategy) is a powerful way of creating ownership and commitment to the strategy. c. Managing change – the strategy determines what the organisation should be focussing on and it might have different emphases or even a different direction to the present. If this is the case then changes need to happen, which means that implementing the strategy will also mean managing change (see section ...). d. Strategic control – once a strategy is in place and being implemented, the organisation needs to have measures and controls in place to monitor how well it is going and make adjustments as necessary. These would typically include financial measures and timelines. Milestones would be set up as steps on the way. These activities that are undertaken for implementing the organisation's overall strategy, also need to be undertaken for implementing lower level strategies in departments, units and teams.

Topic 2.7: Basics of Operating Models

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
BASICS OF OPERATING MODELS	By the end of this course unit, the participating manager should be able to: (a) Explain the meaning and importance of operating models to an organisation (b) Discuss different types of operating models and their application to Government services	i. Meaning and importance of operating models – Clarification of unique value concept, as reflected in quality of service delivery ii. Types of operating models – Linear programming models – Project Evaluation and Research Techniques (PERT) – Simulations iii. Application of the models – Forecasting – Control	– Lectures – Discussions – Exercises – Brainstorms – Case studies	– Trainers – Guest speakers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids	1 day (2)*	Knowledge and concept test

(2)* This course can be extended to 2 days for more detailed explanation of and practice with the operating models.

Topic 2.7 Expanded: Basics of Operating Models

i. Meaning and importance of operating models	Operating models are techniques used by managers to enhance the quality of the decisions that they make. They assist managers to become more objective in decision making by rationally evaluating all possible alternatives. They therefore principally help in optimising on the results achieved from the use of available resources. The operating models are therefore important in that they enhance the efficiency of the organisation in the provision of goods and services. They tend to clarify the unique value concept which enables the organisation, and the Government, to excel in its performance. The unique value of government services is reflected in the quality of the services delivered to the public. Such quality will be a function of the timeliness of the service, and its cost effectiveness, reliability, wholesomeness, and effectiveness in addressing the actual problem or real issues, among other things.
ii. Types of operating models	There are various types of operating models that can be used for the aforementioned purpose. The most commonly used models are: a. Linear Programming Techniques: These are techniques that consist of a sequence of steps that will lead to an optimum solution to a problem, or to the attainment of an objective or objectives. The objective here could be profit maximisation or cost minimisation or some other such variable. There are four components that provide the structure of a Linear Programme model, namely: i. Objective – which is what the organisation aims at achieving such as cost minimisation. This is usually stated in a mathematical expression referred to as the objective function. ii. Decision variables – these are the choices available to the decision maker in terms of amounts of either inputs or outputs. iii. Constraints – these are the limitations that restrict the alternatives available to the decision maker. iv. Parameters – these are the fixed values or the boundaries within which the model is solved. b. Programme Evaluation and Review Techniques (PERT) and Critical Path Method (CPM): These two models are really one and the same thing as their objectives and manner of manipulation are basically the same. They are used for planning and coordinating large projects, which are common in Government national development initiatives. The techniques use a network or precedence diagram to show major project activities and their sequential relationships. Such a network diagram shows the logical sequence in which project activities should follow one another so that the total project can be completed within budgeted timescale and cost. It shows the activities that can be run concurrently and those which must be completed before others can start. It

	therefore shows a path(s) as a sequence of activities leading from a starting point (node) to a finishing point (node). The path with the longest time is of particular interest because it governs the project completion time, and is referred to as the Critical Path, its activities being the critical ones. Paths that are shorter than the Critical Path can experience some delay and still not affect the overall completion time, as long as the ultimate path-time does not exceed the length of the Critical Path. Using PERT and CPM, managers are able to obtain: • A graphical display of project activities. • An estimate of how long the project will take. • An indication of which activities are the most critical to timely project completion, and • An indication of how long any activity can be delayed without lengthening the project time. c. Simulation: This is a descriptive technique on which a model or process is developed, and then experiments are conducted on the model to evaluate its behaviour under various conditions. It is not intended to produce a solution as such. Simulations enable decision makers to test their solutions on a model that reasonably duplicates a real process – such as a training situation. Decision makers therefore experiment with decision alternatives using a “What if?” approach. For example, space engineers simulate space flight in laboratories to enable astronauts to become accustomed to working in weightless environment. Airline pilots undergo extensive training with simulated landings and takeoffs before being allowed to try the real thing. Universities use management games as a means of simulating business environments. Simulations are useful tools in product design and testing, job design, testing alternative...policies, scheduling and in planning management.
iii. Application of the models	As can be inferred from the discussion above, these models are important in the management activities of planning, forecasting, coordinating and controlling: • Linear Programming techniques are good planning as well as forecasting tools. • PERT and CPM are important in planning, coordinating and controlling of project activities, while • Simulations are quite important in forecasting, planning and even controlling functions. They also have a use in training. Simplified versions of the models can be used in the management of various Government activities.

Topic 2.8: Diversity Management

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT	By the end of this course unit the participating manager should be able to: (a) Appreciate the importance of diversity management in an organisation (b) Identify the manifestation of discrimination within the public service (c) Design strategies to enhance diversity and gender balance	(i) Importance of diversity management (ii) Manifestations of discrimination (iii) Strategies to enhance diversity & gender balance – Diversity/ gender audit – Diversity-friendly laws, policies and structures – Legislation in S. Sudan – Policies in S. Sudan – Inclusive behaviours – Diversity awareness training	– Lectures – Discussions – Exercises – Quizzes – Brainstorms – Case studies	– Trainers – Guest speakers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids	1 day	Knowledge and concept test

Topic 2.8 Expanded: Diversity Management

i. Importance of diversity	Diversity management means putting together a well-thought out strategy for attracting, motivating, developing, retaining and fully utilising the talents of competent people regardless of their race, gender, ethnicity, religion, physical ability or sexual orientation. Within the context of Southern Sudan, the aspect of gender is especially crucial, as this where glaring imbalances are evident. The goal of diversity management is to create and maintain a culture where individual uniqueness is to be recognised and valued, and where all workers feel welcomed and supported and have the opportunity to work up to their potential. Diversity management is especially important in a young country like Southern Sudan. This is because all types of skills are in short supply and the country needs to do everything it can to attract the best and brightest minds. This requires taking away any barriers regarding employment, motivation, retention and promotion of women and other disadvantaged groups. Attracting such people is not the end of the game but the people should be retained and utilized in the most effective ways possible. This calls for proper placement of the employees without compartmentalizing people of certain gender into specific job categories. It may be surprising to note the extent of the creativity and innovation that may emanate from proper diversity management within the public service.
ii. Manifestations of gender discrimination	In Southern Sudan, gender discrimination is one of the most crucial issues that need to be addressed this does not mean that the other diversity issues are not important, but gender is especially important. Gender discrimination is manifested in various ways such as: • Biased recruitment and selection into the service. This is especially common higher up in the hierarchy in government service where women holding managerial positions are very few. • Unequal opportunities in promotion for women. Promotion essentially should be based on merit in terms of skills, competencies, education, attitudes and performance. However this may not exist in practice due to certain ingrained discriminatory beliefs and practices. • Non inclusion in decision-making. This happens where, although the women hold positions of authority, their male counterparts tend to ignore them within the decision making fora. • Pay discrimination. Sometimes, women are paid less than men at the same level, doing the same job. • Harassment. Women can be the victims of harassment. Harassment is unwanted, unwarranted attention on a person that offends the sensitivities of that person. It may be overt or covert. It could be sexual in nature, through innuendo, talk with sexual connotations, or unwanted physical contact. Harassment can emanate from a superior to a subordinate, or among colleagues. Harassment can also be psychological in nature, with pronouncements and behaviour intended to make other employees (especially females) feel inadequate. A patronising attitude towards female employees may be construed to be a form of harassment Bullying is an overt form of harassment where one employee victimises another through comments (e.g. making fun of) or even physically. To the bully it is seen as harmless fun; to the victim, it can be extremely traumatic.

	It is the role of all staff, but particularly those in authority (managers) to stamp out gender discrimination and to actively encourage and work towards gender balance.
iii. Strategies to enhance gender balance	There are various strategies to enhance diversity and gender balance including conducting an audit and initiating actions to build a diversity-friendly and gender balanced culture. Such actions include laws and policies that support diversity and gender balance, training for managers and employees, and the encouragement of inclusive behaviours. **Diversity/gender audit** An audit on attitudes and issues related to diversity/gender would reveal: • Where diversity/gender issues and needs exist. • The type of representation existing at the various employee levels, especially at the professional management levels. • Movements, trends and changes that are occurring. • Underlying assumptions and attitudes about diversity and gender balance. • Actual behaviour towards women and minorities in the workplace. Such an audit could be undertaken through written anonymous surveys of employees and/or in-depth interviews. The results would help clarify the directions that need to be taken to build a culture of diversity. Following the audit, the process below would help build such a culture: • The needs and concerns identified need to be converted into gender goals. • The goals are used as the yardsticks for the managers to measure progress. • Managers need to be held accountable for meeting the diversity/gender goals that have been established. • Top management need to demonstrate commitment to championing the cause of diversity in order to entrench the necessary behaviours and attitudes among workers. • Where necessary, specific types of training need to be designed in line with the findings of the diversity audit. • Support for the implementation of the proposed diversity/gender programme needs to be provided. • An ongoing system of monitoring the gender/diversity position within the service needs to be established. It is difficult to change organisational culture since it is rooted in deeply set values, beliefs and attitudes that usually reflect the prevailing societal culture. It is usually acknowledged that the best way to change culture is to address *behaviours* (through policies and structures), which eventually influence underlying values and attitudes. Organisational culture change is addressed more fully in Topic 5.6 of the Master Curriculum. **Diversity-friendly laws, policies and structures** Laws and policies are an important way of encouraging proper diversity management and gender balance. In

particular, laws which enshrine the rights of women and, to correct previous imbalances, provide for affirmative action. Additionally, human resource policies in the areas of recruitment, selection, promotion, performance appraisal and reward can be supportive of diversity and gender balance since these are areas where discrimination often occurs. Area 8 of the Master Curriculum (Human Resources) deals with these areas, describing best practice and policies in Southern Sudan. Examples of laws and recruitment and selection processes for Southern Sudan that support are described in the sections below.

Organisational structures (hierarchy, reporting relationships, roles and responsibilities) can also be used to promote diversity, e.g. through widening the responsibilities of certain roles, or setting up a Diversity Manager role to oversee policies and practice.

Legislation in Southern Sudan
The Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) upholds the equal rights of men and women:

"The equal right of men and women to the enjoyment of all civil and political rights set forth in the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights and all economic, social, and cultural rights set forth in the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights shall be ensured" (Article 1.6.2.16).

The Interim Constitution of Southern Sudan, 2005 includes under its Bill of Rights (20.1 to 20.5) a section on the rights of women. Summarised, women shall:

- Be accorded full and equal dignity with men.
- Have the right to equal pay for equal work and other related benefits with men.
- Have the right to participate equally with men in public life.
- Have the right to own property and share in the estate of their deceased husbands together with any surviving legal heirs of the deceased.

In addition, all levels of government in Southern Sudan shall:

- Promote women participation in public life and their representation in the legislative and executive organs by at least 25% (an affirmative action measure to redress prior imbalances).
- Enact laws to combat harmful customs and traditions which undermine the dignity and status of women.
- Provide maternity and child care and medical care for pregnant and lactating women.

Policies in Southern Sudan
GOSS has a set of core values to guide the conduct of employees and indeed, policy formation and associated procedures (contained in the Policy Framework for the Public Service of Southern Sudan, 2007; and the Manual of Public Service Procedures, 2007). These core values include inclusiveness (non-discrimination), and equity and affirmative action (including gender, minority ethnic groups and disabled persons). These core values are clearly aimed at enhancing diversity and gender balance.

By way of policy examples, Southern Sudan policy statements on recruitment and selection are summarised below. They demonstrate a concern for promoting diversity and gender balance through affirmative action for prescribed groups that are under-represented and/or in danger of being discriminated against.

Recruitment – in Southern Sudan, the Policy Framework (2007) states that recruitment is to be, as a general principle, merit-based, but also needs to be mindful of:

- Representativeness of various population groups.
- Gender considerations.
- Equity and affirmative action criteria of the core values of the public service.

The Manual of Public Service Procedures (2007) mentions four groups that require special consideration:

- Former civilian CANS employees and demobilized SPLA soldiers.
- Former Southern Sudanese GOS employees.
- Regular new employees
- Specialized temporary employees.

The treatment of each of these groups is detailed in the Procedures Manual (2007) and the Policy Framework (2007).

Selection – the criteria for selection as laid in the Policy Framework (2007) in descending order of importance (1 highest priority) are:

1. Years of experience in the post (or its equivalent) to be filled or service in the SPLA.
2. Satisfactory references or other assessments of past performance (e.g. service in the SPLM/SPLA.
3. Education (as appropriate to the post to be filled).
    - University Degree.
    - Vocational Training.
    - Secondary School Certificate.
    - Primary.
    - Informal training.
4. Functional literacy in English.
5. Gender balance.
6. Geographic balance.
7. Computer literacy.

Inclusive behaviours

Policies alone are not enough. They have to be implemented, which often involves a change in the way people behave towards more *inclusive behaviours*. This means the way people (especially managers) act towards each other. Such behaviours mean not discriminating on grounds of race, tribe, ethnic grouping, family, or gender but rather opening opportunities to everyone and judging on fair criteria such as merit and suitability (skills, knowledge) for jobs and promotions.

Inclusive behaviours include:

- Judging fairly, not discriminating by background or gender.
- Inviting and listening to the views of all.
- Including people of diverse backgrounds wherever possible in opportunities for recruitment, selection, promotion, projects, etc.
- Opposing all forms of harassment and bullying at work.

As Statt states with reference to the relationships between men and women at work; *"if behaviour can be changed first the attitudes will tend to follow"* (1994: 394). Behaviours can be changed by policies, structures and incentives that recognise and reward those desired behaviours.

So, inclusive behaviours need to be promoted and rewarded by top management through policies and structures, modelled by all managers through application of those polices and by their own example, and encouraged in all staff.

Diversity awareness training

Training for managers and staff on diversity (such as this course!) is an important way of raising awareness of diversity and gender issues and generating actions to dealing with them. The training itself helps to change behaviours and attitudes as participants become aware of and sympathetic to the issues.

References:

The Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA).

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MLPS&HRD (2007). *A Policy Framework for the Public Service of Southern Sudan.*

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Appendix C

Curriculum Area 3: Management Practices

Topic 3.1: Management Practices Overview

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
MANAGEMENT PRACTICES OVERVIEW	By the end of the course unit the participating manager should be able to: a) Define management b) Explain the importance of efficiency in the provision of government service c) Apply the principles of good governance in the provision of service d) Discuss the role of Government and the function of civil service. e) Explain the	i. Meaning of management a. Various definitions of management ii. Importance of management b. Provides direction c. Gets work done iii. Functions of management a. Planning b. Organising c. Controlling d. Directing-Leading e. Other functions iv. Governance principles a. Separation of powers b. Accountability c. Transparency d. Integrity e. Ethics f. Human Rights g. International	– Lectures Discussions – Exercises – Quizzes – Brainstorms – Application to own area – Internal practitioner or specialist – possibly a panel	– Trainers – Guest speakers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids	2 days	Knowledge and concept test

	functions of management	standards and conventions v. Role of Government a. Security b. Law and order c. Development d. Provision of Welfare Services e. International relations vi. Functions of the Civil Service a. Formulation of policy. b. Implementation of policy				

Topic 3.1 Expanded: Management Practices Overview

i. Meaning and importance of Management	There are various definitions of management: management can broadly be seen as a team or group of people charged with responsibility of running an institution, e.g. school, company or enterprise. It is also seen as a body of knowledge or subject content utilised by practitioners in the administration of institutions, e.g. management accounting or management science. Definition wise, there is no universally agreed definition of management; most institutions tend to cluster around a school of thought, e.g. Human Relations which tends to concentrate on the management of human resources. Similarly, the Scientific school of thought, which tends to view management as a process by which tasks are accomplished. Hence the emergence of several schools of thought concerning management, which have different emphases on what they consider as most important. However one particularly useful definition describes management as: *“a process which enables organisations to achieve their objectives by planning, organising and controlling their resources, including gaining the commitment of their employees.”* It is therefore the art of utilising materials (including finances) and human resources to accomplish a desired objective. It consists of getting things done through others. A manager therefore is one who accomplishes objectives by directing the efforts of others. Management is important to a unit, department or ministry in that it provides direction in terms of where the organisation is moving to, and why it is moving in that way. It also gets work done and objectives achieved though the mobilisation of resources. The complexity of managerial undertakings varies from the very basic (e.g. supervising a small team) to those that require technical knowledge and a vast perception of various environmental forces that may affect the outcomes of the entity (e.g. devising strategy that determines the direction of the organisation). The importance of management lies in that it: a) Provides direction: i.e. where the organisation is moving to and why it is moving in that direction. b) Gets work done through the provision of direction so that the scope of work is covered, and the mobilisation of resources so that the ways and means of accomplishing the task are provided.
ii. Functions of Management	Management operates and accomplishes its tasks through certain stages known as functions. Most commonly, these functions are classified as: *planning, organising, staffing, directing-leading*, and *controlling*, implying five functions. However, management scholars differ as to how they classify these functions, merging some or putting them under the heading of leadership. Here, we have settled on four functions:

	a) ***Planning*** – is setting in advance what needs to be done, how to do it, and the means and ways by which it is done. Plans can be classified into long and short term. Long-term plans are those that need to be accomplished in a period ranging from one year and above. Short-term plans are those that would need to be accomplished in a period ranging from one month to six months or so. Managers at all levels need to set and manage plans. At the top of the organisation, senior managers undertaken strategic planning for the whole organisation, mapping out future strategy and the plans to achieve it (Strategic Planning is covered in Topic 5.4). At department, unit and team levels, managers need to set plans for the work of their unit, aligned with the broader plans of the organisation. Managers also need to help individuals put plans in place for the work they will undertake – these are usually in the form of objectives to be met over a certain time period. Planning is covered in more detail in Topic 3.3 of the Master Curriculum. Sometimes, managers will be called upon to manage a particular project, i.e. a finite piece of work with defined objectives and timescale. One of the key stages in the management of any project is planning. Project Management is covered in detail by Topic 4.12 of the Master Curriculum. b) ***Organising*** – is setting the structure and organising duties and/or tasks to each level of the structure. Typical organisational structures are classified into Tall, Flat, and Matrix structures. Tall structures represent the classical and traditional type where there are several levels in the structure, while Flat structures have few levels and many reports to one position. The Matrix structure represents a situation were similar levels share certain services. While each structure has its own usefulness, each too has its own disadvantages. E.g. Tall structures are good for traditional organisations that are not highly diversified but tend to be notorious for loss of communication content at various levels as each level deletes or changes meaning to the extent that quite substantial meaning is lost on the way. Studies have shown that the lower level gets only 40% of the meaning content of the information and 60% is lost on the way. Flat structures are good for highly diversified organisations but tend to be equally notorious with the reporting position not able to get the substance of the information, particularly since the information tends to be highly technical. Studies have shown that a maximum of six is ideal for reporting to one position. Matrix structures are good for sharing technical services where resources are scarce but have a tendency to create conflict in the levels where line authority meets with the matrix. Since each of these structures is useful for different purposes, it is important to consider what the organisation is trying to achieve and to choose the most appropriate structure. There are a number of other types of structures described under Topic 3.4. At senior management levels, organising involves designing the structure of the whole or part of the organisation, usually closely linked to strategy – this is discussed in Topic 5.7 of the Curriculum.

c) ***Controlling*** – is the process of checking whether the laid down plans are being advanced to plan, and to effect any corrective actions that are appropriate. The controlling function of management is closely related to the management function of planning as it is the plans that are being monitored and compared to the achievements. Therefore, controlling is looking at the standards in terms of quantity, quality, value and time framework. The most effective tools of Control are budgets, time, resources and other measurable yardsticks.

Controlling is done at both unit and individual levels. Managers use controls to monitor the team, unit, department, and the whole organisation's performance. Managers also have the responsibility to ensure that the performance of individuals who report to them is monitored. Control of individual performance is referred to as *performance management* and organisations usually have human resource procedure to deal with this (as discussed in Topic 8.5 of the Master Curriculum).

Controlling is covered in more detail in Topic 3.5 of the Master Curriculum.

d) ***Directing-Leading*** – is providing the direction, where the organisation is going, and coordinating the efforts and energy of all the people. It is concerned with the achievement of the organisation's set goals towards that direction. This process requires an element of leadership, i.e. the person doing that has to have leadership qualities. These qualities involve an understanding of the three components of leadership which are: the leader, the follower, and the task. Any effective leadership must address these three components as each of these influence each other.

Another important element in the directing-leading function of management is communication. In simple form, this is the transfer of information from one point to another. This too involves understanding its process, which includes the creation of information, transmitting it (the channel chosen), and its final interpretation and consumption by the recipients. Because of its complexity and importance as a management tool, it is treated separately (Topic 4.7), but its relation and link to the management function of directing/leading must be appreciated at this point in time.

Directing-Leading is expanded in Topic 3.6 of the Master Curriculum. Additionally, Area 5 of the Curriculum covers a range of topics on Leading Organisations from a senior management perspective.

e) ***Other functions of management*** – in addition to or sometimes as part of planning, organising, controlling and leading-directing, managers also fulfil other important functions including:

- *Agenda setting* – part of directing-leading, at the top of the organisation it means establishing vision, mission, values and strategic objectives. At other levels it means setting the agenda for the unit or team, and individual objectives for employees.

	• *Mobilising resources* – ensuring that the resources to do the work (e.g. human resources, financial, materials, technology, etc.) are available through processes such as recruitment or procurement. • *Managing information* – communication with seniors, peers and subordinates, disseminating information and managing records. • *Managing performance* – part of both directing/leading and controlling, this involves managing the performance of individuals, the unit, projects and tasks so that the objectives that have been set are met. • *Networking with others* – a communication skill, this involves linking with people within and outside organisation to share information and skills for mutual benefit. • *Solving problems & making decisions* – managers are faced with problems and have to make decisions. • *Managing change* – change is a constant in organisations! Sometimes it is driven from outside, sometimes from within. Managers may be instigating change (e.g. introducing a more efficient procedure or a new organisational structure), or implementing change decreed from more senior managers. They have to manage change affecting their units and help employees cope with change at work. These other functions of management are covered in more detail in Topic 3.2 (Role of a Manager) of the Master Curriculum. Managing Change and Records Management are given more detailed coverage in Topics 3.7 and 3.8 respectively of the Master Curriculum.
iii. Governance principles	These are behaviours and ways by which management of the person in charge conducts themselves in the process of doing the business of the organisation. They include: a) Separation of powers – in a government setting there is a clear demarcation of responsibility. There is the Executive, which is the implementing body that delivers services to the public; the Legislature, which is the body that is charged with the making of laws, while the Judiciary is the body that is responsible for the interpretation and execution of the laws. In the business sector there are equally several departments that are charged with various functions of business, e.g. Finance, Marketing, Operations, Human Resources, etc. These areas have developed into specialised disciplines in their own right and as such are treated as specialised management areas. b) Accountability – is being answerable to a position above and to the client of your product or service. For anything we do, we owe it to ourselves and the recipient of that service or product that it is

	accordance with the law, and delivered in a manner in which the client is satisfied with the service, and feels that their dignity is preserved. Accountability means that if a mistake is made, the accountable manager is able to admit it and willing to take responsibility in helping to rectify it. c) Transparency – is the clearness, openness and understandability (to the public) of actions and ways by which a transaction is accomplished. E.g. the award of tenders should be based on an openly publicised process, and the awards also based on the applicant meeting the specifications of the tender. So the ways in which work and transactions are undertaken are not hidden (under the table) but conducted openly (on the table) for all to see. d) Integrity – is unquestionable character, i.e. a person whose words, deeds and actions are consistent, and are not in dispute by others. e) Ethics – a code of conduct that is conforming to certain beliefs, values or conventions. Most of the management deeds or actions either conform to an acceptable code of conduct – those that do are regarded as ethically right – or do not conform, which are regarded as unethical and therefore unacceptable by that convention or standard. In GOSS, the code of conduct is defined by the Civil Service Code, the Policy Framework of Public Service and the Public Service Manual. This code of conduct is based on core values that relate to ethics such as integrity, reliability, meritocracy, transparency and accountability. f) Human rights – the rights of an individual person by creed or convention. By creed, all people are created equal and hence are entitled to equal treatment. The United Nations Convention establishes the rights of the Child, the rights of Women, the rights of expression, etc. g) International standards and conventions – the United Nations has established several standards and conventions, e.g. the standard working day is 8 hours, i.e. 8am to 5pm, e.g. the rights of children to education, e.g. the rights to a free media and access to information. Most governments and nations subscribe to these standards and conventions, e.g. SPLM/A had to disband its Red Army Brigade which consisted of children, under pressure from the United Nations and other international communities so that these could attend school.
iv. Role of Government	Government influences what goes on in public and private institutions, and laws and rules set up by Government affect them directly. The role of Government is: a) Security – all public and private institutions in a particular state or nation are under the security of that state or nation. E.g. the United Nations headquarters in New York City is under the security of the USA. All accredited Diplomatic Missions to any country get their security or protection from those respective countries. So, security or the protection of its citizens, public, private and international institutions is the responsibility of the Government of that particular country.

	b) Law and order – is a set of Laws, rules and regulations that are established to regulate the conduct and behaviour of citizens and institutions. E.g. payment of taxes by citizens and business firms from their income is a good example of Laws that govern the conduct of persons and business organisations. c) Development – is a vital Government function that sees the living standards of its citizens progressing towards better standards. Developmental indicators include the Per Capital income. Other sectoral indicators include: in health, the number of doctors or number of hospital beds per unit of population; in the education sector, the number of pupils enrolled per unit of population in the primary and secondary levels. d) Provision of services – is the provision of certain essential services (e.g. water, electricity) to people within the state. Welfare services are provided to those that are less fortunate, e.g. the elderly, persons with no income or whose income is below the poverty level. A good example of a welfare service is free malaria treatment to persons living below the poverty level. e) International relations – is the relationship between a government and the International Community. Most governments have their diplomatic missions abroad representing them, and similarly those countries have missions in their countries. Also, other international bodies like the United Nations have their agencies that have residents in the country who need to be treated and protected in accordance with agreed International Conventions, e.g. the Diplomatic Code and other specialised arrangements.
v. Functions of the Civil Service	The function of the Civil service is to deliver to the public services in all the sectors of Government, e.g. Health, Education, Security, Agriculture, etc. The civil service has been set up by government (see The Interim Constitution of Southern Sudan, 2005: Articles 141 and 142) to enact government public policy, which emanates from Acts of Parliament. Whilst led by political appointees, the staff of the civil service are recruited and employed in the normal way and are not to engage in party politics. a) Formulation of policy – public policy emanates from Acts of Parliament which when they are being implemented at any unit level translate into policies and procedures which are guides to action at the level of implementation. b) Implementation of policy – essentially is the translation of policy into action, usually through more detailed procedures i.e. the delivery of the service or goods to the public, e.g. opening a health centre for delivering free malaria drugs in a country/region as result of a Government policy on the eradication of malaria. Another example could be in education, e.g. the opening of a primary school in a Boma that enrols the pupils free of charge as a Government policy on free primary education.

	References: References/reading material: material describing/explaining most of the contents mentioned in the above course unit can be found in the following basic management text books: 1. Invancevich, Donnelly and Gibson: *Management Principles and Function.* *2.* Terry and Fraklin: *Principles of Management.* 3. Blake and Lawrence: The ABC of Management. 4. Bulin: Supervision: *Skills for Managing Work and Leading People.* 5. Kreitner: *Management.* 6. Griffin: *Management.* *7.* Drucker: *The Practice of Management.* 8. Pettinger: *Introduction to Management.* *9.* Keotz: *The Essentials of Management.* *10.* Stoner: *Management.* Other references related to Southern Sudan: MLPS&HRD (2007). *A Policy Framework for the Public Service of Southern Sudan.* MLPS&HRD (February, 2007). *Manual of Public Service Procedures.* *The Interim Constitution of Southern Sudan, 2005.*

Topic 3.2: Role of a Manager

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
ROLE OF A MANAGER	By the end of the course unit the participating manager should be able to: a) Set strategic direction for the unit b) Mobilise resources for the unit c) Manage information for the unit d) Set performance standards for the unit and staff e) Build an effective network f) Identify problems	i. Role of a manager overview a. Defining management b. What do managers do? c. The roles managers play d. Management skills ii. Agenda setting a. Vision & mission b. Core values c. Strategic objectives d. Team & individual objectives iii. Resource mobilisation a. Types of resources: human, material, financial, technology b. Sourcing c. Utilisation of resources iv. Information management a. Information requirements b. Sources of information c. Methodologies d. Information dissemination	– Lectures Discussions – Exercises – Quizzes – Brainstorms – Role plays – Image drawing – Practical application	– Trainers – Guest speakers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids	3 days	Knowledge and Concept Test

	and make appropriate decisions	v. Performance management a. Standard setting b. Target setting c. Performance monitoring d. Performance measurement e. Corrective action vi. Networking a. Purpose of networking b. Principles of networking c. Types of networking d. Networking skills vii. Problem solving and decision making a. Problem diagnosis b. Nature of managerial decisions c. Techniques for decisions d. Decision making process e. Group problem solving	– Problem Solving Lab			

Topic 3.2 Expanded: Role of a Manager

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<td>i. Role of a manager overview</td>
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It is important to understand how we define management, what managers do, the roles they play, and the skills involved:

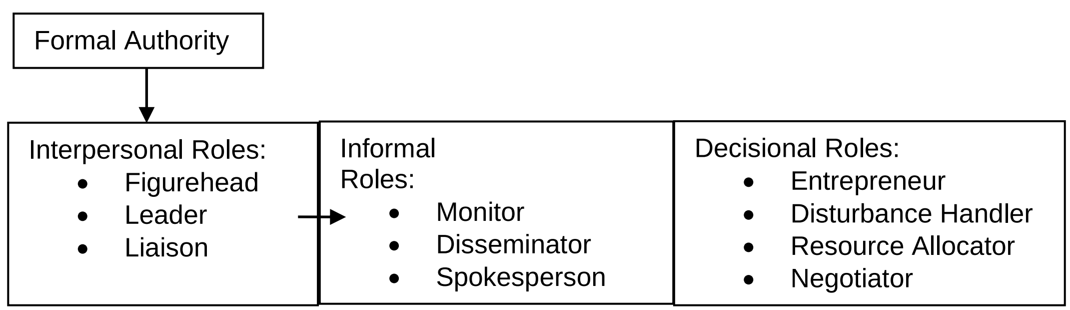
a) Defining management: Management can be called the “art of getting things done through other people”. Management is the process of planning, organising, and controlling the efforts of the organisation’s members and using all other organisational resources to achieve stated organisational goals.

b) What do managers do? Managers perform a wide range of tasks and activities, including:

• Work with and through other people – these include not only subordinates and supervisors but also other mangers in the organisation, customers, clients, suppliers, unions and so on. Thus, managers act as channels of communication within the organisation.
• Are responsible and accountable for the activities, tasks and objectives of their directorate, department, unit or team.
• Balance competing goals and set priorities. Each day, tasks are put in order of priority.
• Must think analytically and conceptually.
• Are mediators (conflict resolution).
• Are politicians. Managers must build relationships and use persuasion and compromise in order to promote organisational goals.
• Are diplomats. They are the official representatives of their units at organisation meetings.
• Make difficult decisions.

N.B. “A manager is what a manager does”.

c) The roles managers play:



d) Management skills: There are three basic types of management skills:
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	i. Technical skills: The ability to use tools, procedures, or techniques of a specialised field (e.g. human resources, finance, procurement, etc.) The manger needs enough technical skill to accomplish the mechanics of his or her particular job, e.g. as Human Resources Manager, or Finance Manager, etc. ii. Human skills. The ability to work with, understand, and motivate other people, either as individuals or in groups. This includes managing conflict. iii. Conceptual skills. The mental ability to coordinate and integrate the organisations interests and activities within their sphere of responsibility.
ii. Agenda setting	Agenda setting includes: a) Vision and mission: to set the vision and mission of the directorate, department or team that the manager is responsible for, aligned to the vision and mission of the organisation as a whole, and to communicate this in a way that informs and engages others. b) Core values: to champion the core values of the organisation in his/her area of responsibility (see Section on Core Values). c) Strategic objectives: to set strategic objectives that will help achieve the vision and the mission of the organisation. Objectives should be SMART i.e. Specific, Measurable, Attainable, Realistic, and Time-bound. d) Team and individual objectives: To ensure that the team(s) reporting to the manager are clear of their purpose and objectives (aligned to the organisation's strategic objectives), and that each individual reporting to the manager has his/her own objectives aligned to the strategic and team objectives. Vision and mission are important because they set direction; they help those working in the team see where it is going and what is most important. It is part of a manager's role to create a picture of the future such that people in the team are motivated to work towards it. For the whole organisation to be aligned "pulling in the same direction", it is key that the vision of a particular department, unit or team is aligned with that of the organisation as a whole. The core values of the organisation are a given, in the case of GOSS (from the documents: Manual of Public Service Procedures, 2007, and A Policy Framework for Southern Sudan, 2007) they are defined as: i. Impartiality.

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ii. Professionalism.
iii. Transparency and Accountability.
iv. Responsiveness to the client.
v. Inclusiveness (non-discrimination).
vi. Equity and affirmative action (including gender, minority ethnic groups and disabled persons).
vii. Integrity.
viii. Efficiency.

Depending on your level, you as a manager may or may not have an input into setting strategic objectives. However, all managers are responsible to ensure that the work of their team aligns and supports such strategic objectives.

It is the responsibility of all managers though, to ensure that teams and individuals reporting to them are working to clear objectives that support the strategic objectives. This is important because it enables the strategic objectives to be achieved. It is also important for reasons of performance management (see v. below) – you can only manage performance if there is something to measure it against and the setting of objectives gives you such a measure.
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<tr><td>iii. Resource mobilisation</td><td>
A manager is responsible to mobilise resources in support of achieving strategic objectives.

a) Types of resources: Human, material, financial, technology are all types of resources at a manager’s disposal.

b) Sourcing: This includes identifying and finding necessary resources. In the case of human resources, this means recruiting and selecting the best people to do the job. With material, financial and technology resources, it involves sourcing what is necessary and cost effective to do the job. This includes accountability for these resources, i.e. to be able to show that they were necessary and were used for the job they were intended.

c) Utilisation of Resources: The manager’s role is to use the resources at his/her disposal to achieve objectives. In the case of human resources this means ensuring people know what their roles and responsibilities are (e.g. through job descriptions and objective setting), assigning tasks, responsibilities and projects, delegation, and development of people to fill more responsible roles.
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<tr><td>iv. Information management</td><td>
Managers are responsible for information in the following ways:

a) Information requirements: This involves assessing what information is needed for people to do their jobs and for objectives to be achieved.
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	b) Sources of information: Ensuring that multiple sources are tapped and that communication channels in the organisation are open and functioning. c) Methodologies: Utilising all forms of information management (e.g. meetings, conferences, databases, memoranda, circulars, letters, IT technology, etc.) to ensure that information flows effectively. d) Information dissemination: Ensuring that employees in the manager's area of responsibility are kept informed, engaged, and involved in the things that affect their work by appropriate communication. This is through personal contact, written materials, the internet, messengers and other methods of dissemination. Ensuring information is passed efficiently to other Ministries, directorates, departments and teams to the benefit of the whole organisation. e) Records management: Ensuring that appropriate records are kept in an organised way. These include financial records, personnel records and other records relevant to the work of the department, unit or team.
v. Performance management	Managers are responsible for the efficient performance of their part of the organisation and the individuals who report directly to them. This includes standard and target setting, performance measurement, corrective action and feedback. Managing performance is important so that individuals, teams, and ultimately the whole organisation meets its objectives. The saying "What gets measured, gets done" is true in terms of managing performance; the act of setting targets and then measuring performance against them acts as a motivation for people to work hard to meet those targets. Performance management includes: a) Standard setting: To ensure that individuals are clear on what is expected of them in their work; establishing the performance standards in terms of output levels, quality of work or service. This should be in accordance with their job description, including the roles and responsibilities of their job. b) Target setting: To ensure that individuals are clear on and able to achieve set and mutually agreed goals as defined in their objectives. It is necessary to ensure that the targets set are achievable (see *SMART* above). c) Performance monitoring: Performance needs to be monitored if objectives and targets are to be achieved. Such monitoring can be through informal conversations and more formal reviews and reporting. It is important that monitoring is undertaken *during* the period that work is being done and not only at the end – this enables corrective action to be taken if things are not going to plan before it is too late. d) Performance measurement: Through reviews and individual performance analysis/appraisal, to

measure progress against standards and targets. The purpose is to identify any deviation from the standards or targets set. Ideally, this appraisal should be done jointly between the manager and the individual, on a regular basis (e.g. annually), and a record that is mutually owned is made.

Performance appraisal of staff can be an emotive activity since employees are not always open to comment or criticism from others. So it needs to be handled with care, and using objective data on performance. This is made much easier if clear objectives/targets have been set and against which performance can be measured. Although monitoring should be occurring during the performance period, formal performance appraisal is usually done on an annual basis. Such appraisal is often undertaken involves (i) an appraisal interview between the employee and their direct line manager, and (ii) the completion of an appraisal form for both the employee and the manager to record comments and agreed actions. The form is then kept as a staff confidential record, usually with the HR department.

In the Public Service of Southern Sudan, the Manual of Public Service Procedures (2007; Chapter 4) lays out the guiding principles of performance appraisal in Southern Sudan. With the aim of motivating staff towards high performance, GOSS is committed to developing its employees and has put in place a systematic approach to performance appraisal (formal and informal).

Both the Policy Framework (2007: Section 5.12) and the Manual of Public Service Procedures (2007: Chapter 4) set out aspects of the procedure for performance appraisal. Individual merit and performance in the job shall govern issues of promotion, discipline, termination, retirement, training, etc., hence appraisal of performance is very important. In addition the principle of seniority is to be accorded respect and consideration, providing that it does not conflict with the principle of merit and performance. More detail on performance appraisal in Southern Sudan is given in Area 8, Topic 8.5 of the Master Curriculum.

e) Corrective action: Arising from any deficiencies that have been found, feedback should be provided to individuals, and adjustments put in place that ensure organisational/team/individual performance gets back on track.

During the year, such corrective action could be support or training to the individual concerned, re-prioritising of tasks, or delegation of tasks to other team members. If under-performance has been over a sustained period and all other corrective measures have been exhausted, disciplinary action might be appropriate.

In Southern Sudan, an annual assessment of individual performance will be conducted by the immediate supervisor based, among other things, on a prior agreed work plan. The assessment should be based on a few simple and explicit criteria, and always shared with the individual concerned but otherwise kept strictly confidential within the public administration.

	Adverse performance assessments will always be shown to the individual concerned, that the individual should have the opportunity to discuss the assessment before it is finalised, comment on it in writing, and appeal its outcome to higher administrative levels. Meritorious performance should be recognised in a variety of ways, including non-monetary recognition and accelerated increments within grade. The Manual of Public Service Procedures (2007: Chapter 4) states that managers responsible for evaluating staff performance may use the following set of performance appraisal ratings: i. *Excellent:* This rating shall be reserved for employees who throughout the year consistently go beyond the implementation level outlined in their job descriptions. ii. *Very good:* This rating indicates that the individual consistently performs to the standards and expectations as defined in his/her job description. The employee demonstrates the knowledge, ability, skills and attitudes required by the job for which he/she has been hired. iii. *Good:* This rating indicates that the employee barely performed his/her responsibilities showing some improvement. iv. *Satisfactory – Needs Improvement:* This rating indicates that the employee needs to improve in one or more key areas of responsibilities as outlined in his/her job description. v. *Low – Poor Performance:* This rating indicates that the employee consistently performed below the standards and expectations set. This is sub-satisfactory performance. Documentation needs to be provided which: • Specifies examples of poor performance. • Indicates that the employee has been advised of his/her poor performance. • Support has been given by supervisor towards correcting deficiencies. Giving feedback, if it is to be effective in helping the employee see, understand, and correct any deficiencies needs to be done skilfully and with sensitivity. Giving a balanced picture is important, i.e. giving praise for work well done as well as constructive feedback where things need to change. It helps if feedback is based on facts (not hearsay or guesswork) and that examples are given. It also helps if the feedback is focussed on the performance not the person so that the conversation remains objective and does not become a personal attack.
vi. Networking	A manager has to network with other managers within and outside the organisation to bring information, expertise and resources to bear on issues and problems, particularly when the manager does not have direct

control over these resources. This enables the establishment of horizontal connections across organisational boundaries, sharing of information and expertise, collaboration, and contribution of one's own expertise to networks.

Haven't managers always used networks – contacts across the business, or functional counterparts – to move information and to get things done? Yes, but now it has become an organisational and competitive necessity. What has elevated the importance of networking? There are at least three related reasons:

- Decentralised and flattened organisational structures need mechanisms to share information and resources given the demise of old hierarchies and functional structures.

- Information flow and identification of resources and expertise within and across disciplines needs to be fast and flexible.

- Extensive use of IT, particularly electronic mail and the internet, has made networking on a truly global scale possible.

Networking provides a fast and flexible way of moving information across an organisation, quickly identify appropriate resources to deal with issues, tap into specialised expertise, share learning, and solve problems. It is fit for purpose in a delayered, flattened organisation where those managing processes need the co-operation of those over whom they have no formal authority.

Networking is fast because it works horizontally, (and also vertically and diagonally), getting the right people involved regardless of their position in the organisation. It is flexible because networks exist as 'open' groupings, able to expand or contract as the need dictates, and dependant on the skills of the individuals involved *not* organisational structure.

Since many staff work in multi-disciplinary teams, networking is often the only way to maintain their functional links and thereby ensure that best practice is shared and that professional skills are kept up to date. It also remains a key mechanism for individual development and job seeking as in the past, although its role is now much wider than this. Networking also works powerfully across functions, facilitating the drawing together of the necessary resources and expertise to solve a problem.

One definition of networking is: *"the ability to create and maintain an effective, widely based system of resources that works to the mutual benefit of oneself and others"* (Byrum-Robinson and Womeldorff, 1990: 153).

There are several types of networks: e.g. networks between managers, specialist technical networks, professional networks, etc.

	For effective networking, the manager requires interpersonal skills to facilitate collaboration, the skills to seek relevant information, and the track record and expertise to contribute to the network. What are the skills needed to make networks work effectively? Byrum-Robinson and Womeldorff (1990) describe a model of networking skills comprises three main skills areas described below. They hinge around *effective interpersonal communication*. • Seeking relevant information - the ability to seek, locate, distribute, and bring to bear relevant information and resources to a problem. • Building and maintaining good working relations - networking depends on the co-operation of others, often with whom you have no formal organisational link or control. Hence good working relations are essential. Building relationships involves looking for and finding common ground, often through common interest, or trying to solve common problem. Disclosure of information, and personal disclosure can help the process. Mutual benefit is key to building relationships in networks. The fact that each individual can benefit from the network is an incentive to get involved and contribute. Trust also important – helping others to trust you, through your credibility/expertise, but also by being reliable and willing to work for the benefit of others in the network. • Developing a reputable track record - this is about *your* role and contribution to the network through the specific skills you bring, and the way you use them in the network: The above three skills are added by Byrum-Robinson and Womeldorff (1990: 168) to their definition of networking so that it becomes: *“Networking is the ability to create and maintain an effective, widely based system of resources that works to the mutual benefit of oneself and others through the skill dimensions of using relevant information, having good working relations, and maintaining and communicating a good track record.”*
vii. Problem solving and decision making	Managers are often called upon to solve problems and to make decisions. Problems can include technical difficulties, not having the resources to undertake a job, conflict between team members, conflicting priorities, demands from more senior management to meet seemingly impossible targets, and complaints from customers about service levels. Managers have to face and deal with such problems, and are often called upon to make decisions in the process. In the face of problems and the requirement to make decisions, managers are frequently involved in:

	a) Problem diagnosis: able to ascertain what the problem is, and separate the problem from the person. b) Nature of managerial decisions: Knowing which areas are the prerogative of the manager to decide, where approval elsewhere in the organisation needs to be sought (e.g. higher up the management line, or across in another Ministry, directorate, or department), and where advice and/ or support needs to be obtained. c) Techniques for decisions: Aware of various techniques for making decisions and when to use each technique, e.g. democratic (working for consensus), consultation (asking for views then deciding), autocratic (telling people how it will be). Deciding which technique to use depends on the circumstances of the particular situation. d) Decision making process: Aware of organisational decision making processes and who needs to approve or ratify what. e) Group problem solving: Able to facilitate a group to work on a problem so that each member of the group can express their views and contribute to the solution. Or to use an independent third party for help or to provide expertise. Ways of dealing with problems include: a) Solving a problem – a problem is solved when the best possible solution is selected. Managers are said to optimise when through scientific observation and quantitative measurement they systematically research alternative solutions and select the one with the best combination of benefits. b) Dissolving a problem – a problem is dissolved when the situation in which it occurs is changed so that the problem no longer exists. Problem dissolvers are said to idealize because they actually change the nature of the system in which a problem resides. c) Resolving a problem – when a problem is resolved, a course of action that is good enough to meet the minimum constraints is selected. The term "satisfy" has been applied to the practice of settling for solutions that are good enough rather than the best possible. A badly worn tyre may satisfy as a replacement for a flat tyre for the balance of the trip, although getting the flat repaired is the best possible solution. We are all problem solvers but this does not mean that we are all good problem solvers. Managed problem solving consists of a four step sequence: (1) identifying the problem; (2) generating alternative solutions; (3) selecting a solution, and (4) implementing and evaluating the solution. 1. Indentifying the problem – as a matter of fact, the most common difficulty in solving a problem is

	identifying it in the first place. Some steps for identifying the problem: • You must know what the actual situation is. • You must know what the desired situation is. • Cause – what is responsible for the difference between the actual and desired situations? 2. Generating alternative solutions – after the problem and its most probable cause have been identified, attention turns to the generating of alternative solutions. This is the creative step in problem solving. 3. Selecting a solution – in selecting a solution it is important to consider whether the solution is effective and efficient in view of relevant constraints and intangibles. Other criteria may also be applied in choosing from the various alternatives (e.g. cost, impact, how close it fits the desired outcome, etc.) 4. Implementing and evaluating the solution – time is the true test of any solution. Until a particular solution has had time to prove its worth, the manager can rely on his or her judgement concerning its effectiveness and efficiency. Ideally the solution selected will completely eliminate the difference between the actual and the desired in an efficient and timely manner – but what if the gap fails to disappear? Then it's back to redefining the problem and/or looking at other solutions. **References:** MLPS&HRD (2007). *A Policy Framework for the Public Service of Southern Sudan.* MLPS&HRD (2007). *Manual of Public Service Procedures.* Byrum-Robinson, B. & Womeldorff, J. D. (1990). *Networking Skills Inventory*. The 1990 Annual: Developing Human Resources, pp. 153-168. University Associates.

Topic 3.3: Planning

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
PLANNING	By the end of the course unit the participating manager should be able to: a) Describe the planning process with reference to the practice in Southern Sudan b) Discuss the importance of planning in Government c) Apply planning techniques	i. Meaning & importance of planning ii. Rationale for planning iii. Process of planning a. Set primary objectives b. Search for opportunities c. Formulate plans d. Target setting e. Follow-up plans iv. Types of plans a. Long term b. Medium term c. Short term d. Day to day v. Planning techniques a. Budgeting b. Forecasting c. Scenario building	– Lectures – Discussions – Exercises – Quizzes – Brainstorms – Practical application – Cases Resulting in draft plans and plans for involving others in the plan process	– Trainers – Guest speakers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids	2 days	Knowledge and concept test

Topic 3.3 Expanded: Planning

i. Meaning and importance of planning	Planning is a management function which involves determining, in advance, the courses of action that could be taken in relation to the possible occurrence of a given event. It also involves the process of searching mentally for possibilities of future problems that might appear, and designing the possible courses of action that should be taken in that event. It therefore involves looking at the future and determining the best courses of action to take in order to achieve the goals of the organisation, of the Government or a Government department. As such, planning should be in line with the vision and mission of the organisation, and its strategies and policies. Managers at all levels need to set and manage plans. At the top of the organisation, senior managers undertaken strategic planning for the whole organisation, mapping out future strategy and the plans to achieve it (Strategic Planning is covered in Topic 5.4). At department, unit and team levels, managers need to set plans for the work of their unit, aligned with the broader plans of the organisation. Managers also need to help individuals put plans in place for the work they will undertake – these are usually in the form of objectives to be met over a certain time period. Sometimes, managers will be called upon to manage a particular project, i.e. a finite piece of work with defined objectives and timescale. One of the key stages in the management of any project is planning. Project Management is covered in detail by Topic 4.12 of the Master Curriculum. Planning is of great importance to both the managers and the workers in the service. As already mentioned, they provide the basis for decision making. Planning gives a clear sense of direction to the workers in general. They are made aware of what is expected of them within a given time frame. They can therefore work in a more organised and focussed manner towards the achievement of the goals of their units or departments. By clarifying the direction of the workers at all levels, planning also generates a sense of unity and togetherness in the pursuit of the common goals. The workers can therefore operate with greater co-operation and harmony. This relates to the managers in the different departments who can understand better the commonality and interdependence of their individual departments' activities. Planning also provides for standardized performance of duties, and provision of services. With proper plans, an individual will be able to fit in and perform at the same level as any other individual in a given activity.
ii. Rationale for planning	Planning is necessary because the future is always uncertain. Such uncertainty needs to be addressed and understood so that the appropriate courses of action can be taken in order to reduce the risks of failure that may arise. Closely related to this aspect of uncertainty is the dynamic nature of the environment within which public services are provided. It is therefore necessary to anticipate and deal with such changes effectively as

	they arise. Additionally the resources available to managers are limited and they have to be allocated with care and fairly if the objectives are to be achieved. This calls for careful planning. We can therefore say that policies, as guides to decisions and actions depend upon the deliberate planning of the future possibilities.
iii. Process of planning	The process of planning essentially consists of five stages which are: a. Setting of primary objectives as well as intermediate objectives. The primary objectives are set by the top executives (or senior officials and ministers) of Government and they are broad in nature. The intermediate goals are aimed at clarifying the primary goals and well be set by the senior managers of government such as the Undersecretaries and Director Generals in GOSS, and the Secretary Generals and Director Generals in the State Governments. b. Search for Opportunities. This is basically a data collection function which is aimed at discovering opportunities of the Government entities that may exist within the environment. Such opportunities could even be in the form of new funding possibilities for Government activities. c. Formulation of Plans. This involves translating, or converting the opportunities discovered in the search, into strategies and policies that are aimed at achieving the primary and intermediate goals set. For example, this could involve setting strategies for getting identified donor funds to facilitate capacity building of Public Servants. d. Target Setting. This involves translating the broader plans into specific and detailed schedules in terms of quantities and times for the many functional managers involved. These targets are usually set by the middle level managers but may also involve the other levels of managers. The targets set will have an impact on the other public services workers in planning their own activities. e. Follow-up Plans. As plans are implemented, they need to be followed up to ensure that the actual performance is in conformity with the targets set. This is for the sake of effectiveness; there is the need for continuous checks (monitoring) to determine whether the plans are actually resulting in performance consistent with their original intention. This allows for correction (to get activities back on track) or adjustment of plans. At the end of the plan period, it is necessary to undertake a review (evaluation) of the overall result so that lessons can be learned for subsequent planning activities.
iv. Types of Plans	As we have already seen, a plan is a pre-determined course of action. A plan could be for a specific project, or could be established as standing plans for future course of action. These could be in the form of standard operating procedures or checklists. Plans could either be long-term, medium-term or short-term. a. Long-tem plans are for a period of five years and above. They are usually broad statements of intent, relating to the economy of the country or the state as a whole.

	b. Medium-term plans are usually for a period of three to five years. They are derived from the long-term plans, and are more specific in nature. They could reflect the Government's intention for specific sectors of the economy such as the agricultural or manufacturing sector. c. Short-term plans are usually for a period of one to three years. These plans are derived from the medium-term plans. They may address specific industries within the sector. Such plans are usually reflected in the annual budgets of a government. d. There can also be detailed day-to-day, weekly, monthly or quarterly plans which are important to departments, teams or individual employees. **In Southern Sudan** – the Public Service Reforms Implementation Framework Manual (2008) contains a good example of a medium term plan (2008 to 2011) concerning the implementation of certain Public Service reforms. The plan is plotted on a chart and contains the activities to be undertaken, their duration (including start and end dates) and the level at which they will be effective (GOSS or state). The document gives details of the various activities, the leadership bodies that will guide their implementation, and how they will be monitored.
v. Planning Techniques	There are various specialised techniques that are used in planning. These include: a. **Budgeting –** this is the principal means by which managers formalise and express their plans. Comprehensive budgeting consists of a number of budgets, emanating from the smallest section to the department, to the Ministry and to the Government. Ideally the budget time span should be short enough to permit the making of fairly accurate predictions. It should however be long enough in order to address significant issues of policy, strategy and procedure. A budget could be either fixed or flexible. A flexible budget makes allowances for possible changes in projected inputs such as the flow of finances. A fixed budget does not make such allowance for the budget period. b. **Forecasting** – this is the practice where a manager seeks to identify how future conditions will affect operations of his department or unit. This is based on the premise that although external environmental conditions are outside his or her control, changes therein should be estimated so that the unit or department can adapt quickly to the changes. The way in which such forecasting can be carried out include: • Studying and using past data for similar situations. • Using the forecasts of other similar units or departments. • Carrying out specific research surveys. • Brainstorming with the workers. • Having expert's complete detailed questionnaires independently, without the knowledge of others,

	and progressively arriving at a consensus. c**. Scenario construction –** this is a method used to make flexible long-range forecasts, since it normally seeks to create (or simulate) a number of possible descriptions of the future (scenarios). It is basically a logical description of events as they could unfold. It would be composed by a committee or think-tank that would look at the situation and examine details of the alternative situations that could evolve, and creating scenarios of each. By carefully examining necessary adjustments and re-adjustments, the scenarios envisioned may produce reasonably accurate forecasts. The scenario planning process, put simply, includes the following steps: • Decide on the key question to be answered. • Map trends and driving forces (e.g. in the environment). • Identify key uncertainties and assumptions. • Define possible scenarios (usually 2-4). • Assess the scenarios. **References:** MLPS&HRD (August 2008). *Public Service Reforms Implementation Framework Manual.*

Topic 3.4: Organising

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
ORGANISING	By the end of the course unit the participating manager should be able to: a) Define organisational structure b) Distinguish different types of organisational structure c) Explain the basis of which organisations are structured d) Organise work and projects, roles and responsibilites	i. Organisational structure a. The meaning of organisational structure b. Purpose of organisational structure c. Principles of organisation ii. Types of organisational structure. iii. Basis of organisational structuring iv. Organising work and projects, roles and responsibilities	– Lectures Discussions – Exercises – Quizzes – Brainstorms – Practical application	– Trainers – Guest speakers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids – Videos/ audios – Martin Luther King, John Garang, copies of speeches	1 day	Knowledge and concept test

Topic 3.4 Expanded: Organising

i. Organisational structure	a. The meaning of organising Organising is the aspect of management that focuses attention on the structure and process of allocating jobs in order for common objectives to be achieved. It can also be considered as the element of management concerned with change or growth of the structure. The organisational structure is the basic framework within which management's decision making behaviour occurs. The structure therefore reflects the way in which activities in the organisation are grouped for purposes of achieving the objectives of the organisation. It also effects the assignment of these activities to appropriate departments. It further provides for the authority relationships, delegation and coordination within the organisation. b. Purpose of organisational structure The purpose of the organisational structure can be described as follows: • It shows the way in which activities of the organisation are grouped and assigned to departments • It shows the authority relationships in the organisation • It shows the reporting lines for various employee categories • It shows the inter-relationships between the various departments in the organisation. c. Principles of organisation There are many principles underlying the management function of organising. The main principles include: • Unity of objective, whereby every part of the organisation must contribute to the attainment of overall objectives. • Span of control whereby consideration is needed to find out the number of workers an individual can effectively manage • Delegation whereby authority should be delegated as far down the levels as possible • Unity of command which states that each subordinate should be answerable to only one superior • Scalar principle which states that a clear line of authority should be in existence for all parts of the organisation • Responsibility which states that the responsibility of a subordinate to a superior for delegated authority

	is absolute, and that responsibility should be on par with the amount of authority given. • Exception principle which states that recurring decisions should be handled in a routine manner by lower level managers while unusual problems should be referred to higher levels.
ii. Types of organisational structure	There are different types of structure that an organisation can adopt. We have referred in summary to Tall, Flat and Matrix structures (Topic 3.1 of the Master Curriculum), which serve different purposes. These structures can take any of the following forms: a. Line organisational structure. This is an organisational structure consisting of direct, vertical relationships. There is a clear flow of authority through the lines as channels. Such authority flows from its source to the points of action. This is ideal for small organisations. b. Staff organisational structure. Where an organisation is relatively big, there would be many functions. Some of these functions would be allocated to specialists. The staff specialists are a modification of the line structure. The structure consists of departments manned by staff specialists who assist line managers. Such staff departments may include for example, human resources, industrial relations and legal departments amongst others. c. Functional organisational structure. This is a method of relating specialists to the line organisation. In this case, functional managers are responsible for certain activities and are given substantial executive authority. Functional departments may, with the authority of top management, set programmes and standards with which operations departments must comply (for example, the Finance Department setting out financial procedures). d. Committee organisational structure. In this case, a group of persons are given responsibility over specific issues. Some such committees undertake management functions such as policy making and operating committees, while others do not. Some committees make decisions, others deliberate but do not decide. Some have authority to make recommendations to a superior while others are formed purely to receive information without recommending or deciding. e. Project organisation structure. This is a type of organisational structure that can be tailored to a particular mission or project. Its purpose is to coordinate actions towards the completion of the project, while retaining the advantages of functional specialists. It tends to be short-lived according to the life cycle of the project. f. Matrix organisational structure. This type of structure identifies subsystems of a complex organisation. Each of these subsystems has its appropriate strategy of planning, control, rewards and boundary negotiations. These subsystems may be dependent on one another in terms of authority relations while in other cases they may be autonomous units or projects. This type of structure typically involves

	sharing resources and can involve dual reporting. g. Bureaucracy. This model of formal organisational structure was developed by Max Weber in the 1920s. This is a type of organisation structure that has very clear lines of authority in a hierarchical level with activities being distributed as official duties. Operations are governed by a consistent system of abstract rules that are applied to individual cases. The manager operates impersonally without emotion. Employment in the organisation is based on technical qualifications and is not subject to arbitrary termination. Such an organisation is typified by slow decision making since rules and procedures have to be followed, and changing the rules is difficult. The bureaucratic structure was one of the early forms of organisational structure and as such has influenced those that followed such as the line, staff and functional structures. **In GOSS,** most of the structural forms mentioned above can be found. Overall, GOSS is a Tall, Bureaucratic structure with aspects of the other structures within it (e.g. Staff, Functional, Committees, Projects, etc.).
iii. Basis of organisational structuring (Departmentalisation)	There are several basis on which such structuring or departmentalisation is done, which include: a. Functional basis. This is the most widely used basis. This is especially so in the case of commercial enterprises where the key operating activities included production, marketing and finance. This basis of departmentalisation follows the principle of specialisation. b. Geographical basis. With large organisations operating throughout the country, it may be found desirable to divide some activities among branches spread in the various regions of the country. A manager is put in charge of an area, and is given responsibility for all aspects of activities in the region. c. Product or service basis. In this form of departmentalisation, a production unit is set up for each good or service and a department established for handling all aspects of the product or service. Top management delegates wide authority to such departments or divisions. d. Customer basis. This form of departmentalisation is used by organisations which have various types of customers. Such customers could be retail customers, corporate customers, industrial customers or institutional customers. Different departments would thus cater for the needs of specific customers, which bring in specialisation. e. Process or equipment basis. The purpose of this form of departmentalisation is to achieve economies or by grouping activities around a process or type of equipment which cannot be made in economical small units. Such equipment is costly and specialized. Each state in the whole production process is a separate department or division.

	In GOSS, the basis for structuring is primarily functional, and in the States, geographical. Within this, a service basis is used.
iv. Organising work and projects, roles and responsibilities	**Organising work** Organisational structures set out how units and key posts relate to each other and how authority is administered in the organisation. Within these structures, departments, units, teams and individuals need to be clear on the work they are doing and their roles and responsibilities. Managers have the responsibility of organising the work of their team or area. This includes assigning ongoing and regular activities. It also includes the allocation of new tasks and projects. At a unit or team level, it means ensuring it is clear which unit or team is responsible for which activities, and that there are sufficient resources to undertake them. Projects are very specific pieces of work with clearly defined objectives, boundaries, budgets and timelines. As such, they are usually managed according to the disciplines of *project management,* which in summary include (adapted from Cook, 2005): 1. *Scoping* – setting and agreeing the scope of the project, its aim and objectives. 2. *Planning* – making a plan, including listing/scheduling tasks that need to be undertaken. 3. *Doing* – implementing the work of the project, and controlling it through monitoring. 4. *Completing* – finishing the project by reporting and evaluating. More information on project management is contained in Topic 4.11 of the Master Curriculum: Managing Small Projects. **Roles and responsibilities** Within units or teams, organising of work needs to reach down to the roles and responsibilities of each individual so that each person understands what their role is and what they are responsible for. Such individual assignment of work is usually undertaken in at least two ways in a formal sense – *job descriptions* and *objectives*. ***Job descriptions*** – these describe a person's job, including its role and responsibilities. They typically include the job title and grade, department and location, a summary of the job, the job's responsibilities and specific duties, who the job is responsible to, and other relationships. Job descriptions help give clarity to a person on their role and responsibilities. They are particularly important for someone who is new in their job. They can be

	amended as duties change or new duties are added. Job descriptions are also necessary for advertising jobs during recruitment. ***Objectives –*** within a person's job, it is good practice to set specific objectives of targets or goals that need to be achieved during a specified timescale. Such targets and goals should be aligned to the overall objectives of the unit or team, and ultimately to the strategic objectives of the organisation. Objectives should be measurable (e.g. to achieve such and such by a particular time) so that the manager has a way of monitoring progress and, at the end of the timescale, evaluating overall achievement of the objectives. Achieving specific objectives, together with undertaking the duties outlined in the job description, can then be used to measure performance. Writing job descriptions is covered in detail in Topic 8.4 (Job Descriptions) of the Master Curriculum, and setting individual performance objectives is covered in Topic 8.5 (Managing Performance). **References:** Apple, R. C. *Business Administration.* Cook, C. R. (2005). *Just enough project management: The indispensible four-step process for managing any project better, faster, cheaper.* McGraw-Hill: New York. Schodebek, P. P. et al. *Management.*

Topic 3.5: Controlling

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
CONTROLLING	By the end of the course unit the participating manager should be able to: a) Define controlling as a management function b) Describe the control process c) Apply different control measures d) Describe features of an effective control system	i. Meaning of control a. Purpose of control b. Areas of control c. Cost control in Gov't d. Attitudes and Values ii. Control process a. Review objectives and targets b. Establishing control criteria c. Performance measurement of targets and standards d. Remedial measures e. Accountability iii. Criteria for establishing control processes a. Value for money b. Cost effectiveness c. Cost benefit analysis	– Lectures Discussions – Exercises – Quizzes – Brainstorms – Practical exercise: Identify areas in need of control and measures/ process	– Trainers – Guest speakers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids	1 day	Knowledge and concept test

Topic 3.5 Expanded: Controlling

i. Meaning of control	Controlling can be described in the following ways: a) Purpose of control: Management control is a systematic effort to set performance standards with planning objectives, to design information feedback systems, to compare actual performance with these predetermined standards, to determine whether there are any deviations and to measure their significance, and to take any action required to assure that all corporate (government) resources are being used in the most effective and efficient way possible in achieving organisational objectives. b) Areas of control: Controlling activities must establish accountability mechanisms such as: • Rules and regulations. • Policies. • Budgets. There are many types of controls such as control of quality of service or product. The most commonly used tools for control include budgets, audits and ratio analysis. In government service, there is need for accountability to the public in the use of government finances. This is because the government spends public funds which are limited. It is therefore important that costs are tightly controlled and that the money is spent well for the benefit of the people and the country as a whole. c) Cost control in Government: There is accountability to the public and the country since the Government is spending public funds, which are limited. So it is important that costs are tightly controlled and the money spent well and for the benefit of the people and the country as a whole. d) Attitudes and values: For a control system to be effective, it must be accurate, timely, and objective. It must be focused on key performance areas and strategic control points. It must also be economically realistic, organisationally realistic, and coordinated with organisations workflow. It is important that it is flexible, prescriptive, and acceptable to the organisation's members. It requires those undertaking Controlling activities to be objective, rigorous, disciplined and detailed.
ii. Control process	The control process is divided into various steps: b) Review objectives and targets: Understanding what has to be achieved so that measures can be set. c) Establishing control criteria: Establish standards and methods for measuring performance, including

	clear metrics. i. Steering controls which detect performance deviations before a given operation is completed. ii. Screening controls which ensure that specific conditions are met before an operation proceeds further. iii. Post action controls where past experience is applied to future operations. d) Performance measurement of targets and standards: Measure performance. This is an ongoing repetitive process, where the actual frequency depends on the type of activity being measured. For example some items will be measured annually, some quarterly, some more regularly. Match performance to the standard. e) Feedback: Communication to those involved in the activities so that they understand performance against standards and targets. f) Remedial measures: Take corrective action to improve performance so that targets and standards can be met. g) Accountability: Accountabilities need to be clear for those undertaking the work of the organisation (who is accountable for each activity, target, etc.), and also for those undertaking control activities.
iii. Criteria for establishing control processes	The main criteria for establishing control processes are: a) Value for money: The organisation needs to get value for money in all its activities, assets, procurement and expenditure, and avoid waste and misuse. Hence controlling is a crucial activity to monitor value for money. b) Cost effectiveness: Activities must be cost effective, i.e. be delivered to the required quality at the best price, and within the budgets set. Controlling helps ensure ongoing cost effectiveness. c) Cost benefit analysis: It is important to be continually analysing the benefits achieved from activities and comparing these to the costs incurred to establish value and to guide future activity. Cost benefit analysis is an important part of Controlling. In Government, the benefit is not always measurable in monetary terms, for example in health it might be % of the population reached with primary health care, or in education, % of children enrolled in school.

Topic 3.6: Directing-Leading

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
DIRECTING-LEADING	By the end of the course unit the participating manager should be able to: a) Discuss the concepts of directing and leading b) Articulate the vision, mission and core values of public service c) Communicate effectively with various publics d) Mandate staff for effective performances duties e) Delegate work	i. Meaning of leadership a. Distinguishing directing from leading b. Styles of leading-directing (including situational leadership model) ii. Agenda setting a. Vision b. Mission c. Strategic objectives d. Core values and philosophy iii. Communication a. Communication process b. Barriers to communication c. Ways of enhancing communication iv. Motivating staff a. Motivational methods b. Implications for managers	– Lectures Discussions – Exercises – Quizzes – Brainstorms – Practical application – Case studies ↓ – Lectures – Discussions Cases – Practical	– Trainers – Guest speakers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids	2 days	Knowledge and concept test

	effectively	c. Implications for organisations d. Indicators of demotivated staff v. Delegation a. Benefits of delegation b. Methods of delegation	application – Case study exercise			

Topic 3.6 Expanded: Directing-Leading

<table>
<tr>
<td>i. Meaning of leadership</td>
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a. Leadership and direction defined

Leadership may be defined as the process of influencing and directing the task related activities of group members. Directing is a leadership function at the strategic apex. Leadership at this level is aimed at creating the vision, mission and the core values of the organisation. At other levels, leadership is about motivating and mobilising staff to achieve desired goals aligned to the organisation’s vision, mission and core values.

b. Leadership Styles

<table>
<tr><td><u>Leadership Style</u></td><td><u>Behavioural Style</u></td></tr>
<tr><td>Transformational</td><td>Change Agent
Continuous Improvement
Team Work
Trust Building</td></tr>
<tr><td>Transactional</td><td>Neutral
Objective
Action oriented</td></tr>
<tr><td>Management by Exception</td><td>Critical
Problem Solving</td></tr>
<tr><td>Laissez Faire</td><td>Less concentration on work
Strives to maintain status quo</td></tr>
</table>

Participative: Involvement of workers

Autocratic: Leader centred – the leader makes all the decisions

Democratic: Builds consensus

Charismatic: Personality based

Each of these styles is applicable in different circumstances and good leaders are able to adapt their style to those they are leading and the tasks being undertaken. So, the leadership style used will depend upon:
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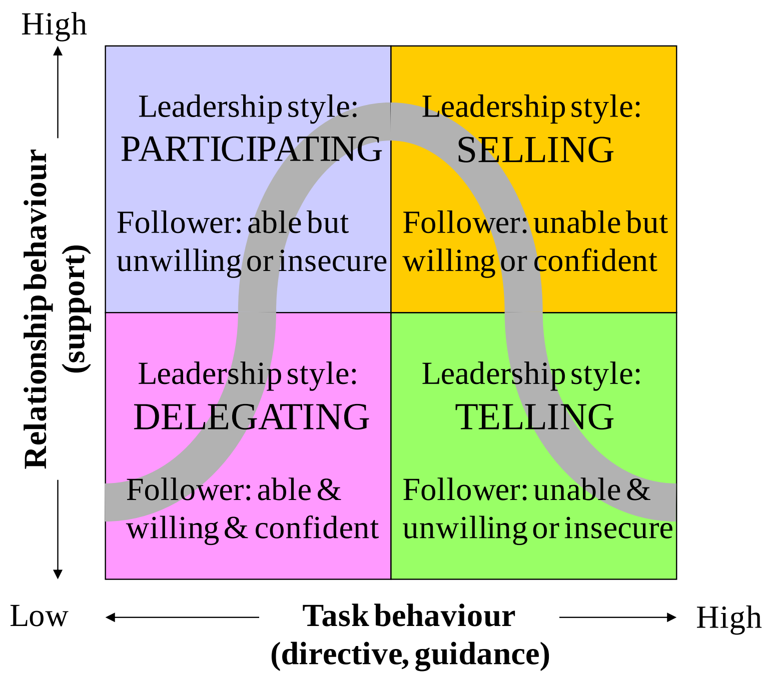
- The nature of the task being undertaken.
- The people being led (their styles, experience, levels of expertise, etc.)
- The leader (his or her own preferred style).

The Situational Leadership model (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993) is a useful way of describing leadership styles by looking at both people and task dimensions giving a four box matrix of styles (Telling, Selling, Participating, and Delegating). It comes with a diagnostic questionnaire that allows managers to analyse their own preferred style(s), and helps them see how they can adjust their style to meet different circumstances.



This model suggests that leaders get the best from their staff (defined here as "followers") if they adapt their style to the situation based on the readiness of their followers. Four styles are described:

- ***Telling*** – suitable when the follower is unable and unwilling or insecure, i.e. needs clear direction & guidance on the task from the leader. The leader provides specific instructions and supervises closely. To do this the leader tells, guides, directs and helps establish the follower's ability and confidence.

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Selling – suitable when the follower is unable but willing or confident, i.e. needs guidance on the task & will respond positively to relationship support. The leader explains his/her decisions and provides opportunity for clarification. So the leader sells, explains, clarifies and persuades.
Participating – suitable when the follower is able but unwilling or insecure, i.e. needs support through relationship behaviour of the leader (e.g. encouragement). Here the leader shares ideas and facilitates decision making. It involves participating, encouraging, collaborating and committing.
Delegating – the follower is able & willing or confident, i.e. needs little guidance or support so that tasks can be delegated to him/her. The leader turns over responsibility for decisions and implementation to the follower. This involves delegating, observing, monitoring, and fulfilling.

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<tr><td>ii. Agenda setting</td><td>
a. Vision

A vision is a journey from the known to the unknown, creating the future from: Current facts, hopes, dreams, dangers and opportunities.

It is a compelling and visual picture of the future state to be attained.
Creates the context for setting broad goals.
Provides motivation and drives the strategy.

b. Mission

Is a philosophical statement of intent.
States the basic purpose of the organisation.
Sets general objectives.

c. Strategic Objectives

Key objectives designed to deliver the vision and mission.
Provide an operational focus for the organisation.
Establish high level targets, translated into operating plans.

d. Core values and philosophy

Articulates corporate values which are the guiding principles for corporate actions and ethical behaviour.
Defines the character of relations with stakeholders.
Set management styles and corporate culture (service charter).

Although the vision, mission, strategic objectives and core values are set by the senior leadership, these too can be set at departmental and team levels, aligned to those of the overall organisation.
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iii. Communication	Managers spend most of their time transmitting ideas to others, orally and in writing. Communication serves as a linking process by which parts of a system are tied together. Communication is a managerial function and because it represents a basic human characteristic is required by all managers. a. Communication process There are three types of communication in an organisation: • Vertical. • Horizontal. • Informal. The simplest model of communication process is as follows: • Sender – initiator of communication. • Message – the information that the sender is transmitting. • Coding – the physical form into which a sender encodes his information. • Channel – the mode of transmission. • Receiver – the person whose senses perceive the sender's message. • Decoding – the process by which the receiver interprets the message and translates it into information that has meaning. • Feedback – is a reversal of the communication process in which a reaction to the send vs. communication is expressed. b. Barriers to communication: • Language – use of words which may not be clear or understood by the listener • Physical – noise, distance, impediment, lack of volume, accent, obstruction etc. • Psychological – the process of emotion in either communicator or receiver can influence both willingness and ability to communicate clearly or to clearly understand a communication. • Organisational barriers – structures, culture or hierarchies c. Ways of enhancing communication: • Determine the objectives of communication. • Choose the most appropriate, efficient and economic method. • Check that recipients understand. • Encourage others to be more communicative.

Clarity is essential if communication is to succeed. This comes down to the words used, and the method used. Using simple, uncomplicated language, and being concise helps. Also, using a variety of methods can reinforce the message and ensure that it reaches the recipients, e.g. speaking the message but also putting it in writing or sending an e-mail.

Checking that the communication has been understood is also important, and can be determined by asking some *questions* of the recipient: *"Did you receive the message? What did you understand by it? Can you playback the message to me so that I know you have understood it?"*

Encouraging others to be more communicative is best achieved by giving them the opportunity to express their views and by *listening* to them. Active listening when communicating face-to-face involves:

- Ears – listening carefully to the words used and how they are said.
- Eyes – using appropriate eye contact to show you are listening.
- Body – appropriate body language to show you are attentive.

Techniques such as *summarising* back what you hear, or *paraphrasing* it back (putting it in slightly different words) are good ways of checking that you have understood what the person has said. They also show the person that you have listened well and often enhance communication further since the person feels appreciated. *Reflecting* the other person's feelings back to them is a way of digging deeper if you feel there is underlying meaning, e.g. *"You seem upset about that…"*

Frequency of communication is also important – managers need to communicate regularly and often if they are to build the trust of their staff and keep people informed about what is going on. This can be through regular team meetings, e-mails, notes and memoranda, informal conversations, etc.

Openness – some organsiations have a culture of secrecy, but this is not conducive to people getting the information necessary to do their jobs.

Diana Winstanley's book *Personal effectiveness* (2005) has a useful chapter on communication. Communication is covered in more detail in Topics 4.4 (Communicating Electronically) and 4.7 (Communication Skills) of the Master Curriculum.

iv. Motivating staff	Motivation is concerned with why people behave the way they do and more particularly, what influences them to perform in ways the organisation finds desirable. a. Motivational Methods 1. Traditional Model: Provides wage/salary incentive. 2. Human Relations Model: Cater to employees social needs. 3. Human Resources Model: Offer increased responsibility. In reality, people are motivated by different things – for example, for some it is the intrinsic value of doing a job well, for others the incentives of money, career progression or increased responsibility. When workers are motivated, they are more committed to their job, their manager, their team, and the organisation as a whole. Such commitment is extremely valuable to an organisation because when people are committed they are careful to do a good job, give of their best, want the team and organisation to succeed, and will provide additional discretionary effort when the pressure is on. Thus committed employees are more productive and more satisfied than those who are merely compliant, i.e. just doing what they are told but without enthusiasm or care. Therefore it is worth the effort on the part of managers and the organisation to ensure that employees are well motivated. b. Implications for Managers As mentioned above, appropriate reward is an important motivator for some employees. Lack of appropriate reward is certainly a demotivator for most. Some points for managers to heed: 1. Determine the rewards valued by each subordinate. 2. Determine the performance you desire. 3. Make performance level attainable and realistic. 4. Link rewards to performance. 5. Analyze what factors might counteract the effectiveness of a reward. 6. Make sure the reward is adequate. Reward can take a number of forms e.g. monetary, promotion, recognition, and praise for work done well. c. Implications for organisations The fact that staff are motivated by different factors, and that managers have some 'levers' they can pull in terms of incentivising and rewarding staff, means that there are implications for organisations:

	1. Organisations usually get what they reward, not what they want. 2. The job itself can be made intrinsically rewarding. 3. The immediate supervisor has an important role in the motivation process. So, rewards are important. Organisations need to work hard to ensure that they have effective reward systems in place. If an organisation requires high performance, then it has to reward and recognise people for high performance. However, if employees work hard to perform well and then see others being rewarded against other criteria they will soon become demotivated. Rewards can be through increases to pay, bonuses and various non-monetary rewards. They should always be accorded in a transparent way according to the organisation's reward policy. Reward in the form of recognition can vary from an informal "well done" to more formal expressions of thanks, to promotion in the organisation. Promotions should always be undertaken in a transparent way against the organisation's criteria in its promotion policy. Topic 8.3 of the Master Curriculum deals with Setting Pay and Promotions, detailing best practice and current practices in Southern Sudan. For some people, it is satisfaction from the job itself that is rewarding. Managers can enhance the motivation generated in this way by seeking to make the job more interesting or challenging for the person concerned, and by giving them more freedom to take decisions and plan their own work as their skills and experience grow. When given more responsibility for their own work, most people rise to the challenge and are more motivated to do a good job. Other ways of motivating staff include: • Involvement in team decisions. • Build team spirit. • Involvement in high profile projects. • Opportunities for training and development can also help. • Ensure staff have enough to do but are not overloaded. • Encourage initiative by asking staff for their ideas and allowing them to try them out. • Create a no-blame, no-fear culture – so that staff can ask for help and express concerns. d. Indicators of demotivated staff 1. High rate of absenteeism. 2. Poor levels of performance.

	3. Increased aggressiveness. 4. Wastage of resources. 5. High rate of turnover. 6. Drunkenness, etc. Clearly, these are serious issues and need to be tackled with high priority if the organisation’s performance and other staff are not to be affected. Managers need to find out what the issues are and what is going wrong, and seek ways to put it right. Disciplinary procedures can be invoked for such issues (and may need to be if they persist), however it is usually best to see first, if by identifying and tackling the underlying problem, it can be turned around. For example, if you find out that an employee is performing poorly because they are unsure of what is expected of them then providing them with a clear job description may improve their motivation. If you find out that an employee is absent from work a lot because they do not have the skills to perform their tasks, then providing them with some training may be the solution.
v. Delegation	The practice of giving a subordinate the necessary authority to make decisions in a specified area of your work or function. The manager retains accountability/responsibility a. Benefits of delegation Delegation has the potential to give some significant benefits to the manager, the employee to whom tasks are delegated, and to the organisation. For example, delegation undertaken responsibly and carefully can result in: • A reduction of the manager’s work load through less involvement in detail. • More freedom to concentrate on core duties and creative work. • Development of Staff, and full use of their skills. • Greater involvement and job satisfaction, improved morale, mutual trust and confidence. • Decisions made by those closer to the action resulting in speedier action. • Trains teams and individuals in most aspects of the job. b. Barriers to delegation

	There are some barriers that prevent or hinder delegation (summarised from Heller & Hindle, 2008): • *It's quicker to do it myself* – it might be in the short term since you have more expertise than your staff, but not delegating will keep you from higher value tasks and anyway, how will your staff ever get the skills? • *I don't want to overburden my staff* – you can always ask if they have some spare time, or if they could drop something else of lower value. • *I don't want to lose control* – this is a common human trait, but to progress in any organisation you have to be able to trust others with tasks – there is simply not enough time to do everything yourself. Anyway, you can still retain overall control. • *I'm too busy to explain it all to someone else* – but by making some time now to delegate, you stand to gain a lot more time later – view it as an investment. • *I don't think they are able to do the task* – you may have to invest some time in coaching and supporting them until they are competent, but the overall equation will still save you time, and will develop the subordinate. c. Methods of Delegation • Make a job breakdown. • Recognise tasks which cannot be delegated. • Prepare delegation plans indicating tasks, authority and resources to be delegated. • Instruct/coach and support subordinates. • Monitor progress (try not to interfere), provide feedback, praise and reward. Good questions to ask yourself (Heller & Hindle, 2008) are: • *What tasks am I doing that don't need to be done at all?* – do not complete them yourself or delegate them. • *What am I doing that could be done by someone else?* – delegate these tasks to subordinates. • *What tasks am I doing that can only be done by me?* – you cannot delegate these, so prioritise them. Remember, authority can be delegated but accountability cannot. So the manager remains accountable for the outcome – all the more important to delegate tasks carefully and responsibly so that the employee concerned

	has the time, ability and motivation to complete the work to the necessary standard. Delegation should not be used to "dump" unwanted, undesirable, or impossible tasks on someone else – such action is likely to cause resentment and demotivation, and an unsuccessful outcome as far as the tasks are concerned. **References:** Adair, J. (2003). *Effective strategic leadership*. London: Pan Books. Heller, R. & Hindle, T. (2008). *Essential manager's manual*. London: Dorling Kindersley Limited. Hersey, P. & Blanchard, K. H. (1993). *Management of organizational behaviour: Utilizing human resources.* 6th Edition. Engelwood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall. Winstanley, D. (2005). *Personal effectiveness: A guide to action*. London: Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development.

Topic 3.7: Managing Change

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
MANAGING CHANGE	By the end of the course unit the participating manager should be able to: a) Explain the need for change in an organisation b) Describe the change process c) Apply appropriate change techniques d) Manage resistance to change	i. The need for change a. Forces of change b. Meaning of change c. Areas/situations requiring change d. Roles people play in change e. In Southern Sudan ii. The change process a. Unfreezing b. Changing c. Refreezing d. People, process, technology iii. Change techniques a. Organisations b. People iv. Managing resistance a. Voices of Change b. Two Way communication c. Reality of change and denial	– Lectures Discussions – Exercises – Quizzes – Brainstorms – Game – Practical work session: identifying areas of change in own area – Case Study – Working relevant examples – Creating plans for change	– Trainers – Guest speakers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids	1 day	Knowledge and concept test

Topic 3.7 Expanded: Managing Change

i. The need for change	We often talk about change as being a choice. Actually, change is constant. The question is whether we are ready for kinds of change we encounter and are able to manage, or even better, take advantage of it. How can we link the change with what is already in place, and how can we link it to our vision, mission, etc.? It will mean learning new things that come with the change and, as a manager, helping others in the team to learn and adapt. a. Forces of change There are two basic elements driving change: *Internal forces* and *external forces*. The "need" for change usually comes about when external forces have changed and we need to adjust our internal processes to move with those changes. For example, we might have a business that is excellent at making and selling typewriters. Internally we do all the right things to make and sell typewriters. While we are quite happy with what we do and know, the external world, outside of our business, has changed. People started using electronic word processors and computers. We have been minding our own business, doing all the right things internally, and had nothing to do with that change. The coming of the electronic and computer age was an external force. We, in the typewriter company either need to change (become electronic ourselves) or eventually go out of business. How we go about making that change in our company is an altogether different matter. This is because our company is full of people who know a lot about typewriters but nothing about computers or how to sell them. All our equipment was built to make typewriters, what will we do there? Internal forces are those that occur from inside our organisation. They may have very little to do with what is happening in the outside world. For example, a change in management such as a change in a Minister, can result in a reshuffle of staff and also result in changes in policy and working styles. We may have grown accustomed to the style of the previous Minister and also with the policies they supported. Adjusting to new leadership and management can require a great deal of change. Other internal changes might include moving to a new building or changing the way we do record keeping or finance. Internal changes require as much attention as external ones. b. Meaning of change A change can mean different things to different people depending on the circumstance. For an engineer, responsible for building a bridge, a change may mean re-working her/his designs and specifications. For the engineer in this case, the change may simply be a technical one. For the Sudanese Ministry, who is paying for the bridge, the change may mean added costs and thus make them a bit nervous about their budget. They may also think that the added costs will be to the contractor's advantage and so it may mean a change in their trust of the contractor. For the people living near the bridge, it depends on the location. If they had been long awaiting the bridge, and the change means a different location further up the river, the change may cause disappointment. If the change means the bridge can handle more weight, truck drivers may see that

the change has a positive economic outcome for them. Understanding what a particular change means to the various stakeholders in a situation is key to managing that change successfully.

This change may be a planned change by the manager (e.g. to help achieve objectives), change imposed internally (e.g. a change in policy), or a change driven externally (e.g. changes in technology).

c. Areas or situations requiring change

Change is required when external forces or processes are no longer in alignment with each other.

Internally, in Government, most changes are required when a change of policy occurs and the services or processes of government no longer fit that policy. Policy changes often occur in organisations and in government in particular, when people change. Politics, especially in democratic societies are a continuous dance of policy and people changes based on party philosophies and elections. At other times changes are pretty basic and include things like:

- Change of office location.
- Change in objectives of the department.
- Changes in staff.
- Changes in the technology the department uses (e.g. a new finance and accounting system).
- Changes in the structure leading to rearranging of work units into different units.

d. Roles people play with regard to change

People often have preferred roles with regard to change, but this may change based on the situation and the impact on them personally:

- Some people are always looking for opportunities to create change and we often refer to them as *change agents*. Mostly, they are looking to change things to improve things but some simply never like the status quo and may promote change for change's sake.

- Others tend not to initiate change but go along with changes when introduced and look for ways to support the change. These people are often referred to as *early adaptors*.

- Another group tends to take it slow, watch and see how things turn out and then move, they are referred to as the *wait and see* group.

- The final group does not want to see the change happen and actively work against it and are referred to as *change resistors.* However, sometimes such resistance can alert the organisation to difficulties with

	the change. And resistors can become advocates of change if they can be convinced of its necessity and/or value. While we have different preferences when it comes to change, the circumstances can change how we normally react. Thus, the most active change agent may actively resist changing jobs if he or she is convinced that the new job will be bad for his or her career. As a manager it is important to be aware of these different reactions to change and to handle them appropriately. For example, if change resistors can be converted into adaptors or even change agents (e.g. by persuasion, selling the idea, explaining the rationale, etc.), then you can avoid internal conflicts. e. In Southern Sudan The programme of reforms set out in the Public Service Reforms Implementation Framework Manual (2008) is a good example of an organisational change process. There are a lot of planned changes affecting many aspects of the organisation – from structure to processes and procedures, to the way employees do their jobs and are appraised and paid. Such significant organisational change also usually requires a change in attitudes and behaviours on the part of employees to ensure the new processes and approaches function effectively – a shift in "the way we do things around here", i.e. a change in organisational culture.
ii. The change process	While there are various theories on change, most agree that there are some basic principles to follow when dealing with it. So, there may be some different paths to change, the basics remain pretty much the same. A well accepted model is the Unfreeze-Change-Refreeze process (Lewin, 1951). This basically says that whether it is an individual or an organisation that before things change we have to first undo the way we normally do things, change the way we do things and then settle in to this new way. It sounds simple but as most of us know, simple on paper is not simple in practice. a. Unfreezing Most systems, be they mechanical or biological, like to settle into patterns or routines. We tend to put on the same shoe first for example and like our eggs done a certain way (if we eat eggs!). Try folding your arms across your chest normally, then reverse which arm is in front to see what we mean. This is a well known process called "homeostasis". Without it very little could function. Think of your heart deciding to beat only on Tuesdays for a change! When people have been used to working in a certain way for some time, it can be very difficult to "unfreeze" them from the process. An example from not too many years ago was in getting people to use email instead of regular letters or phone calls. This was a very difficult change to make. Not too many years later, we have people so used to emails that they won't likely change easily to new ways of sending messages. A General Manager of a phone company, exasperated that no one was using the new email system and kept sending him paper letters and leaving messages on his phone, sent a message out saying that he would accept no appointments or requests that were not made by email. It didn't take long for people to "unfreeze" after that.

b. Changing

Changing the way things are done is a bit more complex. You can stop something or "unfreeze" it, but there usually needs to be something that *works* in its place. That something usually requires that people accept the change, i.e., see some kind of benefit or advantage for themselves as well as the organisation. On top of this, they will likely need training in the new process or change that is happening, and a chance to get "used" to things that are different. Often managers don't understand this and simply announce the change, whether a new process or a change in structure and expect things to be different from that point on. They often are a bit confused when weeks later; people are still working in the old way. Most of the efforts around change are found in this middle area as it is where most of the difficulty lies.

c. Refreezing

Once the change has been effected, there is need to ensure that it takes root. Refreezing is therefore the process of habituating the new way of doing things. This could be achieved by designing a system of rewarding those who effectively adopt the new behaviour and coaching and working further with those who do not.

Changes to methods and processes can be straightforward (e.g. the new method is introduced, sold and implemented) but changes to people's attitudes are more complex and can be difficult to achieve and lead to conflict and so need to be managed with care.

d. People, process and technology

In organisation changes there are three elements that should always be considered. They are:

- People – attitudes, skills needed, willingness and ability to change.
- Process – the "how" of not only the change but how things will get done in a different way after the change.
- Technology – does the change in process require new or different technology?

A good change plan considers how it will handle all three of these areas. A plan that avoids this is headed for at least some form of trouble. Usually managers take on the easier part which is to pay attention to the processes and the technology and avoid the hard part which is people. We all know where this is headed – conflict and possible failure of the change being implemented.

In all three stages in the change process depicted above – unfreezing, changing, refreezing – people may need help to change. Both "push" (forcing change) and "pull" (encouraging people to change) methods can be used:

	In *pushing*, the manager is concentrating on their/the organisation's viewpoint and uses: • Logical argument – to put the case across using logic and reason based on facts, benefits, consequences, etc. • Assertion – more forcefully stating needs or wants, and persisting. • Management position – to insist that change is enacted; sometimes necessary to get things moving and push change through, however it carries the danger of getting compliance but not always commitment. In *pulling*, the manager attempts to draw employees towards accepting the change by considering their viewpoint and: • Building bridges – by finding out the views and concerns of others, and self-disclosing own views. • Attracting – by building on common ground and creating a shared vision; useful when there is some freedom to shape the impending change. • Involving – so that people own and are committed to the change.
iii. Change techniques	Fortunately, with all the rapid changes in the past 50 years, a lot of attention has been paid to change and how to help managers handle change effectively. Various tools and frameworks have been put together that help at least put a structure to what is often a difficult process to get right. The best approaches take into account the organisation aspects of change as well as the people aspects. Sometimes it is best to combine some approaches as some change theorists and consultants tend to focus on the organisation issues and others on the human side of change. a. Organisational Change A business professor and consultant from Harvard developed one of the most famous approaches to change in organisations called the 8 Step Model (Kotter, 1995; 1996). In this model, change is viewed as going through some necessary "requirements" before true change really happens. While this model may not apply in total to all situations, it is a good checklist to follow. For basic changes a complex model like this may be over the top. In those cases simply following the Unfreeze-Change-Refreeze process may suffice. Kotter's 8 Step Model: 1. Create a sense of urgency. 2. Build a powerful guiding coalition. 3. Create a compelling vision. 4. Communicating the vision. 5. Empowering others to act.

	6. Identify early and short-term wins. 7. Consolidate progress and improvements and continue change. 8. Institutionalise the changes. b. People and Change For people, change is a personal experience. The more significant the change, the more emotional the experience. The emotions might be very positive or they might be negative. What makes things even more complicated is that when dealing with a group of people some will experience the change as positive and others negative and some others may not know what to feel! Over the years, we've come to learn a lot about how people experience change and this has helped us devise ways of helping people on their *change journey*. What surprises most people when understanding the personal element of change is that the journey or process is the same regardless of whether the change is seen as a good thing or a bad thing (the change curve, Jones, 1995). This journey can involve shock, denial and resistance and then, as the change becomes real, acceptance and internalisation. We will work with this journey as we work with resistance to change.
iv. Managing resistance to change	As we have seen, resistance to change is basically natural. Systems like homeostasis. Resistance can also stem from a variety of reasons and it can show up in different ways. One thing you can be sure of – if you are introducing a significant change and a number of people are involved, you can be certain that resistance will show up for some of them in one form or another. The first step is to understand that this is natural; the second is to figure out how to work with resistance successfully and transform it into motivation. a. Voices of Change One of the best ways to find out how different people in a group are dealing with change is to listen to them. What they say and the way they say it are very clear signals as to how they are reacting to and dealing with the change at hand. We call these ways of speaking the "Voices of Change" and they fall into three basic categories: • The voice of doom – what's bad about this change, what will go wrong, who is to blame, what we will lose • The voice of opportunity – the possibilities this change brings us, what is good about it, why we should make the change • The voice of action – what we have to do to make the change happen, who we should involve, steps to take, what the plan should look like, how long it will take to get the change in place Depending on the situation, you can find yourself using any one of these three voices. As a matter of fact, with big changes that affect us personally, we will likely use all three voices as we move through the change.

	b. Two way communication Usually the people who are suggesting the change are speaking with the voice of opportunity and the voice of action. They don't speak about the risks and what could go wrong and they don't want to hear about it either. When people with concerns want to express those concerns, they are quickly labelled as resistors and problem employees. They make it clear that they don't want to "hear" about what could go wrong. While this seems to make sense, it only makes the change harder to implement and also makes it take more time. The key working with change is in two-way communications and in allowing people to express their concerns. One, this shows we are listening, and two, it gives us a chance to deal with the concerns. What we often find is that these concerns have a grain of truth in them and we ignore them at our peril. c. Reality of change and its opposite: Denial The reality is often that change does have a negative impact, at least short term, on those affected by it. Denying this doesn't do anyone any good and only prolongs the process. Denial keeps us stuck where we are. Denial doesn't only happen with the people being negatively affected; it is also practiced by the people creating the change. The most common form of denial from people creating change is to say: "Don't worry; it will all work out" or "You shouldn't be worried about this, it will be fine". The truth of the matter, however, is often that some things will be painful and difficult. Like moving to a new house means leaving the comfort of the home we've grown familiar with and love. We will come to love the new house but we may always miss parts of the old place. People have been known to come to their place of work for weeks after they have been fired because they can't accept that it has happened. While they could be looking for new work, they are instead "stuck" in the past. Dealing with the reality of change is much more effective than denying any negative impact it might have, temporarily or permanently. *Involvement* – the goal of managing change is to get everyone involved to the voice of opportunity and action. This requires a lot of attention, hard work and sensitivity. Where possible, it helps to get staff involved in the changes that will affect them. Even if the overall decisions have been made by top management, staff can be consulted on and involved in the process of implementation – such involvement helps people change their voice from doom to action, and hopefully opportunity. Consultation and involvement can help turn resisters of change into people who accept it and perhaps eventually support and even advocate it. *Sensitivity* – managers need to be sensitive since change creates the fear of loss and of the unknown – people wonder what it will mean for them and how they will cope. Managers need to reassure staff, listen to their concerns (where possible addressing them without stopping the change), recognise that people adapt to and accept change at different rates and in different ways, therefore give them time to adjust, and support (sometimes training) to handle the new ways of doing business.

	References: Jones, S. (1995). *Coping with change at work.* Thorsons. Kotter, J. P. (1995). *Leading change: Why transformation efforts fail*. Harvard Business Review, March-April. Kotter, J. P. (1996). *Leading Change*. Harvard Business School Press: Boston, MA. Lewin, K. (1951). *Field Theory in Social Science* (1951). Harper and Row: New York. MLPS&HRD (August, 2008). *Public Service Reforms Implementation Framework Manual.*

Topic 3.8 Records Management and Filing

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
RECORDS MANAGEMENT AND FILING	By the end of this course the participating manager should be able to: a) Define record keeping b) Discuss the purposes and importance of record keeping c) Describe the classification of records in an organisation d) Observe the principles of records management at work e) Explain the meaning of filing f) Discuss the importance of a good filing system in an office g) Describe the characteristics of a good filing system h) Discuss the classfications of filing system	i. Meaning or record keeping ii. Purpose and importance of record keeping iii. Classification of records in an organisation iv. Principles of records management. v. Meaning of filing vi. Importance of having a good filing system vii. Characteristics of a good filing system viii. Classifications of filing systems ix. Methods of filing x. Concepts of indexing cross referencing and micro filming in records management	– Lectures – Discussions – Exercises – Quizzes – Brainstorms – Cases	– Trainers – Guest speakers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids – Examples	2 days	Knowledge and concept test

	i) Describe the various methods of filing records in an office j) Discuss the concepts of indexing, cross referencing and microfilming in records management					

Topic 3.8 Expanded: Records Management and Filing

i. Meaning of record keeping	Information is constantly being received into and disseminated from an organisation. The information received may be in the form of inquiries, complaints, invoices, orders, contracts, progress reports, stock records, sales records, purchase records among others. Most of such information is evidenced by written documents. The information needs to be preserved in an appropriate manner for future reference. This is the essence of record management whose primary objectives involve organising the records so that they serve the intended purpose. Storing of records effectively and disseminating the information in the records appropriately to the intended user.
ii. Purpose and importance of record keeping	The efficiency of an organisation depends to a large extent on the effectiveness of the records management within the organisation. This is because the quality of decisions made depends on the manner of information available for making decisions and on how timely such information is availed. The records are maintained for various reasons including: • It provides an account of the progress made in various activities in an orderly manner. • It reflects the central position of the organisation at any given moment. • It also provides a basis for comparing the organisation with other similar organisations. • It provides reference materials that can facilitate decisions and resolution of disputes. • It also serves as evidence of what transpired in the past. • Certain records are maintained in accordance with legal requirements.
iii. Classification of records in an organisation	***General classification*** – records in an office and in an organisation may be classified as follows: • Personnel records showing details of workers in the organisation. • Correspondence records involving internal and external correspondences. • Accounting records showing all manner of financial transactions. • Legal records that pertain to the existence and operations of the organisation. • Other business records. ***Security classification*** **–** documents are also classified according to their *security and confidentiality*. For example some documents are very sensitive and should be classified *secret*. Some documents should be kept *confidential*, i.e. they should not be disclosed outside of the organisation or a defined group within it. Often personnel records are marked *staff confidential* with access restricted to the managers of the employees concerned and Human Resources department. **In Southern Sudan,** MLPS&HRD has pointed out (Manual of Public Service Procedures, 2007) that there are four security classifications of Government documents, namely: i. *Top secret:* information and material whose unauthorised disclosure would cause grave damage to the

	citizens and government of Southern Sudan. ii. *Secret:* information and material whose unauthorised disclosure would cause serious injury to the interests of Southern Sudan. iii. *Confidential:* information and material whose unauthorised disclosure would be prejudicial to the interests of Southern Sudan. iv. *Restricted:* information and material whose unauthorised disclosure would be undesirable in the interests of Southern Sudan. Public servants have to be security vetted to handle classified material and may only handle the grade of classified material for which they have been cleared. The Procedures Manual (2007) goes on to outline some general principles in handling confidential information, summarised below: • Do not leave classified or other sensitive documents out in the open or unsecured. • Do not talk about classified information with unauthorised staff/those who have no right to know. • Do not discuss security systems with unauthorised staff/those who have no right to know. • Dispose of classified or sensitive information properly. • Do not volunteer unnecessary information to anyone. • Report suspicious or unusual activity to management or relevant personnel. • Make sure that all reports and files are locked away in a cabinet at the end of each day. • Never provide copies of written correspondence or manuals to people outside your unit without authorisation. ***Personnel records* –** the management of personnel records is important for organisations for a number of reasons including: • Compliance to employment laws. • Information necessary for HR procedures (e.g. payment of salary, promotion, career development, training needs, retirement, etc.). • Next of kin contact details in case of emergency. **In Southern Sudan**, the Public Service Reforms Implementation Framework Manual (2008) states that personnel records (both personal profiles and employment records) should be kept for all employees and up-dated as they change. These should be filed with each employee's unique personnel number. The *personal profile* should contain: name; date of birth; place of birth; marital status; next of kin; and permanent address.

	The *employment record* should contain: date of first appointment; designation; grade on first appointment; salary scale; information on training, promotions, discipline, performance, etc.; and personnel number.
iv. Principles of record management	For efficiency and effectiveness, records management should be undertaken on the basis of various principles such as: • Verification, which implies that the records can be, verified whenever the need arises. • Justification, whereby records must be maintained for a justifiable purpose to avoid wastage of money, space and time. • Classification, whereby the records generated can easily be allocated to a specific cluster. • Elasticity, which implies that the records system is capable of expansion as the records base expands. • Information, which implies that records kept should provide valuable information whenever needed. • Reasonable cost in accordance with the importance accorded to the information.
v. Meaning of filing	Filing is a process of classifying and arranging records so that they can be retrieved in a timely and convenient manner. It has been defined as *"the systematic arrangement and keeping of business correspondence and records so that they may be found and delivered when needed for future reference".* It is one of the activities in records management and involves systematically classifying coding, arranging and placing records in storage.
vi. Importance of having a good filing system	The importance of filing increases as the volume of correspondence and documents require a systematic preservation system. A good filing system makes it possible to refer any communication from clients to the appropriate previous records. It also saves time in the retrieval of such records preserved as well as safeguarding the documents against loss. The records preserved do also serve as a basis for future planning and action. The records also serve as evidence in case of disputes. A good filing system also facilitates control of processes of movement and even disposal of documents.
vii. Characteristics of a good filing system	Characteristics of a good filing system include: • Compactness in that it should not take a lot of space. • Accessibility in that the facilities should be so sited that it is easy to file and extract records without disturbing others. • Simplicity so that officers can easily understand it. • Safety, which should be in accordance with the importance of the various documents. • Economy in terms of cost of establishment and maintenance. • Flexibility in that it is capable of being expanded as the need arises. • Cross-reference for easy tracing of files and records.

viii. Classification of filing systems	Classification of filing systems refers to the basis of arranging documents in a folder. The documents can be arranged in either of the following methods: a. *Alphabetical method* whereby documents are filed according to the first letters of either the name of the sender, or the subject. b. *Geographical method* whereby files are divided according to their places of origin. c. *Chronological method* whereby documents are filed in order of their dates of receipt. d. *Subject method* whereby documents are filed according to subject headings or topics. e. *Numerical method* whereby correspondences are arranged according to numbers. Each of these methods of classification has its own merits and demerits. **In Southern Sudan,** MLPS&HRD has given guidelines (Manual of Public Service Procedures, 2007: Chapter 6) on filing. All documents or records (hard copy or electronic) must be filed accurately. All GOSS institutions should ensure that documents are preserved and that all employees follow the standard GOSS filing system. The GOSS filing system should take into account the following: i. The type of documents. ii. The importance of physical protection of documents. iii. Delay between demand for documents and their production. iv. Length of time required to retain documents. v. Who is going to use the files and how files can be easily identified. The Procedures Manual (2007) also gives details of which files should be archived, differentiating between those marked for *permanent retention* (e.g. documents of title, accounts, tax labour agreements, pension scheme records, etc.) and *non permanent retention* (e.g. current correspondences, quotations, etc.).
iv. Methods of filing	This refers to how file covers or binders are kept in the filing cabinets. The main filing methods include: a. *Vertical filing* where files are kept within the drawers, racks and/or in shelves when they are standing up-right, north to south. b. *Horizontal Filing* where files are kept in drawers, racks or in the shelves on top of one another lying

	horizontally, east to west. c. *Suspension Filing* where files stand in vertical position but in order to prevent them from falling off from the filing cabinets two metal bars are affixed on the sides of the filing cabinet drawer. From the bars, filing pockets are suspended by means of the strips which rest in the cabinet bars. One or more folders are kept in the pockets. The metal strips can accommodate a paper clip to show the title of the file for easy location of files. d. *Lateral Filing* where the files are stored on a shelf or in pockets suspended side by side from frames.
x. Concepts of indexing cross referencing, micro filming and electronic filing	An index is a devise for finding the position of a document or file quickly and easily. In filing it helps on locating a letter, record or file, thus providing quick reference which is essential for a good filing system. Note that classification and indexing are not the same thing. Classification is a method of filing, while indexing is a method of making reference to the files. There are various types of indexing: ▪ *Page Index* whereby the contents of a particular folder or cabinet are summarized on a piece of paper together with their positions and placed at either the front or back of the folder. ▪ *Loose Card Index* which is a small card showing the names of all correspondents and the files where the information is filed. ▪ *Visible Card Index* where cards are filed together with the documents and overlap so that line of entry on each card projects and is visible, thereby forming a one line index. ▪ *Strip Index* whereby information is recorded on a piece of paper for quick reference and the strips bound together one on top of the other with a portion of each strip being visible. ▪ *Vertical Card Index* whereby cards stand upright in cabinet drawers with the name and other identifying features being exposed to view. ▪ *Punched Card Index* whereby a series of holes are punched in the edge of each card, with each hole representing an item of information such as department, age and gender. ***Cross referencing*** is necessary where a correspondence has been filed in two or more different files. It is done by means of a card or folder directing a person to where the document can be found in folders in the files. This is the case where copies of a document are made and filed in several relevant files.

	Micro-filming is a method of retaining or keeping information by photographic records that have been condensed into very small storage strips, so that they can be reproduced when needed. The relevant records are micro photographed and kept either on roll film, micro fiche or microfilm. The negative can them be shown on a screen or a copy made when reference is required. This is important when a great multitude of permanent records need to be kept. It has its own advantages (e.g. large amounts of information can be stored) and disadvantages (e.g. retrieval requires technical assistance). ***Electronic filing* –** Because of the increasing volumes of information in many organisations, and the growth in the use of computing and other electronic devices, a lot of information is now being filed electronically. The same filing principles are applied as in the conventional methods of filing. However, this is much more efficient in terms of cost, space, speed, etc. Additionally, these can be manipulated electronically to add, delete, shift or compare information. WARNING – you must backup all electronic information regularly since electronic files can become corrupted, or electronic systems can fail. **In Southern Sudan,** MLPS&HRD has given guidelines on the proper use of computers in order to prevent loss of information that is computerised (Manual of Public Service Procedures, 2007: Chapter 6). As such, when using computers: • Each person should work on clearly labelled diskettes. • All work on diskettes should be put onto backup disks or other data storage mechanisms. When backing up, one should make sure that all documents are on the correct disks and that the disks are not too full. • Diskettes are archived in the same way as documents on paper. **References:** MLPS&HRD (February, 2007). *Manual of Public Service Procedures.* MLPS&HRD (August, 2008). *Public Service Reforms Implementation Framework Manual.*

Appendix D

Curriculum Area 4: Personal and Professional Development

Topic 4.1: Interpersonal Skills

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
INTERPERSONAL SKILLS	By the end of this course unit, the participating manager should be able to: a) Explain the importance of good interpersonal relations in an organisation b) Relate well with his or her supervisors, colleagues and juniors	i. Importance of good interpersonal relations – Reduces conflict among employees – Reduces incidences of stress – Increases employee productivity – Creates a conducive working environment ii. How to relate well with supervisors: – Obedience – Honesty – Compliance with rules – Accomplishment of tasks – Respect – Support iii. How to relate well with colleagues:	– Lectures – Discussions – Exercises – Brainstorms – Role plays	– Trainers – Guest speakers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids	1 day	Knowledge and concept test Observed role plays

		– Support – Co-operation – Honesty – Respect iv. How to relate well with subordinates: – Respect – Feedback – Support – Honesty – Information				

Topic 4.1 Expanded: Interpersonal Skills

i. Importance of good interpersonal relations	The primary objective of an organisation, and the Government in particular, is to ensure customer satisfaction through the provision of quality goods and services in the most efficient manner possible. This is to a large extent dependent on the actual performance of employees. Such performance depends, among other things, on the way in which employees relate to one another. This is in terms of employees' relationships with their bosses, colleagues and subordinates. It is therefore the duty of all members of staff to strive to promote good relations. The benefits derived from good relations include: • Reduced conflicts among employees at all levels. This is mainly because the employees communicate with each other freely, and solve any teething problems amicably and constructively. They also tend to support one another in the performance of their duties. • Reduced incidences of stress among employees. Stress can be caused by many factors, including anxiety, harassment at work and conflicts. An employee suffering from stress is a very unproductive employee. • A positive and conducive working environment. This is because the feeling of togetherness generated by the good interpersonal relations. The support and socialisation provided by workmates makes individual employees look forward to being at the workplace, and to remain at the workplace.
ii. How to relate well with supervisors	An employee can foster good interpersonal relationships with his or her supervisor through appropriate conduct which includes: • Obedience – it is important to obey lawful instructions given by a supervisor. This does not however mean that one becomes subservient. Failure to obey may be construed as insubordination. • Honesty – an employee should be honest in dealing with supervisors. This is so even when it involves uncomfortable disclosures of information (e.g. if the employee is not able to complete a piece of work on time). Honesty creates trust between the employee and supervisor. • Compliance with rules and regulations – rules and regulations are provided in order to standardise behaviour and performance and to guide employees in the execution of their duties. Such compliance is not only a sign of maturity, but is also an implied requirement of the contract of employment. • Accomplishment of tasks – an employee is expected to complete the tasks that are assigned to him or her. This includes any delegated responsibilities as long as the delegation is not oppressive but within the capabilities of the employee. If an employee is struggling with a task, or behind the agreed time schedule, they should approach the supervisor as soon as this is apparent and seek help and/or more

	time, and not wait until it becomes a bigger problem. Such dialogue helps build a good working relationship. • Respect – it is important that an employee shows due respect to the supervisor by words, deeds and inclination. This is irrespective of the employee's own personal feelings about the supervisor or prejudices against them. The supervisor deserves respect by virtue of the office held. • Support – it is incumbent upon the employee to render support to the supervisor in terms of decisions made and actions taken. Any disagreements should be settled in the privacy of their offices, not in the open where other observers to the disagreement may be present. Denial of support may amount to insubordination.
iii. How to relate well with colleagues	An employee should foster good interpersonal relations with colleagues through: • Support – this is in terms of assisting colleagues in the performance of their duties through information and resource sharing. It may at times mean showing them how to perform a task. • Cooperation – the work of one employee in many cases affects the performance of another employee. For maximum overall productivity, it is important that employees cooperate with one another for greater synergy and benefit to all. • Honesty – this is just as important as it is in the case of the employee-supervisor relationship. • Respect – respect begets respect. There should be mutual respect among employees at the same level and no-one should look down upon a colleague or their work. Respect is built by treating others politely, courteously, and in a friendly way. It is also gained through doing work professionally and to the best of one's ability.
iv. How to relate well with subordinates	Subordinates. Just as subordinates have a duty to foster good interpersonal relations with their supervisors; it is also the duty of supervisors to foster a good working relationship with their juniors. This can be done through: • Respect - showing respect to subordinates despite their position. This should be manifested in words and deeds. Even the way instructions are given should not be demeaning to the subordinate worker. • Feedback – giving feedback on the subordinate's work performance, whether it is good or bad. Such feedback shows appreciation, interest and recognition. If there are issues with performance, the supervisor should help the employee see what is going wrong and give advice on how to correct it. • Support – this support could be both material (in terms of resources) and moral (in terms of counselling,

	listening and encouraging). It is particularly important if a subordinate is struggling with a task, and might involve helping to diagnose the problem and finding a solution (e.g. coaching, training). At times support could extend to solutions of a personal nature to minimise the likelihood of the setting in of stress. • Honesty – this equally as important on the part of the supervisor as it is on the part of the subordinate. • Information – supervisors help good working relations by giving all relevant information necessary for subordinates to undertake their duties in a timely and understandable manner. Supervisors have an added responsibility as channels of organisational messages from higher up the line – they should not hoard such information but share it so as to keep their subordinates aware of what is happening in the organisation, particularly of developments that directly affect them. Such sharing of information builds trust – to not do so creates suspicion.

Topic 4.2: Making Clear Presentations

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
MAKING CLEAR PRESENTATIONS	By the end of this course unit, the participating manager should be able to: a) Explain the need for clear presentations in Government service b) Discuss the pre-requisites for making good presentations c) Discuss the tools that facilitate clear presentations d) Comprehend the skills necessary for making clear presentations	i. Need for clear presentations in Government service – To articulate government policy to workers and public – To get commitment to set objectives and targets – To promote positive image of the government – Influence donors ii. Preparation for good presentations – Aim and content – Structure (ordering the content) – Understanding the audience – Assembling necessary tools and materials	– Lectures – Discussions – Exercises – Brainstorms – Quizzes – Practice presentations – DVD clips	– Trainers – Guest speakers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids – DVDs of speeches	2 days	Knowledge and concept test Observed presentations

		iii. Tools to facilitate clear presentations – Proper venue – Visual and audio-visual tools – Presentation notes and visual aids – Stationery – Handouts iv. Delivering good presentations – The skills needed – Delivering a presentation				

Topic 4.2 Expanded: Making Clear Presentations

<table>
<tr><td>i. The need for clear presentations in Government service</td><td>In any organisation, the ability to make clear presentations is crucial because it is one of the accepted and expected ways to convey information to a group or meeting, present a proposal, ask for support, influence an audience, gain commitment, promote an image, service or product, or prepare a group to make a decision. This is no less true in Government, in fact if anything it is more crucial since the list of interested parties (stakeholders) is much wider, including the public, employees, and donors. So in Government service clear presentations are needed to:

• Articulate government policy to workers and to the public – such communication is important for staff to align their work to the policies, and for the public to understand those policies – what the Public Service is doing for them and what their rights and entitlements are.

• To get commitment to set objectives and targets – presentations are a way of aligning individuals and teams behind common goals, clarifying targets, and inspiring people to work towards those goals. A clear and engaging presentation from a manager can have a massive impact on motivation and gain commitment.

• Promote a positive image of the Government – presentations done well can influence public opinion and project a positive and professional image.

• Influence donors – clear presentations will have an impact on external organisations such as donors; they can be used to influence opinion and donor decisions.</td></tr>
<tr><td>ii. Preparing for good presentations</td><td>Good presentations flow from good preparation. This is particularly true if an employee finds speaking to a group of people in a presentation setting nerve-racking. In preparing, a number of items need to be covered:

a. Aim and content. It is important to be clear about what the presentation needs to achieve – its aim. For example, is it to inform, or to influence the audience towards a decision?

The content of the presentation can then be assembled in support of the aim. This will comprise the key messages to be conveyed, backed up by relevant data or examples. It is important to be able to highlight the key messages so that the audience do not get lost in a maze of information. And also to limit the amount of information that is put across – attention spans to talks are not long and people soon get bored!

b. Structure – ordering the content. Like good stories, clear presentations are well structured, with the content ordered logically. A straightforward presentation has an opening, a middle (containing a number of key points) and an ending.

i. The opening – a good opening gets the attention of the audience and raises their expectations. Done well, it also enhances the presenter's confidence. A good opening comprises:</td></tr>
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	• An introduction of the presenter and what he/she does (to establish credibility). • An attention grabber to stimulate interest (e.g. a quote, example, startling fact). • The aim of the presentation, e.g. "Today, I am going to explain the Government's policy on..." • How it is structured, e.g. "I have divided my presentation into three main points, and will speak for 15 minutes, and then take questions". ii. The middle – the middle is where the key points (the main content of the presentation) are conveyed. The key points are signposts of what will be covered. Start with the most important, and support each key point with sub-points and relevant data or examples. iii. The ending – it is good practice to signal the ending (e.g. "So, to conclude...") and then to give: • A summary of the key points. • A restatement of the aim of the presentation. If it is to help the audience make a decision, it is good to restate the benefits of the proposal and the actions needed. • A conclusion (e.g. "That concludes my presentation, thank for your attention...") and an invitation to the audience to make comments, ask questions, or discuss. c. Understanding the audience. It is important for the presenter to know who will be at the presentation. At what organisational level will they be? How much do they already know about the subject? What are their expectations? Will they be friendly or hostile? How many people will be there? These facts help the presenter tailor the presentation to the audience so that it is pitched at the right level, is relevant, contains enough or as little background as necessary, etc. d. Assembling all the necessary tools and materials. These will include background information, presenter's notes, any visual aids, and handouts for the audience. At the venue, they will include necessary equipment (e.g. laptop, data projector or overhead projector, amplification, flipchart, pens), and materials for the audience.
iii. Tools to facilitate clear presentations	There are a number of tools that help facilitate the smooth running of a presentation. These include: c. Proper venue – The choice of venue is important – the right size for the audience, the right environment to match the aim of the presentation, the necessary facilities (e.g. refreshments, parking, AC, etc.). It is good for the presenter to visit the venue beforehand and adjust the layout to suit the style of presentation, e.g. formal lecture style seating for a large audience, boardroom style around a table for a small senior audience, round tables for a less formal meeting, etc. d. Visual and audio tools. It is important that the necessary equipment, (e.g. data projector or overhead projector, screen, microphone, lights, DVD player, flipchart, etc.) are available and working, that the presenter knows how

	to operate them, and that there is technical support at hand should there be a problem. e. Presentation notes and visual aids. Not many people can present without any presentation notes. But writing a presentation out in full tempts the presenter to read it word-for-word, which comes across as stilted. Many presenters find it is best to write out a presentation as abbreviated notes and/or bullet points on small hand held cards. Concerning visual aids – slides, pictures, posters, DVD clips can be useful to get messages across. If slides are used, it advisable to limit the number so as to avoid "Death by PowerPoint". Concerning slides: • Pictures, diagrams, simple charts, and visual images are sometimes more powerful than words. • Words need to be large enough to be easily visible (at least 24 pt on slides), and in colours that stand out. • Bullet points/summarized statements with action verbs are better than full sentences. • Slides with too much information on them can be confusing. • Colour helps, but usually not more than 3 or 4. f. Stationery. The provision of paper and pens and other items make it easier for the audience. g. Handouts. These should be prepared beforehand (with enough copies for the audience) and containing the structure and key points of the presentation, and if necessary any background information. Most audiences like to have handouts to use during the presentation so that they don't feel they have to write everything down but can make any notes on the handouts.
iv. Delivering good presentations	a. The skills needed. There are a number of skills to giving clear presentations including: • Articulacy – being able to speak clearly, at the right pace, avoiding "ums" and "errs" • Body language – able to control posture and gestures. • Empathy with and discernment of the audience – able to "read" the audience and interpret their mood, and adjust the presentation and style accordingly. • Good timing – able to pace the presentation well and keep to time. b. Delivering a presentation. Putting the skills mentioned above together helps delivery of a clear presentation. Some tips for a clear delivery: • Manage pace and tone – don't rush, vary speed and tone, speak clearly and loud enough to be heard without shouting, and try not to fade out. • Keep eye contact – look at the audience, understand their messages to you. Eye contact keeps you connected to your audience, helps keep their attention, and provides vital signals to you on how your

	presentation is being received. • Manage body language – stand straight, avoid mannerisms, relax, be enthusiastic, smile if it comes naturally (but not in a false way!). Most people get nervous before giving a presentation. This is the body preparing itself and is quite normal. To channel the adrenalin generated usefully rather than being overcome with nerves, presenters need to prepare well, practice, breathe deeply, concentrate on their message, and take their time. Some presenters worry that they will not be able to respond to a question. If this is the case the presenter can: ask the person for their view, invite others to contribute, defer and say he/she will attempt to find out, or say he/she doesn't know and move on.

Topic 4.3: Effective Meetings

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
EFFECTIVE MEETINGS	By the end of this course unit, the participating manager should be able to: a) Explain the purpose of holding meetings in an organisation b) Describe the type of meetings that can be held c) Describe the parties to a meeting and their roles d) Participate effectively in meetings	i. Purpose of meetings – Brainstorming – Making decisions – Problem solving – Laying strategies – Handling crises – Meetings to inform – Meetings to review ii. Types of meetings – Informal meetings – Formal meetings iii. Calling a meeting iv. Conduct of a meeting v. Parties to meetings and their roles: – Chairperson/Leader – Secretary – Members/Participants – Facilitator	– Lectures – Discussions – Exercises – Quizzes – Brainstorms – DVD clips – Role plays	– Trainers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids	1 day (2)*	Knowledge and concept test

(2)* This course can be extended to 2 days to give more time for skills practice in leading and/or facilitating meetings.

Topic 4.3: Effective Meetings

i. Purpose of meetings	Meetings are the gathering of two or more people in a particular place to discuss matters of common concern with the view to arriving at an amicable solution to all the parties concerned. Highlighted in the definition are: coming together of people (more than two), venue, sharing of views, desire to come to a consensus that is acceptable to the parties concerned. Meetings can have a range of purposes including: • Brainstorming – to generate ideas on a particular topic in a creative way. • Making decisions – when certain decisions are best made by a group. • Problem solving – to use the skills of the group to solve a particular problem. • Laying strategies – since two minds are better than one in coming up with viable strategies. • Handling crises – to bring the necessary skills together to manage a particular crisis (e.g. disaster). • Meetings to inform – to communicate information so that everybody has the same message. • Meetings to review – to review information or progress previously provided or assignments given. As a manager organising a meeting, it is important to be clear what the purpose of the meeting is, and to communicate this to those who will attend.
ii. Types of meetings	There are several types of meetings. The following are some of the standard examples, both formal and informal: a. Statutory meetings – these are formal meetings sanctioned by law, i.e. must be conducted as a matter of law, e.g. the Annual General meeting of Shareholders of a company. These may also include meetings of Parliament to enact laws. b. Organisation Constitutional meetings – these are formal meetings and include Joint Negotiating Committees, Consultative Committees, an organisation's Staff Meetings, etc. c. Meetings to solve problems – these could be problems arising out of performance or conflict. d. Meetings to inform – management might announce new policies or a change to policies, new products or services so as to explain how those changes might affect life in the organisation. e. Meetings to persuade – when there are several prevailing views on a particular issue, those with opposing views might meet to persuade the other party to their side. f. The consultative meeting – this takes place over a wide variety of issues with a view to sort out what the organisation might need to do or what might yield better results by consulting with a group or groups of people. The latter could be managers, employees, or other stakeholders such as customers. Sometimes if

	an organisation has a difficult course of action to take, it might consult employees through such meetings. g. The negotiating meeting – this might be a union meeting with management to discuss issues such as wages and working conditions, or with suppliers of materials negotiating with the organisation over price or quality. h. The ad hoc meeting – these are intermittent meetings called for a variety of purposes when getting people together to discuss an issue is necessary, quicker, or results in a better outcome than individuals working alone. i. The team meeting – when a manager calls together his or her team to share information, check on the progress of tasks, etc. This could be a regular meeting (e.g. weekly) and/or called ad hoc as described above.
iii. Calling a meeting	The procedures of calling a meeting into session are within the regulations and rules for that specific type of meeting. These are clearly laid down for formal meetings, for example a Parliament meeting will be regulated by their own rules. An Annual Meeting of a Company's Shareholders will be guided by the Company's Memorandum of Association. These rules will tend to be specific to these types of meetings. In general, the following are standardised to most types of formal meetings: a. A notice – which is an invitation to the people needed to attend the meeting. Notices have a mandatory time period, for example, an Annual Meeting of a Company's Shareholders might be 30 days notice. A Departmental Staff Meeting might be 7 days notice, i.e. those time periods must pass before a meeting comes to session as a matter of law and a failure to adhere to these might render void and illegal decisions that might have been made in that meeting. b. A quorum – this is the legal number of members required to legally constitute a meeting. Standard requirements range from two thirds of the total members registered to fifty percent plus one. Also, like the notice, it is a legal requirement and failure to adhere to it might render the decisions taken in that meeting null and void. c. Officers of the meeting – these include the Chairperson, Secretary and other officials. In connection with calling the meeting to session, this must be done by a legally elected or appointed official as authorised by the constitution or rules. When it is done by persons other than the legal official it can render the decisions taken by the meeting also null and void. For more informal meetings, e.g. called by the manager of a team to discuss a problem that has arisen, it is usually the manager (or his/her assistant) who will inform attendees (e.g. by letter, word of mouth, telephone, or e-mail) of the meeting, its time and place.

iv. Conduct of a meeting	A meeting when called to session must show clear indications that it is serious business meant to achieve its desired objective. To this end a *formal* meeting should involve the following: a. A clear agenda – which is a list of issues that are to be discussed by the meeting, and the timing of the meeting. b. A list of the invited members required (sometimes legally) to be present at the meeting. c. A Chairperson present with the Secretary or the person taking the minutes, all of whom are persons prescribed by the law or the organisation's Constitution. d. People wanting to speak on the issues on the agenda should seek the recognition of the Chair and all their remarks or speeches should be addressed to the Chair. That person, recognised by the Chair is the only speaker and those that object or need clarification on what he/she is saying can only get on a point of order or a point of information/clarification, which will require the recognition of the Chair. At times, speakers on these privilege motions use them to make their own speeches, which is an abuse and would be dealt with by the Chair. e. The authority of the Chair is absolute and includes the right to throw out of the meeting those it deems to be misbehaving and those using abusive language not acceptable in the meeting. f. Voting – it is the Chair who decides, often after extensive discussion, whether a particular issue will be voted upon and will direct how the voting is conducted. Normal types of voting include (i) voice vote, (ii) poll vote, (iii) secret vote. g. Adjournment – this can either be a decision of the Chair or on request from the floor. It means stopping the proceedings of the meeting and announcing the date and venue for the next meeting. h. Minutes – these are records of the meeting proceedings. They become official records of the meeting when approved in another meeting and when signed by the Chair as representative of the proceedings of the meeting with whatever alterations or additions by the meeting participants. There are several ways of formulating minutes. There is the format in which the verbatim of the words by the contributors to the issues are identified with their names and their specific points of view. The common format is when the discussion or issues raised are identified, and how they are resolved indicating what the organisation needs to do as a result of the meeting. The conduct of *informal* meetings, whilst not covered by law or rules, has a number of the ingredients mentioned above. For example, for an informal meeting to be effective it needs: • A clear purpose – so that people know what the meeting is about and what it aims to achieve.

	• An agenda – which outlines what is to be discussed. • The appropriate participants – so that those needed to provide information, comment, be informed, make decisions, take actions, etc. are present. • A leader and/or facilitator – to keep the meeting on track and manage interactions. • Good organisation – so that people have the information they need, know when and where, and the room and equipment is set up. • To arrive at decisions and actions – outputs that move the issues forward. • A record of the meeting – either minutes, or less formally, some record of what has been discussed or decided. • To keep to time – that don't start late or overrun. By contrast, poorly managed meetings usually have one or more of the following characteristics: • Lack of information before and during the meeting. • Incomplete or wrong participants. • No clear objective. • No context provided. • Don't start on time. • Poor chairing, leading or facilitation. • Drift and diverge from the topic. • Overrun their allotted time. • Poor recording of minutes/key points/actions. • No summing up, conclusions, decisions or agreed actions. On a general note, meetings are vital to an organisation's normal functioning. It is the format by which issues affecting most aspects of the organisation are resolved. Managers at all levels in the organisation spend a lot of their working time in meetings of all types, hence it is vital for them to understand how meetings are conducted and to be able to participate in them, and thereby contribute to the effective management of the organisation.
v. Parties to meetings and their roles	From the discussion of types of meetings, and conduct in meetings above, it is apparent that there are a number of roles that people play in meetings. It is important to know what is expected of these roles and how they function together to produce an effective meeting. a. Chairperson/Leader – formal meetings have a Chairperson whose role is to: • Steer the meeting through the agenda • Set boundaries and bring members to order when necessary • Invite and motivate members to talk

	• Summarise, decide on issues that need voting on, approve minutes. It is important that the authority of the Chairperson is accepted by the attendees. Less formal meetings may not have an official Chairperson but they still require a Leader of the meeting (usually the most senior manager present) which involves: • Introducing new people, setting out context and aims. • Managing the discussion – keeping it on the point, controlling unhelpful comments or conflict • Participating with care, the leader being aware of his/her effect on the group. • Regularly summarising and checking understanding. • Deciding the decision making process (e.g. leader decides, voting, consensus by discussion, etc.) • Summing up at the end. It is important that those Chairing or Leading meetings control extroverts who want to talk all the time, and encourage introverts who might have a valuable contribution to add but tend to keep quiet. b. Secretary – formal meetings have a Secretary whose role is to: • Set and circulate the agenda. • Invite the members. • Ensure all resources (including venue) are available for the meeting. • Take and produce the minutes. Again, with less formal meetings there may not be an official Secretary, but the manager who called the meeting needs to ensure that the secretarial activities mentioned above are carried out so that the meeting is well organized and that during the meeting a record is made. c. Members/Participants – all meetings have participants. If the meeting is formal, there are clear rules as to who the members are and how they are able to participate (see Conduct of a meeting above). However, whether the meeting is formal or informal, there are some general guidelines that apply. Participants should: • Contribute points, e.g. state views and ideas, share information and expertise. • Listen to other's views and follow the discussion. • Be willing to compromise, accept decisions and take on actions. • Stick to the agenda, i.e. not use the meeting for some other end. • Avoid being confrontational, dominating discussion, interrupting or remaining silent. d. Facilitator – some meetings, usually less formal meetings, have a facilitator. This role works with the Leader

	or Chair role to help the meeting run smoothly (to facilitate = make easy). Having a facilitator enables the Leader to more easily take part in the discussion without having to worry about running the process of the meeting. A facilitator would: • With the Leader, design the process of the meeting. • Facilitate the meeting process by prompting discussion, inviting participants to contribute, managing contributions, ensuring everyone can participate, and managing conflict. • Manage the agenda and the time. • Record comments (e.g. on a flipchart), summarise regularly, move the discussion on. • Not get involved in the discussion of the content of the meeting – a facilitator remains neutral.

Topic 4.4: Communicating Electronically

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
COMMUNICATING ELECTRONICALLY	By the end of this course unit, the participating manager should be able to: a) Describe the trend in electronic communication b) Discuss the significance of electronic communication to efficiency in service provision c) Discuss problems in electronic communication in Government service	i. Trends in electronic communication – Mobile phones – E-mail – Internet ii. Significance in efficiency in service delivery – Cost saving – Speed of communication – Confidentiality – Diversity of application iii. Problems of electronic communication – Cost of services – Poor competency – Levels by employees – Resistance to change	– Lectures – Discussions – Exercises – Brainstorms	– Trainers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids – Computers – Mobile phones	1 day	Knowledge and concept test Practical computer test

Topic 4.3: Communicating Electronically

i. Trends in electronic communication	Over the past several years there has been tremendous changes in communication practice in organisations. This is irrespective of the nature and direction of the communication, be it vertical or lateral. Communication has virtually moved from paper based to electronic. This has been made possible by the development of Information Communication Technology (ICT). Advances in micro-chip technology have facilitated the proliferation of personal desk top computers in offices. This has been a major development from the highly centralised and expensive mainframe computers used from the middle of the last century. Through personal desktop computers it is now common for staff in organisations to communicate with one another electronically, thus drastically reducing the use of paper-based communication in offices. Workers now routinely pass on messages and other information through e-mail. Organisations have been able to establish their own Local Area Networks (LANs) and Wide Area Networks (WANs) to facilitate intra-organisational communication over geographical expanses no matter how wide. Even communication among and between organisations has become highly electronic. Through the use of the Internet and the World Wide Web (www) facility it is possible to access information about most organisations (e.g. via their web pages), and communicate electronically via the same means. International transactions are thus being carried out in real time through this means. Organisations store and disseminate information internally using their own secured part of the Internet called the Intranet, protected from external penetration by electronically secure 'firewalls'. Electronic communication has made it possible for employees to work from their homes. This is because they no longer need to be physically in the office as they only need to pass on their work output to the office by use of their personal computers. The advent of the laptop computer has improved matters further as it is now possible to work from virtually anywhere, including the field (bush). This is because many modern laptops have their own power back-up systems for use in the field, with appropriate internet connectivity either wireless or via a modem wired connection via telephone. The mobile telephone has also greatly revolutionised communication among organisations. It is now possible even for small scale traders to receive vital market information through their mobiles. Even where computer facilities may not be available, organisations are able to use this technology to directly communicate with employees in the field or with other stakeholders. More sophisticated mobile phones that use satellite technology can be used almost anywhere without the need for expensive network rollouts by service providers. There are many other more traditional facilities for use in organisations that have been highly improved. These include fax machines, document copiers and printers and telex machines to mention but a few. Advances in the technology used in these have greatly enhanced the quality of the communication services provided.

ii.	Significance in efficiency in service delivery	Electronic communication has gained widespread use by many organisations mainly because of the many benefits that arise from its use. To start with, the overall per unit cost of communications is drastically reduced. This is mainly because a given communication can be addressed and sent to very many people at the same time. This is the case with the use of the Internet and e-mail services. The speed of communication is also greatly enhanced. The Internet provides real-time communication such that irrespective of the distance between the parties, the message is received instantly at the time that it was actually transmitted. This instantaneous communication afforded by electronic means enables an organisation to grasp opportunities which otherwise would have been lost using conventional means. This is because information concerning opportunities is relayed and received as they occur enabling decisions to be made appropriately. There is no time lag that could lead to changes in the prevailing environment. This greatly improves the level of service provision. A greater degree of confidentiality can be embedded in electronic communication. This is because it is possible to prevent access to a given communication unless a person is privy to the appropriate password. The communication therefore can be specifically targeted. As with mobile phones, you communicate with the intended recipient only. There is no need for elaborate storage facilities where electronic communication facilities are used. This is because information can be stored in the hardware used, to be retrieved when required, without the need for storage flies, cupboards and rooms. This not only frees space for other uses but is also reduces the personnel requirements, hence providing additional cost savings. Electronic communication provides a very wide range of communication possibilities. An organisation can communicate in both audio and visual forms a variety of information including text, graphics and animated images, which enhance the information being transmitted. Additionally, the communication can be tailored more easily to meet the specific requirements of particular audiences. E.g. messages can be so packaged to appeal to the tastes of youth, women, men, elderly segments of the target audience, etc. Electronic means of communication have actually revolutionised the art of making presentations by making such an exercise almost a form of entertainment.
iii.	Problems of electronic communication	Despite many benefits, there are also certain problems that are associated with electronic forms of communication. For one, although the per unit cost of communication is reduced, the initial cost of installing such a communication system is relatively high. This includes the cost of buying the hardware required, and of installing

	the software. Even common devices like mobile phones many not be that affordable to the common person! Another thing is that many employees are not competent in the use of many of the pieces of equipment involved, sometimes because they find it too much bother to acquire such competencies. It is therefore not unusual to find computers in offices of senior government officers which have never been used, since these officers have neither the intention nor the motivation to learn. They would rather use the old methods of office memos and the short-hand services of secretaries. There are also very few people who have mastered how to use the complete range of communication features in their mobile phones. The other problem arises from the inherent resistance to change that is common among workers. Even where workers have undertaken to skill-upgrading courses in the use of such facilities, they still revert to the old ways of doing things. Sometimes workers even resist or oppose the introduction of such facilities in their working environments. An important part of a manager's role is to encourage staff to learn how to use and apply new technology where it will improve efficiency. This includes helping people overcome their resistance to change (see section...) Also, when technology is introduced it is important that those involved know how to operate it, and that there are trained people available to maintain the technology.

Topic 4.5: Personal Styles and Preferences

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
PERSONAL STYLES AND REFERENCE	By the end of this course unit, the participating manager should be able to: a) Describe the factors that determine ones individual personal styles b) Describe the types of individual personal styles (personalities) c) Explain the significance of individual personal styles to work performance	i. Determinants of personal styles – Childhood experience – Social and economic backgrounds – Personal experiences in life – Genetic makeup ii. Types of individual personalities – Extroverts/Introverts – Intuitors/Sensors – Feeling/Thinking – Perceiving/Judging iii. Significance to work performance – Team roles – Job applications	– Lectures – Discussions – Exercises – Brainstorms – Use of personality type indicator	– Trainers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids – Personality type tool & materials	1 day (2)*	Knowledge and concept test

(2)* This course can be extended to 2 days to give more time for exercises if a personality type indicator tool is used.

Topic 4.5: Personal Styles and Preferences

i. Determinants of personal styles	Our own personalities affect the way we behave and relate to others at work. To understand and predict an individual's behaviour requires the diagnosis of his or her personality. The study of personality is important because of the crucial significance of employee attitudes, intelligence, interest, aptitudes, and capabilities in determining workplace behaviour and productivity. Determinants of personal styles – there are various factors that tend to mould people's personalities and hence their personal styles. These include: • Childhood experiences – our first experiences are with our parents. They are then during childhood moulded by the environment within which we live. These childhood experiences could have been very happy, supportive and well provided for, or they could have been hostile, difficult and full of hate. Our future personalities and lifestyles to a large extent depend on what we went through during our childhood. We may become angry and aggressive persons in our adult life due to our childhood experiences. • Social background – this is in terms of the social environment within which we grew. It could either have been a hostile environment or a happy and interactive environment. People brought up in slums have totally different personalities from those brought up in the posh and leafy suburbs of our towns. Similarly people brought up in rural areas have different personalities from those brought up in towns. • Economic and educational backgrounds – people who grew up in affluence tend to have totally different personalities and outlooks from those who grew up in poverty and hardship. Their approaches to life are quite different. Similarly people who are endowed with high levels of education tend to approach life quite differently from those with little or no education. • Personal experiences in life – the experiences we go through in life tend to shape the way we perceive things. They also tend to influence our own interpretations of events, and our expectations about future outcomes. People who grew up in turbulent war environments have totally different perceptions and expectations from those who grew up in peace and tranquillity. • Genetic make-up – This is basically a consequence of inheritance. The types of genes that we inherit tend to mould our personalities in given ways. This is also the reason why different communities tend to have different personality traits and inclinations to life. Some communities are more war-like than others, while others may like leisure more.

ii. Types of individual personalities	There are various way of categorising personalities – the most commonly used method is the Jungian typology developed by Carl Gustav Jung. He contrasted four pairs of personality dimensions that combine in different ways to make up individual personality. Each pair in fact represents a spectrum, the end points of which are described below: 1. Introvert versus Extrovert • An Extrovert is normally outgoing, free thinking and interested in working with others in groups. He/she communicates easily and is good understanding outside environments. However, he/she finds it difficult to function without contact with others, is prone to manipulative behaviour and quickly loses patience with routine work. • An Introvert is diligent and reflective, independent minded and capable of working alone. However, he/she is likely to misunderstand other people's intentions, finds it difficult to cope with interruptions, and needs space and quiet to complete tasks. 2. Intuitor versus Sensor • An Intuitor is an imaginative problem-solver who is at home with complex theories and new ideas. His/her inspiration comes from within. However, such a person gets quickly bored by practical details and tedious but necessary work. • A Sensor is practical, patient, careful, systematic, and attends to details. He/she receives inspiration from the outside world (sensing). However, she/he gets quickly frustrated by complicated work and prefers concrete, factual and structured work. 3. Feelings versus Thinking • A Feelings person empathises with others and is more interested in people than objects. He/she is good at persuasion and conciliation, and in identification of colleagues' human and personal needs. He/she tends to make decisions based on feelings and principles. However, he/she can be disorganised, illogical and uncritical of issues and events, and is guided by emotion without analysing issues objectively. • A Thinker is logical, analytical and objective, and makes decisions using reason and logic. However, the person may be insensitive to other people's views and may misunderstand their values. Such a person prefers to confront rather than conciliate and can be quite ruthless at times, 4. Perceiver versus Judger

	• A Perceiver can see all sides of a problem. He/she is flexible in approach, constantly searching for fresh information about issues. However, he/she may be reluctant to commit himself/herself, and is prone to not finishing tasks. • A Judger is decisive, orderly and sticks with the work at hand. He/she makes quick decisions and plans ahead. However, such a person is dominated by his/her plans and therefore not very flexible to change. Decisions may be taken hastily and the person can be extremely reluctant to admit mistakes. Everyone's personality will have dimensions of each pair to some extent, but one dimension in each pair will be stronger than the other, usually termed a preference, e.g. we will have a preference towards Extroversion or Introversion. The dominant dimension in each pair, and how strong the preference is, will determine the person's outlook and personality. This model of personality has been operationalised in a number of commercial tools that can be used by individuals to obtain a personality profile (or 'type'), comprised of these dimensions. Examples of such tools are MBTI, Insights, Team Management Index. These tools are useful for team building, since if everyone in a team is aware of their personality type, and that of other members of the team, it helps people understand each other better.
iii. Significance to work performance	The variation of personality types and the preferences they represent has a number of implications to work: • People's personalities should be considered before allocating them to teams or work groups. • Employees can be trained to become aware of their own personality preferences, strengths and weaknesses, and try to overcome the latter. • An understanding of the personality types of other people helps communication and collaboration – if you know "where the other person is coming from" perhaps because of their personality then you are less likely to think they are being awkward when they don't approach issues in the same way that you do. • Individuals of one personality type should seek the council of people of other types before making important decisions. • Individuals should choose jobs and occupations to which their personality strengths and preferences are most suited. • Personality type influences the style adopted by managers as they make decisions, communicate, plan work, interact with others, etc. Knowledge of personality types helps managers understand their team

	members better and adapt their style accordingly. • Different organisation structures and working environments might be suitable for different personality types. E.g. someone with a strong Judging preference might prefer a more structured organisation, whereas someone with a Perceiving preference, less structured. An Extrovert might like an open plan office environment with lots of interaction, whereas for an Introvert this might be a nightmare! A word of caution – personality typing is a very useful tool for understanding personality preferences, strengths and weaknesses, but we should not “box” or “label” people too tightly – we have been moulded by our backgrounds and genetics in many aspects, and are all more complex and wonderfully made than any personality model can hope to describe!

Topic 4.6: Problem Solving Methods

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
PROBLEM SOLVING METHODS	By the end of this course unit, the participating manager should be able to: a) Define a problem and its inherent elements b) Classify problems in various categories c) Distinguish between the various ways of dealing with a problem d) Solve problems following the correct process	i. What is a problem and what are its elements? – From the individual perspective – From the organisational perspective – From the decision-makers perspective ii. Classifications of problems – Complex versus simple – Well defined versus ill defined – Tame versus wicked iii. Various ways of dealing with a problem – Solving a problem – Dissolving a problem – Resolving a problem iv. Process of solving problems – Problem identification – Data gathering – Re-defining the problem – Generating ideas	– Lectures – Discussions – Exercises – Quizzes – Brainstorms – Image drawing – Case studies	– Trainers – Guest speakers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids	2 days	Knowledge and concept test

		– Solution finding – Gaining acceptance – Implementing the solution v. Managing stress – Causes of stress – Signs and symptoms – Coping with/managing stress – Helping others manage stress				

Topic 4.6 Expanded: Problem Solving Methods

i. What is a problem and what are its elements?	What is a problem? A problem is defined as the difference between an actual state of affairs and a desired state of affairs. In other words a problem is a gap between where one is and where one wants to be. Problem solving is meant to close the gap. For example, a person in Yei who has to be in Juba in about half an hour has a problem. The problem is not being in Yei (actual state of affairs), nor is it being in Juba (desired state of affairs). Instead the problem is the 100 miles in between. Considering half an hour as the constraint, flying is the only practical way of solving the problem (closing the gap). A state of difficulty that needs to be resolved, e.g. the manager and a subordinate are having a problem. A deficit of something that is necessary to achieve one's goal. Problems exist when goals need to be attained and there is uncertainty about the solution. A problem can be: • A situation that concerns someone, or • A situation that would concern someone if they knew about it. A problem is not usually a positive experience for most people. In fact a problem makes some people so uncomfortable they would do anything to avoid it. That is especially true of a problem between people because it makes its appearance through angry words, emotional and loud voices, hurt feelings, withdrawal, and even confusion. Ideas stop flowing, people stop talking, and things stop happening. No matter what field a person is in, he/she will face problems – they are inevitable for three reasons: • We live in a world of growing complexity and diversity. • We interact with people. • We cannot control all the situations we face. Problems can be viewed from different perspectives: individual, organisational, and from a decision maker's perspective. Sources of individual problems can be: technical, human relations related, ethical, psychological, or substance abuse related (e.g. drugs, alcohol). In organisations, sources of problems include: 1. Goals and rewards are different – e.g. they are different among team members, and self-interest

	predominates. 2. Functional views of the business prevail. • Members view the business from their own functional view (e.g. finance, operations, etc.). • There are differing views around the table – whilst this can be helpful, if there is not an overall common shared view of how all the pieces fit together, the resulting problem can be unproductive. This happens when different functions within an organisation come to a meeting to represent their own interests only. 3. People want to win. • Members have not been told to cooperate, or they believe that the team has a chance to win. • Long-established rivalries among people, departments, and locations can cause members to arrive at team meetings with a fear that another member may gain something – extra resources, power, prestige, access to higher levels at his/her expense. As a result, team meetings run into unnecessary roadblocks. Politics is a reality in business. 4. New members join the team late – they bring up ideas already addressed by the team. New members should be briefed and thoroughly oriented to the team, its goals, the team's constitution, the history of its achievements, its strengths and future plan. In this way unnecessary problems can be avoided. On the other hand, revisiting ideas through naive questions and the ideas of new members may be a valuable way to review how decisions were made. New members may even contribute a fresh perspective and surprising insights to problems the group though it had addressed already. 5. Members think they are right – this can be because they have facts or experience other team members don't have. Facts, opinions and experience are the currency of team meetings. Problems based on different facts and different views are extremely valuable. Problems based on experience and data can be researched, validated, verified, reinterpreted, and discussed until common ground is reached. 6. Members like to test ideas – by challenging decisions and authority. This is the "gadfly" phenomenon and many teams have at least one. However, challenges, contrary views, etc., offer an opportunity to thoroughly examine the consequences of a decision. 7. Some members have different values and beliefs – these can be contrary to the group. Like the gadfly, such members force the team to look hard at its decisions.
ii. Classifications of problems	Problems have been classified in various ways, including: a. Complex versus Simple:

	• Complex problems would be ones with a lot details with many small parts spreading over many areas of activities or many departments involved in solving it. Therefore they involve a much deeper analysis than what appear to be the problem on the surface. This is because of the large number of inter-dependent issues involved that are difficult or confusing to understand. At a more personal level, you could think of an employee, who has been a model of good behaviour, but who suddenly turns into an aggressive drunkard. The problem would be more complex than mere drunkenness. • On the other hand, a simple problem is one that is easy to understand and straightforward, with only a one or very few issues/variables to complicate it. b. Well defined versus ill defined • In a well defined problem, the facts involved are clear and the parameters for decision making are straightforward. It does not need much work to deal with the problem. • An ill-defined problem on the other hand is one which is not easy to deal with or to understand. This is because the facts are not clear, and it involves a lot of problems for example, where supplies office grants a temper to a supplier through direct contact. There could be a problem in that the officer was supposed to follow open tender processes. But there could be other factors behind the decision, such as the urgency of the situation, the sensitivity of the materials sourced, etc. The problem would thus be not as straight forward as it first appears to be and would need further work to better define the problem. c. Tame versus wicked problems. • A tame problem is one that can be easily brought under control or solved. It can be handled according to rules already available. It is not such a powerful or dangerous problem. • On the other hand a wicked problem is one that is very bad and can have serious ramifications. Some such problems are even known to bring governments down. For example, problems of corrupt dealings between senior government personalities and contractors can lead to questions about the legitimacy of the Government if its officials can dip fingers into public kitty.
iii. Various ways of dealing with a problem	What is problem solving? It is the conscious process of bringing the actual situation closer to the desired situation. For example, solving a mathematical problem. Thinking about mathematical problems, the whole aim of education is to equip children to solve problems. Mathematics consists of skills and process. Skills are being able to do things like algebra, statistics or geometry. Processes in mathematics are the ways of using the skills creatively in new solutions.

	Ways of dealing with problems include: a. Solving a problem – a problem is solved when the best possible solution is selected. Managers are said to optimise when through scientific observation and quantitative measurement they systematically research alternative solutions and select the one with the best combination of benefits. b. Dissolving a problem – a problem is dissolved when the situation in which it occurs is changed so that the problem no longer exists. Problem dissolvers are said to idealize because they actually change the nature of the system in which a problem resides. c. Resolving a problem – when a problem is resolved, a course of action that is good enough to meet the minimum constraints is selected. The term "satisfy" has been applied to the practice of settling for solutions that are good enough rather than the best possible. A badly worn tyre may satisfy as a replacement for a flat tyre for the balance of the trip, although getting the flat repaired is the best possible solution.
iv. Process of solving a problem	We are all problem solvers but this does not mean that we are all good problem solvers. Managed problem solving consists of a four step sequence: (1) identifying the problem; (2) generating alternative solutions; (3) selecting a solution, and (4) implementing and evaluating the solution. 1. Indentifying the problem – as a matter of fact, the most common difficulty in solving a problem is identifying it in the first place. Some steps for identifying the problem: • You must know what the actual situation is. • You must know what the desired situation is. • Cause – what is responsible for the difference between the actual and desired situations? Busy managers have a tendency to rush into generating and selecting solutions before they have actually isolated and understood the real problem. Managers need to identify problems according to the gaps between the actual and desired situations. 2. Generating alternative solutions – after the problem and its most probable cause have been identified, attention turns to the generating of alternative solutions. This is the creative step in problem solving. It takes time, patience, and practice to become a good generator of alternative solutions. A flexible combination of analysis and intuition is helpful. A good sense of humour can add to the process as well. Several popular and useful techniques can stimulate individual and group creativity. The following are some approaches for developing alternative solutions: • Brainstorming – a group technique in which any and all ideas are recorded in a non-judgemental

	setting for later critique and selection. • Free association – analogies and symbols are used to foster unconventional thinking. For example, think of your problem as a mountain to summit requiring special climbing gear and skills. • Attribute listing – ideal characteristics of a given object are collected and then screened for useful insights. • Scientific method – systematic hypotheses testing, manipulation of variables, situational controls and careful measurement are the essence of this rigorous approach. • Creative leap – this technique involves thinking up idealistic solutions to a problem and then working back to a feasible solution. 3. Selecting a solution – in selecting a solution it is important to consider whether the solution is effective and efficient in view of relevant constraints and intangibles. Other criteria may also be applied in choosing from the various alternatives (e.g. cost, impact, how close it fits the desired outcome, etc.) 4. Implementing and evaluating the solution – time is the true test of any solution. Until a particular solution has had time to prove its worth, the manager can rely on his or her judgement concerning its effectiveness and efficiency. Ideally the solution selected will completely eliminate the difference between the actual and the desired in an efficient and timely manner – but what if the gap fails to disappear? Then it's back to redefining the problem and/or looking at other solutions.
v. Managing stress	What is stress? Most of us experience stress in our work. Often this is ok as it provides some motivation for being creative, solving problems and getting things done. Some stress isn't helpful and if that type of stress stays around for a long time it can affect our health. Most stress is caused by being under pressure but not being clear about what we should be doing. A boss constantly tells us we are doing a poor job but never tells us what a "good" job looks like. Over a long time, this begins to "work" on us and we might even start feeling unwell. Stress can also be caused by family issues that might make us regularly late for work or make it hard for us to concentrate on what we are doing. Employees often face tension and stress in their roles just as managers do. It is important that even the most junior of staff (e.g. messengers and cleaners) understand: 1. Causes of stress. 2. Signs and symptoms of stress. 3. Coping with/managing stress. 4. Helping others to manage stress.

	1. The causes of stress – these are many and varied. At work they can be overworking, looming deadlines, a demanding boss, relationship conflicts, dealing with problems or disasters. People can also be stressed at work because of problems occurring elsewhere in their lives, e.g. financial worries, family relationship problems, alcohol or drug abuse, etc. A certain amount of pressure prompts action and increases performance as our minds and bodies respond to the stimulus. But if it is intense and/or prolonged, those responses keep us in a pattern of alertness, and prompt *symptoms* (physical, emotional, behavioural) that signal we are under stress and may be doing ourselves harm. 2. The signs and symptoms of stress - there are well documented symptoms of stress and these affect people in different ways: • Physical – headaches, sleep disorders, chest pains, breathing problems, etc. • Behavioural – unable to concentrate, unable to relax, rushing everything, angry and aggressive, crying, complaining, escape activities (drinking, smoking, eating disorders), etc. • Emotional – loss of self-esteem, loneliness, pessimism, depression, etc. 3. Coping with/managing stress - if you recognise you are under stress, you need to take steps to look after yourself - this will help alleviate the symptoms, and may also help to address some of the sources. There are some well tried ways: • Rest and relaxation – an imperative if you are to survive under pressure, establish a balance, and get a right perspective on your work. • Exercise – the body is to be treated with care and respect. Whether it a sport or just a regular walk, it benefits body and mind, and also helps use up the excess energy associated with stress. • Diet – this is an area which can be neglected or abused because of stress. Maintaining good diet helps your body cope with the pressure it is under. • Sharing your feelings with others – the act of expressing how you feel can be therapeutic in itself, but also avails you of the support of others. Addressing the symptoms helps, but you must also pin-point the sources of stress. Sometimes this is easy, and the real barrier is the will to do something about them; if you have grown used to being a “martyr to the cause” and are quite proud of coping with an impossible workload, you may see this task as a sign of

	weakness. Sometimes identifying the sources is more difficult – it may not be any single task but the fact that there are lots of them (you cannot blame the “hair that breaks the camel’s back”), or you may think it is your boss when really it is your own perfectionism that is causing the stress, or there may be an underlying cause of tension in another area of your life. Some strategies for tackling the sources of stress at work include: • Sharing the load – through delegating tasks to others, or empowering others to take over completely particular tasks. • Saying “no” – being assertive when demands are unreasonable and you really have not got the time. • Managing time – this can really help since some stress is caused by poorly organised time. 4. Helping others to manage stress – as a manager or colleague, this means listening to others when they are stressed, helping them to find solutions, and perhaps taking some of their load. As a manager, it means not overloading your staff with onerous or impossible demands – there is a place for challenging staff with tough work assignments to get the best out of them, but when they have become badly stressed you have gone too far!

Topic 4.7: Communication Skills

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
COMMUNICATION SKILLS	By the end of this course unit, the participating manager should be able to: a) Describe the elements of a communication b) Describe the communication process c) Discuss the various types of communication d) Discuss the barriers to effective communication e) Discuss the essentials of effective communication f) Describe the necessary listening skills	i. Elements of communication – Message – Sender – Channel – Receiver ii. Communication process – Encoding – Sending – Decoding – Feedback iii. Types of communication – Oral/ verbal – Written – Non-verbal – Vertical versus horizontal communications in organisations iv. Barriers to effective communication – Noise – Language level	– Lectures – Discussions – Exercises – Brainstorms – Demonstration – Role plays	– Trainers – Guest speakers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids	1 day	Knowledge and concept test Observed role plays

		– Semantics/ Jargon – Personal attitudes v. Essentials of effective communication – Attitudes – Skills – Language & structure – The medium – Timing vi. Listening skills – Concentration & interest – Ears, eyes, body – Paraphrasing, reflecting, summarising				

Topic 4.7 Expanded: Communication Skills

i. Elements of communication	Communication in its simplest form is a passage of information from a point A to a point B. The complex part is that the message that arrives at point B is what was meant by the person sending it from point A. If it is different, there is a communication failure. The technical term for effective communication is a “meeting of minds” i.e. that what has been communicated has been understood and interpreted in the way intended by the sender. The fundamental purpose of communication in an organisation is to achieve the meeting of minds described above and to avoid communication failure. For this to happen the organisation must recognise communication as a very vital tool for it to operate and therefore must handle it with the greatest possible care. The elements of communication comprise the players in the communication process (sender and receiver), the message (information), and the channel (passage) the message goes through.
ii. Communication process	The communication process can be visualised as follows:  FEEDBACK The sender is responsible for creating the message i.e. encoding (e.g. writing or speaking) it in such a way that it is understandable to the receiver. This means that that the sender must have in mind who the receiver is, and use words and terms that will be understood by the receiver. The other responsibility of the sender is to choose the channel that is appropriate to the nature of the message so as to avoid any obstructions or distortions that might affect the meaning of the message. If these responsibilities are not discharged there can be a failure of communication. The channel or medium is the passage way through which the message passes. It has to be appropriate to the nature of the message and avoid anything that might be an obstacle to the clear delivery of the message. Examples include: letter, memorandum, e-mail, report, conversation (informal), speech (formal), etc. The receiver is charged with the responsibility of the receipt of the message, which requires reading or listening well, and then decoding (interpreting) the message so as to understand its meaning so that it can be acted on (e.g. carry out some command or deed, or pass the message on further). Another responsibility of the receiver is to send a message back to the sender to confirm receipt/understanding (feedback), and this completes the communication cycle.

iii. Types of communication	Communication can be oral/verbal, i.e. spoken by word of mouth. It can be written, i.e. committed to paper in the form of a document, or created in electronic form. Communication can also be non-verbal, i.e. through gestures and other forms of body language. In an organisation communication can be described as vertical (downwards or upwards) or horizontal (across). Downward communication carries directives to the lower levels. Upward communication carries the reactions and feedback to directives and policies from the lower levels to the higher levels. Horizontal communication is that between colleagues and peers within the same team or across teams. Research indicates that the majority of a manager's time is spent communicating in various modes. These include giving directions to subordinates so that tasks can be accomplished, meeting with peers of his/her team to discuss issues, or reporting back to senior management on progress. Given the importance of communication to the achievement of the organisation's goals, it is the responsibility of managers and employees to achieve effective communication and avoid communication failure.
iv. Barriers to effective communication	There are many barriers to communication, sometimes the responsibility of the sender, sometimes the receiver, or sometimes due to the channel used. Some examples are: • Lack of openness – since communication is between people, it is subject to all the influences that condition human behaviour. For example, if an employee does not trust or respect a manager or his/her viewpoint, then it easy for that person to be distracted by the dislike or distrust. As a result, he/she will tend not to hear, read or believe anything the manager communicates. • Filtering – when openness does not exist, a manager or employee may filter a communication if he/she feels that it may harm their chances of promotion, or if it is bad news and will cause problems for them. As a result, information is commonly distorted as it ascends from the bottom to the top of an organisation. Employees tend to shape their behaviour to meet satisfying rewards. • Degree of motivation – when communicating, people have various motives, e.g. to persuade, to tell, to entertain, to reinforce ideas. The degree of motivation by either the giver or the receiver will influence how effective the communication is. • Assumptions – another barrier is making and acting on unjustified assumptions. Everyone makes assumptions about their working environment and the people in it. But when an assumption is made without checking the facts), communication breakdown takes place. E.g. the manager assumed, since he/she hadn't heard from the employee that the project would be completed on time. However, the employee assumed that since the manager hadn't asked, he/she wasn't concerned about the project overrunning.

	• Snap reactions – when the receiver feels that little will be gained from reading carefully, the communication is almost certain to be less effective. • Fear – when communication contains emotionally loaded words like failure, strike, liar, death, defeat, or the message is a negative one, fear can affect the translation of information. Tension or nervousness also affects the quality of communication. • Language – the meanings of words are influenced by association and can be interpreted differently by different people. Word differences and choice are serious obstacles to mutual understanding. And the meaning of a word or symbol is influenced by the amount of education the person has. The use of jargon, acronyms and technical terms can also be barriers because not everyone is privy to their meanings. Tone of voice also has an effect – a word spoken in anger can have an entirely different meaning from the same word spoken in friendliness. • Body language – this includes facial expressions, the twinkle in the eye, gestures, and can convey as much meaning as the words spoken, but can be misunderstood. • Time constraints – everyone lives and works under certain time pressures. When a manager or employee is placed under severe time constraints, he/she is likely to hurry the conceptualisation and encoding of a message, or decode a received message in an emotional way. The result is poor communication that can result in conflict. • Perception – the way individuals interpret a message varies, and it might not be how the message was intended to be interpreted, hence can be a barrier. • Poor listening skills – many people don't listen well to oral messages, or simply forget what is said. Managers may need to reiterate their messages and check that they have been understood.
v. Essentials of effective communication	The essentials of effective communication include a number of attitudes and skills, the language and structure used, the communication channel (the medium) chosen, and the timing. To communicate well requires an attitudes of openness (willing to share and to receive information), and objectivity (i.e. not prejudging or making snap decisions based on assumptions), and a bias towards disclosing information to those it affects rather than hoarding it. Skills used in effective communication include: • Speaking – this means speaking clearly, using understandable language, at an appropriate pace, and in a friendly and engaging way.

	• Writing – written communications should be clear and concise, again using understandable language. • Listening – ensures that the message is heard and understood (see below on listening skills). • Questioning – asking questions demonstrates interest and enhances clarity. • Feedback – giving feedback lets the sender know what was understood. Getting feedback means the sender knows how the message was received and can make adjustments if necessary. Giving feedback, if the message is negative, needs to done sensitively if it is to be received. Effective communication uses clear and simple language tailored to those who will receive it, and excludes jargon, acronyms or technical terms that people will not be able to understand. It is made interesting and memorable by good oral delivery and/or clearly written documents. The message is structured logically and in a way that will make sense to the receiver. The channel or medium for the message is chosen carefully to ensure the most effective delivery for the receiver. Some messages are best delivered orally face to face (e.g. if the message is of a personal nature, or is to inspire the team), some best via written documents (e.g. a memorandum stating an important policy), and some electronically (e.g. a message to reach people quickly in diverse locations). There are many other channels that can be chosen depending on the message and the audience. Communication also needs to be timely. It is very frustrating for people working in organisations if they hear of important changes happening in the organisation via gossip before the official communication.
vi. Listening skills	Listening skills are essential for the receiver of the communication, but also for the sender in listening to the feedback. Firstly, to be a good listener means to concentrate on and show interest in the message. Concentration means that the listener will assimilate the main points (providing the message is communicated clearly). Showing interest will reinforce to the sender that the listening is in fact listening, and will motivate the sender to communicate in an interesting way. Both of these show that listening is an ACTIVE process. As such it involves listening with: • Ears - to the words people use, the way they are said and the tone of voice used. • Eyes - to maintain eye contact and observe the body language of the person you are coaching. • Body - to physically show that you are attending. As well as using ears, eyes and body, being a good listener involves knowing how to use several other techniques. Some of the most important skills are: • Paraphrasing – this involves restating the essence of the message in slightly different words and is a

	good way for the listener to check he/she has understood it correctly. E.g. "So what you are saying is that you think the current process is slowing us down." • Reflecting feelings – this requires the listener to tune in to the underlying thoughts and feelings beneath what may or may not have been said. In addition, to tune in to the sender's body language (e.g. whether they appear to be pleased, angry, upset or perplexed), and to the way they are talking (e.g. are they displaying hesitancy, confidence, or discomfort?). Reflecting feelings involves the listener succinctly mirroring the verbal and non-verbal messages that are being picked up. E.g. "I sense you are unhappy about the way we tackled the feasibility study." • Summarising – this can be used by the listener to check whether they have understood the message, or to show that they have understood it.

Topic 4.8: Managing Interpersonal Conflict

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
MANAGING INTERPERSONAL CONFLICT	By the end of this course unit, the participating manager should be able to: a) Define interpersonal conflict b) Explain the causes of conflict in an organisation c) Describe the indicators of interpersonal conflict d) Discuss possible ways of handling such conflict e) Discuss the positive aspects of conflict	i. Meaning of conflict ii. Causes of conflict – Lack of job description – Unclear roles – Lack of adequate working resources – Poor communication – Poor management iii. Indicators of interpersonal conflict – Increased aggressiveness – Non-cooperation – Lack of interpersonal communication iv. Ways of handling conflict – General guidelines – Avoiding jumping to conclusions – Deciding what course of action to take v. Positives aspects of	– Lectures – Discussions – Exercises – Brainstorms – Role plays	– Trainers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids	1 day (2)*	Knowledge and concept test

		conflict – Facilitates problem solving – Promotes change – Enhances morale and cohesion – High quality decisions – Stimulates interest and creativity – Adds to the fun of working				

(2)* This course can be extended to 2 days to give more time for skills practice.

Topic 4.8 Expanded: Managing Interpersonal Conflict

i. Meaning of conflict	Conflict can be defined as disagreements between and among individuals and/or groups. Conflicts often entail struggles over values, or claims to status, power or scarce resources. The differences are normally created by divergent goals, values, motives, ideas, etc. There are various categories of conflict including: i. Intra-personal – within self. ii. Inter-personal – between individuals. iii. Intra-group – within a group iv. Inter-group – between groups. v. International – between nation states. In organisations, conflicts can be on the level of struggles over values, power, etc. between individuals and groups, as described above. However, probably the most common type of conflict managers have to deal with is at the interpersonal level, and this is the focus of this section.
ii. Causes of conflict	In organisations, many factors can contribute to causing conflicts between people, including: a. Lack of a job description. A manager needs to provide clearly spelt out job descriptions for every individual in their department or team. Jobs should be separated within departments, units, sections, etc. This ensures every individual is clear of his or her duties. b. Unclear roles. Linked to job descriptions, individuals need to understand their roles and the responsibilities attached to it to avoid overlap of activities with other individuals within their department, or within other departments. Clear roles enhance the accomplishment of work objectives and the harmony and cooperation of staff working in the same department. c. Lack of adequate working resources. As a manager it is important to provide adequate resources and necessary facilities to enable people to do their jobs, and to enhance good working morale and staff motivation. Working resources include office furniture, computers, printers, photocopying machines, stationary, etc. Necessary facilities include offices, stores, toilets, etc. These promote a good working environment and help eliminate conflicts. d. Poor communication. A lack of understanding about what really transpires in a communication exchange is a major barrier to good communication in organisations. There are several other common barriers to effective organisational communication that cause breakdowns in information exchange. The manager needs to be aware of these hindrances and seek to dissolve their influence. Poor communication can be caused by (more detail is given in Section 4.7 under Communication):

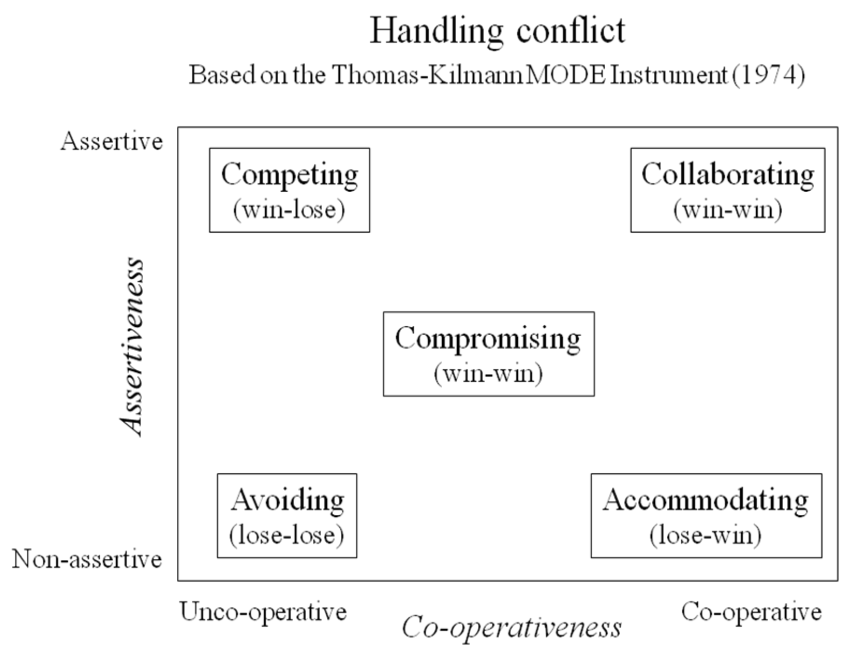
	• Lack of openness. • Filtering out elements of the message. • Degree of motivation – how motivated the person is to send or receive information. • Unjustified assumptions. • Snap reactions to a message. • Fear – especially when communication contains emotionally loaded words or is about sensitive issues. • Language – the meanings of words can be interpreted differently by different people. • Body language – gestures and facial expressions can convey as much meaning as the words spoken but can be misunderstood. • Time constraints. • Perception – people do not always interpret a message as intended. • Poor listening skills. e. Poor management. Interpersonal conflict can be caused by poor management, e.g. when the manager: • Does not set clear targets or objectives – so the employee is unclear on what he/she is working towards. • Appraises performance unfairly, e.g. by not taking into account the employee's contributions. • Sets unrealistic timelines for work. • Treats the employee in a demeaning or rude way. • Does not recognise or reward good work. • Favours other employees in an unfair way. • Does not communicate well (see communication section above). • Is never available to discuss work issues. • Does not guide or coach subordinates when they face problems. • Is not approachable. f. Personality clashes – sometimes people just don't get on, or just don't like each other, which can be sources of conflict if people let such differences get in the way of professional conduct.
iii. Indicators of interpersonal conflict	Some indicators of interpersonal conflict are: a. Lack of interpersonal communication. When people stop communicating the delivery of services suffers since many jobs are interdependent on each other and require mutual sharing of information, advice and expertise. This occurs between individuals within the same team, or in other teams. b. Non-cooperation. This can occur between a subordinate and his/her manager or peers in the same team, or between people in different teams. This causes lack of team spirit and unity, and also hinders delivery of services by the team or wider across the organisation. If not resolved informally, non-cooperation can

	become a breach of discipline that the manager will have to take more seriously, perhaps using the organisation's disciplinary procedure. c. Increased aggressiveness. People can be aggressive and hostile creatures by nature and sometimes this comes out at work. It may be expressed verbally or physically, and of course, will need to be taken very seriously by managers, who have a responsibility for the well being of their staff.
iv. Ways of handling conflict	There are a number of approaches a manager can take to resolve conflict depending on the situation, what is at stake, and the manager's judgement of what/who is in the right or wrong. As a general rule, it is usually best if interpersonal conflict at work, e.g. between two team members, of a team member and the manager him/herself, is resolved *informally* and amicably by dialogue between the people concerned. This is because if such conflicts escalate (e.g. through the organisation's disciplinary or grievance procedures, or through legal action) they can become a huge distraction and relationships tend to worsen. However, if it cannot be resolved informally, then there are *formal* processes that should be followed, which would usually involve a more senior manager playing an arbitration role with Human Resources ensuring the process is correctly handled a. General guidelines. If a manager is trying to help resolve a conflict between two team members, here are some general guidelines: • Don't ignore the conflict; deal with it, even if you can't fully resolve it at the time. • Reflect on what is happening before acting, then be proactive. • Listen to both sides, acknowledge and appreciate their views. It can be helpful to write them down to help both parties view them more objectively. • Try to isolate the issues at the heart of the conflict – sometimes a conflict can be due to misunderstandings or wrong assumptions, which if clarified can bring speedy resolution. • Steer people towards facts rather than opinions or personal comments, e.g. a statement like "That idea will not work" is an opinion, and "He always becomes awkward" is personal. Focussing on facts also helps to take the emotion out of the situation – when people are emotional or angry they tend not to listen to each other, or they hear only what they want to hear. • Encourage both parties to ask questions of each other rather than simply make statements about their own view. *The Ladder of Inference* model is helpful in this regard (Senge et al., 1994), which is a reminder not to jump to conclusions about someone else's view but to check it out by asking questions.

- Look for agreement – identify outcomes that each side will find acceptable (i.e. a win-win situation).

b. Deciding what course of action to take. The Thomas-Kilmann Mode Instrument (1974) is a useful model for considering what stance/course of action to take in an interpersonal conflict situation.

   There are times when the stance a person takes in a conflict will vary because of the circumstances and what is at stake. This model shows various ways of personally handling conflict using a matrix of assertiveness versus cooperation.



For example, if someone is assertive and uncooperative their approach would be described as *Competing* (or forcing), which is useful if there is a principle that he/she feels they have to defend, although will result in a win-lose situation. The *Collaborating* and *Compromising* approaches result in win-win situations, which are most desirable for team dynamics. But depending on the issue, any of the approaches described below may be appropriate.

A manager dealing with conflict between others may encourage a win-win outcome if both stances have merit, or adopt one of the other approaches given his/her judgement of the issues at stake.

	• Competing/Forcing (win-lose) – a resolution is forced on one party as the other stands firm. It may be in a manager's power to do this, and it may be the right course of action if an important issue is at stake, but it has the danger of leaving a legacy that might affect future relations. Often not best as a first course of action but can be necessary when an important principle is at stake or the opposing sides ideas is detrimental • Collaborating (win-win) – finding ways of developing the ideas of both parties. It depends on the degree of willingness of the parties to work together, but can be a good approach if there is merit in both side's arguments. • Compromising (win-win) – conflict is acknowledged but both sides are encouraged to give a little, e.g. splitting the difference and finding the middle ground. This generates an expedient, mutually acceptable solution. • Avoiding (lose-lose) – withdrawing from the reality of the situation or diplomatically sidestepping it, so is pathological in this sense. Also, it is normally easier to refrain than to retreat from an argument. This is a useful approach when the issues at stake are not worth the argument and both sides back down. • Accommodating (lose-win) – this is when one side accepts the situation and backs down in the interests of harmony (or perhaps to fight another day!). The danger of this approach is that the conflict may be papered over and come back to bite you later!
v. Positive aspects of conflict	Not all conflict is bad, since it can bring challenge and objectivity, which can prompt individuals and teams to achieve their goals, provided it is handled well. It is when conflict becomes destructive and/or is not dealt with that it has the potential to hinder work and do damage to goal achievement and people. Some positive aspects of conflict include it: • Facilitates problem solving – it encourages managers and staff to discuss issues frankly and perceive them from contrasting points of view. It can encourage consensus and harmonious employee relations. Individuals become par t of a team when they work through conflict. • Promotes change – when conflicts are solved in fair and just ways they are likely to promote necessary change and bring positive benefit to the organisation. • Enhances morale and cohesion as conflicts are resolved. • High quality decisions since people have been forced to consider competing views.

	• Stimulates interest and creativity, which is stifled if everyone always agrees with everyone else. • Adds to the fun of working, since to be human is to be diverse in personalities, views and ideas which at times create conflict that, handled well, can be enriching and fun. Organisations should encourage people to challenge, ask questions, and express diverse views because it surfaces issues that are important and generates better decisions. **References:** Senge, P. M., Kleiner, A., Roberts, C., Ross, R. B., & Smith, B. J. (1994). *The fifth discipline fieldbook: Strategies and tools for building a learning organization.* Doubleday: NY. Thomas, K. W. & Kilmann, R. H. (1974). Thomas-Kilmann Conflict MODE Instrument (Mount, Xicom and CPP, Inc.)

Topic 4.9: Decision Processes

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
DECISION PROCESSES	By the end of this course unit, the participating manager should be able to: a) Identify decision makers in an organisation b) Distinguish between different types of decisions c) Follow the correct process in making decisions	i. Decision makers – Stakeholders – Board directors – Top management – Middle managers – Supervisors – Employees & teams ii. Types of decisions – Routine decisions – Emergency decisions – Strategic decisions – Operational decisions iii. Decision making process – Define decision issue – Gather and analyze information about the issue – Develop alternative solutions or strategies – Evaluate and select the best alternative – Implement the solution	– Lectures – Discussions – Exercises – Brainstorms – Case studies	– Trainers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids	1 day	Knowledge and concept test

Topic 4.9 Expanded: Decision Processes

i. Decision makers	Everyone is a decision maker at a certain level. In an organisation, decisions can be made by the Board of Directors, top management, middle managers, supervisors, teams, employees, shareholders and other stakeholders. For example, the Board of Directors and top management are directly involved and responsible for strategic decisions, aims and objectives (some of which have to be approved by Shareholders), and converting these into specific plans and programmes. The supervisors, employees and teams are also decision makers through consultative meetings, where they identify issues and raise them to top management for action. They are also decision makers in their own right with regards some of the day to day issues concerning the work under their own control.
ii. Types of decisions	The different types of decisions managers are faced with include: routine, emergency, strategic and operational. • Routine decisions – most decision taken in an organisation are routine. E.g. buying materials from a supplier, or deciding the date for a meeting. • Emergency decisions – these are decisions without precedent and call for a manager to decide at short notice. Emergency decision making can be very challenging to manage because it catches managers unawares so does not allow them to make proper consultation to find alternatives. • Strategic decisions – these involve making strategic choices about an organisation's direction, its aims and objectives, and converting these into specific plans and programmes. • Operational decisions – these are sometimes called problem solving decisions because they are concerned with things that crop up to do with the operational running of an activity. They can be concerned with "people problems", and if so, an operational decision requires sensitive handling.
iii. Decision making process	A decision is that on which a judgement or choice between two or more alternatives is made, and which can arise in an infinite number of situations from the resolution of a problem to the implementation of a course of action. A typical decision making process is described below: 1. Define decision issue – be clear on what it is that needs deciding. Try to isolate the issue. 2. Gather and analyse information about the issue – it is crucial to diagnose problems correctly before any decision can be made; identify and define the issue and its boundaries clearly. This also means identifying who else needs to be involved in the issue and analysing what involvement means.

	• Consulting others – as a decision maker you need to indentify the individuals involved. List everybody who would be significantly affected by a decision such as those in higher management, other departments, clients and suppliers. Assess who should be consulted to gain views, ensure support and goodwill. • Tackling whole issues – decisions that tackle only one specific point of a problem tend to fail. Any decision affects components in an entire business system. Consider whether the issue in question is company-wide or an isolated incident. For example, you can remove one employee but if the problem is caused by bad management or a bad recruitment policy, nothing has been truly resolved. Dig deep to find out why a decision is required. This establishes the correct boundaries and leads to superior results. • Identifying a timescale – when making a decision, be aware of the timescale involved. You should reach your decision without undue haste, but also without unnecessary delays. Ideally, the right time to take your decision is when all the information is in and all the issues have been addressed. However, sometimes decisions need to be taken urgently and you may not have all the information – you have to make a judgement of how much longer you spend gathering information versus the need to decide quickly. • Prioritising factors – when making a decision, prioritise significant factors since some are not as important as others. For example, only 20% of activities may account for 80% of results. Prioritising ensures that the most important factors are afforded more time and have more weight in the decision. • Thinking strategically – before making a strategic decision (i.e. one that has organisational or departmental impact and wide ramifications), make sure you have a full understanding of the current situation. E.g. get to know the general environment, comparative performances, external requirements, root causes of any performance gaps, and the price of inaction. 3. Develop alternative solutions or strategies – a good way to do this with a group is to create an environment in which individuals feel comfortable and unthreatened – this helps to draw out new ideas. The more closely a set of people work together, the easier it is to relax and build trust in each other. Brainstorming is a good technique for developing alternative solutions because it encourages people to generate ideas without judgement (this comes at the end). When brainstorming, consider the following: • Ask all attendees to come to the meeting prepared to share two or more ideas. • Give everyone a chance to air their views (this can also spark other ideas in attendees as people build on the views shared). • Avoid imposing too many constraints or making assumptions – the principle should be “any idea is

	a good idea" – there should be no assessment of ideas at this stage. • Don't allow interruptions or discussion to take the group off the subject. • Don't allow criticism of any of the ideas. • It can be helpful to provide the group with a few ideas of your own to help direct them. • When the generation of views/ideas runs dry, put all the ideas into clusters so that you end up with groups of related ideas. • At this point you apply some criteria of assessment (e.g. the most cost-effective, etc.) to create a shortlist of the best ideas for solving the particular issue. 4. Evaluate and select the best alternative – after you have generated a range of alternatives, you need to asses them. Apply objective criteria and use rational methods to narrow down the range of choices, and keep an open mind when deciding which ideas to carry forwards. Once you have narrowed down the range of ideas, you may need to research them in more detail in order to assess their viability and understand their implications. Then you make the decision. 5. Implement the solution – decisions are valueless until they are translated into positive action, which in turn involves the decision maker making a series of operational decisions and choices. An action plan will begin to evolve naturally as options are narrowed and their feasibility is studied during the decision making process. Once you have made your final decision, concentrate on developing plans for its implementation. Involve in the plan those who will implement it and who have the relevant abilities. With their help, analyse the overall risk, determine what actions should be taken and when. Action plans – in an action plan, every activity should have a starting and completion date. The plan should also specify break points when actions can be reviewed and revised. This gives the opportunity to address any resistance that might be building up. Tasks need to be broken into manageable chunks and responsibility for planning each delegated to individuals within the team. They should be held personally accountable for their delegated activity. Once a plan is underway it is likely there will be unforeseen eventualities such as poor performance from the key people. Monitor progress to identify problems and devise effective remedies. Be ready to modify aspects of the decision as the implementation plan progresses, always with cost in mind. In some cases monitoring of progress may spotlight aspects of a decision that are working badly or have been overtaken by events. Finally, few decisions are completely implemented. In most cases, one decision leads to others forming a continual process of feedback and analysis. To build successfully on a decision, learn your lessons from previously successfully implemented action plans.

Topic 4.10: Influencing Skills

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
INFLUENCING SKILLS	By the end of this course unit, the participating manager should be able to: a) Discuss the need to influence others b) Identify the categories of workers who need to be influenced c) Adopt the skills necessary to influence others	i. Need to influence others at work – To get commitment to work – To get work done – To make decisions in certain ways ii. Categories of workers to be influenced – Juniors – Colleagues and team mates – Superiors iii. Skills for influencing others – Communication – Sincerity and integrity – Work competency/ expertise – Presentation skills iv. Influencing styles – Push and pull	– Lectures – Discussions – Exercises – Brainstorms – Quizzes – Case studies – Simulations	– Trainers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids	1 day (2)*	Knowledge and concept test Observed role plays

(2)* This course can be extended to 2 days to give more time for skills practice.

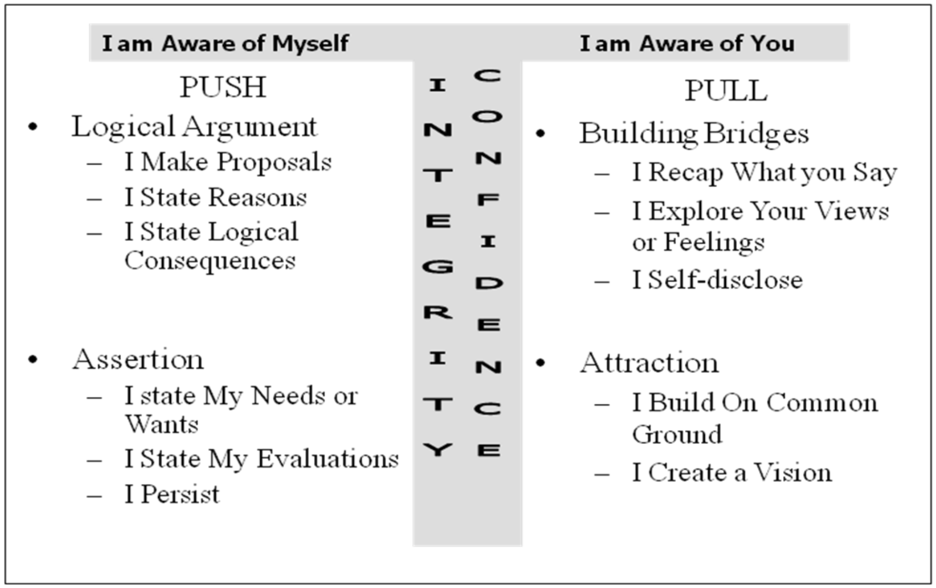
Topic 4.10 Expanded: Influencing Skills

i. Need to influence others at work	For the efficient provision of goods and services, it is important that employees perform their duties at the most optimal levels, both individually and collectively. This requires that a working climate be created whereby the employees perform their duties willingly, joyously, continuously, and productively. It is the duty of managers to be able to exert the positive influence necessary for employee s to do this. In the first instance it is necessary to get the employees' commitment to do the work. The employees must see and understand the reasons for doing a particular type of work. They must be convinced that doing that work adds value to the whole process of service provision by the organisation. They should be convinced that doing the work is not an exercise in futility but is worthwhile and rewarding. Having secured (influenced) the employees' commitment to the doing the work, it is necessary to actually get the employees to do the work. It is one thing influencing them to get their commitment, but it is another thing getting them to do the work. This requires a lot of skilful influencing on the part of the manager, including psychological conditioning. It is not only in the aspect of work performance that a manager has to exert influence. Sometimes it is necessary that the organisation takes a certain course of action. Where there are certain choices to be made, it may necessary that a decision be made in a particular way, favouring a certain alternative. This alternative may not be the most popular choice for most of the employees. Yet it is the desirable alternative for the organisation. Employees have therefore to be influenced in such a way that they side with the desired alternative. This is especially the case with the implementation of change in organisations.
ii. Categories of workers to be influenced	a. Juniors - all categories of workers in an organisation need to be influenced at one time or another. But perhaps the most obvious one is the manager's juniors. These are the people over whom the manager has the authority to direct them to behave in a certain manner. But the exercise of authority may not produce the best results as the quality of the work done may be wanting. It is therefore necessary that on top of the positional-authority a manager has, he/she is able to influence the juniors, to not only be committed but to actually do the work to the best of their ability and of their own free will. b. Colleagues and team mates - at other times it is necessary to influence colleagues to behave in a certain way. This is because we may be privy to certain information, or have access to certain resources, or have certain expertise that others do not have. We need the skills to influence such colleagues into either making the desired decision or into performing given tasks without them feeling that we are lording it over them (i.e. resenting us). This is also the case with team mates. c. Superiors – sometimes we may be in the unenviable position where we have to influence our superiors into making decisions in a certain direction, or into taking a certain course of action. This may arise where we have access to certain types of information or expertise of which the superior does not, and we realise that

	a particular course of action is the best. We need to therefore skilfully influence the superior to behave in the desired manner/take the desired action without injuring the superior's ego.
iii. Skills for influencing others	There are certain skills necessary for one to be able to influence others, which include: a. Communication – this is one of the most important skills and is basic to any initiative aimed at influencing others. We must know how to communicate effectively, which also includes listening skills. This is because to influence we must actually be able to "sell" the idea to the intended audience (i.e. to clearly describe the idea and its benefits). b. Sincerity and integrity – to be able to influence others we must lead by example. We should therefore be sincere and be seen to be so in whatever we are trying to "sell". This means not manipulating people in an underhand way, or in our "selling" not only giving the positive side – we should also be honest about any negatives. We should also be beyond reproach in the performance of our duties and the conduct of our affairs. We should not be seen to "preach water and drink wine". We should be role models worthy of emulation and therefore of being listened to. c. Work competency/expertise – to be able to influence others into actually working, we must command respect in our mastery of the work. This is because the best way to influence others to work is by leading them in doing the work. Our expertise is also important when it comes to convincing colleagues or our boss to take a particular course of action – they are more likely to listen if they know we have competence in or are an expert in the subject. d. Presentation skills – in addition to the communication skills already mentioned, the way that information is presented is of vital importance. It must be presented in such a way that it not only communicates but it captures and sustains interest and initiates the desired responses. This requires that we master the required presentation skills (see Section 4.2).
iv. Influencing styles	Influencing styles – there are different ways in which the above skills can be applied depending on the situation and the category of person we are influencing. For example: 1. Push – this is where we are putting our view forward. This can be done by Logical Argument in a reasoned way based on clear reasons, proposals, benefits, consequences and data. This works well with people who are convinced by reasoned argument, and can be useful influencing a boss or colleague who respects the expertise we have. In some situations, it may be necessary to influence in a more Assertive way, particularly when there is a lot at stake, or an important principle is involved. Then, we state what we need or want, and persist! 2. Pull – this is where we consider carefully where the other person is coming from and we try to Build

Bridges with them by exploring their views or concerns. By doing this, we can “pull” them towards our solution because they see what we are proposing addresses their issues.

Another way of doing this is by Attracting them to our position by building on common ground, and “selling” our vision of the future.



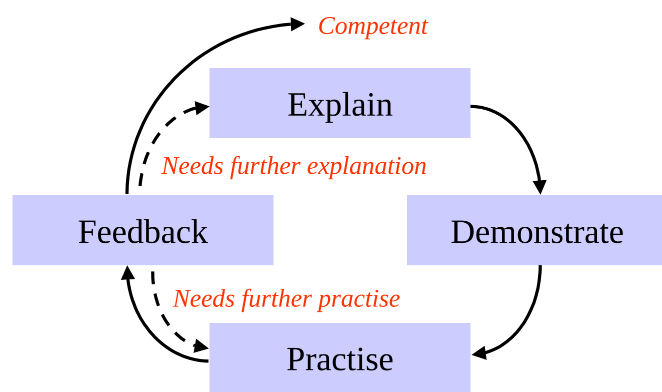
In reality, in any one influencing conversation we may use all of these styles, or we may major on one.

Topic 4.11: Coaching and Counselling

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
COACHING AND COUNSELLING	By the end of this course unit, the participating manager should be able to: a) Explain the meaning and importance of coaching employees b) Describe coaching styles and models c) Apply coaching skills d) Explain the meaning of counselling e) Describe the employee situations requiring counselling f) Describe the counselling process g) Discuss the 'dos' and 'don'ts' in a counselling session	i. Importance of coaching employees ii. Coaching styles and models – Directive and non-directive coaching – Coaching to transfer skills – Coaching for performance iii. Coaching skills iv. Meaning of counselling – Assistance to counselling to find solution to own problem v. Situations requiring counselling – Personal/ family problem – Work related problems e.g. – Stress – Harassment – Discrimination vi. Counselling process – 4-stage process vii. Dos and don'ts in a counselling session	– Lectures – Discussions – Exercises – Brainstorms – Quizzes – Role plays – Case studies	– Trainers – Guest speakers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids	2 days	Knowledge and concept test Observed role plays

Topic 4.11 Expanded: Coaching and Counselling

i. Importance of coaching employees	Coaching is a personalised approach to helping employees develop skills and knowledge to do their jobs. It is usually one to one or one to a few, compared to training or educational programmes which are usually one to many. This personalised approach enables the coach to tailor the coaching to the needs of the coachee, i.e. to focus on what he/she is finding difficult, to start at the right level and proceed at the appropriate pace. Coaching has been described in a number of ways, usually including phrases such as "a conversation to improve performance", "unlocking potential", "evoking excellence in others", etc. A simple definition would be: "Helping someone to improve their skills, knowledge and performance through a personal approach involving observation, conversation and feedback, prompting them to work it out for themselves, and guiding them from experience" (Explorer Consulting, 2007). Organisations sometimes set up specific experts as coaches to transfer their expertise. More often than not, managers are expected to coach their subordinates. Sometimes this can be in particular functional or technical skills (e.g. a Finance Manager might coach his/her subordinates in financial procedures), sometimes in more general areas (e.g. on performance or future jobs/career).
ii. Coaching styles and models	a. Coaching styles - there are variety of coaching styles but they can be simplified to a spectrum between directive and non-directive coaching: 1. Directive Coaching – when the coach directs, instructs, shows how it is done – the coach is in control. This style is good when someone is learning a new skill, lacks confidence or has hit a barrier. The coach helps the coachee to learn by clear and well structured guidance and advice. 2. Non-directive Coaching – when the coach plays a more facilitative role, observing, giving feedback, asking questions – the coachee has more control. This style is useful when the coachee is progressing well and will benefit from feedback, or for diagnosing and addressing performance and career issues. The coach encourages the coachee to learn by self-discovery. A good coach will use both ends of this spectrum and everything in between, endeavouring to become more non-directive as the coachee progresses in skill, knowledge and confidence, but ready to switch back to being more directive if the coachee gets really stuck or needs specific guidance. Common coaching errors: • Information overload. • Failure to check understanding. • No space for questions (coaching involves dialogue). • Poor listening and watching.

	• No time for practice. • Key elements missed out • Inappropriate style (i.e. wrong place on the directive/non-directive spectrum). b. Models of coaching – there are various models of coaching. The two given here are useful because they cover coaching to transfer skills, and coaching for performance. 1. Coaching to transfer skills model – this model is good for helping someone to learn and develop a skill. It begins in a directive style if the person is a complete beginner, but can be used directly or non-directively as the person progresses.  The model involves a cycle of: • Explain – to explain concepts and skill steps in clear, knowledgeable, interactive and interesting ways, relevant to the coachee's level and needs. • Demonstrate - to show how it is done and/or utilise examples of skills or knowledge that help the coachee to understand and make progress. • Practice – so that the coachee tries and practices the skill. • Feedback – the coach gives feedback, guides and corrects. 2. The Coaching for Performance GROW model (Whitmore, 2002) – this model by Sir John Whitmore (former racing car driver, now business coach) is good for coaching for performance and other general

	topics (e.g. career guidance, executive coaching, life coaching). The model has four steps using the mnemonic GROW, and tends to be used non-directively (i.e. helping the coachee to find their own solutions through a series of questions) but can be used directively if the coach sees that the coachee needs more direct guidance. • **G**oal – what do you want to improve? Setting goals clarifies the purpose of the coaching, and also gives something against which to measure progress. • **R**eality – what is your current level of performance or skill? The coachee is asked to demonstrate his or her awareness of their current performance or skill level. • **O**ptions – what options are available for you? The coachee is asked to think about and suggest options to improve their performance or capability, i.e. how to close the gap between Reality and Goal. • **W**ill – what are you willing to commit to? The final step in the GROW process is to help the coachee make a choice or decision on actions, since without their commitment to action little progress or learning will take place.
iii. Coaching skills	There are a number of key skills involved in coaching. These include: • Building rapport and relationships – since coaching is a personalised approach, having rapport with the coachee and building a relationship really helps to create trust and confidence. • Observing and assessing – a coach needs to be able to observe well and make assessments on the coachee's level of performance, skill or knowledge. • Listening and questioning – key to finding out where the coachee needs help are good listening and careful questioning. Use of particular types of questions helps, especially: open questions (e.g. "Can you tell me about the situation?"), probing questions (e.g. "Can you tell me more about this particularly aspect?"), and closed questions ("Did you try to do it this way?" – requires a "yes" or "no" answer). • Transferring skills and knowledge – the ability to transfer information and demonstrate skills in clear, structured, imaginative and interesting ways. • Giving and receiving feedback – able to give feedback to the coachee based on observation in accurate and sensitive ways. Invite and able to receive feedback on how the coaching is going.

	• Suggesting options, challenging, and supporting– knowing when to intervene by suggesting options or by challenging, and when to offer support.
iv. Meaning of counselling	Counselling as a management activity is very different from coaching. It is also quite different from advising or educating. In these management activities, the manager plays a positive role in giving direction or contributing towards the identification of a problem and its solution. However, in counselling, the manager plays no particular role in finding the solution. In this case the manager is expected to assist the employee requiring counselling to actually identify his or her problem, and then come up with the solution on his or her own. The manager playing the role of counsellor is a facilitator.
v. Situations requiring counselling	There are various situations confronting an employee that may necessitate counselling. These include: a. Social/family/personal problems – such problems could for example involve community unrest or conflicts, the death of a loved one, sickness in the family, family split-up including divorce. Although these are not issues related to the workplace, they however affect the productivity of the worker. It is for this reason that the manager needs to be actively involved in order to help the employee find a solution to the problem. b. Work-related problems – there are many work-related problems that can create the need for a manager to counsel an employee. Such problems include: • Stress – this is the inability of a person to cope with the problems confronting him or her. At the workplace stress can be caused by many factors, including too heavy a workload, unattainable targets, horrible environment, etc. The manager needs to assist the worker identify the particular causes so that they may jointly draw strategies of overcoming them. • Harassment – this is a form of persecution of a person. The most common form of harassment at work is sexual harassment. Bullying is also a form of harassment. Harassment could be from the boss to a junior, or among colleagues. Such harassment can be from a male employee to a female employee or vice versa. When such a case of harassment is identified, there is a need for counselling so that the employee can get his or her balance back, and remedial action taken. • Discrimination – this may be on the basis of gender, cultural/ethnic background, religious beliefs, or even disability of some kind. The discrimination may take many forms from being simply ignored by other colleagues, to being denied some rights due to you as an employee. This can cause a lot of trauma for the employee, and creates the need for counselling.
vi. Counselling process	In terms of the process for counselling, it may be smart on the part of the manager to explain to the counselee the process that they will go through together. A four-step process is as follows:

	i. Introductory stage – the counsellor and counselee get acquainted and accept each other. This is the stage of creating rapport and preparing to tackle the problem. The counsellor at this stage needs to demonstrate an immediate desire to help, and should listen professionally to what is said and what cannot be said. ii. Discovering the problem – this stage involves discovering the problem and viewing it from perspectives in order to be more objective and understand the dimensions involved. The counsellor should look beneath and beyond what is said, to seek hidden causes or misunderstands that the counselee may be unable to see as the one with the problem. This is done through asking the right questions at the right time in the right manner. The counsellor needs to be patient, objective, and non-judgemental. iii. Deciding between alternatives – this stage involves looking at the alternatives in order to weigh up and decide on which road to take. The counsellor's job is to help the counselee to isolate the problem, consider alternative solutions, fashion a particular solution and accept it as his or her own. It requires sensitivity and understanding of the other person's feelings. The counsellor should emphasise the weighing up part of the process and let the counselee do the deciding. iv. Ending stage – the fourth stage involves ending the counselling session. The counsellor recognises that the session is reaching the desired end when he/she feels that the counselee can see the solution, has developed the necessary confidence to select the best available alternative and make a decision, and that the counselee's burden has to some extent been lifted, and self-esteem restored. It is necessary to discuss how the solution is to be implemented, and for the counsellor to leave the door open for a return visit.
vii. Do's and don'ts in a counselling session	Below are listed some do's and don'ts for a counsellor in a counselling session: • Do use accepted techniques, don't innovate. • Do let the person being counselled do most of the talking. • Do listen to all the person being counselled has to say. • Don't jump to conclusions. • Do make appropriate suggestions in a sensitive way. • Don't criticize. • Do stay cool and collected – don't let your emotions get away with you. • Do honour the rule of confidentiality. • Do acknowledge the other person's values and provide guidance based on those values. Don't impose your

	values on the person being counselled. • Do view counselling as an orderly process with certain rules. Don't make up your own rules as you go along. • Do provide the guidance needed to assist the person make his or her own decision. Don't make decisions for the person being counselled. **References:** Explorer Consulting (Curran, Peter). *Coaching Skills*. 2007. Whitmore, John Sir: *Coaching for Performance*. 3rd Edn. Nicholas Brealey, London. 2002.

Topic 4.12: Managing Small Projects

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
MANAGING SMALL PROJECTS	By the end of this course unit, the participating manager should be able to: a) Describe a project b) Apply the appropriate techniques in managing small projects c) Discuss the competencies necessary for one to manage small projects effectively d) Apply a model for managing small projects	i. Meaning of a project – Unique organisational activity – Definite start and end times – Own budgetary allocation ii. Techniques in project management e.g. – Project evaluation and research techniques (PERT) – Critical path analysis (CPA) – General guidelines iii. Necessary competencies for project management – Time management – Financial management (financial record keeping) – Supervising skills – Inventory management iv. A model for small project management	– Lectures – Discussions – Exercises – Quizzes – Brainstorms – Case studies – Expert guest speakers – Practical application of techniques to own projects	– Trainers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids	2 days	Knowledge and concept test

Topic 4.12 Expanded: Managing Small Projects

i. Meaning of a project	A project may be defined as a series of activities designed to achieve a specific outcome within a set budget and timescale. This is an undertaking that is outside the usual everyday work and business of the organisation, although its outcomes might be incorporated at some stage. A project has its own unique features which include: • A definite starting and ending time, and this is what distinguishes it from routine work which recurs with no clear end to the process. • An organised plan, giving it a methodical approach to meet project objectives. The plan guides the project and details the work that needs to be done. • Separate resources. Projects are allocated their own time, their own personnel (who may be drawn from various departments of an organisation), and their own money as determined by the budget allocated to the project. • Teamwork – a project requires a team that take responsibility for, and gain satisfaction from their own objectives while contributing to the success of the organisation. It offers new challenges and experiences for the staff. • Established goals – projects create value in terms of quality and/or performance in that they result in a new way of working or create something that did not exist previously. A project also has certain players who are key to its success including: • A Sponsor who initiates the project, adds to the team's authority, and is the most senior team member. • A Project Manager who is responsible for achieving the project's overall objectives and leading the project team. • Stakeholders who include any other party who is interested in or affected by the outcome of the project. • Key Team Members who assist the Project Manager and provide the breadth of knowledge needed. • Team Members who are full or part-time with tasks to perform in the project plan. • Customers who are internal or external people who benefit from the changes brought about by the project. • Suppliers who provide materials, products or services needed to carry out the project.
ii. Techniques in project management	A Project Manager should be able to manage a project from planning through implementation to termination applying certain techniques. These techniques are basically for ensuring that the project conforms to the

	specifications, especially in terms of time and budgetary allocations. This is because, as already mentioned, a project has a defined time period with specific starting and ending points. It also has a specific budget, which is based on the planned project activities. As such, the principal techniques used include Project Evaluation and Research Techniques (PERT) and the Critical Path Analysis (CPA) – for more detailed explanations of these methods, please refer to Section 2.7. As a general guideline, a project process usually contains the following elements: • Scoping – setting and agreeing scope and objectives. Sometimes a project board would be established by the Sponsor to guide the project and to act as a gateway for approval at various stages in the project's life. • Planning – organising and scheduling the project in detail, including timelines, resourcing, budgets and milestones. • Doing – implementing the work of the project, and monitoring and communicating progress against milestones. • Completing – termination which includes reporting the results and evaluating the project and how it was undertaken.
iii. Necessary competencies for project management	To be able to run a project successfully, a manager needs to master certain competencies. These include: • Time management – this crucial for the manager of a project because of its specific deadlines. In this respect, the manager needs to be able to prioritise activities and therefore act accordingly. He/she should be able to distinguish between what is urgent and important, urgent but unimportant, important but not urgent, and unimportant and not urgent. On this basis, he or she would take the appropriate action in dealing with the task. The manager also needs to clearly identify time wasters and other activities that do not progress the project, and avoid them. • Financial management – the manager needs to have the basics of financial management to be able to control and manage costs against the budget. He or she should be able to allocate funds appropriately to activities and monitor their use. This calls for proper financial record keeping, using the appropriate books of account such as the Petty Cash book, the Cash book, Invoices, Receipts and Journals. The manager needs the basic knowledge about such financial record-keeping without necessarily becoming an accountant. • People management skills – this basically refers to supervisory skills. Remember a project is team-based with workers who are very inter-dependent. The supervisory requirements in project management may therefore differ to some extent from those of managing the usual organisational activities. Project

	management calls for proper team management. The manager should be able to build, develop, and motivate the team towards meeting project objectives. This calls for a proper balance between a hands-on approach and a hands-off approach. Being hands-on requires explaining clearly what is expected from a new or less confident worker, who will need close supervision and encouragement. On the other hand, a hands-off approach is used to motivate experienced, capable team members by allowing them to use their own initiative, while providing support and guidance without interfering too heavily. The manager should show the team respect, which will then be reciprocated. • Inventory management – a project usually has stocks of materials to be used, which might require replenishing at regular intervals. Even for small projects, there may be stationary and other items of day to day use. The manager should therefore be able to apply proper inventory control. This involves monitoring stock levels, and knowing what materials need to be ordered, in what quantities, and at what intervals. The manager should appreciate that holding stocks incurs costs, which should be minimised. It can also amount to tying up too much money unproductively which could otherwise been used more productively elsewhere. One of the commonly used techniques of inventory control is the Economic Order Quantity (EOQ) method.
iv.	**A four-stage model for small project management** (Explorer Consulting, 2007) This model is similar to that of Cook (2005), although the stages are labelled differently and have slightly different content. The stages are: 1. *Scoping* – what are we aiming to achieve? What is the challenge or problem? This involves setting and agreeing the scope of the project, its aim and objectives. 2. *Planning* – how should we go about achieving the aim? This involves making a plan, including listing and scheduling of the tasks that need to be undertaken. 3. *Doing* – is the work getting done, are we on track? This is about implementing the work of the project, and controlling it through monitoring and communicating. 4. *Completing* – have we achieved the aim? What did we learn? This involves finishing the project by reporting and evaluating. **1. Scoping –** the scoping stage of any work project cannot be by-passed since it defines what the project should accomplish (its aim), the scope (what is included, what is not), and its specific objectives (i.e. what needs to be achieved to accomplish the aim). It is also at this stage that the work is initiated and responsibilities allocated. It may be that this is a work project that you alone are responsible for and will undertake, or it may be that it involves a number of people. If the latter, a project manager is appointed and allocated or given the authority to select who will work on the project team.

The overall ***aim*** of the project needs to be defined. E.g. 'To organise and host an evening reception for the visit of senior management'. This should be encapsulated in the project name, e.g. 'Senior manager's evening event'.

What is included in the project needs to be clearly described, including boundaries, budgets, and time constraints. E.g. 'The senior management event will be on 10th November in the city and all staff are to be invited. There will be time for three presentations (including an address from the visiting manager). The event should include a buffet meal and live entertainment. The budget is $10,000'.

The specific ***objectives*** that need to be achieved to accomplish the overall aim of the project. E.g.:

- To book a suitable venue, caterers and live entertainment for the event.
- To invite staff.
- To organise the presenters.
- To liaise with the visiting senior manager's team and ensure logistics are in place for travel and accommodation.

The scope also needs to include who the project is for (its customer), who is its sponsor, the suppliers, and other stakeholders. In projects of some size this is detailed in a ***project description*** (termed a *project charter* by Cook, 2005), but the items covered in such a description are a useful checklist for any project. Once completed it can be agreed with (or where necessary, signed off) by the sponsor of the project, and used to communicate with project team members and internal stakeholders. A project description would contain items such as shown on the table below.

PROJECT DESCRIPTION	
Project Title	*Project Sponsor*
Project Manager	*Customer*
Other Project Stakeholders	*Stakeholder(s) Responsibilities*
Overall aim of the Project	*Project Objectives (SMART)*
Deliverables	*Assumptions*
Project Completion Date	*Budget*
Link to Strategic Objectives and/or other Projects	
If formal authorisation is required: We agree this is a viable project. We authorise the beginning of the planning process	
Project Sponsor	*Project Manager*

In any project there are some ***key roles*** that need to be established:

- *Project sponsor* – this is usually the person who has requested that you undertake the work, and who provides the funding and other resources.
- *Project manager* – appointed to carry out the project, they need to have sufficient authority and the leadership and project management skills to move the project forwards.
- *Stakeholders* – these include everyone affected by the project.
- *Customers* – these are also stakeholders, but of special type since the project is being undertaken to deliver something to them – you have to know and understand their needs.
- *Team members* – they will undertake the tasks that make up the project.
- *Suppliers* – they provide materials, services or products needed to carry out the project, and need to deliver these on time and at the agreed cost.

2. Planning – once the scope is clear and the project has the necessary go-aheads, then it is time to create a project plan. For a small project, such a plan may only be a couple of pages but it should include:

- *Summary* – a short executive type summary of project aim and objectives.
- *Tasks list – what* is to be done – the list of tasks and activities.
- *Resourcing – who* is going to undertake the work.
- *Schedule – when* the work will be done – the timing of the tasks and the project completion date.
- *Budget – how much* the project will cost – the project budget.
- *Risk assessment* – how risks will be managed – an assessment of the risks involved and the actions that should be included in the plan to manage such risks.
- *Communication* – how the work will be communicated, how the team will meet.
- *Change control* – how changes during the project will be handled and controlled.

In essence, the project plan lays out how you are going to undertake the work, and prompts you to think through challenges you might face and how to overcome them. On large projects, risk assessment, communication and change control may constitute various sub-plans, but on small projects these will usually comprise a paragraph or section in the overall project plan.

Project scheduling is the planning of *when* tasks will be undertaken and *by when* they will be completed. It is important from a resourcing perspective – are the appropriate resources available when you need them? And it is important from a dependency perspective since some tasks have to be completed before other tasks can begin. Scheduling leads to a clear view of when each task will be completed, and by a combination of these, to a realistic overall completion date of the project. Scheduling can be done simply on a calendar, or for larger or more complex projects, using project management scheduling tools (e.g. Gantt charts, network diagrams, etc.)

Projects need to be budgeted for, and once the budget has been set, to stay within budget. Risks have to be assessed and managed. With any project it is important to ask ‘What could go wrong?’ and then to work out what you would do about it.

3. Doing – this is the implementation stage of the project – when the tasks are underway. At this stage it is important that tasks get done to specification, on time and within budget, and that the overall project is controlled. Changes to the project plan and any variances against the plan need to be managed as they happen.

If you are undertaking the work, using the project plan as your guide, you need to be well organised and manage your time to complete the tasks in the specified sequence.

As work is completed by yourself or others, your role as project manager is to continuously monitor all work and check progress against the plan. Monitoring can be done via conversations, meetings and status reports. Proposed changes to the project need to be carefully managed according to the agreed process, otherwise the project will be in danger of spinning out of control.

As described in the plan, a continuing dialogue needs to be occurring between you and members of the team, and also regular communication with the sponsor, customer and other stakeholders informing them of progress, achievements, and of any approved changes to the project plan. By doing this you will be managing expectations and ensuring that there are no unwelcome surprises.

The monitoring you undertake may indicate that tasks are not going to plan – you may be falling behind or exceeding expectations. In addition, managing risks and unexpected challenges, and incorporating approved changes may also mean variances to the original plan are encountered.

4. Completing – this involves ‘handing off’, reporting, evaluating, and celebrating. As Cook states (2005: 90), ‘Project close is a powerful mechanism for improvement’. Completing the project involves handing over the product or service, often in the form of, or with a report. It also involves evaluating the project to learn what went well/what didn’t go so well, and hopefully celebrating success.

The hand off of the product or service to the customer is an important step, and you will need to ensure that the tasks in the project plan (or revised plan) have been accomplished, and all the objectives of the project have been met to the customer’s satisfaction. This may be done through conversation or e-mail, or more formally, in the case of large products, by a signing-off of the project by the customer.

In the handing off, thought needs to be given to the transition of the product or service to the customer, and its ongoing operation. Will the customer require training or support during the transition? Who will look after it in the organisation once you and/or the project team have moved on to other things?

	The end of a project or piece of work of a ‘project nature’ normally requires a report. In some instances, the report itself is the product of the project. A report should include items such as: For lessons to be learned there needs to be an evaluation of the project. For small pieces of work/small projects, this can be done informally by asking team members and customers questions such as: • What went well? • What could we have done differently? • Are you fully satisfied with the product/service delivered? • Were all the project objectives met? For larger projects, it might be necessary to compose a formal lessons-learned questionnaire, or conduct a post-project review. It is good for morale to celebrate the completion of a project or significant piece of work. This is particularly important if a team has been involved and worked hard to deliver the project. This helps bring closure for those involved, and is also a way of recognising and rewarding good work. **References:** Ali, M., Brookson, S., Bruce, A., Eaton, J., Heller, R., Johnson, R., Langdon, K., and Sleight, S. (2001). *Managing for excellence.* Dorling Kindersley Limited: London. Cook, C. R. (2005). *Just enough project management: The indispensible four-step process for managing any project better, faster, cheaper.* McGraw-Hill: New York. Explorer Consulting (2007). *Project Management.*

Topic 4.13: Time and Personal Management

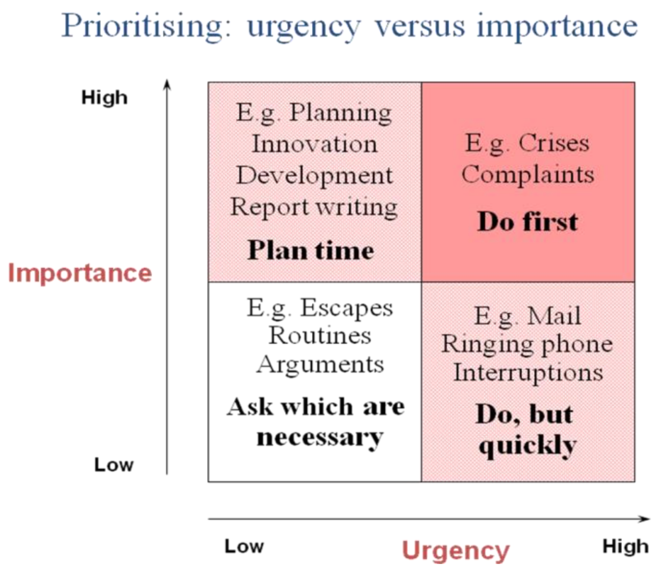
TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
TIME AND PERSONAL MANAGEMENT	By the end of this course unit, the participating manager should be able to: a) Discuss the need for proper time management. b) Identify time wasters in a working environment c) Apply the technique for effective time management d) Describe the indicators of good time management	i. Need for proper time management – To accomplish set tasks in allocated time. – To have balance between work and social life ii. Time wasters at work – Unscheduled and unnecessary meetings – Meetings that are too long – Unnecessary telephone conversations – Unnecessary paper work (paper bandits) iii. Techniques for effective time management – Prioritisation & other techniques – Keep a diary – Allocation of specific visitors' times	– Lectures – Discussions – Exercises – Quizzes – Brainstorms – Practical application of techniques to own work	– Trainers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids	1 day	Knowledge and concept test

		iv. Indicators of good personal management – No pending files/ correspondence – Timely reports – Objectives achieved – Organised and looking ahead – Tidy desk/office				

Topic 4.13 Expanded: Time and Personal Management

i. Need for proper time management	Time management is necessary to: a. Accomplish set tasks in the allotted time – doing the right thing at the right time is paramount. Some tasks have particular time limits e.g. projects, so it is especially important to meet deadlines. In individual tasks, completing tasks in the allotted time equates to good utilisation of resources. To achieve objectives involves management of time, since there is always more to do than the time available. But if time is managed, what is important gets done, and key objectives can be achieved. b. To have balance between work and social life – since people are social beings, it is important to have time for family and friends. Good time management assists staff in getting the appropriate balance between work and social life, ensuring that work does not soak up all the available time.
ii. Time wasters at work	Time wasters in the work environment include: a. Unscheduled and unnecessary meetings – unscheduled meetings that catch people unawares and unprepared tend to be unproductive, and take time away from individuals that may have been set aside for other tasks. In meetings that are unnecessary people don't listen and get bored, and it is not a good use of their time. b. Meetings that are too long – when meetings are too long or overrun their allotted time, people tend to "lose the plot", switch off, or think about the urgent and/or important tasks they should be doing elsewhere in the office. c. Unnecessary telephone conversations – a lot of time can be wasted on unnecessary telephone calls, or on calls that are prolonged unnecessarily, or that are not handled efficiently. In receiving calls, some speak too softly or too quickly, or even shout. Some eat, drink or smoke while they are receiving a call. Some do not prepare themselves before making a call so they may have to search for information during the conversation. Others don't listen so keep saying "Could you repeat that?" or "Come again". All of these waste time. d. Unnecessary paper work (paper bandits) – files that are not sorted and stored properly waste time because information cannot be found when it is needed, nor new papers filed efficiently. If papers that arrive on a managers desk are not dealt with in an orderly way then they get lost, or get handled several times thus wasting time.
iii. Techniques for effective time management	Some techniques of effective time management include: 1. Make a list – this captures and clarifies what you have to do, prevents you overlooking or forgetting

	important tasks, and gives you a sense of satisfaction as you tick things off. Update it regularly and find a way of carrying over unfinished tasks (a "bring forward system") so that you don't drop anything. Include longer-term activities to prevent them getting pushed back. A list tidies up all those things on your mind. It is also advisable to tidy up your workspace; "a place for everything and everything in its place". 2. Prioritise tasks – there are two factors that should drive our choices about how we use time: urgency and importance. It is key to identify what is important rather than to simply respond to what is urgent. Urgency can affect us in many ways, and people who are urgency-driven feel stressed, pressurized, tense, fatigued and exhausted. Urgency can also make us feel useful, important and successful. Many phone calls, meetings and drop-in visitors fall into this category, but we have to ask ourselves are they important? Many contribute nothing to achieving goals or objectives. Rather, we need to focus on tasks that are important, which are also sometimes urgent. Some guidelines in how to prioritise tasks: • First, do tasks that are both important and urgent. • Do important tasks (sometimes, if they are lengthy, you may have to plan when to do them). • Do urgent tasks which are of low importance. • Finally do routine tasks (i.e. tasks that are neither of high importance of high urgency), always asking yourself; "Should I be doing this/is it necessary?" For example, gossiping, politicking and backbiting are unimportant/non-urgent tasks that can waste a lot of time and should be dropped. With priorities established, the less important work and the smaller tasks and interruptions get fitted into the available gaps rather than the other way round. Clarify your critical 20% of tasks: Pareto's Law: 20% of the work produces 80% of the results.



3. Break tasks into manageable pieces – this makes them doable and helps you to overcome the psychological barrier of starting what might seem to be an insurmountable job. Set yourself deadlines for each piece. Also, use small slices of time in between other things. Sometimes using a small slice of time can get you started on that task you dislike or have been putting off.

4. Plan quality time for important tasks – some tasks need concentrated attention, an uninterrupted period of time when you are at your best. This sort of time needs to be carved out of your schedule and then kept sacrosanct. Divert or avoid interruptions, perhaps find a quiet place to work away from your desk. Do routine work when you are tired and your energy is low.

5. Beware procrastination (putting things off) – this is usually a way of putting off a difficult or undesirable task and can eventually create a lot more pressure as the deadline looms. Some procrastination can drive you to get a lot of smaller tasks done while you muster up the will to tackle the difficult one. And for some people, the looming deadline is needed to focus the mind. But beware, procrastination often wastes time, and inhibits you achieving what you know you should be doing.

6. Do things once – aim to deal with each piece of paper, e-mail or request once, or else mark it to be dealt with when you have the time and/or information. Try not to defer decisions; in most cases you won't have more information later. Avoid hoarding things to read later, most people never do.

	7. Focus on one thing at a time – give each task your full attention rather than flitting like a butterfly between things without really progressing anything. The exception is when you are doing a routine or trivial task that allows you to do something else at the same time, (e.g. filling envelopes while on the phone) so that there is no loss of quality or efficiency. 8. Build in some contingency time – there will always be unexpected demands from others, unpreventable interruptions, and emergencies that mean you have to put your best-laid plans aside. And be honest with yourself, most things take longer than you expect. So build in some contingency time (but not too much otherwise it will get wasted or used by someone else), e.g. by allowing time between appointments, or a little more time than you think you need to meet a deadline. 9. Lead by example – you can establish the standards you expect and thereby influence others to good behaviour by setting a good example, e.g. always be on time for meetings, keep to deadlines, say “no” to unreasonable demands, protect the time you have set aside to do important tasks, etc. As a manager, you have the added responsibility of protecting the well being of those who work for you, so even if you tell them not to overwork but do it yourself, by your example you will be putting pressure on them to overwork. 10. Take a break – “All work and no play makes Jack a dull boy” most people find to be true, and it usually means performance and productivity at work tails off too. We function best if we have regular breaks during work, and take time to rest and relax outside of work. Draw some boundaries around your work, or if this is difficult, plan activities that help you to take time out. 11. Keep a diary – a diary is an important time management tool. It gives you somewhere to record some of the items mentioned above, particularly what tasks you will do and when, dates of meetings and events, important deadlines, etc. 12. Allocation of specific visitors’ times – a lot of time can be lost through unexpected visitors and other interruptions. As far as possible, allocate specific times for visitors.
iv. Indicators of good personal management	Indicators of good personal management include: • No pending files/pending correspondence – this indicates that the person is up to date and on top of their work. • Timely reports – work is completed on time. • Objectives achieved – the person has delivered the work expected of them and achieved their objectives.

	• Organised and looking ahead – the person has his/her current work well organised, and has a plan to deal with work that will need doing in the future. • Tidy desk/office – the person's desk and office is tidy and organised. • Self-awareness – the person understands their strengths and weaknesses, what they are good at and where they will need assistance.

Appendix E

Curriculum Area 5: Leading Organisations

Topic 5.1: Leading Organisations Overview

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
LEADING ORGANISATIONS OVERVIEW	By the end of this course unit, the participating manager should be able to: a) Explain the meaning of strategic management b) Discuss key elements of organisation development c) Explain key practices of strategic HRM d) Explain the importance of governance in the public sector	i. Strategic management – Vision, mission and values in organisations – Setting strategic direction – Strategic planning ii. Organisation development – Leading organisational change – Organisational culture – Designing organisations for purpose iii. Strategic human resource management – Developing teams – Engaging and aligning staff – HR planning and resourcing	– Lectures – Discussions – Exercises – Brainstorms	– Trainers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids	1 day	Knowledge and concept test

		– Overview of HR practices iv. Governance overview				

These topics are covered in sections 5.2-5.12 below.

Topic 5.2: Vision, Mission and Values in Organisations

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
VISION MISSION AND VALUES IN ORGANISATIONS	By the end of this course unit, the participating manager should be able to: a) Explain the meaning and purpose of vision, mission and core values b) Describe the information that should be contained in each c) Develop the vision, mission and core values of Government units, departments or ministries	i. Meaning and importance of: *Vision* – Long term intentions to be pursued, an image of how the organisation sees itself *Mission* – Clarifies the vision statement and makes it more tangible *Core values* – Commonly held beliefs, mindsets and assumptions ii. Information that should be contained in: *Vision* – Aspiration for the future – Mental image of the future state	– Lectures – Discussions – Exercises – Brainstorms – Case studies – Application to own vision, mission and core values	– Trainers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids – Example of statements	1 day	Knowledge and concept test

		– Slogans, a dream shared across the organisation *Mission* – Reasons why the organisation exists. – The identity of the organisation. – State of the future *Core values* – The organisations preference for mode of conduct. – Observable norms of behaviour iii. Developing the statements				

Topic 5.2 Expanded: Vision, Mission and Values in Organisations

i. Meaning and importance of vision, mission and core values	Having a clear vision, mission and a set of core values helps to define an organisation's future aspiration, its identity, and the things that it holds as most important, which drive its decision making and behaviours. a. Vision – a vision sets out where the organisation is going and what it wants to achieve. It is the organisation's long term aspiration. It gives clarity on the desired future state, and an image of how the organisation wants to see itself. It is the pursuit of a vision that provides the force for bigger and better effort of every individual in the organisation. In commercial organisations, the vision might be to emerge as the best in brand, have highest profitability, productivity, innovation, etc. A vision sets direction for the organisation, and is a statement to the outside world of what the organisation is striving for. It is something that everyone can contribute to, irrespective of placement in terms of level, function or geography in the organisation. In fact, it is expected that everyone will act in a manner that which reinforce his or her personal views towards meeting the objectives of the vision of the organisation. Hence, an employee should become an active collaborator in pursuit of the vision, be comfortable with it and develop a clarity about it at the operating level, bearing in mind the traditions and values of the organisation. b. Mission – the mission clarifies the purpose behind the vision. In a commercial organisation, it is a statement of the organisation's current and future expected position with regard to products, market leadership, geographical scope, etc., and also includes a methodology of attaining the desired competitive leadership. A mission helps to evolve executive action. It includes a fundamental unique purpose which sets the organisation in question apart from similar organisations, so it gives it a separate identity. The organisation is defined as covering the scope of operations which follow the path of execution as envisaged in the mission. So whereas the vision defines where the organisation is going, the mission statement addresses how it is going to get there. It is an umbrella under which everything in the organisation is done, and the starting point for strategy formulation. It clearly specifies the nature of the organisation, e.g. the goods and services it provides, its position in the service delivery channel, its prime goal, its target market, etc. c. Core values – these are the commonly held beliefs, mindsets, and assumptions of the organisation, the things that it holds as most important. These values drive the way decisions are made and the ways people behave, so they are an important guide to management action and employee behaviour. They influence the code of conduct and ethics of the organisation, and are fundamental to the organisation's culture. Typical core values are integrity, customer service, quality, and performance. The combination of core values that an organisation espouses characterises that organisation and how it operates. As stated in Topics 1.4 (Role of a Public Servant), 2.1 and 2.2. (Good Governance and Ethics), core values of Government Public Service include values such as: accountability, transparency, honesty, integrity, democratic principles, respect for human rights, etc.

	A set of core values have been defined for the Public Service of Southern Sudan and are contained in the documents A Policy Framework for Southern Sudan (2007: Section 1.2), and the Manual of Public Service Procedures (2007). These GOSS core values are in accordance with Article 142(1) of the Interim Constitutions of Southern Sudan). The core values are: i. Impartiality. ii. Professionalism. iii. Transparency and Accountability. iv. Responsiveness to the client. v. Inclusiveness (non-discrimination). vi. Equity and affirmative action (including gender, minority ethnic groups and disabled persons). vii. Integrity. viii. Efficiency. The Procedures Manual (2007) goes on to state that *"All aspects of the GOSS personnel procedures, systems, regulation, and individual employee behaviour, including recruitment, discipline, advancement, and compensation modalities must be tested and evaluated against these core values."* The Policy Framework (2007) states that *"The effective embodiment of these core values into the new public service will lead to administrative efficiency and effectiveness. Equally important, it will also produce the right balance between the need for administrative continuity and independence from undue political pressures, on the one hand, and the requirement of loyal responsiveness to the government leadership of the day and faithful implementation of its policy decisions."* The core values above emphasise responsiveness to the citizens and the accountability of public servants. This accountability includes external accountability to public institutions (e.g. the Legislative Assembly), and to the general public, as well as internal accountability to superiors. A code of conduct is to be formulated for all employees of the Southern Sudan Public Service, based on and giving explanation of these core values. . Statements of vision, mission and core values are a contemporary practice in organisations, and have been shown to enhance the chances of an organisation actually achieving its stated aims.
ii. Information that should be contained in vision, mission and core values	Vision and mission statements, and core values should contain certain pieces of information, as described below. a. Vision – a vision statement should contain the organisation's aspiration for the future. This might be couched in terms of a picture or mental image of the desired state of the organisation. It might include a

	slogan and/or a logo that encapsulates the essence of the vision. For the Ministry of Public Service, the phrase “Service without fear or favour” is a good example of a slogan that expresses the essence of its vision – that this Ministry aspires to serve the people of Southern Sudan in ways that eliminate fear, and that do not favour people in discriminatory ways. The vision needs to be ambitious but also realistic. It must give point and reason to employees’ daily effort and help direct these efforts at the operational and decision making levels. It is most powerful if the vision is shared by everyone in the organisation, so it needs to be communicated with opportunities for employees to provide feedback. In Southern Sudan, the Public Service Reforms Implementation Framework Manual (2008) refers to the development of a ***national vision***. A task force has been set up by the President of Southern Sudan to undertake (during 2008 and 2009) consultation with citizens (including Members of Parliament), analyse and summarise the results and produce a report containing the key themes of the proposed vision for the President and Cabinet to discuss. Once confirmed, the plan is for the vision to be widely communicated and mainstreamed in all government reform programmes and the planning process, and then the progress of the ensuing reforms monitored. Each ministry will review and align its ministerial vision to the national vision, and delivery against the vision is to be monitored. This is a good example of a plan to develop a vision through a consultative process, then to communicate and sell the vision to the nation, and use it to guide reforms and planning. b. Mission – this contains two major elements. The first defines the basic nature of the organisation – the reason why it exists – and so should specify the types of services it provides, its position in the service delivery channel, its prime goal and target market. The second defines the unique identity of the organisation so as to set it apart from other organisations. For the Public Service of Southern Sudan, the statement that is at the centre of the curriculum diagram; “Honest and effective Public Service”, is a good example of part of a mission statement since it defines why the organisation exists (to provide services to the public) and something of its unique identity (honest and effective). c. Core values – a set of core values should contain those values that are most important to the way the organisation operates. They should express its mode of conduct, i.e. how the organisation expects managers and employees to conduct themselves as they undertake their jobs. It should establish norms of behaviour so that everyone knows what is acceptable and what is not.
iii. Developing the statements	Statements of vision, mission and core values are usually developed by the top management of an organisation because of their strategic importance. However, in developing such statements, it is good practice for top management to consult, engage and involve managers and staff at other levels so as these statements

	are developed there is growing commitment to them. Typically, the statements would be created in meetings or workshops of top management as they consider the future of the organisation, its identity and how they want it to operate. Once the statements have been developed, they should be widely disseminated and communicated within the organisation so that all staff are aware of them, and so that as departments and teams make plans and set objectives, they are done with these overarching statements in mind. The vision and mission statements provide the foundation for strategy development and strategic planning as the organisation puts strategies and plans in place to achieve the vision. Slogans and logos from these statements should be used on documents and in external communications since they are powerful ways of characterising the organisation and of promoting the image it wants to project of itself. **References:** MLPS&HRD (January, 2007). *A Policy Framework for the Public Service of Southern Sudan.* MLPS&HRD (February, 2007). *Manual of Public Service Procedures.* MLPS&HRD (August, 2008). *Public Service Reforms Implementation Framework Manual.*

Topic 5.3: Setting Strategic Direction

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
SETTING STRATEGIC DIRECTION	By the end of this course unit, the participating manager should be able to: a) Clearly interpret the vision and mission statements of the unit, departments or organisation b) Design strategies for realising the intentions of the vision and mission statements	i. Interpretation of vision and mission statements – The organisation charts – The needs of the clients. – The organisation competencies – The future expectation of the organisation. ii. Designing strategies – Distributions – Processes – Deliverables	– Lectures – Discussions – Exercises – Brainstorms – Image drawing – Application to own strategy	– Trainers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids	1 day	Knowledge and concept test

Topic 5.3 Expanded: Setting Strategic Direction

i. Interpretation of vision and mission statements	The strategic intent of an organisation emanates from and is determined by the organisation's vision and mission statements. The vision sets out the future intent – the organisation's aspiration of what it wants to be and achieve in the future. The mission describes its overall purpose, its reason to be. These statements are essentially long term in nature, but they need constant updating in line with changes in the environment, changes in leadership, as well as changes in overall strategy of the organisation. Strategy has been defined in the following way (Johnson & Scholes, 1999: 10): "Strategy is the *direction* and *scope* of an organisation over the *long term*: which achieves *advantage* for the organisation through its configuration of *resources* within a changing *environment*, to meet the needs of *markets* and to fulfill *stakeholder* expectations." Designing the strategic intent requires careful analysis of the vision and mission statements, whose aims are reflected in the organisational chart, since the purpose of strategy is to define *how* the organisation will achieve its vision and fulfill its mission. An overall strategy for an organisation lays out, at a high level but never-the-less with some specificity, the main thrusts of the organisation's activities to achieve the vision – what it will do, major initiatives and priorities, emphases and foci, changes and A strategy must be measurable, for example by the excellence of service given to customers or by financial results. In reality, vision, mission and strategy are iterative. The vision and mission may be developed first, but they are done with an eye on what is happening in the organisation's operating environment, the organisation's capabilities, and the strategies it might pursue. As strategies are articulated and implemented they may help to refine or even sometimes change the overall vision. So, what is the purpose of strategy? As Ali et al. (2001) state; *"In business, a strategy maps out the future, setting out which products and services you will take to which markets – and how"* (2001: 358). If strategy is absent, then the vision is unlikely to be reached, and the purpose will not be fulfilled. Creating a strategy, forces an organisation has to look ahead and plan for the future, thus overcoming the urgent day-to-day pressure to merely react to events as they happen. A strategy helps to ensure that day-to-day decisions fit in with the long-term interests of the organisation through acting as a guide to the planning of activities and priorities, thereby aligning everything that the organisation does.

	A strategy guides planning, which prioritises activities and allocates resourcing along the lines of the strategy. A strategy, when well communicated, encourages all employees to work together to achieve common aims, and thereby eventually achieve the vision and fulfill the purpose. .
ii. Designing strategies	The development of a strategy requires the steps of analysis, planning and implementation. Detailed analysis and planning are dealt with in Topic 5.4 (Strategic Planning), suffice to say here that a robust strategy is based on a thorough analysis that looks at aspects such as what customers want, developments in the sector, what competitors are doing, what is happening inside the organisation, etc. This information is used to develop the strategy. The strategic direction is determined by the interplay of various forces. These include: a. The competencies of the organisation. These will be in terms of available resources both human and material. It is therefore necessary to assess the available strategic options in order to determine whether they are achievable with the available resources. It is also necessary to assess the leadership of the organisation, its history and culture. b. Operational environment. It is also necessary to evaluate the environment in which the organisation operates, in the case of commercial organisation, the industry context including markets and competitors. For the Government, it may be necessary to evaluate its context in terms of whether it is a federal, coalition, or unitary government. c. The interests of the various stakeholders. These stakeholders include clients, customers, suppliers, the general public, donors, financiers, as well as employees. These various stakeholders have their differing needs and interests, which at times may be at variance. There is therefore a need to balance these various interests for optimal realisation of organisational objectives and service provision. d. The future expectations of the organisation. This is in terms of where the organisation expects to be in the future, as expressed in its vision. It is the perceived state of the future, represented by the organisation's scope of business, its domains and activities. The issues that should be considered in determining the strategic intent include asking yourself: • What business are we in? • What do we want to be known for in future? • In what ways will the organisation serve the interests of the various stakeholders? • How does the organisation define its scope of activities? • How broad, aggressive and powerful will the organisation's intent be defined?

	• What is happening in the organisation's operating environment? The overall strategy for the organisation should, in headline terms, set out how the organisation will go about achieving its vision and fulfilling its mission. This is usually done through a number of statements of strategic intent (e.g. 5 or 6). Each of these would outline specific activities, areas of involvement, or actions that will guide more detailed strategic planning. So, they need to be specific enough to be measurable and provide the foundation for strategic planning, but high level enough to remain strategic, concise and straightforward. For example, if a Government health department's vision is: *To become by 2020, the most responsive public healthcare service on the continent*, And its mission is: *To improve the health and life expectancy of all citizens*. An overall strategy might be expressed in strategic statements like the following: *The department of health will:* • *Establish primary care provision (clinics with GPs and midwives) for every community within 2 hours journey.* • *Establish, by 2010, a scholarship programme to identify and support potential heath care students with limited means, and increase the overall numbers of trained doctors, nurses and other health care professionals by 25%.* • *Establish preventative measures to combat malaria and other preventable diseases, with the target of reducing deaths from malaria by 10%.* • *Ensure access to appropriate secondary care in State hospitals, with waiting times following referral within 18 months.* • *Target HIV/AIDS by reducing infection levels to less than 5% through a community education campaign, and provide subsidised access to drug treatment to all those carrying the virus.* Such a strategy gives a clear indication to staff working in the organisation what their priorities should be, where effort and resources should be expended, and how success of each part of the strategy will be measured. It also provides an easily communicable message to customers (the public) on what the department is striving towards, and the levels of service they can expect. Strategic planning would further develop the strategy from these statements, constructing plans for each with budgets and resources. **In Southern Sudan,** the Public Service Reforms Implementation Framework Manual (2008) refers to the development of a ***national vision*** for Southern Sudan during 2008 and 2009 through consultation with citizens (including Members of Parliament). Once finalised by the President and Cabinet, the plan is for the vision to be

widely communicated and mainstreamed in all government reform programmes and the planning process, and then the progress of the ensuing reforms monitored. Each ministry will review and align its ministerial vision to the national vision and importantly, determine the strategic objectives for the ministry to achieve its vision. These strategic objectives will have measures and targets to be monitored via an annual performance plan.

In setting its strategic direction, it is important that an organisation develops strategies, in line with its overall strategy, in various areas of operations including:

- Human Resources, for choosing and adopting the most appropriate HR policies and practices.

- Supply chain (distribution) so as to give a stronger emphasis to responsive supply chain strategies, with more competitive advantage gained by organisations which are able to integrate efficiency with responsiveness.

- Finance and accounts aimed at achieving accommodation of financial planning and control systems for some degree of financial accounting synergy.

- Operations, where the strategic intent should be guided by the fundamental competitive priorities of efficiency, quality, dependability, flexibility and innovation.

- Information systems which should be considered not as a competitive option, but as a strategic necessity which increases the organisations internal and external coordinating efficiency.

- Marketing (customer relations) whose intent is to foster unique advantage that differentiates the organisation or department in the eyes of the customers/clients.

Each of these areas and functions would be expected to develop its own strategy, in support of and aligned to the overall strategy of the organisation. For example, in the health department example in Section 3.2, the Human Resources strategy would need to include items that address the resourcing of health care staff, and the scholarship scheme to identify and support health care students.

References:

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Topic 5.4 Expanded: Strategic Planning

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
STRATEGIC PLANNING	By the end of this course unit, the participating manager should be able to: a) Explain the meaning and importance of strategic planning b) Discuss the elements of a strategic plan c) Describe the tools and techniques used in strategic planning	i. Meaning and importance of strategic planning – Tools for planning process of strategy-making – Involves collection of information, thinking about the future, evaluates current strengths and weaknesses – Focuses decision-makers on most pertinent information ii. Elements of a strategic plan – Goals, both financial and non-financial – Assumptions about key variables – Strategies and tactics to achieve the goals – Budgets in line with strategies and tactics – Implementing the plan	– Lectures – Discussions – Exercises – Brainstorms – Application to own planning	– Trainers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids	1 day	Knowledge and concept test

		– In Southern Sudan iii. Tools and techniques for strategic planning – Industry analysis – Value chain analysis – Functional capabilities and resource analysis – Macro environmental analysis – SWOT, Porter's Five Forces model, PEST				

Topic 5.4 Expanded: Strategic Planning

i. Meaning and importance of strategic planning	Strategic planning is primarily concerned with furthering the realisation of an organisation's vision on a sustainable basis. It facilitates the organisational process of strategy making in order to achieve the organisation's goals. Since organisations and governments operate within dynamic environments, these need to be carefully evaluated for the strategies designed to be effective. Strategic planning therefore necessitates forecasting the future and evaluating the ways in which future trends may impact on the operations of the organisation (Government). It involves collection of relevant information that will inform the strategies to be designed. In doing this it is necessary to carry out what is commonly referred to as a SWOT analysis. SWOT is short for Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats. The strengths of an organisation are reflected in its internal capabilities and superiority. This could be in terms of its technology processes used, its resources (human, materials and capital, and even entrepreneurial). It is necessary to evaluate such strengths so as to determine how best to utilize them. This is true even for the Government. Weaknesses also relate to the internal capabilities of the organisation. It is important that such weaknesses be identified so that measures can be taken to ratify the situation. This may mean allocation of funds for staff training to enhance the capabilities and capacities of employees. Opportunities refer to the environment within which the organisation operates. For new sources of funding, new markets and collaborative partners. They need to be captured as they occur and exploited fully for the benefit of the stakeholders. Threats are in like manner posed by factors within the environment in which the organisation operates. For a government, such threats could be new political realignments of neighbours, creation of competing trading blocs or new technologies, which render its raw materials exports obsolete. It is necessary to isolate such threats to that proactive and reactive strategies to cope can be put in place. As such, the strategic plan will focus the attention of the decision makers on the most pertinent information areas, so that they can make rational decisions for sustained growth and development.
ii. Elements of a strategic plan	Assuming that the overall vision, mission and strategy of the organisation have been established (as described in Topics 5.2 and 5.3 of the Master Curriculum), a strategic plan then works out, in more detail and attaching activities and budgets, how these will be delivered. It consists of elements such as goals, assumptions, strategies and tactics, and budgets. Each of these elements is briefly described below:

a. ***The Goals.*** Such goals can be both financial and non financial. Goals for the government could be the attainment of a certain level of literary (e.g. 80%) within the population in a given time period (e.g. five years). These goals should be realistic and, like objectives, should conform to the SMART criteria (i.e. Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Realistic, and Time-bound). In addition to goals, there should be milestones so that as the plan is implemented, progress can be tracked and any necessary adjustments or corrections made. Many organisations use *key performance indicators* (KPIs), which are usually a mixture of financial and non-financial items, to measure progress against goals and milestones in the plan. Such goals need to be set at the strategic level, but also at lower levels as each area, department, unit, etc. aligns its work to the strategic plan.

b. ***Assumptions about key variables.*** It is necessary to make these assumptions because of the uncertain nature of the future. For example, assumptions have to be made on the sustainability and reliability of financial inflows for government development initiatives that are part of the plan to be maintained. Government strategic plans are also pegged on the assumptions that political stability and social cohesion are maintained.

c. ***Strategies and tactics to achieve the goals***. These are strategies and tactics within the overall strategy. Strategies are the routes that should be followed and the specific actions that should be taken along the route. For example, a strategy for achieving universal literacy in ten years time would be to ensure enrolment in primary schools for all children. The tactics would be providing free primary education and imposing penalties on parents whose children don't enrol for school. As with goals, these are set at the strategic level, but strategies and tactics are also set at lower levels as each area, department and unit determines its strategies and tactics to achieve its departmental goals.

d. ***Budgets in line with strategies and tactics.*** Comprehensive budgets should be included in the strategic plan. As Ali et al. state; "Understanding the financial implications of a strategy is fundamental to its success" (2001: 392). Budgets should be in line with the strategies and tactics, as they should emanate from the various activities and initiatives designed to achieve the goals. They need to include a forecast of revenues (i.e. income) and an estimate of costs (i.e. expenditure), and an understanding of how these will be balanced. Budgets are an integral part of the plan and, as the plan is implemented, become one of the key methods of measuring progress against the plan.

For the plan to be successfully implemented a number of activities need to be undertaken including:

- ***Communication*** – a strategic plan needs to be communicated so that area of the organisation is aware of it, and of their part in delivering the plan. Such communication needs to ensure that senior managers have copies of the plan, and that each department has the plan, or the relevant extract from it that refers to their part of it. Communication can be through reports, presentations, letters, memoranda and e-mail.

	• ***Implementation*** – implementation of the plan comes through each area, unit, department, team, etc. undertaking the work to achieve the goals that have been set in line with the plan. This means that they will have to sift and prioritise their activities so that they are doing those which will meet their goals that aligned with the plan. This may involve change, as a new strategy and its accompanying strategic plan may signal a change in direction or emphasis, the provision of a new product or service, or (for a commercial organisation) entry to a new market. Leading change is covered in Topic 5.5. • ***Monitoring performance and progress*** – as the plan is being implemented, performance and progress against the plan needs to be regularly monitored. Many organisations do this as part of their normal business process by reporting on key performance indicators (KPIs) at regular intervals (e.g. monthly, or quarterly). For a commercial organisation, these would include financial items such as sales, operating costs, capital expenditure. They might also include non-financial items such as turnover of staff, absenteeism, new outlets opened, etc. If the plan is not being achieved, then corrective actions need to be put in place, or else the plan adjusted (the former is preferable to the latter since changing the plan will mean that the overall strategy may be threatened). In addition to ongoing monitoring of the strategic plan, there will come a time when the plan and its underlying strategy need reviewing. Has the strategy been successful? Have the goals in the plan been achieved? Such a review would be the start of the strategy making process for the next strategy. **In Southern Sudan,** The Public Service Reforms Implementation Framework Manual (2008) refers to the development of a ***national vision*** for Southern Sudan during 2008 and 2009 through consultation with citizens (including Members of Parliament). Once finalised by the President and Cabinet, the plan is for the vision to be widely communicated and mainstreamed in all government reform programmes and the planning process, and then the progress of the ensuing reforms monitored. Each ministry will review and align its ministerial vision to the national vision and importantly, determine the strategic objectives for the ministry to achieve its vision. These strategic objectives will have measures and targets to be monitored via an annual performance plan. This process is a good example of an organisation setting vision, and then using the vision to drive/realign strategies at national and ministry levels, which lead to strategic plans (including operational budgets) that are implemented and monitored regularly – in this case as annual performance plans. The intent is that individual work plans are developed by employees to deliver their portion of annual performance plan (see Topic 8.5 of the Master Curriculum on Managing Performance).
iii. Tools and techniques for strategic planning	Strategic planning involves the following techniques: • Industry analysis. This is especially important for business organisations which need to understand the features of the industry within which they operate. But even for a Government, it may need to know the features of the regional grouping within which it operates e.g. COMESA, IGAG or such like. This is

	because the parameters set within this environment should serve as benchmarks for its projections. • Value chain analysis. This refers to the value added by the products or services provided by the organisation. Of what benefit are the goods and services provided by the organisation to society? In the case of a government, what is the value addition of the services of its various arms to society? • Functional capabilities and resource analysis. This is as discussed in the SWOT analysis earlier on. • The macro-environmental analysis. This is important as it evaluates the reliability of the parties to this environment. For the sustainability of the operations of the organisation. Such macro-environments would include suppliers, financiers and even customers. Particular tools include *SWOT analysis*, *Porter's five forces model*, and *PEST analysis.* SWOT analysis is described above; the others are described below. **Porter's five forces model –** Michael E. Porter developed a useful model for analysing competitive position called the five forces model (1980). The analysis can be a useful input to SWOT analysis. His model involves analysing five fundamental competitive forces, which gives a picture of the competitive environment and of the organisation's position within it. The five forces are: 1. ***Competitors*** – competitive rivalry in the industry/ existing players. 2. ***New entrants*** – threat of new entrants; how easy or difficult is it for the new entrants to start competing? Which barriers exist? 3. ***Buyers*** – the bargaining power of buyers (customers); how strong is the position of buyers? Can they work together in ordering large volumes? 4. ***Suppliers*** – bargaining power of suppliers; how strong is the position of sellers? Do many potential suppliers exist or only a few? A monopoly? 5. ***Substitutes*** – threat of substitutes; how easily can a product or service be substituted, especially made cheaper? Sometimes a sixth competitive force, that of government. **PEST Analysis –** the PEST analysis is a way of assessing a market by systematically investigating the *Political, Economic, Social* and *Technological* factors that affect that particular market. There is some overlap with a SWOT analysis although PEST and SWOT are from different perspectives. PEST assesses a market,

including competitors, from the standpoint of a particular proposition or a business, whereas SWOT is an assessment of a business or a proposition, whether your own or a competitor's. Which to use? It's a question of using the tool that gives you the most useful information for your situation. Generally, PEST is more useful for larger and more complex the businesses but even for a small business it can highlight significant issues that might otherwise be missed.

The factors analysed by PEST vary in significance depending on the type of business, e.g. the social quadrant is more relevant to consumer businesses, whereas political factors are more relevant to a multi-national company. The four factors are described below, showing the types of items that are considered under each:

- ***Political*** – Government policies, legal issues, regulatory bodies and processes, environmental issues, war and conflict, etc.

- ***Economic*** – home and overseas economy and trends, taxation, market and trade cycles, market routes and distribution, interest and exchange rates, etc.

- ***Social*** – consumer and lifestyle trends, demography, fashion, advertising and publicity,

- ***Technological*** – technology development, research funding, maturity of technology, innovation potential, intellectual property issues, etc.

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Topic 5.5: Leading Organisational Change

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
LEADING ORGANISAT-IONAL CHANGE	By the end of this course unit, the participating manager should be able to: a) Identify the triggers of change in an organisation b) Discuss the different types of change that can occur in an organisation c) Describes the steps followed in leading change d) Discuss the impediments to change	i. Triggers of change – Government regulations – Competitors profile and strategies – Customer tastes – Technology – Leadership – Union activity – Employee initiatives ii. Types of change – Evolutionary – Revolutionary – "Hard" versus "Soft" change – Organisational culture change iii. Steps in leading change – Hard systems model – Unfreeze-change-refreeze process – Kotter's 8-step model – In Southern Sudan	– Lectures – Discussions – Exercises – Brainstorms – Case studies – Expert guest speakers – Application to own situation	– Trainers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids	2 days	Knowledge and concept test

		iv. Impediments to change – Why change is not always achieved – Resistance to change – Managing transitions personally – Leading change				

Topic 5.5 Expanded: Leading Organisational Change

i. Triggers of change	Change in organisations is constant. Ironically, it is the only phenomenon that is permanent due to the rapidly changing world in which we live and the way we try to respond to what is going on around us. Therefore as a manager it is important to understand the changes that affect organisations and the people who work in them, and to be able to respond to them appropriately and lead others through the sometimes difficult process of change. Change experienced within an organisation can often be driven by changes happening elsewhere, as Heller and Hindle (2008) state; *"Specific changes in an organization's internal structure and external markets often derive from wider changes in society, economics, or technology."* Some of the causes of change in organisations are described below. The causes of change in organisations include the following: • Government regulations. Sometimes change is internally instigated, e.g. new regulations and policies decreed by Government. • Competitor profile and strategies. Sometimes change is externally prompted. For commercial organisations, this can be by through introducing new products, or new competitors entering the market, which can affect prices and profits. • Customer tastes. Customers' tastes and needs can change which will affect the products offered by an organisation. For Public Service, it may be that customer needs or expectations change resulting in changing demands of the public services demanded. • Technology. Advances in technology drive many of the changes listed above, and have a big impact on organisations. Not least, that to keep up organisations have to continually buy, install, and learn how to use new equipment. It can have an impact on organisational structure (e.g. on the division of labour), changes in social relations of workers as they adapt, and changes in the way that work is supervised. Computers, the Internet and e-mail have brought changes in the way information is handled and in how people communicate at work. • Leadership. Changes in the leadership of an organisation can bring changes to the organisation as the new leader imposes his/her priorities and brings his/her own style. At a more local level, a change of an employee's supervisor can bring great changes to his/her experience of work, again due to the supervisor's style and priorities. • Union activity and employee initiatives. Changes can occur in organisations from the bottom up, in a

	formal way through union representation and negotiation, or in a less formal way through employee initiatives. These changes are usually in areas such as working conditions, pay and opportunities, and so tend to be positive and therefore received well by employees.
ii. Types of change	Change can be both evolutionary (i.e. incremental) or revolutionary (i.e. all at once). Some change is simple and straightforward, whereas other change is complex and contentious. 1. ***Evolutionary change.*** This is an ongoing change in an organisation, sometimes referred to as continuous improvement. Studies of organisations show that companies make numerous small changes over many years, punctuated by drastic change occasionally. These small changes are called evolutionary or converging changes. They represent efforts to constantly improve, modify and adapt, e.g. expansion of sales territory, adjustments to policies, or developing a new reward system. Such changes are characterised by compatibility with the existing power structure, staying within overall goals, and continuity with or development of current systems. Evolutionary change tends to be easier to manage because it is gradual and usually based on developments and improvements to existing approaches, so it does not generate the same resistance as revolutionary change, nor does it require the wholesale switch to something strange and new. However, it tends to take longer than revolutionary change, and it will not deliver enough if a radical shift in product, process or approach are required. 2. ***Revolutionary change.*** Compared to the analogy of evolution, revolutionary change is the “big bang”. Such change represents a significant, sometimes dramatic shift from current reality. In organisations this can be a new strategy that takes the organisation in a different direction, a new structure that alters the way people report, the institution of a new corporate culture which will mean different ways of operating and behaving, or the introduction of a new policy, process or procedure that has a dramatic impact on employee benefits or conditions. The most dramatic version of a revolutionary change that affects the organisational world is termed a “paradigm shift”, when there is huge shift in understanding or technology that literally changes the world for an organisation. For example, the change from mechanical to digital clocks could be described as paradigm shift for the Swiss watch industry, which was based on producing high quality mechanical watches and had to change drastically to survive. Revolutionary change, by its nature is disruptive and therefore can more difficult to manage than evolutionary change. This disruption generates resistance as people are confronted with the effects it has on them, which in organisations are not always positive. But revolutionary change tends to be faster than evolutionary change and therefore is appropriate when drastic action is necessary. 3. ***“Hard” versus “soft” change.*** Organisational change is sometimes referred to “hard” or “soft” – the

former refers to change associated with simple systems, to deal with difficulties or opportunities. It tends to be smaller scale and can be isolated from the rest of the organisation, has quantifiable objectives and a systems/technical orientation. The people involved agree what the problem is and the type of solution is at least known. Time scales are known and the problem is bounded. Systematic (hard) methodologies are appropriate, and can be enacted more speedily and easily than more complex change situations.

Soft change is change associated with complex systems/messy situations where the issues are more complex/contentious, and there is high emotional involvement from those implementing and/or affected by the change. These tend to be larger scale with serious implications, have interrelated problems that cannot be separated from their context, have many involved with different attitudes, subjective objectives, little agreement on what is the problem let alone the solution, will not be solved quickly, have fuzzy timelines, and are less well bounded or unbounded. Much of the change dealt with by managers is soft change.

4. ***Culture change.*** Changes in organisational culture occur when group norms and values are altered. Culture change initiatives are instigated by the top management of organisations when they perceive that, for the benefit of the organisation, behaviours and ways of operating need to change. Such changes are commonly implemented by articulating a new vision, mission and core values (with corresponding behaviours and attitudes), and attempting to engage employees in adopting these as their own. Such culture change initiatives can be revolutionary to begin with since they may overturn previous ways of doing things, but may tend towards an evolutionary change because they can take a long time to shift the culture of an organisation.

They are usually examples of “soft” change since they are complex and involve emotions and commitment.

Culture change is often a difficult and lengthy process. Experience shows that changing the culture is best done by focusing on changing behaviours through changing the formal aspects of the organisation (e.g. structures, systems, processes, role relationships; see Section 3.3 below). This is because changing values and attitudes directly is very difficult, although attempts are made, for example through communicating core values.

As an example of changing values through behaviours, if an organisation wishes to promote performance, one way to encourage performance is to reward and promote people based on performance. So the organisation’s reward and promotion processes are changed and used to promote a change in behaviour. Over time, as employees behave in this new way, performance gains priority on the list of values that employees, and eventually the organisation espouses.

So, to change organisational culture, a combination of approaches is often used:

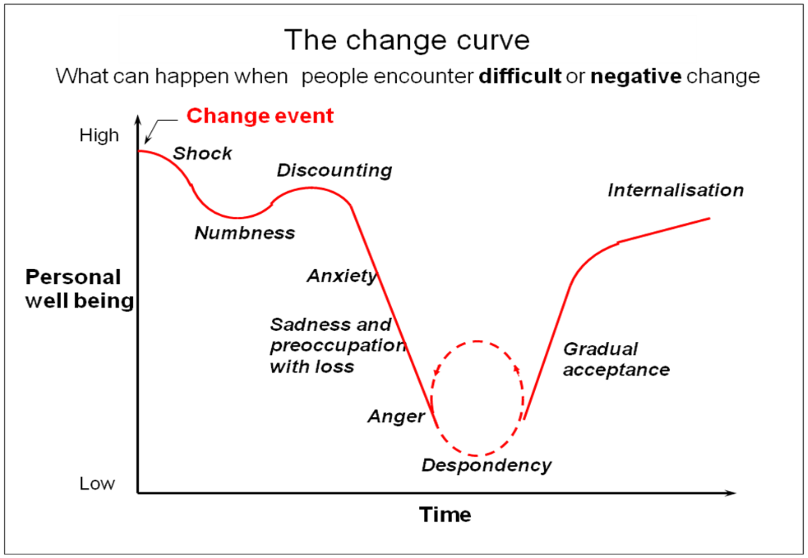
	• Changes in structures and systems – to bring about changes in behaviour, which eventually shift attitudes and values. • Education and persuasion – to bring about attitude and value change directly (e.g. by publicising a set of core values and desired behaviours). Organisational culture is considered in more detail in Topic 5.6 of the Master Curriculum.
iii. Steps in leading change	Whilst there are various theories of change, most people agree that there are some basic principles to follow when dealing with change. Approaches to "hard" change based on problem solving and decision-making methods tend to be systematic rational approaches where change objectives can be identified. An approach by Senior (2002) that amalgamates a number of methods for "hard" change is the ***Hard Systems Model of Change*** (HSMC), comprising three overlapping phases: • *Description* – describing and diagnosing the situation, setting objectives for change. • *Options* – generating the options for change, selecting the appropriate option. • *Implementation* – putting plans into action and monitoring the results. For "soft" types of change, involving more complex situations and the reactions of people, a well accepted model is the ***Unfreeze – Change – Refreeze*** process (Lewin, 1951). This basically means that whether it is for an individual or an organisation, that once the need for change has been identified, there is a process of undoing the way we normally do things, changing the way we do it, then "bedding in" the new way. This can be uncomfortable for people in a number of ways: • People are wedded to or like the way they currently do things, and some will say "If it's not broken, don't fix it". And there is a loss involved when the current process is left behind. • Some people fear doing things in a new way because the worry they will not be able to grasp the new process or handle the new technology. • There is uncertainty during the period when the change is happening because the new process is not yet fully in place. As a manager, it is important to consider how you go about addressing the restraining forces to unfreeze the current situation. It could mean conducting seminars to discuss with employees how the change will affect their jobs, and providing retraining to enable them to develop the skills to meet the change. Then it is important to

	support them through the uncertainty and strangeness of the change itself. Finally, it is important to then lock the new way of doing things in place so as people do not revert to doing things in the old way. A business professor and consultant from Harvard developed one of the most famous approaches to change in organisations called the ***8 Step Model***. In this model, change is viewed as going through some necessary "requirements" before true change really happens. While this model may not apply in total to all situations, it is a good checklist to follow. For basic changes a complex model like this may be over the top. In those cases simply following the Unfreeze-Change-Refreeze process may suffice. Kotter's 8 Step Model: 1. *Establishing a sense of urgency* – this helps people see why change is necessary and establishes dissatisfaction with current reality. 2. *Forming a powerful guiding coalition* – key people who will champion the change, always trying to widen this group. 3. *Creating a vision* – a clear and compelling picture of what the future could be like and where the change will take you, and strategies to achieve the vision. 4. *Communicating the vision* – so that people know what is going on, can grasp what the organisation is aiming for, and some of the ways of getting there. 5. *Empowering others to act on the vision* – so that people feel involved and own the change, which helps overcome obstacles and encourages risk-taking and action. 6. *Planning for and creating short-term wins* – so that people can see some early benefits and also know that you are serious about the change. *7. Consolidating improvements and producing still more changes* – using increased credibility to change systems, structures and policies that don't fit the vision. Reinvigorating the process with new projects and themes. 8. *Institutionalising new approaches* – so that they become the new reality. **In Southern Sudan**, the Public Service Reforms Implementation Framework Manual (2008) set out a reforms programme which is a strategy to create effective and results oriented public service organisations. It refers to the development of a ***national vision*** for Southern Sudan during 2008 and 2009 through consultation with citizens (including Members of Parliament). Once finalised by the President and Cabinet, the vision to be widely communicated and mainstreamed in all government reform programmes and the planning process, and then the

	progress of the ensuing reforms monitored. Each ministry will review and align its ministerial vision to the national vision and importantly, determine the strategic objectives for the ministry to achieve its vision. These strategic objectives will have measures and targets to be monitored via an annual performance plan. The Reforms Implementation Framework Manual (2008) points out that these reforms will involve considerable change such as: • Reorganisation to create suitable structures, both in the government and in the ministries. • Processes will need to be "re-engineered" (i.e. a review and re-design of organisational processes to improve efficiency). • The review and/or development of existing procedures and processes, e.g. including annual work plans for units, individual work and performance plans for individuals, job descriptions, performance appraisal instrument. • The introduction of new policies and procedures, e.g. performance agreements, performance reviews, performance reward, public service day, E-government. To help the organisation, individual employees and customers (the public) through the change some steps are planned: • A leadership structure to guide the reforms including a Reform Secretariat, Cabinet Committee on Public Service Reforms, Undersecretaries Forum, and Ministerial Reforms Committee. • A plan for the change with activities and schedules. • Reform Champions to promote the reforms, and Reform/Change Agents to work in ministries as experts/internal consultants to facilitate implementation of the reforms. • Training for Change Agents on change and public service reforms management, and for managers and employees on public service reforms awareness, and new processes (e.g. performance appraisal). • A radio programme on public service reforms to create dialogue between ministries and the public, and a website for people to obtain forms and information. The Public Service Reforms programme is a good example of an organisational change process. As is obvious from above, there are a lot of changes that need to happen and they affect many aspects of the organisation – from structure to processes and procedures, to the way employees do their jobs and are appraised and paid.

	Such significant organisational change, if it is to be successful, needs confident leadership, clear and regular communication, planning, supporting processes and roles (e.g. change agents), and training for managers and staff in the new ways of doing things. These mechanisms appear to have been put in place. Such organisational change also usually requires a change in attitudes and behaviours on the part of employees – a shift in *“the way we do things around here”,* i.e. a change in organisational culture. This is the subject of Topic 5.6 of the Master Curriculum.
iv. Impediments to change	a. There are a number of reasons why organisations **do not change** as necessary or as planned: • Failure to recognise changes in environment – whilst dramatic changes are easily seen, slower, though important changes may not be perceived. A common problem is to focus on what we consider important or are good at doing, and to ignore other stimuli. Or to fail to look ahead. Strategic planning techniques like Scenario Planning (when managers picture a range of possible futures) can help. • Complacency with status quo – many successful organisations become complacent with their good products and high performance, and an attitude of overconfidence develops. They might underestimate the competition and fail to react until it is too late. The best time for an organisation to think about reinventing itself is when it is doing really well, i.e. before it reaches its peak and begins to decline. • Misinterpretations of changes – whilst managers might notice changes in their environment, they might misinterpret them, perhaps viewing a change as a temporary problem and not realizing a real, lasting change is occurring. • Lack of approval by bosses – sometimes a positive change initiated elsewhere in the organisation or perhaps by an employee is not approved by the manager. This may be because the manager does not understand the benefits, or resents someone initiating changes in his/her domain. It is important for the person initiating the change to communicate clearly and to use their influencing skills (Section 4.10) to make their case. • Lack of managerial support – sometimes managers underestimate the effect changes have on employees and do not give sufficient support. Perhaps they have already got to grip with the change, or perhaps they were involved in initiating it, which means they will be less sensitive to the effects it will have on others. Without management support, the resistance that change often generates (see next point below) can mean the change will fail. • Resistance to change – all change (even positive change) involves some loss – something has to be left behind – which means as humans we miss what is lost. This creates resistance to change, together with the fact that we may not like what is proposed to replace it.

b. **The change curve.** An extreme example of the loss caused by change is the death of a loved one. We miss the person who has gone and we go through a personal (psychological) change cycle involving shock, sadness and grief as we mourn the loss, but hopefully, eventually we come to terms with it. This is a predictable human reaction to difficult change. In a work situation, job loss is an example of a difficult, negative change for most people, and a similar change curve is experienced (Jones, 1995): shock is followed by denial, then feelings of loss, anger, and other negative feelings as the person's morale descends. But eventually a person turns the curve, accepts the situation, starts looking to the future and moves on. Even positive change at work can entail some loss (e.g. of the way things used to be done), and so generate some resistance until the change is internalised and accepted.



An understanding that people, when confronted by difficult change, need to go through such a cycle can help managers understand employee's feelings and resistance to change. Managers need to be patient and provide support, recognizing that some people adapt to change more quickly than others, and that some need a lot of support. Interestingly, it is often the people who were originally most resistant to change that, once they have got their heads around it, can be the best advocates for it in the long-term. Managers can help people through this curve by providing support and by showing the benefits that the change will bring.

c. **Managing transitions**. Bridges (1991) describes change as a series of transitions; when change happens there is:

- An ending – the loss of the old – all change involves losing something.

- A period in between times – characterised by uncertainty since the old has not fully gone and the new not fully come.

- A beginning – as the new arrives.

In making these transitions, we have to let go of the old and grasp the new. Some practical ways of doing this (from Curran, 2000):

- *Face change and help to shape it* – ignoring change seldom makes it go away, better to embrace it, influence it, criticise it, get the best out of it.

- *Grieve the loss, then let go* – don't get stuck in the past, in regret or melancholy, nor rubbish the past, rather acknowledge past successes, build on them where possible, but be willing to leave them behind for something better.

- *Keep going in between times* – during the uncertainties of change hold on to some of the things that remain certain (resist 'throwing the baby out with the bathwater'!), and ride the change (like surfing a wave) with patience and perseverance.

- *Look forward* – when change is inevitable, it is best to look for the new opportunities that change brings, to grasp the future, to put yourself into the ideal future and thereby help to bring it about.

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Topic 5.6: Organisational Culture

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE	By the end of this course unit, the participating manager should be able to: a) Discuss the meaning of organisational culture b) Discuss the determinants of organisational culture c) Distinguish between different types of organisational cultures.	i. Meaning of organisational culture – Set of beliefs, values and norms – States what is proper, right and appropriate in the organisation – Should be well known and accepted within ii. Determinants of organisational culture – Management philosophy – The vision and core values of the organisation – Organisational change and culture change – Changing organisational culture – In Southern Sudan – Way to influence behaviours	– Lectures – Discussions – Exercises – Brainstorms – Image drawing – Case studies	– Trainers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids	2 days	Knowledge and concept test

		iii. Types of organisational culture – By management style – By behaviours – By structure				

Topic 5.6 Expanded: Organisational Culture

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<td>i. Meaning of organisational culture</td>
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Culture is defined as shared beliefs, values and code of ethics that bind a community, organisation or group of people together. It is a cohesion and tradition that symbolise a society/community identity. It is rules and regulations that guide their behaviour and make them unique from any other society/community.
Hofstede (1981: 24) defines culture in the following way:
“Culture is the collective programming of the human mind that distinguishes the members of one human group from those of another. Culture in this sense is a system of collectively held values”.
Trompenaars (1993) depicts culture as three concentric circles:

In the core: Basic assumptions – how to survive, deep-seated, self-evident, implicit.
Middle ring: Norms and values – what is seen as right and wrong, good and bad, ideals.
Outer ring: Artefacts and product – observable, explicit; e.g. language, food, buildings, agriculture, fashions, art, etc.

So, in referring to culture we mean the way people think, feel and react based on collectively held values, some of which are implicit and tacit, but often embodied through artefacts that enable us to distinguish cultures from one another.
Organisational culture – organisations can be defined formally by their structure, size, vision and strategy, the products and services they provide, their finances and management. However, like an iceberg (Senior, 2002), there are less visible elements of an organisation that exist below the water such as the values, attitudes and beliefs held by managers and employees, norms of behaviour and internal politics that are powerful drivers of decisions and actions. These informal elements of an organisation help define its organisational culture. In part, they get codified in sets of core values and codes of conduct. But organisational culture is wider than such codes. For example, Brown (1995) lists the characteristics of organisational culture as:

Artefacts.
Language – jokes, metaphors, stories, myths and legends.
Behaviour patterns – rites, rituals, ceremonies and celebrations.
Norms of behaviour.
Heroes.
Symbols and symbolic action.
Beliefs, values and attitudes.
Ethical codes.
Basic assumptions.
History.

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	That many of these elements of culture operate tacitly or unconsciously reinforces the iceberg metaphor. Also, the fact that many are deep-seated means that organisational culture can be resistant to change. The importance of culture in an organisation is to create harmony, cohesiveness and collectiveness among the organisation's employees. The group ownership of objectives leads to the promotion of performance and the organisation's general development under the umbrella of that unique culture. The basis of any organisation's culture are its constitution, rules, regulations and policies that define the organisation, indicating what it is, what it stands for, and its core values. These are indicative of its image in the eyes of its stakeholders (e.g. clients, suppliers, the public). A well cultured organisation gets a good public image, which is in itself a great value and an asset that when put together with product and service the organisation may attract many clients and suppliers and hence a sizeable market share in their sector or industry.
ii. Determinants of organisational culture	**The determinants of an organisation's culture** are the organisation's philosophy and its management styles, which should be seen as translating the organisation's vision, mission and its core values into actions and deeds in its delivery of business to its clients. The relationship of the management styles and service delivery to its set vision, mission and core values make it look attractive to the public and clientele and probably make it reputable, therefore the likelihood of being a profitable organisation are very well enhanced. Johnson and Scholes (1999) describe organisational culture as a cultural web with a prevailing organisational paradigm (the beliefs and assumptions of the organisation's managers and employees) in the centre, surrounded by the following elements: routines, rituals, stories, symbols, control systems, power structures, and organisational structures. This cultural web model has been used as a way to map the cultures of organisations, and also for thinking about organisational change by determining how to change routines, stories, symbols, structures, etc. to shift the underlying paradigm. **Organisational change and culture change –** as discussed in Topic 5.5, organisations need to change to remain relevant and, in the commercial sector, competitive. Organisational change often involves changes in strategy and/or structure, resourcing, processes, products and services, etc. Sometimes, although not always, such organisational change will be at odds with the existing organisational culture and will therefore meet resistance because of this. When organisational change is incompatible with culture, there are several possible approaches (Senior, 2002): 1. ***Ignore the culture*** – not usually recommended unless the gap between the change and existing culture is small, or the organisation has sufficient resources and perseverance to weather the storm. But sometimes necessary if the change is crucial. 2. ***Manage around the culture*** – often possible given that there are often more ways than one of achieving desired goals. Using this approach, a method is chosen that takes account of the culture – it

may not always be the 'best practice' method, but is chosen because, overall it respects cultural norms and therefore does not create unnecessary resistance and so is more efficient.

3. ***Change the culture*** – to fit the new strategy. This can be a difficult and lengthy process, particularly if the culture is strong. However, there are times when it is necessary, e.g. if the culture does not feature performance, yet for the business to survive a new "high performance" culture is necessary. Changing the culture is best done by focusing on changing behaviours (since changing values and attitudes directly is very difficult) through changing the formal aspects of the organisation (e.g. structures, systems, role relationships; see Section 3.3 below).

4. ***Changing the strategy to match the culture*** – like managing around the culture, this approach recognises that powerful cultures are difficult to change and sometimes it is more profitable to adapt the strategy. Or, as is often the case, some compromise between changing the culture and adjusting the strategy is the way forward.

In reality, organisations often arrive at a compromise between these different approaches to manage organisational culture in the context of organisational change.

Culture change – culture being the rules and regulations that bind the group together, once those rules and regulations cease to keep the group together, then a change is warranted. In an organisation, culture change is often seen to be necessary when (as a result of external pressures), the group's effectiveness is in question so a different way of operating needs to be found. To initiate a change in an organisation's culture requires an analysis of what needs to change, why it needs to change, what is the next best alternative, and what is the likely effect of the change. Because culture affects the whole group, and needs the "buy-in" of the people in the group to be effective, culture change initiatives in organisation's are usually inclusive processes that attempt to engage all levels of the organisation and get their commitment to the new culture.

Many think that trying to change attitudes and values directly is futile; rather, that the way to bring about culture change is to change behaviour. They argue that changes in behaviour can be brought about by changing organisational context – i.e. by changing employee's roles, responsibilities, and the relationships between them through changing organisational structures, systems, environment, etc. So, changes in the formal structures of the organisation are used to drive changes in behaviour, which in turn will change employees' attitudes and beliefs. The Kotter 8 step model of organisational change (Topic 5.5) is an example of this type of change process, as is the *Six steps to effective change* by Beer et al. (1993):

1. Mobilise commitment to change through joint diagnosis of business problems.
2. Develop a shared vision of how to organise and manage for competitiveness.
3. Foster consensus for the new vision, competence to enact it and cohesion to move it along.
4. Spread revitalisation to all departments without pushing it from the top.
5. Institutionalise revitalisation through formal policies, systems and structures.

6. Monitor and adjust strategies in response to problems in the revitalisation process.

Effort can be made on the organisational culture itself through education, persuasion, or coercion. Or efforts can be focused on altering the composition of the workforce so as those retained have the desired beliefs, values and attitudes, e.g. through changing recruitment, selection, promotion, reward and redundancy policies.

To change organisational culture, often a combination is used:

- Changes in structures and systems – to bring about changes in behaviour, which eventually shift attitudes and values.

- Education and persuasion – to bring about attitude and value change (e.g. publicising a set of core values and desired behaviours).

In Southern Sudan – the programme of reforms set out in the Public Service Reforms Implementation Framework Manual (2008) is a good example of an organisational change process. There are a lot of planned changes affecting many aspects of the organisation – from structure to processes and procedures, to the way employees do their jobs and are appraised and paid. Such significant organisational change also usually requires a change in attitudes and behaviours on the part of employees to ensure the new processes and approaches function effectively – a shift in "the way we do things around here", i.e. a change in organisational culture.

The Implementation Framework shows that GOSS are going about this in both of the ways set out above – i.e. they are changing structures and systems, *and* using education and persuasion to bring about changes in attitudes and values through communication and training. The publication of GOSS ***core values*** is an example of this.

Ways to influence behaviours – as described above, most organisations go about changing culture by focussing on behaviours. Heller and Hindle (2008) list some practical ways to influence behaviours: goal setting, acknowledging success, involving people, rewarding change, changing the environment, processes and procedures, and setting an example.

Of course, implicit in many of these is, as a manager, *setting an example* in the way you behave and becoming a role model for the behaviours you want to encourage. For example, if you want to create a culture that values performance and delivering work on time, you will need to ensure your own work is of the highest standard and always delivered to time. If you wish to create a culture of team working and delegation, you will need to take every opportunity to involve others in activities where they can contribute, and to delegate tasks and responsibilities so that others can grow in skills and experience.

iii. Types of organisational culture	**Cultural type by management style –** common types of organisational culture include: • ***Bureaucratic*** – this is where the organisation relies so much on the established rules and regulations to guide the behaviour of its employees at all levels. The downside of this type of culture is that the rules tend to run the organisation rather than the managers, i.e. the rules can become an impediment rather than facilitating the organisation's business. • ***Suppressive*** – these cultures are where employees' creativity and innovation are not encouraged. There is a lot of direction and control from the management and decisions are centralised. The downside is that there can be a pervasive fear among employees that prevents them taking initiative. • ***Supportive*** – in this type of culture, the management treat the employees as part of a family, so the employees are encouraged to initiative, be creative and innovative, and to make decisions within given parameters. In this culture the organisation provides moral and material support to employees, even to issues which are outside the work environment. What is important to a manager is the fact that the norms in practice in an organisation promote cohesiveness and harmony to enable high performance and development of the organisation. **Cultural type by behaviours –** Hall (1995) describes different types of organisational culture using two components of behaviour: *assertiveness* versus *responsiveness*, creating a model of four cultural styles called the compass model. The four styles and their characteristic behaviours are: • ***North style*** (low responsive/low assertive) – quantitative, factual, cautious, precise, methodical. • ***East style*** (high responsive/low assertive) – loyal, trusting, compromising, team players, value harmony. • ***South style*** (high responsive/high assertive) – quick moving, unpredictable, challenging, charging ahead, individualistic. • ***West style*** (low responsive/high assertive) – task orientated, demanding, taking control, pushy, authoritative. This model has been used to analyse culture across a single organisation, and also at an individual level, across departments, and the industry and nation within which the organisation operates. It has also been used to plot cultural relationships between organisations and nations. For example, the UK has been plotted in the North style quadrant, the US and West Germany in the West, France in the south, and Japan in the East.

Cultural type by structure – another way of characterising different types of organisational culture is to use structure, in particular plotting structural style (hierarchical versus egalitarian) against orientation to the person or orientation to the task (Trompenaars, 1993; Handy, 1993). As with the compass model, this yields four styles of organisational culture:

- ***The guided missile – project-oriented*** (flat/task focussed) – management by objectives, project work with matrix-type structures, focussed on completing work efficiently and effectively, decision making devolved to project groups. Tend to be meritocracies where roles and status are based on expertise and performance. Examples UK and US energy companies, Apple Macintosh.

- ***The Eiffel Tower – role-oriented*** (hierarchical/task focussed) – controlled by rules and regulations, with an emphasis on defined roles and established hierarchy, with each level having a clear function. Titles and qualifications are important. Such cultures flourish in stable situations. Examples are the top German car companies.

- ***The family – power-orientated*** (hierarchical/person focussed) – a single person or group dominates; decision making is centralised and political (i.e. taken on basis of influence rather than through a logical rational process). Power is held in the centre by charisma or control of resources. Examples are family businesses, entrepreneurial companies, and some trade unions. On the dark side, the mafia!

- ***The incubator – fulfilment-oriented*** (flat/person focussed) – serves the need of its members with minimal structures and high emotional commitment to the work being undertaken. Examples are Silicon Valley companies in California, small consultancy firms, doctors' centres, barristers' chambers.

Although a large generalisation, national cultures can be mapped onto these four cultural styles. For example in the US and UK *guided missile* cultural styles predominate among large companies, but archetypal *incubator* cultures are found in Silicon Valley in the US and Silicon Glen in Scotland, and also in Sweden. In France many small companies have *family* cultures whereas large companies tend to be *Eiffel Tower* in style. Family style cultures are found in Spain, Japan and India.

Public service organisations tend to be hierarchical in structure, so under this model would fall under the *family* organisational culture where personal orientation predominates (e.g. some African countries), and the *Eiffel Tower* organisational culture in some European countries.

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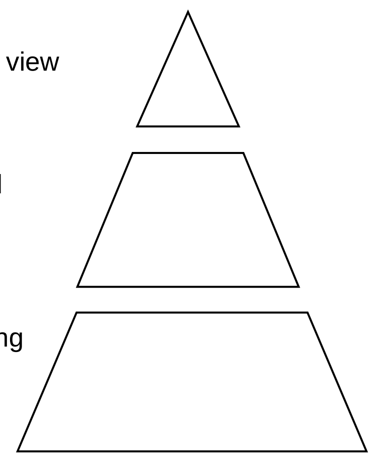
Topic 5.7: Designing Organisations for Purpose

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
DESIGNING ORGANISATIONS FOR PURPOSE	By the end of this course unit, the participating manager should be able to: a) Explain the importance of well designed organisational structures b) Discuss the factors to consider to in designing organisations c) Describe the components of an organisational structure d) Discuss the different types of organisational structures	i. Importance of well designed organisational structures – Determines what employees pay attention to – Determines what sort of decisions are made – Determines how quickly organisation can respond to environmental changes – Cost implications – Influences employee motivation ii. Factors to consider – Objectives of the organisation – Resource capability – Processes requirements – Geographical spread – Size and strategy iii. Components of an	– Lectures – Discussions – Exercises – Brainstorms – Case studies – Image drawing – Expert guest speakers	– Trainers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids – Examples of org. structures	2 days	Knowledge and concept test

		organisational structure – Hierarchy – Specialisation – Formalisation – Standardisation – Traditionalism – Centralisation versus decentralisation – Underlying dimensions of structure iv. Types of organisational structures – Bureaucratic structure – Simple structure – Functional structure – Divisional structure – Matrix structure – Network structure – Tall versus flat structures				

Topic 5.7 Expanded: Designing Organisations for Purpose

i. Importance of well designed organisational structures	The efficiency of an organisation depends to a large extent on the nature of that organisation. This relates to how that organisation is designed (i.e. its structure) for purposes of implementing its planned operations and responding to changes in its environment. This is because it is the design that will determine the efficiency with which information flows in the organisation and the authority relationships in the organisation, and ultimately influence its success. • Organisational design is the vehicle by which an organisation implements its planned operations. A good design indicates levels and communication lines in the organisation. It determines the various levels in the hierarchy, the responsibilities of each level, the reporting lines through the hierarchy, and the distribution of duties. • In simple terms, a traditional ("bureaucratic") organisation is normally perceived as having three levels i.e. the top, the middle and the bottom. The top level deals with conceptualisation of the organisation including vision, mission and policy. The middle level mainly deals with interpretation of policy and the administration and coordination of lower levels. The bottom level deals with technical aspects of service delivery. Top: conceptual, a holistic view Middle: Administrative and coordination of lower level Bottom: Technical, including design of product with technical specifications  So, structure determines the allocation of responsibilities, the grouping of activities, and the control and coordination of these activities, all so that the organisation's objectives can be met. Thus, the structure of an organisation is created by management for specific purposes.

	It is an aspect of what is termed the *formal* part of the organisation (Senior, 2002), as opposed to the *informal* (less visible) aspects such as culture (see Topic 5.6 of the Master Curriculum). However, alongside the formal structure, more informal structures exist through friendship and interest groupings, or those which serve political purposes, sometimes outwith the organisation's goals. As mentioned above, and organisation's structure represents how it has organised its activities, roles, responsibilities, authority, reporting and communication lines to go about its business and achieve its aims. So, strictly speaking, vision and strategy formulation should precede structuring, thus a major change in vision or strategy often results in restructuring. As Senior states *"Such changes most frequently involve changes in the organisation's structure, because it is the structure that must provide the framework within which the strategic process must operate to achieve the organisation's objectives."* (2002: 98). Such a change is usually prompted by changes in the organisation's operating environment, which can also affect structure directly. Sometimes restructuring is used a vehicle to prompt organisational change. For example, the restructuring or reporting relationships, role and responsibilities is sometimes used to encourage changes in behaviour (e.g. to promote team working or empowerment behaviours), which can be part of a culture change initiative (as described in Master Curriculum Topics 5.5 and 5.6 on Leading Organisational Change and Organisational Culture respectively). A well-designed organisation has been compared to a healthy person (Senior, 2002): the structure is like the skeleton that provides the basic support, with the strategy as the brain, the financial resources its blood supply, and the people, technology and information systems the nervous system and the muscles. Without the appropriate structure, the organisation will wobble and may even collapse; it certainly will not operate efficiently and effectively.
ii. Factors to consider	The factors to consider in designing organisational structure include: • The strategy and objectives of the organisation such as profit maximisation, market share maximisation, sales maximisation, and social welfare provision among others. What the organisation is trying to achieve will determine its strategies, which in turn will to a large degree dictate the best structure to be adopted in support of these. The principle here is that *purpose drives structure*, not the other way round. • The resource capability and size of the organisation. The resource capability and size of the organisation. Obviously, an organisation with inadequate resources, especially financial resources cannot adopt a very complex or elaborate structure. A small organisation in terms of human resources would be best served by a simple structure. A large organisation, because of its greater range and/or complexity of operations and many more people, will need a more complex structure.

	• Process requirements in terms of processes followed in provision of goods and services (whether labour intensive or capital intensive). Others could be highly technology driven. • Product/service range, which can determine whether *functional* or *divisional* structures are most appropriate (see types of structures under Section 5 below). • Geographical spread, which determines the extent to which functional resources can be shared among departments. • Technology; generally, the more routine the technology, the more formalised and differentiated the structure. • Organisational culture since some structure require particular attitudes and behaviours to operate effectively (e.g. a matrix structure requires high levels of team working). • Organisational and strategy development, for example as a business grows and becomes more complex, different organisational structures may be appropriate at different stages. • External environment; more formal (e.g. functional, divisional) structures tend to be more suited to stable, unchanging environments, whereas more organic structures (e.g. matrix, network) are more suited to dynamic, changeable environments. In terms of the ***size of organisation***, research has shown that larger organisations (e.g. above around 2000 employees) perform better if they are more bureaucratically (formally) structured, whereas smaller organisations perform better with little formal structure. In organisations departmentalised by product or region (i.e. divisional structures, see definition below), the size of divisions rather than the overall size of the organisation is more likely to influence structure. In terms of organisational and strategy development, as a business grows from small and simple to large and complex, different organisational structures will be appropriate as its strategy changes. For example, when small with a single product or service, a *simple* organisational structure with personal direction and control by the owner might be appropriate. However, as product or service lines increase and markets expand, more complex organisational structures are needed, as shown on the table below (adapted from Senior, 2002). The structural types* shown on this table are described below. This development depicted on the table can be seen in a single organisation, but this evolution of organisational forms can also be seen over the last two centuries as a general shift from simple and functional towards matrix and network.

	Product/market strategy | *Organisation structure** | *Control mechanisms* Single product or service; local/regional markets | Simple | Personal direction & control Standardised product or service; regional/national markets | Functional | Central plan & budgets Diversified, changing product or service; national/international markets | Divisional | Corporate policies & divisional profit centres Standard and innovative products or services/stable and changing markets | Matrix | Temporary teams, internal markets, joint planning Product or service design/global, changing markets | Network | Broker-assembled temporary structures
iii. Components of an organisational structure	The essence of organisational structure is to determine how to divide and coordinate the activities of the organisation, with appropriate reporting relationships so that the organisation is led and managed in a coherent way. The following are the major components of organisational structure: • ***Hierarchy*** – defines the levels in the organisation, and describes who reports to whom as well as the span of control of given managers (number of people reporting to the manager), so overall gives the *shape* of the organisation. Tall structures have many levels in the hierarchy, with small spans of control. Flat structures have fewer levels in the hierarchy with larger spans of control with a lot of room for delegation and empowerment. Sometimes the width and height of the role structure is termed its *configuration*. • ***Specialisation*** – this is the degree to which the organisation's tasks are sub divided into separate jobs, thus it describes the number of specialist roles in an organisation and their distribution. Simple repetitive tasks allow a greater degree of specialisation. Specialisation increases efficiency, for example on a car production line, it is more efficient that one person fits a particular part repetitively than each person builds a whole car. However, too much specialisation leads to an employee becoming bored with their work which may alienate them and cause employee relations problems. • ***Formalisation*** – this is the extent to which written rules, regulations, procedures and instructions permeate the organisation. The rules and regulations are necessary for coordinating activities. However, they should not hinder innovation, flexibility and the ability to change. Organisations that trade on their creativity (e.g. advertising agencies, software houses) tend to be low on formalisation, whereas manufacturing organisations that are concerned to reproduce quality products tend to be more formalised.

- ***Standardisation*** – the number of regularly occurring procedures, supported by bureaucratic procedures of invariable rules and processes.

- ***Traditionalism*** – how many of the procedures are tacitly understood rather than having to be in written form, i.e. how commonly accepted is it that people know how things are done in the organisation?

- ***Centralisation versus Decentralisation*** – this refers to where authority lies in the hierarchy to make decisions that impact the whole organisation. An organisation is considered centralised when most decisions are made at the top and/or most functions (e.g. HR, Finance) are managed centrally. This means that decision making is straightforward and can be fast, and policies and practices tend to be uniform across the organisation. However, the quality of decisions can be lower since they are made without adequate information or consultation, and can be received badly because they are not as relevant to the local setting, leading to employee demotivation.

  On the other hand, decentralisation is when decisions are made by separate units and at lower levels, so tend to be more directly relevant to that unit, and because of this engender motivation. In a decentralised organisation, functions can be locally organised and managed. The downside of decentralisation is poor coordination with different decisions, policies and procedures being applied in different parts of the organisation, which can lead to complexity, perceived unfairness by employees, and inconsistency of service to customers.

Underlying the above components, a number of *dimensions* have been identified that characterise organisations (summarised by Senior, 2002):

- *Structuring of activities* – how much employee behaviour is formally regulated by the processes of specialisation, standardisation and formalisation.

- *Concentration of authority* – the extent to which authority is centralised at the top of the organisation or at another headquarters.

- *Line control of workflow* – how much the control of work is done directly by management rather than through impersonal procedures

- *Support component* – the relative size of support functions in comparison with workflow functions.

- *Groupings* – the way departments, units, etc. are grouped together.

- *Communication systems* – systems for communication, integration and participation.

	• *Motivational systems* – to motivate employees, e.g. performance appraisal and reward. From the above, it might be surmised that, by combining the above components and dimensions in various ways, there would be a limitless number of organisational types. However, in reality there are a number of recurring organisational types, and the evidence shows that some types of organisational structure are more appropriate to some situations than others. Different types of organisational structure are described with examples below.
iv. Types of organisational structures	There are many types of structures that can be adopted by organisations. However, in practice organisations use a blend of different structural types according to their specific requirements. The following are some of the basic structures used in practice: 1. **Bureaucratic structure –** the organisational structure most referred to, and originally described by German sociologist Max Weber in the 1920s (in Senior, 2002; Weber, 1922), is the *bureaucratic structure*. In Weber's thinking, the ideal organisation was characterised by aspects such as: • *Specialisation and division of labour* – so that work is finely divided between well defined and highly specialised roles. • *Hierarchical arrangement of roles* – there is a single chain of command from the top to the bottom. • *Impersonal rules* – the employees carry out their duties impersonally using clearly defined written rules and procedures. • *Impersonal relationships* – activities are coordinated in a rational way by rules, procedures and written records. However, it has been shown that there is no perfect or single most efficient form of organisation as Weber thought. In fact, although Weber's structure was intended to imply fairness and neutrality in the way people were treated, today the term 'bureaucracy' is often used negatively to imply too much paperwork and control, and burdensome rules. But this form of organisational type has persisted and is still evident in many organisations, especially large public sector organisations. Elements of bureaucratic structure are evident in the types described below, which represent the organisational structures commonly used in practice. 2. **Simple structure** – such a structure tends to be relatively flat, with low degrees of specialisation and formalisation but with high centralisation. Decision making is usually centralised in a hands-on manner. Employees are expected to be multi-skilled. Communication and coordination are informal. The organisation is highly flexible and responsive to changes in the environment. Examples: small to medium-sized organisations or those that have a single or simple product or service;

entrepreneurial organisations (e.g. Silicon Valley); small family businesses; young organisations.

Advantages of simple structure	*Disadvantages of simple structure*
• Easy and fast communication. • Fast decision making. • Highly flexible and responsive.	• Depth in particular skills may be lacking. • Can be dominated by single personality. • Vulnerable to maverick behaviour.

3. Functional structure – this structure is based on the functions performed and is usually tall, with considerable specialisation. The structure is both centralised and formalised, and similar in many ways to Weber's bureaucratic structure. This is one of the most frequent ways of structuring, particularly when the early entrepreneurial phase of organisational growth has given way to a more settled stage of sustained growth or ongoing operation. It represents the departmentalisation of work by function. Functions typically include:

- Finance
- Production (whether goods or services)
- Marketing/sales
- Distribution
- Personnel/human resource management
- Buying and selling
- Customer care

Examples include manufacturing, distribution and retail organisations; hospitals (which would typically include medical services, housekeeping and ancillary services functions); businesses with technical specialisms, and public sector organisations (e.g. a government, where its main functions are represented by ministries such as health, agriculture, industry, etc.). Organisations with a functional structure can be small, medium or large-sized.

Advantages of Functional structure	*Disadvantages of Functional structure*
• Logically mirrors functions of business • Each function guarded by senior manager. • Tight control possible from the top. • Development of specialist skills/careers. • Enhances technical development.	• As organisation grows, communication & coordination across functions can be slow (silo mentality). • Less responsive to change. • Narrow thinking, limits innovation. • Limits development of general managers.

One of the ways a functional structure can become less rigid is if, for example, the top person and his/her direct reports work as a senior management team rather than working in purely hierarchical way. Line power is by-and-large preserved but some decisions are made jointly.

4. **Divisional structure** – this structure is used by diversified organisations. There are a number of divisions which are coordinated and controlled from the head office. Head office determines strategy, allocates resources, monitors performance and appoints and rewards divisional managers. Such divisional managers have complete control over the operations of their divisions, giving the structure an aspect of decentralisation. The divisions can be on the basis of either product, geography (location) or customers. The structure tends to increase accountability and focus, but can be expensive because of duplication of functions. Some organisations attempt to overcome this by a 'shared service' concept, where certain services are put back in the centre and shared. It is a common development as an organisation grows and begins to diversify into a number of product or service areas.

   However, in such divisional structures, there still is a place for functions. They can exist as smaller, centralised units in head office, and/or within product divisions, as in the building company example above.

Advantages of Divisional structure	*Disadvantages of Divisional structure*
• Maximises employees' skills & specialist knowledge in product/geographical areas. • More opportunity for innovation. • Can make product/geographical divisions into cost/profit centres with own budgets • Can concentrate on specific customers. • Good for training general managers. • Coordinate activities within a region. • Reduce transportation costs in region.	• Overlap of functions – some duplication. • Overall administrative costs tend to be higher than in pure functional structures. • Harder for top management to control what happens at divisional level. • Coordinating policy & practice across product areas/regions can be complex. • The more geographically differentiated, the more admin. & management needed. • Difficult in some regions to get the skills.

5. **Matrix structure** – this is essentially the result of a divisional structure being superimposed on a functional structure. Here there are functional managers, and employees report to one functional manager and to one or more project managers. Employees are moved to different projects whenever necessary. The structure is efficient as there is no duplication of resources. There is low formalisation and increased decentralisation, which facilitates innovation, flexibility and responsiveness to change. However, the structure promotes politics for power plays due to the lack of rigid rules and hierarchal controls. It can also be problematic for employees reporting to more than one manager, since matrix structures have two chains of command, one vertical and one horizontal, which are in operation at the same time.

   Organisations resort to a matrix structure when they become too large and complex to be managed effectively by either functional or divisional structures. It can be an attempt to overcome a crisis of red tape through interpersonal collaboration as staff in decentralised units resist control systems imposed by centralised managers. Matrix structures can exist temporarily, e.g. when project manager positions are created to take charge of specific projects of a finite duration that involve coordination across functions. Or they can be permanent, e.g. an interdepartmental team. In what is termed a “mature matrix” vertically and horizontally operating mangers have equal power.

From the foregoing, it is obvious that for a matrix structure to work high levels of teamworking are required, and managers need well developed behaviour and people management skills. Organisational cultures that favour hierarchical structures with strong vertical chains of command may find a matrix structure difficult to operate.

Matrix structures are good for when the tasks to be undertaken are complex, unpredictable and highly interdependent.

Advantages of Matrix structure	*Disadvantages of Matrix structure*
• Decisions decentralised therefore fast. • Flexibility to form and re-form teams. • Efficient use of support systems. • Staff work with people from other functions, & retain own functional links.	• Complex & can be expensive by adding a layer of project managers. • Can be confusion over who is responsible for staff/project outcomes. • Potential for conflict between functional & project managers. • Staff may juggle time between different projects/pulled by competing demands

6. **Network structure –** this represents a move further away from functions and towards projects, and yields various types of network structures (described by Morgan, 1989) such as:

   - *Project organisation* – which carries out most of its activities through projects; teams of professionals that are given free reign (within the strategic direction of the organisation), supported by functional departments. The teams are dynamic and disband once the project is complete. The organisation is flat (few layers) with low formalisation and standardisation. However, horizontal differentiation is high as each professional has his/her specialism.

   - *Networks* – operate in sub-contracting mode either buying work from other parts of the network internally or by outsourcing work. The small number of staff in the core of the network set strategic direction, sustain the network, and act as brokers with other parts of an internal or external network. Whether an internal or external network, each part “sells” its services, the idea being that entrepreneurial and market benefits are captured in a way they would not be in a functional or divisional structure.

	Tall versus flat structures – tall structures have more layers and smaller *spans of control* (i.e. the number of employees that report to a supervisor of manager) than flat structures for the same number of employees. Tall structures have many levels in the hierarchy. Such structures give tighter control (because of small spans of control) and, because of the many levels, opportunities to progress upwards. However, disadvantages are that there is a lot of checking upwards for approval, and the smooth flow of information upwards and downwards can be hindered. The vision and strategies of top management may become unclear to those down the hierarchy Flat structures have few levels and can result in development and motivation of staff since with wide spans of control there is a lot of room for delegation and empowerment. Communication is also improved because messages do not have to travel through as many levels, and delegation allows speedy responses. However, there are the disadvantages of lower control, and managers can struggle handling many people reporting to them, particularly if the information coming to him/her is technical. As such, neither tall nor flat structures are perfect – it depends on various trade-offs in terms of control and coordination, and speed of responsiveness and communications. Again, what the organisation is trying to achieve and the other factors considered above would guide such trade-offs. In terms of deciding how tall or flat a structure should be there are some general guidelines: • The more similar the jobs at a level (standardisation), the more employees a manager can control (span of control). • The more decentralised decision making is, the broader the possible span of control. • Greater span of control often means more delegation & empowerment of those in next layer, particularly if jobs are varied • Fewer levels mean easier communication up & down the hierarchy but less control of individual employees. Whilst in competitive environments organisations may go about flattening their structures for easier communication and faster decision making, there are a number of factors to consider: • The abilities of staff – will they be able and willing to take on more responsibility? Will they be rewarded for doing so? • The abilities of managers – are they able to delegate and still manage performance? Do they have the

	coaching skills to support staff who take on added responsibilities? • Organisational culture – does existing culture support or run counter to a flatter structure? Cultures that place high value on hierarchies, management status and line control may not sit easily with restructuring that reduces the number of management positions and requires behaviours such as delegation and empowerment. **References:** Morgan, G. (1989). *Creative organization theory: A resource book.* London: Sage. Senior, B. (2002). *Organisational change*. Second Edition. Harlow: Pearson Education. Weber, M. (1922). *The theory of social and economic organization*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Topic 5.8: Developing Teams

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
DEVELOPING TEAMS	By the end of this course unit, the participating manager should be able to: a) Explain what a team is and what it achieves b) Discuss the various roles people play in teams c) Explain how teams develop and the leaders role at each stage d) Describe the essential ingredients of a successful team	i. Purpose and definition of teams – Why teams? – What is a team? ii. Roles people play in teams – Belbin team roles – A balance of roles iii. Group dynamics – Movers – Followers – Opposers – Bystanders iv. How teams develop – Forming – Storming – Norming – Performing v. Ingredients of successful teams	– Lectures – Discussions – Exercises – Brainstorms – Case studies – Expert guest speakers – Image drawing	– Trainers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids	1 day (2)*	Knowledge and concept test

(2)* This course can be extended to 2 days to give more time for skills practice.

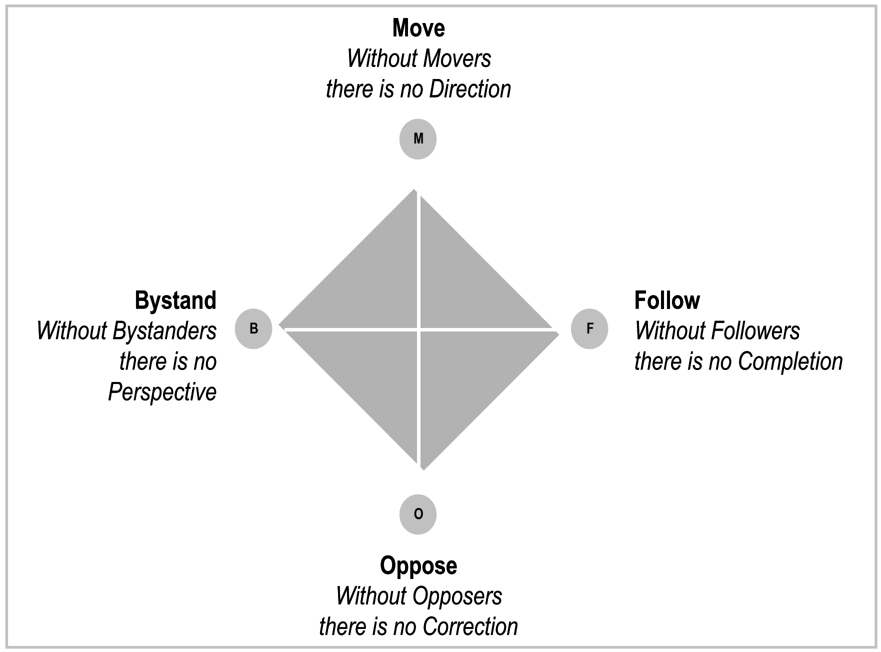
Topic 5.8 Expanded: Developing Teams

i. Purpose and definition of teams	Why teams? Because for tasks requiring complementary skills or multiple inputs, teams are able to deliver better results than individuals working alone. And in today's business climate of rapid change, teams have a bigger role to play because they can be more flexible than larger organisational groupings, and because they help people change the way they do things. From studying a large number of teams Katzenbach and Smith (1993: 16) observed that "the same team dynamics that promote performance also support learning and behavioural change, and do so more effectively than larger organisational units or individuals left to their own devices". What is a team? A team is characterised by a common purpose and the interdependence of its members through the range of skills they provide. As Belbin describes; "The essence of a team is of players who have a reciprocal part to play and are dynamically engaged with one another" (1993: 87). The definition of Katzenbach and Smith (1993: 45) is particularly helpful: *"A team is a small number of people with complementary skills who are committed to a common purpose, performance goals, and approach for which they hold themselves mutually accountable."* A team *is* a group of individuals using their skills, but it is more than this. It includes having a common purpose, and goals to achieve that purpose. It is also about adopting a common approach so that team members are pulling in the same direction in a common way. It involves mutual accountability, which comes from people being committed to what the team is trying to achieve, and to working with each other to achieve it. By a small group, Katzenbach and Smith mean usually less than 20 or 25 people. Large groups find it hard to meet together, and can experience crowd or herd behaviour rather than the "intense sharing of viewpoints needed to build a team" (1993: 46). To the above definition we might add that a team is also a number of people who are psychologically aware of each other, interact together, perceive themselves as a distinct entity, and (to some extent) have common values. They are often formal, either part of an organisation's structure (permanent), or set up as a task force or project team for a specific objective (temporary). Or they can be informal, arising spontaneously and voluntarily. We have looked at the roles people play in teams using Belbin. Another way of viewing a team is via the *behaviours* adopted. Behaviour in teams can be divided into three types: *Task-oriented – they help the team achieve its task:* Giving and receiving information, expressing opinions, initiating, clarifying and elaborating, keeping the discussion focussed, pushing for and making decisions, evaluating, summarising, and problem solving. *Maintenance or process orientated – they help the team work as a team (the internal dynamics of team behaviour):* negotiating, supporting, soothing, addressing conflict, and recognising contributions.

	Self-oriented behaviours – often don't help the team, but they are often present: domination, aggression and blocking, demanding recognition, forming alliances, special interest pleading, and withdrawal. The skills associated with task and maintenance behaviours (in particular decision-making, problem solving, and interpersonal skills) are captured below under essential ingredients of successful teams.
ii. Roles people play in teams	Ever wondered why some teams perform better than others? Meredith Belbin found that when people work together in teams individuals take on particular roles, and that the balance of those roles has a crucial impact on the outcome. So putting together a group of able people does not automatically lead to success, the composition of the group plays a key part. Whilst there is a large range of behaviours people engage in, Belbin (1981, 2003) found that there is a finite number of ways of behaving that make an effective contribution to team performance, which he clustered together as "team roles". The Belbin team roles are listed and described below (descriptions in italics are Belbin's own). The ninth that of Specialist was a later addition in recognition that in much project or teamwork a given form of professional expertise is required. *1. Plant*: *Creative, imaginative, unorthodox. Solves difficult problems.* This is the *ideas* person of the team, the name originally coming from the action of "planting" such a person in an underperforming team as the best way to change it. Others have ideas too but a Plant is original and radical-minded. Imaginative and intelligent, s/he is the person who starts looking for new ideas when the team is stuck, and brings new insights to ongoing actions. Thrusting and uninhibited, but can be critical of others' ideas, which are followed by his/her counter-proposals. Can seem 'up in the clouds', and is inclined to disregard practical details or protocols. The vital spark of the team. *2. Resource investigator: Extrovert, enthusiastic, communicative. Explores opportunities and develops contacts.* Relaxed, social and gregarious, often the most likeable member of the team. Responds positively and enthusiastically but is prone to putting things down as quickly as they are taken up. S/he uses a range of contacts, often outside the group to bring information and ideas back in. The 'fixer' of the team, and also the networker, salesperson, diplomat and liaison officer. Stimulates ideas and innovation (but without the originality of the Plant) and is quick to see the relevance of new ideas. Can lose interest once the initial fascination has passed. S/he prevents the team from losing touch with reality. *3. Co-ordinator: Mature, confident, a good chairperson. Clarifies goals, promotes decision-making, delegates well.* The Co-ordintator fulfils a leadership role, even if the person is not the formal leader of the team. S/he co-

	ordinates the team's efforts to achieve its goals and targets, focusing people on what they do best and recognizing strengths and weaknesses. Not an outstanding creative thinker or the most intelligent of the team, but carries authority through a disciplined approach based on self-discipline. S/he is dominant but not domineering, with a trusting approach. A good communicator; s/he listens, sums up the group feeling, articulates team verdicts, and is not afraid to take firm decisions. *4. Shaper: Challenging, dynamic, thrives on pressure. Has the drive and courage to overcome obstacles.* A task leadership role, often the formal leader of the team where there is no Co-ordinator, or where the Co-ordinator is not the formal leader. Full of nervous energy, the Shaper is outgoing and emotional, impulsive and impatient. Quick to challenge and welcomes others' challenges. Has rows but does not bear grudges, prone to paranoia and quick to sense a slight. This role gives shape to the team's efforts, often through personal input. S/he wants to unite ideas, objectives and practical considerations into a feasible project and push urgently towards decisions and actions. Self-confident (which often belies self-doubt), compulsive, competitive, intolerant of woolliness, can be seen as arrogant and abrasive. Can steamroll others but possesses the drive to makes things happen. *5. Monitor evaluator: Sober, strategic and discerning. Sees all options. Judges accurately.* The Monitor evaluator is serious and can come across as cold. S/he contributes through measured and dispassionate analysis rather than creative ideas, and so prevents the team committing itself to a wrong course of action. Enthusiasm and euphoria are not part of his/her make up, which on the positive side means judgement is not clouded by ego-involvement. Slow to make up mind but the most objective person in the team. Able to assimilate and evaluate large amounts of complex data. Can be disparaging of others' judgements and damper the team's morale. Wants to be fair-minded and open to change, but can turn depressingly negative. Solid and dependable, and his/her judgement is hardly ever wrong. *6. Teamworker: Co-operative, mild, perceptive and diplomatic. Listens, builds, averts friction, calms the waters.* The most sensitive person on the team, the Teamworker is aware of what people are feeling. Likeable, unassertive, s/he is the most active internal communicator and the cement of the team. Loyal to the team and builds on others' ideas rather than demolishing them. Listens and communicates well, promotes harmony and helps prevent division. Acts as a counterbalance to the discord sometimes caused by the Shaper and the Plant, and occasionally the Monitor-evaluator. Does not like confrontation so works to avoid it and damp it in others. This can mean he/her is indecisive and easily influenced. An exemplary team member whose understanding, loyalty and support are especially important when the team is under pressure. *7. Implementer: Disciplined, reliable, conservative and efficient. Turns ideas into practical actions.*

	The Implementer wants to turn the team's plans into feasible actions, and sorts out and pursues objectives logically. Like the Co-ordinator, the Implementer is noted for strength of character (sincere, integrity, trusts others) and has a disciplined and common sense approach. Not easily discouraged but a sudden change of plan can be upsetting since s/he needs and attempts to build stable structures. Efficient, methodical, systematic but can be inflexible. Can be over-competitive for team status, but is the person who knows what has been decided and what people are supposed to be doing. 8. *Completer: Painstaking, conscientious, anxious. Searches out errors and omissions. Delivers on time.* The Completer takes care of the detail and makes sure deadlines are met. S/he is driven by worries about what might go wrong. Not an assertive member of the team, but maintains a sense of urgency which s/he communicates to get others to act. Self-controlled, can be impatient and intolerant towards more casual team members. Major preoccupation is order – wants to meet deadlines and fulfil schedules. Can worry too much about small things and be reluctant to 'let go'. Relentless follow-through means that the team gets its tasks finished. 9. *Specialist: Single-minded, self-starting, dedicated. Provides knowledge and skills in scarce supply.* The provision of particular professional expertise. The Specialist contributes on a narrow front only. S/he can dwell on technicalities and overlook the big picture, but contribution is crucial for depth and skill in a particular area needed by the team to meet its goals. Each role also has weaknesses associated with it. These are described by Belbin as *allowable* since to correct them might undermine the real strength of the role. However, they can veer towards unacceptability (*not allowable)*, for example if a Monitor evaluator goes from being sceptical to becoming cynical. So, a thin line can separate some allowable weaknesses from unacceptable behaviour! The key message of Belbin on teams is *balance.* In most teams, the members are chosen according to their functional and/or technical skills. This is as it should be since without these 'hard' skills, the team will not have the expertise to achieve its purpose. However, as the Belbin model makes clear, without a number of other 'softer' roles being played, the team will struggle to succeed. A well-balanced team has people who can cover these roles. This does not mean that the team needs to be at least nine strong, since individuals may have a preference for/be able to fulfil more than one of these roles. What happens if there is no-one with a preference for Shaper, or Plant, or Teamworker? In a good team, people will notice that there is a gap and attempt to cover it by shifting roles. And if their preferred role is covered, they will concentrate on something else rather than compete.
iii. Group dynamics	Another way to look at the roles people play in teams is the *group dynamics* that occur. The *Kantor Four-Player System* is a helpful way of understanding interactions in a group or team setting. Based on observation and data by David Kantor (a family system's therapist), it defines a language for the structure of interactions. When people

	work in groups it is observed that the following roles and associated activities are represented: • Mover – someone has an idea or takes a direction. • Follower – someone follows or develops the idea. • Opposer – someone commented, asked a question or suggested a new idea. • Bystander – someone pointed out the group's state or requested a refocus. The four roles make up Kantor's Four-Player System. The most productive groups are where all four roles are played – ideas are generated and there is direction, but there is also challenge so that ideas are tested and improved or changed, and there is reflection and perspective, so that ideas are chosen carefully and developed through to completion.  When people play these roles (and we all have our preferred role or roles, to which we default), they intend one thing (something positive), but it can sometimes come across as something else (negative).

	(see role table below)

Role	*Action intends*	*But sometimes comes across as*
Mover	Direction, discipline, clarity, commitment, perfection	Omnipotent, impatient, scattered, dictatorial, pushy
Follower	Completion, compassion, loyalty, service, continuity	Placating, indecisive, pliant, wishy-washy, over-accommodating
Opposer	Correction, courage, protection, integrity, survival	Critical, competitive, blaming, attacking, contrary, awkward
Bystander	Perspective, patience, moderation, preservation, self-reflection	Disengaged, judgemental, deserting, withdrawn, silent, lazy

When some of the roles are not played, or not respected, groups get stuck, e.g. when:

- Individuals get locked into a single role.
- Opposers get punished by the group, or dominate.
- There is no direction if there are no strong Movers, or no one follows a move.
- There is no enquiry as to what's going wrong without a Bystander.
- People get stuck in repetitive or ritualized patterns (people gravitate to default roles).
- The team is unable to reach closure or complete anything (no Followers).

Groups dominated by people playing one or two of the roles have problems, e.g.:

- Several Movers – lots of ideas, pulling in different directions, no completion.
- A Mover and lots of Opposers – arguments!
- A Mover and lots of Followers – courteous compliance but no testing of the ideas.

If you find yourself in a 'stuck' team, it is worth asking 'what's missing?' or 'are too many people playing the same role?' Part of the answer is to provide what is missing or ask someone else to by playing a different role. As facilitator, if the group gets stuck, look at the group dynamics. You may need to encourage people to play a role that is not being played, or play their preferred role more strongly, or less strongly.

iv. How teams develop

As a team works together it goes through a number of stages of development, described by Tuckman (1965) as *Forming, Storming, Norming,* and *Performing.* The duration and intensity of these stages vary from one team to the next. It may take months for one team to reach the performing stage, while another team is "performing" within a few weeks. Knowing that it is normal for a team to go through these stages will helps team leaders and members understand and anticipate the process, and take actions to build more productive working relationships on the way. Also, as a team makes this journey, the leadership required changes from more directive to more delegating in style.

The stages are described below (italic descriptions from Tuckman):

	1. *Forming: orientation, testing and dependence* **–** the forming stage is about polite introductions and getting acquainted, testing boundaries and dealing with personal uncertainties. The team needs information and direction from the leader, including purpose and goals, roles and team norms and processes. Early meetings are important for breaking the ice and helping people become comfortable together. 2. *Storming: resistance to group influence and task requirements* – the newness of the group has worn off and resistance and power struggles surface resulting in conflict and polarisation. The team needs guidance and, at times a firm hand to resolve conflict and re-focus the team on its goals. The leader has to listen, allow people to voice their concerns, anticipate issues and challenges, and be proactive in dealing with problems as they arise. 3. *Norming: openness to other group members* **–** there is acceptance of team rules, roles on the team, and the other members. There is a sense of 'pulling together' and collaboration has replaced competition. There is good progress on the team's tasks. Instead of direction, the team needs space and facilitation. The leader can allow the team to operate through consensus, providing feedback, participating him/herself, and making sure newcomers are brought up to speed quickly (so as not to recreate earlier tensions). 4. *Performing: constructive action* – in the performing stage, the group has developed into a cohesive team, and it is this interpersonal structure that becomes the tool of constructive action. Roles have become flexible and functional, and group energy is channelled into the task. There is team spirit, loyalty and pride, and the team can resolve its differences constructively. The leader's role is to encourage, enable, delegate, incentivise and support the team to 'do its thing'.
v. Ingredients of successful teams	There are a number of ingredients that characterize successful teams. These include the *basics* described by Katzenbach and Smith (1993), e.g. purpose, complementary skills, common approach, mutual accountability, etc. There is also the balance of roles outlined by Belbin. And the need for good leadership of tasks and people, and the capacity to handle conflict and poor performance. Below is a *checklist* of ten key ingredients: 1. *Purpose* – does the team have a meaningful purpose? Is it clear? Is it owned? If not, the leader will need to define one or the team has no reason to exist. 2. *Performance challenge* – does the team have a demanding performance challenge? If not, the team will not gel nor be motivated to work together. 3. *Goals and milestones* – are there goals to achieve the purpose? If not, the leader needs to define them with milestones, timeframes and measures.

4. *Leadership* – is there good leadership of tasks *and* people? And is performance and conflict managed effectively? The formal leader does not need to take the lead on everything and should encourage good initiatives from wherever they come.

5. *Technical/functional skills* – does the team have the necessary technical and/or functional skills to achieve its goals? If you are involved in the selection, think about the skills/knowledge required. If the selection is not yours, contact people beforehand to discuss the contribution they can make.

6. *'Soft' skills* – does the team have the *interpersonal skills* necessary for communication and for managing relationships, performance and conflict? Such interpersonal skills include listening, giving feedback, being open and sharing ideas, collaborating, being objective, giving others the benefit of the doubt, supporting and recognising the abilities and achievements of others. And the *problem solving* and *decision-making* skills so that the team can tackle problems, evaluate options, make decisions and act?

7. *A balance of roles* – are the various *roles* necessary for success present and balanced (e.g. for ideas generation, drive, implementation, completion, etc., as outlined by Belbin)? If not, how can gaps be covered and balance achieved? And is the team the right size; big enough to function, but not too big to be unwieldy or disconnected?

8. *Common approach* – has the team developed a common approach, a *modus operandi* that works for them, with accepted norms and effective processes?

9. *Accountability* – is there mutual accountability so that everyone owns the team's goals?

10. *Commitment and fun* – high performing teams are characterized by all of the above, and by the intense commitment people have towards the team, its purpose and goals, and their fellow team members. Successful teams also enjoy good team spirit and have fun.

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Topic 5.9: Engaging and Aligning Staff

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
ENGAGING AND ALIGNING STAFF	By the end of this course unit, the participating manager should be able to: a) Explain what is meant by engaging and aligning staff b) Discuss the importance of engagement and alignment as leadership activities c) Implement strategies that engage and align staff	i. Meaning of engaging and aligning staff – Interested and committed to the job – Aligned with the work of others and the organisation ii. Importance of engaging and aligning staff – Enhanced motivation and performance – Achieve orgs. goals – Reduce conflict iii. Strategies for engaging and aligning staff – Communication – Proper deployment – Target setting – Inclusion of new staff – Motivation – Team building – Staff development – Staff participation	– Lectures – Discussions – Exercises – Brainstorms – Case studies	– Trainers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids	1 day	Knowledge and concept test

Topic 5.9 Expanded: Engaging and Aligning Staff

i. Meaning of engaging and aligning staff	To engage may be defined as employing or using the services of a person. It may also further be defined as attracting and keeping the interest of someone. In the context of leadership therefore it may be elaborated to mean the use of someone's services (employment) in a given field or activity, but in such a way that the interest and attention of that person in that field is joyfully sustained out of that person's free will. The person so employed fits in the position and enjoys and loves working in that position, and so is committed to ensuring the work is done well. When the staff taken collectively are so engaged they therefore work together in synergistic harmony each complementing the other. To align can be defined as giving support publicly to a group. It can also be defined as the process of organising activities or systems so that they match or fit together well. As such aligning compliments engaging; engaged staff enjoy and are committed to what they do; when aligned, their activities are so organised that they fit well together, supporting each other, and they are working in a way that is aligned to the organisation's goals.
ii. Importance of engaging and aligning staff	Proper engagement and alignment of staff is of great importance to the achievement of the organisation's objectives. As engaged workers, they are contented with the work that they are doing and as such are likely to be highly motivated with high morale. Motivated workers are generally more productive workers, which leads to increased productivity of the organisation as a whole. Hence leaders who find ways of engaging their staff get better results that just telling staff what to do which generally results in compliance but not necessarily commitment. The added benefit that comes with commitment is that employees will "go the extra mile" when necessary, i.e. they will expend discretionary effort on behalf of the organisation when called upon, and are more likely to be loyal to the organisation, their managers and colleagues. This is not to say that 'telling' is outdated and should always be replaced by 'engaging'. There are still times when managers need to tell staff to do things (e.g. if the building is burning down, you tell people to get out, engaging could take too long!). Rather, it is that managers should be able to vary their style depending on the situation and on the staff concerned. Aligning staff with particular activities or goals because focusing effort in one direction helps to achieve the team's/department's/organisation's goals. High performing organisations ensure that there is alignment between vision, strategy, department goals, unit goals, and individual targets and objectives. Such alignment means that the activities of individuals in the organisation, their teams and departments all contribute to implementing the organisation's strategy and achieving its overall vision. Additionally, when employees are working together in concert and co-operation the level of interpersonal conflict is reduced drastically. This is because there are no disputes to spark into conflicts. There is therefore industrial harmony in the organisation, which creates a conducive environment for the provision of goods and services.

iii. Strategies for engaging and aligning staff	The manager should play a leadership role in ensuring that engagement and alignment of staff is effective. He or she can achieve this through: a. Communication – proper, timely and adequate communication to employees on all issues relation to their work is crucial. Issues that should be communicated include the objectives of the work or task, exceptional performance levels, resources available and resource constraints. Such communication should be two-way with the manager inviting comments, ideas and feedback and being willing to listen. b. Proper deployment – staff should be properly deployed with respect to their skills, competencies and merit. It is also important to consider personal dispositions in terms of personality (see section on personal styles). This is in order to ensure that an individual employee is as comfortable as possible in his or her own deployment. c. Target Setting – targets set for individuals should not be arbitrary but should be based on objective criteria. The individual employee should ideally be involved in the setting of targets, so that he or she agrees with them and owns them. However, in doing so, it is also important that managers set goals that push employees to perform better. d. Inclusion and accommodation of new staff – the manager should strive to make the most of new staff by first making them feel very welcome and comfortable in the new environment. e. Motivation – it is important that even as employees are appropriately placed, they should be constantly given motivation to do their work better. This need not be only material based. Such things like regular feedback, appreciation for work well done and exposure to short course training and skills upgrading programmes, retreats should be part of normal management practice. f. Team building – measures should be taken to ensure that the employees in a given department or unit work as an effective team. The manager should therefore develop strategies for team-building including identifying team objectives and utilizing complementary skills to achieve them. It is necessary to address interpersonal conflict in the team and confront trouble-makers at the earliest opportunity in order to pre-exempt their negative impact on the team and individual work performance. Staff should be encouraged to talk about work-related challenges and problems and utilize the team's various skills to solve them. g. Staff development – strategies should be designed for appropriate staff development. It is important to delegate whole tasks to improve efficiency and motivation. And to give staff every opportunity to use newly enquired skills once training is finished. Utilizing as many of each team member's skills as possible increases engagement. Seeking early chances to promote able younger members of staff develops staff as well as being highly motivational. h. Staff participation – some organisations actively encourage engagement through more formal staff

	participation processes or opportunities. For example: • A staff suggestion scheme whereby workers are invited to share their ideas for improvements. • Staff consultation committees where staff can voice their views on various issues, • Union representation where staff are represented by a union in their workplace. In most countries the right (or not) to belong to a union is covered by legislation.

Topic 5.10: HR Planning and Resourcing

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
HR PLANNING AND RESOURCING	By the end of this course unit, the participating manager should be able to: a) Give an overview of HR planning and resourcing b) Explain techniques for HR planning c) Discuss recruitment of internal and external candidates d) Discuss selection techniques e) Explain downsizing	i. HR planning and resourcing overview ii. HR Planning – Demand – Methods for establishing demand – Supply iii. Recruitment – Internal recruitment – External recruitment – Recruitment in Southern Sudan iv. Selection – Selection process – Selection in Southern Sudan v. Downsizing – When demand reduces – Ways of managing downsizing	– Lectures – Discussions – Exercises – Brainstorms – Case studies – Expert guest speakers	– Trainers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids	1 day	Knowledge and concept test

Topic 5.10 Expanded: HR Planning and Resourcing

i. HR planning and resourcing overview	An organisation's future depends on planning for and attracting more qualified recruits – but how should it go about doing it? Personnel (or resource) planning is the first step in the resourcing process since this defines the need. It is followed by recruitment (identifying a pool of candidates) and selection (deciding which candidate(s) to offer a job to). The manager can conveniently view this process in the following ways: 1. Decide what positions need filling by engaging in personnel planning and forecasting. 2. Build a pool of candidates for these jobs by tapping internal and/or external candidates. 3. Have applicants complete application forms, and perhaps undergo an initial screening process. 4. Use selection techniques like tests, background investigations and physical exams to identify viable candidates. 5. Finally, decide who to make an offer to by having the manager and perhaps others on the team interview the final candidates. However, sometimes plans for steady state or growth do not work out and an organisation's activities are less. If this is the case, the organisation will have to reduce its resources – 'downsize' – so it has the appropriate numbers. This can be a difficult process and needs to be managed professionally and sensitively so that those who leave are treated well and those who stay remain committed to the organisation's future.
ii. HR planning	**Demand.** The expected demand for your product or service (i.e. projected business activity) is paramount when forecasting personnel needs. The usual process is therefore to forecast revenues first, then estimate the size of the staff required to achieve this volume. In addition to expected demand, staffing plans may reflect: • Quality and skills of the employees (in reflection to what is viewed as the changing needs of the organisation). • Strategic decisions to upgrade the quality of products or services or enter new markets. • Technological and other changes resulting in increased productivity or the need for different skills. • The financial resources available to the department or ministry. All of this helps build up a picture of the demand side of the HR resourcing equation. **Methods of establishing demand.** Following are several methods to predict employment needs on an organisational or departmental basis: 1. Trend Analysis – this refers to studying variations in your organisation's employment levels over the last few years to predict future needs. Thus using trend analysis a manager might compute the number of

employees in his/her firm at the end of each of the last few years. Trend analysis can provide an initial estimate, but employment levels rarely depend simply on the passage of time. Other factors such as changes in sales volume and productivity also affect staffing needs.

2. Ratio Analysis – this means making forecasts based on the ratio between some causal factor (like sales volume) and the number of employees required (e.g. number of sales people). Like trend analysis, ratio analysis assumes that productivity remains about the same – for instance, that each sales person cannot be motivated to produce much more than in sales. If sales productivity were to increase or decrease, the ratio of sales to sales people would change. A forecast based on historical ratios would then no longer be accurate.

3. The Scatter Plot – this shows graphically how two variables, such as a measure of business activity and firm's staffing levels are related. If they are, then if you can forecast the level of business activity, you should also be able to estimate you personnel requirements.

For example, assume a 500 bed hospital expects to expand to 1,200 beds over the next 5 years. The Director of Human Resources wants to forecast the requirements for registered nurses. The HR Director decides to determine the relationships between the size of the hospital and number of registered nurses required. She calls five hospitals of various sizes and is able to relate size of hospital to the number of nurses required at 50 nurses per 100 beds. Thus, for a 1,200 bed hospital the human resource director would assume she needs about 600 nurses.

Of course, trends may be downwards, e.g. in a commercial business changes in demand for its products or increased competition, the need to reduce costs, new technology can all mean a reduction in the workforce. This can be managed if predicted through 'natural wastage', i.e. by not replacing the normal turnover through resignations, retirements and other ways people leave. However, sometimes this is not enough and retrenchment methods have to be used, such as voluntary redundancy, earlier retirement, enforced redundancy. Such processes have to be managed carefully and sensitively, both to keep within the law, and to recognise the needs and feelings of those who are no longer required by the organisation.

Supply. In meeting resourcing needs, the *supply* side of the equation needs to be considered.

Supply is met by recruitment and selection. Supply can be sourced internally from within the organisation (through development, promotions and transfers) as well as from outside through external recruitment. The availability of internal resources is based on factors such as turnover (proportion of staff leaving the organisation through resignation) which can vary according to opportunities in other organisations/sectors, and retirements (which are easier to predict if based on particular ages). The external supply will vary because of factors such as education trends, government action, and the wax and wane of other employers/competitors.

Since people leave and retire, these supply processes are usually always necessary to replenish an

	organisation (if its activities – the demand side – remain steady), let alone grow it. So factors to consider in estimating the availability (supply) of internal resources include: • Staff turnover. • Retirements. • Other reasons for leaving (transfers out, death, etc.). • Promotions and development moves. • Transfers in from other department units. The availability of external resources is influenced by: • Education trends (the numbers of people entering the job market and their levels of qualifications). • Employment trends (other activities in the job market, competitors). • Government action and legislation. HR planning is difficult to get right because there are many factors that affect it in terms of both demand (by the organisation, which depends on its activities) and supply (available resources). However, planning which is a good estimate of future needs is better than no planning at all. Examples of more sophisticated methods of resource planning can be found in John Bramham's book; *Practical manpower planning* (1988).
iii. Recruitment	Recruitment is about identifying the pool of suitable candidates to fill vacancies. Candidates may be internally or externally sourced. **Internal recruitment.** Recruiting may bring to mind employment agencies and classified adverts, but current employees are often the best source of candidates. Filling open positions with candidates from inside organisations has many benefits. Firstly, there is really no substitute for knowing a candidate's strengths/weaknesses. It is often therefore safer to promote employees from within, since you are likely to have a more accurate view of the person's skills than you would of an outsider's. Inside, candidates may also be more committed to the organisation or more dependent on it. Morale may rise, to the extent that employees see promotions as rewards for loyalty and competence. Internal candidates may also require less orientation and training than outsiders. Resourcing internally can happen in a number of ways, for examples: • Promotion – recognising increased skills and expertise, staff are promoted to fill a vacancy at a higher

	level of responsibility. • Development move – staff can be developed by moving into a new role. • Transfers in from another department or unit. **External recruitment.** However, hiring from within organisations can also backfire. Employees who apply for jobs and don't get them may become discontented, telling unsuccessful applicants why they were rejected, therefore helping them with what remedial actions they might take to be more successful in the future is crucial. Groups are sometimes not as satisfied when the new boss is appointed from within their own ranks or grades as when he/she is a new comer. It may be difficult for the insider to shake off the reputation of being "one of the gang". Organisations can't always get all the employees they need from their current staff, and sometimes they just don't want to. If the organisation wants to attract more skills than what they have on the ground, then outside candidates need to be sought. External recruitment involves clearly defining the job (a job description) and sometimes also the type of person the organisation is looking for (personnel specification), and then creating a job advert to attract suitable candidates. This part of the process is sometimes sub-contracted to specialist external recruitment agencies that will help create the advert, run the advertising, and even short-list candidates against the job description/personal specification. **In Southern Sudan,** the Policy Framework (2007) states that recruitment is to be, as a general principle, merit-based, but also needs to be mindful of: • Representativeness of various population groups. • Gender considerations. • Equity and affirmative action criteria of the core values of the public service. In addition, the Manual of Public Service Procedures (2007) mentions four groups that require special attention: • Former civilian CANS employees and demobilized SPLA soldiers. • Former Southern Sudanese GOS employees. • Regular new employees. • Specialized temporary employees. The treatment of each of these groups is detailed in the Procedures Manual (2007).
iv. Selection	With a pool of applicants, the next step is to select the best and most qualified candidates for the job. This usually means whittling down the applicant pool by ruling out people who don't match the job description, and then further short-listing by using the screening tools such as testing, assessment centres, background and reference checks, etc. The short-list of candidates would then be interviewed by the recruiting manager or a

	panel of managers. For internal candidates, since they have already been accepted by the organisation not all of these techniques would apply, but they would still have to meet the requirements of the job description and would normally be interviewed by the recruiting area. Selecting the right employees is important for three reasons: 1. Firstly your own performance depends on your subordinates. Employees with the right skills and attributes will do better job for you and your company. Employees without these skills or who are abrasive or obstructive won't perform effectively and your own performance and the firm's will suffer. The time to screen out the undesirables is before they are in the door, not after. 2. Secondly, it is important because it is costly to recruit and hire employees. Hiring and training even a clerk is expensive in fees and supervisory time. The total cost of hiring a manager could easily be more than ten times as high once you have added search fees, interviewing time, reference checking and travel and moving expenses. 3. Thirdly, it's important because of the legal implications of incompetent hiring. For one thing EEO laws and court decisions require non-discriminatory selection procedures for protected groups. Furthermore, courts will find employers liable when employees with criminal records or other problems take advantage of access to customers' homes (or similar opportunities) to commit crimes. Lawyers refer to hiring workers with such backgrounds without proper safeguards 'negligent hiring'. Negligent hiring underscores the need to think through what the job's human requirements really are. **In Southern Sudan,** selection and appointment into the public service of GOSS (Super Grades and non Super grades), shall be through free and fair competition and merit and in accordance with the approved ***selection criteria***, which are laid out below (Policy Framework, 2007; Procedures Manual, 2007) in descending order of importance (1 highest priority): 1. Years of experience in the post (or its equivalent) to be filled or service in the SPLA. 2. Satisfactory references or other assessments of past performance (e.g. service in the SPLM/SPLA. 3. Education (as appropriate to the post to be filled). • University Degree. • Vocational Training. • Secondary School Certificate. • Primary. • Informal training. 4. Functional literacy in English. 5. Gender balance. 6. Geographic balance.

	7. Computer literacy. ***Selection procedures*** – the post must be vacant in the approved budget of the unit, and the preference is to fill the post internally by promotion. The head of the relevant unit will form a Departmental Board of Promotion to select a suitable candidate from a departmental short list presented by the head of the unit. Members of the Promotion Board must hold posts of higher grade than that being filled. The Board will study personnel reports on each candidate, conduct interviews, and present recommendations to the head of the unit. After approval of the concerned Minister, the request is sent to MLPS&HRD for issuance of an appointment or promotion letter. The Policy Framework (2007) and, in more detail, the Procedures Manual (2007) stipulate the selection and appointment procedures for the various categories of staff: • Under Secretaries by the President of GOSS. • All other Super Grade posts by the Council of Ministers. • Deputy Directors and above by direct appointment. • Administrative, Professional, Sub-Professional and Technical staff by Under Secretaries/ Director Generals of respective Ministries subject to endorsement by the MLPS&HRD. Where the vacancy cannot be filled by internal promotion, a Ministry Appointment Board must be formed to undertake the selection process, chaired by a senior staff member of higher grade than the post being filled. Selection will be confirmed by the concerned Minister, and papers forwarded by the Under Secretary or Head of Department to MLPS&HRD for final approval of the appointment. • All classified staff appointments must be processed through the MLPS&HRD, who will verify whether the selection has been conducted using the approved selection criteria. • Unclassified staff will be engaged by the Director of Administration and Finance in consultation with the Under Secretary/Head of Unit of the Ministry concerned. Unclassified staff employment is subject to budget provision, and unclassified staff that have spent three months continuous service without a break are considered permanent staff. Details of selection procedures at each of these levels are given in the Procedures Manual (2007). For ***new appointees***, the Ministry or Departmental Recruitment Board will interview short-listed candidates derived from an evaluation of responses to advertisements from the Labour Department (or a list related to demobilisation of the SPLA). The Departmental Recruitment Board is usually composed of 3-5 people, at least one of which is a knowledgeable person from outside the recruiting institution. Selection will be confirmed by the concerned Minister, and papers forwarded by the Under Secretary or Head of Department to MLPS&HRD for final approval of the appointment. Newly appointed staff:

	• May be required to undergo a medical check-up • Must undergo the induction course or programme before taking up their post. • Must initially serve on probation for a period of 3 to 12 months depending on level. This period can be extended if necessary. All appointments, promotions and terms of service for employees at all levels above unclassified will not be effective before the issuance of a letter of clearances and appointments by MLPS&HRD. These procedures for newly appointed staff may not necessarily be followed for the recruitment of unclassified casual workers – however no casual worker should be allowed to work for a GOSS unit for more than 3 months on temporary terms of employment. Recruitment and selection is dealt with in more detail in Topic 8.6 of the Master Curriculum: Hiring and Termination.
v. Downsizing	**When demand reduces.** HR resourcing is not always about maintaining or enlarging the workforce – sometimes it is necessary to reduce numbers, usually termed 'downsizing'. In the commercial sector, planning may indicate a future downturn in demand for a company's products. If this cannot be reversed, then correspondingly, HR planning should look to downsize the workforce. Sometimes such a downturn happens fast and there is no time to plan ahead – the company has to react the best way it can. In the public sector, there may also be reasons to reduce the size of the workforce, e.g. if the government changes the balance of service provision or there is a reduction in funding. Basically, resourcing has to follow the goals and activities of the organisation, and its available funding. If these reduce, the resources have to be reduced correspondingly. **Ways of managing downsizing.** When there is time to plan, downsizing can be managed with less trauma since there is always a flow of people leaving an organisation through "natural wastage" – retirements, transfers to other departments or units, those who resign, and other forms of normal turnover. Together with slowing or stopping recruitment, such natural wastage may be sufficient to achieve the necessary reductions. If it is not, organisation can take other steps such as: • Reducing or stopping the use of temporary contract workers. • Reducing working hours or the working week – this can be a way of saving jobs and is useful if an upturn is predicted in the not-too-distant future. • Early retirement – allowing and/or incentivising people near retirement age to retire early – this is welcomed by some people and therefore reduces the pain of downsizing.

- Voluntary redundancy – inviting employees to volunteer for redundancy, usually with a suitable incentive (e.g. redundancy payment) – for employees who wish to do something else or have other job options, this can be attractive.
- Enforced redundancy – this is usually the last resort (since it causes the greatest trauma) but is sometimes necessary if all other methods have not delivered the reductions necessary.

However the reductions in staff numbers are made, they need to be handled sensitively and with due process otherwise the damage to individuals and the organisation can be severe. This is especially true in the case of enforced redundancies, where people who perhaps thought they had a long term career with the organisation are compulsorily forced out. Those who leave can feel bitter. If leavers are seen to be treated badly, those who stay can lose trust in the organisation and wonder if they will be next.

So, organisations need to support those who leave (e.g. help them to find other jobs, training, guidance with CV preparation, etc.), and also make real efforts to rebuild the morale, confidence and trust of those who stay, reassuring them there is a future with the organisation.

Additionally, most countries have employment legislation to cover redundancy situations, including items such as the rights of workers to be consulted and given notice of redundancies, statutory redundancy payments usually paid by the organisation (usually based on years of service), and unemployment benefits (usually paid by the government) if people cannot find new jobs. In addition to giving some protection to workers, they ensure organisations act responsibly as they downsize.

If downsizing involves enforced redundancies, organisations have to select who stays and who leaves. This selection should be undertaken with same fairness and rigour as selection for recruitment. There should be transparent criteria against which employees are judged including items such as skills, experience and performance, and the opportunities for people to be considered for jobs which remain.

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Topic 5.11: Overview of HR Practices

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
OVERVIEW OF HR PRACTICES	By the end of this course unit, the participating manager should be able to: a) Explain the key practices of HRM b) Understand the need for HR policies & procedures c) Explain the importance of HR planning f) Discuss recruitment and selection processes g) Understand how pay, benefits and promotions are decided h) Explain reasons for and ways of developing staff i) Discuss ways of managing performance j) Explain processes for handling discipline and grievance issues	i. Human resource management ii Human resource policies and procedures iii. Human resource planning iv. Recruitment and selection v. Pay, benefits and promotion vi. Training and development vii. Managing performance viii. Discipline, grievance and termination ix. Health and safety x. Industrial relations	– Lectures – Discussions – Exercises – Brainstorms – Case studies – Expert guest speakers	– Trainers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids – Examples of HR policies and processes	1 day	Knowledge and concept test

	k) Explain the importance of safety at work l) Understand the importance of industrial relations					

Topic 5.11 Expanded: Overview of HR Practices

i. Human resource management	Human Resource Management (HRM) is that aspect of an organisations management that deals with employees in the organisation. These aspects include the following: • Formulation of human resource policy and procedures • Human resource planning. • Recruitment and selection. • Pay, benefits and promotion. • Training and development. • Managing performance. • Discipline, grievance and termination. • Health and safety. • Industrial relations. Policy formulation would be in line with employment legislation and Government regulations, and guided by ethical considerations and the "culture" of the organisation. Good HRM is necessary for the very practical reasons of keeping the law (and so not being vulnerable to being taken to court by employees), but is also important for motivational reasons; when employees perceive they are well and fairly treated by an organisation (e.g. kept safe at work, paid fairly, have opportunities to develop, etc.), they are more motivated to work hard, more committed, and more likely to give of their best and, when the situation demands it, contribute additional discretionary effort. All of this helps the organisation achieve its goals. In Southern Sudan, Section 5 of the booklet "A Policy Framework for the Public Service of Southern Sudan (2007) describes some guiding principles for personnel management and procedures in the public service. Section 5.1 states: *"Mindful of the overall goals of equity and affirmative action – promotion, discipline, termination, retirement, training, and all other aspects of personnel management shall be governed by the principle of individual merit and performance in the job. The principle of seniority, however, shall be accorded due respect and consideration, provided that it does not conflict with the principle of merit and performance."* The booklet goes on to state that all standards, criteria and procedures to do with personnel management (recruitment, promotion, discipline, separation, and retirement of government employees) are to be formulated by the MLPS&HRD after wide consultation with other stakeholders. Such procedures should be simple and transparent, focus on the essential priorities, and conform to international good practice and experience in post-conflict situations. They are recommended by the Ministry, approved by the Council of Ministers, and promulgated by the President of Southern Sudan.

ii Human resource policies and procedures	Human resource policies determine how people are to be employed, treated at work, paid, trained, developed and, at whatever point, how they leave the organisation. Procedures detail how these policies are implemented in practice. HR policies and procedures need to comply with a country's employment legislation, as well as enabling the organisation to achieve its objectives through its staff. Such policies also need to ensure the well being of employees such that they are kept safe at work and are motivated and satisfied in their roles – as well as being worthy aims in themselves, these are also good for the organisation in that they help ensure its work gets done and its vision is achieved – they also protect the organisation from unnecessary legal action The Policy Framework (2007) and the Manual of Public Service Procedures describe some of key HR policies and procedures for the Public Service of Southern Sudan.
iii. Human resource planning	Human Resource Planning involves determining what employees are presently in the organisation's employment and what would be needed in the near future. This type of planning is across the board including all the departments and units of the organisation at the various levels of the organisation's hierarchy. Such resource planning would be closely related to the organisation's business planning (since resourcing needs to match business activity) and take into account current numbers, skills and levels of staff, and attrition rates (i.e. predictions of those who will leave e.g. through resignation, retirement or termination). When a good analysis is conducted it can produce a result of either a deficit, adequate resources, or a surplus, i.e. the organisation needs more personnel, the same, or less personnel. The first two of these results necessitates resourcing activity because due to attrition organisation's need to be adding some staff just to stand still. The verdict is that you need the same or more personnel, a further analysis in terms of where in the organisation and their professional qualification and level required in the organisation's hierarchy e.g. an accounts clerk in the payroll unit or a mechanical engineer in the transport unit, etc. This would be followed by resourcing activities (recruitment and selection). If an organisation requires less staff it faces some difficult decisions. If the situation is short-term drastic action can be avoided by options such as asking employees to work shorter hours, or "weathering the storm" (i.e. continuing as usual). But if the situation is longer-term, organisations (certainly commercial organisations) cannot sustain more staff than are necessary to undertake their activities for long periods without incurring financial problems and eventually losses. Options include offering employees who are nearing retirement early retirement, or inviting employees to take "voluntary redundancy" (i.e. leaving with a redundancy payment). It may be the case that the organisation has to enforce redundancy on some employees. Most countries have employment legislation covering such situations including statutory payments that have to be made to redundant employees. Such actions cause much anguish in organisations for managers and employees alike so should only be done as a last resort when all other options have been exhausted and, if they are necessary, undertaken with great sensitivity.
iv. Recruitment and selection	Once current vacancies or future personnel needs have been identified in a unit or department, assuming the required budget for those places exists, the Manager, with the help of the Human Resource unit, can then

	undertake the necessary resourcing to meet the needs. First, there is the recruitment process by which a pool of capable candidates is identified. Candidates can be sought internally and/or externally. This will depend on where the best pool of candidates can be found. Some organisations have a policy of making vacancies known internally first – this is good for employee morale, and if suitable candidates exist they are already used to working in the organisation, plus the organisation already has a good idea of their skills and performance. But an organisation might have to, or prefer to look externally. If this is the case then the usual process is to place an advertisement in the local and international media for an individual with those qualifications or experience needed to meet the job requirements (as described in a job description, and perhaps also a personnel specification). Normally, all types of people will apply, including people who are not well matched to the advertised posts. The Human Resources unit (or perhaps a sub-contracted external recruitment agency) will receive all the applications that have been submitted in the prescribed manner; usually a letter with a completed application form and/or CV (sometimes now done electronically via e-mail or using an online application form). Next comes selection. The applicants will be subjected to a screening process and those that meet the post requirements will be short-listed and called for an interview and those who match the advertisement requirement will be given jobs offers. Screening can include techniques such as tests, reference checks, etc, although sometimes these techniques are used only on those selected for interview, or even only on those to whom job offers are to be made. A job offer would normally be a letter specifying the job title, grade (level), salary, and location, with an attachment detailing terms and conditions of employment (including other benefits, holiday entitlement, etc.). These comprise the employment contract. Offer acceptance usually by the candidate returning a signed copy of the offer and terms and conditions. It is important that newly appointed employees are introduced to their manager and the people in their team, receive a thorough induction to the organisation, and are clearly communicated the responsibilities and objectives of their job, so that they get off to a good start. **In Southern Sudan,** selection and appointment into the public service of GOSS (Super Grades and non Super grades), shall be through free and fair competition and merit and in accordance with the approved ***selection criteria***, which are laid out below (Policy Framework, 2007; Procedures Manual, 2007) in descending order of importance (1 highest priority): 1. Years of experience in the post (or its equivalent) to be filled or service in the SPLA. 2. Satisfactory references or other assessments of past performance (e.g. service in the SPLM/SPLA. 3. Education (as appropriate to the post to be filled). • University Degree. • Vocational Training. • Secondary School Certificate. • Primary.

	• Informal training. 4. Functional literacy in English. 5. Gender balance. 6. Geographic balance. 7. Computer literacy. ***Selection procedures*** – the post must be vacant in the approved budget of the unit, and the preference is to fill the post internally by promotion. The head of the relevant unit will form a Departmental Board of Promotion to select a suitable candidate from a departmental short list presented by the head of the unit. Members of the Promotion Board must hold posts of higher grade than that being filled. The Board will study personnel reports on each candidate, conduct interviews, and present recommendations to the head of the unit. After approval of the concerned Minister, the request is sent to MLPS&HRD for issuance of an appointment or promotion letter. The Policy Framework (2007) and, in more detail, the Procedures Manual (2007) stipulate the selection and appointment procedures for the various categories of staff: More detail on this subject can be found in Topic 8.6 of the Master Curriculum: Hiring and Termination.
v. Pay, benefits and promotion	HRM also includes rewarding employees for their work, usually through pay and various benefits. Pay includes wages or salary usually paid weekly or monthly as stipulated in the individual's employment contract. It can also include bonus payments for meeting particular targets or outstanding work. Benefits provided by organisations can include pension schemes, insurance, transport, welfare, various allowances, and sometimes even housing or cars. Organisations set their pay and benefits according to the remuneration policy, which is usually designed to attract and retain employees in a competitive marketplace. Public organisations also need to set competitive pay and benefits if they are to attract quality employees and keep them motivated to stay. Pay is usually geared to the level of responsibility an employee has in the organisation, with each level (or grade) having a particular salary or more usually, salary band (with a minimum and maximum) attached to it. Employees of a particular level can them progress through that salary band based on criteria such as experience and/or performance. Organisations usually review pay on a regular basis, e.g. annually. Many organisations now relate an individual's pay to performance in the job, as measured through a performance appraisal process (see below). Where an employee is performing above his/her assigned duties or quotas, the manager should give him/her a pat on the back by giving him/her some reward as encouragement to continue doing a good job. This can be through a simple act of recognition (a public "thank you"), a good pay rise when pay is reviewed, or by a cash bonus, or some form of benefit in kind. Also, when an organisation has achieved so much in a particular fixed period, some of these funds can then be given back to employees as incentives. Incentives come in several forms, sometimes as the 13th month cheque, profit sharing, or some organisations would invite the employees to become shareholders in the organisation.

Promotion to a higher level would also usually mean being placed in the next salary band, hence receiving a higher salary. Promotion can be achieved in a number of ways in organisations. E.g. by successfully applying for a more senior role, or being appointed to such a role, or through progressing in terms of skills and knowledge such that promotion to a higher level occurs in the current job. Whichever, promotion is very motivational for employees (a good development tool), and good for the organisation in resourcing more responsible positions.

For Southern Sudan, Sections 4 and 5 of the Policy Framework (2007) describe the grade and salary structure for the public service, and the process for promotions. These are summarised below. The grade structure for Southern Sudan is made up of 17 grades split into 5 categories:

- Super Grade (Grades 1-6).
- Administrative and Professional (Grades 7-9).
- Sub-Professional and Technical (Grades 10, 12 and 14).
- Unclassified Skilled (Grades 11, 13 and 15).
- Unclassified Unskilled (Grades 16-17).

For each of these grades, there exist titles or positions, as shown in the table below.

The wage structure uses these grades and is governed by three general principles:

1. Affordability and sustainability and equal pay for equal work – the pay structure needs to be prudent and maintain an appropriate balance between the public service wage bill and other expenditures. Personnel in similar job positions with similar responsibilities will be remunerated in a similar manner and at an equal value.

2. Competitiveness and capacity to retain – compensation levels in the public service must be comparable with competitive private market salaries; adequate to attract, retain and motivate qualified professionals, managers and technical staff.

3. Minimise monetary and in-kind allowances – compensation and benefits should consist of transparent monetary compensation, keeping use of special allowances to a minimum.

For each of the grades, there is a corresponding salary band (quoted in US$, monthly), detailed in the Policy Framework booklet (2007).

Some salary “steps” or increments are to be provided within each grade to permit some progression whilst keeping the structure as simple as possible. The salary structure detailed in the 2007 booklet was due to be reviewed in time for incorporation into the 2008 budget. Thereafter, the guiding principle for general wage level

	increase should be that "real wages increase annually by the same percentage as the growth in real GDP per capita during the previous year" (Section 4.10).

Grade	***Grade Category***	***Title or Position***
1	Super Grade	Secretary General; Under Secretary
2		Director General
3		Director
4		Deputy Director
5		Chief Technical Officer/Expert
6		Assistant Chief Technical Officer
7	Administrative and Professional	Senior Inspector/Officer
8		Inspector/ Technical Officer
9		Assistant Inspector/Officer & Graduate Entry
10	Sub-Professional and Technical	Head Staff Clerk/Accountant, Primary Teacher etc.
12		Senior Clerk/Book Keeper, Medical Assistant etc.
14		Clerk/Book Keeper, Secretary etc.
11	Unclassified Skilled	Technician, Artisan etc.
13		Head Mechanics, Senior Driver etc.
15		Fitter, Mechanic, Driver
16	Unclassified Unskilled	Messenger, Unskilled Labourer etc.
17		Cleaner, Daily Paid Labourer etc.

The promotion process in Southern Sudan is laid out in the Policy Framework (2007) and Procedures Manual (2007). Promotion follows the same procedure as that for recruitment, selection and appointment into the various categories of staff:

Various benefits and entitlements are described in the Procedures Manual (2007) including:

- Employees' moving costs.
- Staff leave.

	• Financial advances. • Personal allowances. • Medical benefits. • Pensions. More detail on this subject can be found in Topic 8.3 of the Master Curriculum: Setting Pay and Promotions.
vi. Training and development	It is an organisation's responsibility to train and develop its staff, both to do their current jobs, and to prepare them for future roles. A good principle to work to is that of aiming to help every employee reach their potential at work. Training and development is good for the organisation because it gets the best out of staff for the benefit of the organisation, and enables the organisation to fill its senior roles. It is good for employees because their get more satisfaction from their jobs, and are motivated by a sense of progression as they develop towards more responsible roles. Development of employees can be achieved in many ways including delegation, job rotation, promotion, projects, secondments, coaching, mentoring, seminars, conferences, education and training. These are all ways of extending a person's skills, knowledge and experience, or added new skills and knowledge. Training is particularly used by organisations to add new skills/knowledge or to hone existing skills/knowledge, and is usually conducted in groups with training on a particular topic. Good training is based identified learning needs and usually includes exercises or simulations (so that people can practice), lots of interaction so that attendees learn from each other, and expert tuition from the trainer. More detail on this subject can be found in Topic 8.2 of the Master Curriculum: Developing Staff.
vii. Managing performance	Managing the performance of employees is an important part of HRM because it is a way of enhancing performance and ultimately ensuring that the goals of the organisation are met. Managing performance is undertaken by setting performance standards and targets for employees, monitoring progress against those standards and targets, and at the end of some prescribed period, appraising their performance. To manage performance in this way, organisations establish a performance appraisal process. This is usually designed and administered by the HR unit, but implemented by managers with their employees. A performance appraisal process usually comprises: • Target or objective setting at the beginning of the performance period (typically a year). • Monitoring during the period (e.g. through conversations, inspections, reports) to keep performance on track, provide support or make corrections of interventions if things are not going well.

	• Appraisal at the end of the period (using an appraisal form and an interview between the manager and employee). • An appraisal rating or grade to denote level of performance (which is some organisations is linked to pay). • A link to training and development processes since appraisal is an excellent opportunity to give staff feedback and can highlight areas for development. Performance appraisal can be an emotive issue for staff, particularly if they do not agree with the appraisal judgements of the manager. So it is important managers are well briefed in the process and trained in conducting performance appraisal interviews, and that the process is clearly communicated to staff. While appraisal can be problematic, this is outweighed by the benefit of an organisation being able to manage the performance of employees towards their and its goals. **In the Public Service of Southern Sudan**, the Manual of Public Service Procedures (2007: Chapter 4) lays out the guiding principles of performance appraisal in Southern Sudan. With the aim of motivating staff towards high performance, GOSS is committed to developing its employees and has put in place a systematic approach to performance appraisal (formal and informal). Both the Policy Framework (2007: Section 5.12) and the Manual of Public Service Procedures (2007: Chapter 4) set out aspects of the procedure for performance appraisal. Individual merit and performance in the job shall govern issues of promotion, discipline, termination, retirement, training, etc., hence appraisal of performance is very important. In addition the principle of seniority is to be accorded respect and consideration, providing that it does not conflict with the principle of merit and performance. An annual assessment of individual performance will be conducted by the immediate supervisor based, among other things, on a prior agreed work plan. The assessment should be based on a few simple and explicit criteria, and always shared with the individual concerned but otherwise kept strictly confidential within the public administration. Adverse performance assessments will always be shown to the individual concerned, that the individual should have the opportunity to discuss the assessment before it is finalised, comment on it in writing, and appeal its outcome to higher administrative levels. Meritorious performance should be recognised in a variety of ways, including non-monetary recognition and accelerated increments within grade. The Manual of Public Service Procedures (2007: Chapter 4) states that managers responsible for evaluating staff performance may use the following set of performance appraisal ratings: i. *Excellent:* This rating shall be reserved for employees who throughout the year consistently go beyond the implementation level outlined in their job descriptions.

	ii. *Very good:* This rating indicates that the individual consistently performs to the standards and expectations as defined in his/her job description. The employee demonstrates the knowledge, ability, skills and attitudes required by the job for which he/she has been hired. iii. *Good:* This rating indicates that the employee barely performed his/her responsibilities showing some improvement. iv. *Satisfactory – Needs Improvement:* This rating indicates that the employee needs to improve in one or more key areas of responsibilities as outlined in his/her job description. v. *Low – Poor Performance:* This rating indicates that the employee consistently performed below the standards and expectations set. This is sub-satisfactory performance. Documentation needs to be provided which: • Specifies examples of poor performance. • Indicates that the employee has been advised of his/her poor performance. • Support has been given by supervisor towards correcting deficiencies. The Public Service Reforms Implementation Framework Manual (2008) sets out planned developments to performance appraisal in the Public Service of Southern Sudan. This subject is covered in more detail in Topic 8.5 of the Master Curriculum: Managing Performance.
viii. Discipline, grievance and termination	In a workplace certain things can go wrong, e.g. an employee makes a mistake, is unable to do the job adequately, or has a conflict with another employee or a manager. Where possible, managers should seek to resolve such problems through conversation, coaching, or perhaps counselling with the parties concerned. However, sometimes the issue is so serious (e.g. an employee has stolen company property), or the manager is unable to resolve it satisfactorily through conversation (e.g. the employee continues to cause conflict). In such cases it would be appropriate to use the organisation's disciplinary procedure. This would normally require the employee to appear before a disciplinary committee and explain what went wrong. The disciplinary committee normally consists of senior managers, like the Head of Human Resources, senior union representatives (if the employee is in a union), a senior line manager, and the manager of the employee. Sometimes the disciplinary procedure would allow the employee to be accompanied by a colleague. The committee would listen to the case from the manager, hear from the employee, and decide what action should be taken. Disciplinary action could be no action (if the case is not upheld), a reprimand, demotion or, in extreme cases, termination of employment. The employee would normally have the right of appeal to a more senior manager if they felt the decision and resulting action was unfair. Of course, if the incident has involved breaking of the law, then external authorities would need to be involved. The other side of the coin is an organisation's grievance procedure. This is when an employee has an issue that

he or she feels strongly about (e.g. pay, appraisal, bullying, etc.) that has not been resolved to his/her satisfaction through normal interactions with the manager. Similar to the disciplinary process, the employee would have an opportunity to have their issue heard by a more senior manager, or perhaps a committee of senior managers, who would decide on the issue.

The overall objective of both disciplinary and grievance procedures is to inject democracy and fairness into how employees are treated, and to make sure that employees gets a fair hearing if they are accused of a disciplinary offence, or have a grievance with the organisation. It is hoped that through good management practices, managers can minimise such incidents, but it is helpful to have such procedures in place for when matters escalate and a more formal approach is necessary to ensure justice is done and seen to be done.

Termination of employment - employees can leave organisations in various ways, e.g.

- Resignation – an employee leaves of their own volition.
- Normal retirement – employees leave at the normal retirement age.
- Early retirement – leaving before normal retirement.
- Disciplinary action – an employee's contract is terminated due to gross misconduct.
- Voluntary redundancy – an employee elects to accept a redundancy package and leave.
- Enforced redundancy – employees are given notice that their employment will end.

When employees leave an organisation it is good practice to have an exit interview to understand their reasons for leaving (particularly if it is through resignation), to inform them of their entitlements (e.g. notice period, pay, pension, etc.), to get their feedback on the organisation, and hopefully to part on good terms. The latter point is important since it is beneficial to the organisation if the departing employee tells others good stories about the organisation rather than bad, and you never know when you might want to recruit the person back.

In Southern Sudan, the Manual of Public Service Procedures (2007) describes various ways that employment can be terminated:

i. Voluntary termination: from the employee's initiative e.g. resignation or desertion (Discipline Services only).
ii. Involuntary termination: due to death, dismissal, disciplinary action (suspension), medical and old age retirement, end of contract or retrenchment.
iii. Selection to fill a constitutional post.
iv. Termination by the President of GOSS for public interest.

Employees have the right of appeal against involuntary termination. Suspension has to follow the necessary disciplinary procedure (see Procedures Manual, 2007).

	Retirement policy is set out in the Procedures Manual (2007) as follows: i. Voluntary retirement age for GOSS staff is 60 years. ii. Compulsory age for retirement is 65 years. iii. The unit shall give the employee 6 months notice to prepare for retirement. iv. Procedures will be set out in the Public Service Regulations which will be issued following the promulgation of the Public Service Act or other interim regulations in place prior to the Act coming into force. This subject is covered in more detail in Topic 8.6 of the Master Curriculum: Hiring and Termination.
ix. Health and safety	An organisation is responsible, in many countries by law, to ensure that their employees are safe at work. Hence health and safety policy and its implementation in the workplace are very important. Sometimes this is managed by the HR unit, or in some organisations there is a separate Health Safety and Environment (HSE) function. It is important in that nobody wishes to see employees injured or made ill by coming to work. It is also important in terms of the reputation of the organisation – if an organisation has a bad health and safety record it will struggle to attract and retain employees, and its customers/clients may not continue to buy its products and services. Some of the jobs or tasks performed by employees in an organisation can be very unsafe; they might be hazardous and contain many risks, whereby employee's could get industrial diseases or could be associated with frequent accidents. All these types of job and tasks are required to be identified by the HR unit or HSE unit and a process of accident prevention developed and employees performing these tasks made aware of the risks, given appropriate training and adequate protective equipment/clothing. Industrial accidents are common in many workplaces and the HR unit and/or HSE unit should plan very carefully how to minimise them.
x. Industrial relations	In many organisations, especially in sectors like manufacturing, employees are unionised i.e. they belong to a union. Unions are professional associations for members of a particular trade e.g. carpenters, tea-pickers, etc. These organise their members nationwide or industry-wide to protect their interests. They provide representation in negotiations with management on issues such as pay and working conditions, which can cause conflict at times. This is an area for the HR Manager (or in some organisations, the Industrial Relations Manager) to deal with. They must develop ways by which they can cooperate and work together to meet the organisation's goals as wells as addressing employees' concerns and aspirations. The Human Resource Manager is usually in the front line of this activity and should be the one to give management some advice in union-management issues. Maintaining good industrial relations is important because if they deteriorate staff can be become demotivated and performance and productivity is affected, especially if employees "strike" i.e. refuse to work, or "work to rule" i.e. only do the minimum required. Good HRM practices and good overall management of employees and leadership of the organisation provide a secure foundation for maintaining positive industrial relations.

	References: MLPS&HRD (January, 2007). *A Policy Framework for the Public Service of Southern Sudan.* MLPS&HRD (February, 2007). *Manual of Public Service Procedures.* MLPS&HRD (August, 2008) *The Public Service Reforms Implementation Framework Manual.*

Topic 5.12: Governance Overview

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
GOVERNANCE OVERVIEW	By the end of this course unit, the participating manager should be able to: a) Explain what is meant by governance b) Describe the tenets of good governance c) Recognise the importance of and respect for diversity	i. Conceptual overview ii. Tenets of good governance – Accountability – Transparency – Participation – Openness – The rule of law iii. Diversity	– Lectures – Discussions – Exercises – Brainstorms	– Trainers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids	1 day	Knowledge and concept test

Topic 5.12 Expanded: Governance Overview

i. Conceptual overview	The concept of governance is not new. However, it means different things to different people. Therefore it is important to get the focus right. The actual meaning of the concept of governance depends on the level being addressed, the goals to be achieved and the approach being followed. The concept of governance is very broad. This is because the issue of governance touches many areas of human operations including how economics and entities within a country are managed, the political and judicial methods of governing a country, and how disputes are resolved. Governance therefore refers to a process whereby elements in society wield power, authority and influence, and enact policies and decisions concerning public life and social advancement. Corporate governance is however, specific to business practice in private and public institutions, i.e. how organisations are run and managed.
ii. Tenets of good governance	Good governance implies a high level of organisational effectiveness in relation to policy formulation and the policies actually pursued, especially in the conduct of economic policy and its contribution to growth, stability, and popular welfare. Good governance also implies therefore accountability, transparency, participation, openness, and the rule of law. Good governance practice serves the following objectives: • Increases efficiency of service provision. • Enhances the level of customer satisfaction. • Promotes the public image of the organisation (Government). GOSS has a set of core values described in the Policy Framework for Southern Sudan (2007: Sections 1.1-1.3), in accordance with Article 142(1) of the Interim Constitutions of Southern Sudan. These are also articulated in the Manual of Public Service Procedures (2007). Since the Public Service must be efficient, effective and responsive to people, the following core values will guide the conduct of all civilian employees of GOSS and its subordinate government entities: i. Impartiality. ii. Professionalism. iii. Transparency and Accountability. iv. Responsiveness to the client. v. Inclusiveness (non-discrimination). vi. Equity and affirmative action (including gender, minority ethnic groups and disabled persons). vii. Integrity. viii. Efficiency.

	The Procedures Manual (2007) goes on to state that *"All aspects of the GOSS personnel procedures, systems, regulation, and individual employee behaviour, including recruitment, discipline, advancement, and compensation modalities must be tested and evaluated against these core values."* The Policy Framework (2007) states that *"The effective embodiment of these core values into the new public service will lead to administrative efficiency and effectiveness. Equally important, it will also produce the right balance between the need for administrative continuity and independence from undue political pressures, on the one hand, and the requirement of loyal responsiveness to the government leadership of the day and faithful implementation of its policy decisions."* A code of conduct is to be formulated for all employees of the Southern Sudan Public Service, based on and giving explanation of these core values. In the Policy Framework (2007), Sections 11.1-11.3 deal with fostering integrity and combating corruption, defining corruption in government as *"misuse of public power for private gain".* Corruption hinders economic efficiency and development and is especially bad for the poor and vulnerable. As the framework states; *"Accordingly, integrity should be one of the core values of the new public service of Southern Sudan, and the issue of corruption should be approached not on an isolated basis, but as part and parcel of the promotion of efficient and effective public sector management in all its aspects".* The stated GOSS policy on corruption is one of zero tolerance. As the framework describes, corruption needs to be tackled in three ways: i. Prevention (by reducing the opportunities for corruption, mainly by ensuring that government regulations are as simple and transparent as possible). ii. Enforcement (where swiftness and certainty of punishment is more effective than severity of punishment). iii. Education (to produce a climate where honesty is the norm and corruption the exception). The Southern Sudan Anti-Corruption Commission has been established to combat corruption through tackling administrative malpractice such as nepotism, favouritism, tribalism, sectionalism, gender discrimination, bribery, embezzlement, and sexual harassment. More detail on Governance is contained in Area 2 of the Master Curriculum.
iii. Diversity	An important part of good governance is the recognition of diversity. A manager should carry out his/her duties without any bias against any group or categories of people. He/she should be impartial in dealing with people of different gender, race, age, religious inclination, and people from minority groups. This requires what has been

	termed diversity management. Diversity management means putting together a well-thought out strategy for attracting, motivating, developing, retaining and fully utilising the talents of competent people regardless of their race, gender, ethnicity, religion, physical ability or sexual orientation. Within the context of Southern Sudan, the aspect of gender is especially crucial, as this where glaring imbalances are evident. The goal of diversity management is to create and maintain a culture where individual uniqueness is recognised and valued, and where all workers feel welcomed and supported and have the opportunity to work up to their potential. The goals here are to create and maintain a culture where individuals uniqueness is to be recognised and valued; where workers welcomed and supported; and where workers have the opportunity to work up to their potential. However, diversity is impeded by practices such as discrimination (especially gender discrimination) through biased recruiting, unequal opportunities, unequal pay, non-inclusion in decision making, and harassment. Strategies to enhance diversity and gender balance include: diversity/gender audits; culture change initiatives; legislation; diversity-friendly policies; inclusive behaviours; and diversity awareness training. Southern Sudan has diversity-affirming laws – the CPA and the Interim Constitution of Southern Sudan, 2005 both uphold the rights of women among other rights. Its recruitment and selection policies and procedures stress suitability for the job and merit, as well as being mindful of the representativeness of various population groups, gender considerations, and equity and affirmative action criteria (Manual of Public Service Procedures, 2007). More detail on managing diversity is contained in Area 2, Topic 2.8 of the Master Curriculum. **References:** MLPS&HRD (January, 2007). *A Policy Framework for the Public Service of Southern Sudan.* MLPS&HRD (February, 2007). *Manual of Public Service Procedures.* *The Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA).* *The Interim Constitution of Southern Sudan, 2005.*

Appendix F

Curriculum Area 6: Support Staff

Topic 6.1: Role of a Secretary

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
ROLE OF A SECRETARY	By the end of the course unit the participating Secretary, should be able to: a) Explain the meaning of roles/duties b) Describe the secretarial skills c) Describe various forms of written documents d) Apply filing system and office set up e) Describe ways of preparing for and organise effective meetings f) Discuss the role of a public servant	i. Meaning of roles /duties ii. Secretarial skills – Communication – Public relations & customer care – Computing skills – Organising skills iii. Forms of writing (memos, letters and reports) iv. Organisation of the office v. Organisation of meetings vi. Role of a public servant	– Lectures – Discussions – Exercises – Brainstorms – Role plays – Application	– Trainers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids	1 day	Knowledge test

Topic 6.1 Expanded: Role of a Secretary

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<td>i. Meaning of roles and duties</td>
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Understanding the concept of “roles and duties” is helpful in two ways:

Analytic – having clear roles and duties helps us separate the specific duties of the job from the incumbent or the person holding the job. This means that the job remains basically the same while the person holding it may change.
Diagnostic – written roles and duties help determine what is going well and what it not in the execution of the job. The first step is to look at the role requirements, then check this against the individual’s performance, noting what is going well as well as noting disparities.

Thus, a basic function of clarified roles and duties is both to give direction to the incumbent and to clarify expectations of the role by superiors and others requiring assistance of the secretary.

The principal duties of a secretary’s role are dealing directly with people who come into the office, maintaining the manger’s diary, handling correspondence and other records and documents, acting as a typist, managing the office, and generally assisting the manager. In more detail:

Dealing directly with people who come into the office – the secretary is often the first person that a visitor or customer interacts with so this part of the role is key. Visitors can be internal, e.g. managers or staff, or external, e.g. from other organisations or the general public.
Maintaining the manager’s diary – scheduling, planning ahead, avoiding clashes and helping to manage the manager’s time efficiently.
Handling correspondence and other records and documents – this requires good organisation and an eye for detail, ensuring everything is in its place.
Acting as a typist – using word processing and computing skills to accurately type various types of documents.
Organising the office – ensuring that the office is well organised, tidy and efficient, and stocked with the necessary stationary and equipment; controlling the flow of work through the office; and organising and maintaining records and files.
Organising meetings – responsible for the set up of meetings, for ensuring that the event runs smoothly, and for various follow up actions after the meeting.
Generally assisting the manager in the conduct of business – acting as an assistant and helping out as requested in the organisation of work, the office, and the team.

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ii. Secretarial skills	There are a number of skills that are expected of a secretary, which can be grouped into the areas of communication skills, public relations and customer care, computing skills, and organising skills.
	
	Communication skills. Secretaries and front office staff are required to communicate with the manager(s) they report to, other staff in the immediate team, and secretaries, staff and managers in other teams, units and ministries. They are also often the first point of contact for visitors, external organisations, and the general public. Hence, they need to be able to communicate effectively with people at different levels within and external to the organisation. Key skills needed are:
	
	• *Listening skills* – particularly important to a secretary since he or she deals directly with people at various levels. Such listening skills include:
	
	  • Empathetic listening, which involves putting one-self in the place of the speaker or customer i.e. listening from the heart.
	
	  • Active listening, which is fundamental to understanding what others are saying or attempting to say. It involves reading and interpreting both the words and body language of the customer. It also involves asking questions to clarify what the other person said, and saying it back to them to make sure it was heard properly.
	
	• *Conveying information* – secretaries are often the conduit for important information. They are called upon to convey messages, ensuring that the information is accurate and communicated in a clear and understandable way.
	
	• *Requesting information* – at times, secretaries need to seek out information from others, make requests and set up appointments. All of these tasks require a secretary to be able to ask relevant questions, and work collaboratively and politely with others so that their requests are met.
	
	• *Good telephone manner* – secretarial roles involve communication face-to-face but also on the telephone for example making appointments and receiving calls. A good telephone manner means being welcoming, polite and respectful to all callers, always helpful, listening carefully and responding clearly. Some tips (Heller & Hindle, 2008) include:
	
	  ○ Note down beforehand what you want to cover.
	  ○ Always be polite and friendly.
	  ○ Start with checking that you have the right person, then mention your name ("This is Mrs A Smith") and why you are calling.
	  ○ Speak slowly and clearly, at the pace of the other person.
	  ○ A smiling face encourages a "smiling voice" and invites a positive response.

	○ Repeat your main points and check the other person has understood. ○ If you leave a message, start with your name, number and the time of your call, and make your message concise. ○ When receiving a call, be polite, make sure you know who is calling and why, put them through to the manager if it's appropriate, be clear with them if it is not, make notes if a message needs to be passed on, get their number. **Public relations and customer care** are both activities in which the secretary represents the organisation as he/she interface with others; the former focused on building good relations and reputation, the latter focused on always providing a good service to customers. • *Public relations* – this is about dealing with people outside the organisation professionally and passing on information in ways that project a positive and professional image. Secretaries and front office staff are often the first impression that external organisations and their representatives have of the department. It involves knowing about the department and showing from that first contact that it is well organised with helpful and competent staff. Good public relations helps enhance the organisation's reputation and generates good will from external bodies. • *Customer care skills* – these are important in dealing with visitors and the general public, and require the attitude that "the customer is always right", i.e. he/she should always be listened to and their concerns taken seriously. Customer care also involves handling difficult people in a way that diffuses conflict and helps resolve the issue. Sometimes it involves diplomatically protecting the manager from interruptions. Customer care always involves treating customers in a welcoming way and with courtesy and respect, endeavouring to meet their requests or to direct them to someone who can help. **Computing skills** • *Good word processing skills* –this is a must since secretaries are often asked to produce written documents, type up notes or minutes, make up reports, draft letters and memos. Accuracy, speed and layout are important. • *Computer literacy* – secretaries are called upon to use various computer programmes such as *Word, Excel, PowerPoint* and other regularly used office software. Computer literacy also involves being able to use e-mail and access information on the Internet. **Organising skills** • *Organising events, information & people* – secretaries need to organise meetings, filing, and the manager's diary – this demands a high level of personal organisation, including good time management

	and being able to manage and keep track of many tasks. It involves being able to prioritise tasks according to importance and urgency, and ensuring that preparation for appointments and meetings is undertaken in good time. It also involves organising others (sometimes the manager) so that they are in the right place at the right time with the necessary preparation and information. • *Organising the office* **–** this involves the ability to arrange furniture to create a good working environment, and to order and maintain stocks of stationary. Organising the office also involves practical knowledge of common office equipment (e.g. telex, photocopier, printers, fax, etc.), and knowing how to replenish their usables, and how to contact technical support should they malfunction. Customer care for support staff is dealt with in more detail in Topic 6.3 of the Master Curriculum, and communication skills in Topic 4.7. More information on communication skills can be found in Winstanley's book *Personal effectiveness* (2005), and Heller & Hindle's *Essential Manager's Manual* (2008).
iii. Forms of writing	Secretaries are routinely required to write various communications documents in the course of their duties. These include: a. Formal and informal letters. There are various forms of letters for different purposes. Offices often select a particular style of letters for official communication so that there is consistency and professionalism in their written correspondence. b. Memoranda/memos are an internal means of communication in writing and includes elements such as: To, From, Date, Subject and Body, Signature and Reference. Memos are used to inform others in writing, to delegate tasks in writing and to give authorities for doing things. Memoranda are used when there needs to be a record kept of an internal communication. c. Reports are generally used for providing feedback on what has been accomplished on a given task, objective, goal or target. They often cover activities, challenges, results, strengths and recommendations on policy issues. Reports are very important for keeping managers informed about the performance of their unit and about the status of tasks and projects. d. Minutes of meetings – these of records of what has transpired in a particular meeting. Such minutes are necessary for future reference. e. E-mails – much communication is done via e-mails, including setting up meetings, distributing messages and documents. E-mails should be: • Written clearly and concisely.

	• Be labelled with a subject • Be sent to/copied to only those who *need* to receive the information (to avoid e-mail overload). • In a style appropriate to the message and levels of staff involved. Secretaries need to be aware of how to handle confidential information and documents that come their way in the course of their duties, treating them with the appropriate discretion. In the Public Service of Southern Sudan, there are four grades of security classification for Government documents (Top Secret; Secret; Confidential; and Restricted) depending on the sensitivity of the information – described in the Manual of Public Service Procedures (2007). Staff are only permitted to handle the level of material for which they have been cleared. The Procedures Manual (2007) gives some principles for the handling of confidential information, summarised below: • Do not leave classified or other sensitive documents out in the open or unsecured. • Do not talk about classified information with unauthorised staff/those who have no right to know. • Do not discuss security systems with unauthorised staff/those who have no right to know. • Dispose of classified or sensitive information properly. • Do not volunteer unnecessary information to anyone. • Report suspicious or unusual activity to management or relevant personnel. • Make sure that all reports and files are locked away in a cabinet at the end of each day. • Never provide copies of written correspondence or manuals to people outside your unit without authorisation.
iv. Organisation of office	Organisation of the office is a key role of the secretary and includes everything from how the office is arranged, both for efficiency and for comfort of visitors, to how papers and information flow through the office. Office organisation involves: 1. Controlling flow, including: • The receiving of communications (written, by telephone or e-mail), delivering them to the appropriate person or persons, and handling the response. • Determining how diaries are kept, appointments made and records of meetings kept. • Determining what information is filed in the office and what is sent elsewhere for filing.

	2. Requisitioning stationery for the office from the main store or other suppliers and ensuring there is always sufficient for work to continue. 3. Office design and furniture. As the key user, the secretary would give his or her recommendations on office design and furniture to create a good working environment. 4. Maintaining good filing systems, which is key to the proper functioning of an office. Where files are kept, how they are organised and how they are maintained are all important elements of running a good office and providing good secretarial support. Like any other services, filing systems are becoming more computerised with their own software packages, but good organisation is still essential. Document management and filing is covered in more detail in Topic 3.8 of the Master Curriculum.
v. Organisation of meetings	It is the duty of a secretary to ensure that the meetings held are organised and run efficiently. In this respect the secretary has to ensure that certain tasks and/or activities are undertaken before, during and after the meeting. Before the meeting: • Set date and venue. • Create attendee list and agenda. • Inform attendees of the date, time and venue. • Send out agenda of the meeting and any pre-reading. • Prepare the meeting room appropriately. • Organise refreshments. During the meeting: • Ensure the necessary resources are in place (e.g. enough chairs, data projector, flipchart, handouts). • Ensure refreshments are provided in the course of the meeting, among other things. • Take notes/minutes (sometimes this task is undertaken by one of the attendees). After the meeting: • Type up minutes. • Send out minutes to attendees, • Remind attendees of the date of the next meeting. Since meetings involve multiple people, often managers, they consume a lot of costly work hours (e.g. if 5 managers attend a 4 hour meeting, that is a total of 20 work hours) so their efficient organisation, enabling them to start on time, run effectively, and finish on time is an important contribution to the effectiveness of the organisation.

vi. Role of a public servant	All public servants have a number of basic duties to fulfill, whatever their role. These are described in the Manual of Public Service Procedures (2007: Chapter 2). Overall that they must dedicate their full service to the people of Southern Sudan, serving them with efficiency and respect. To do this, they should observe ten basic duties, summarised below: i. Not to go absent from duty without permission or reasonable grounds. ii. Be punctual, devote self to duty, carry out duty faithfully and diligently. iii. Obey and maintain orders or instructions from superiors. iv. Conduct self in a gentle manner towards superiors, colleagues, subordinates and the public. v. Participate in planned training courses inside or outside Sudan. vi. Avoid improper or unfitting conduct. vii. Not to disclose confidential or secret information. viii. Perform duties in accordance with the laws regulations and instructions. ix. Not without written permission to take or keep any official document. x. Carry out the duties attached to his or her post or any other duties of a like nature within or outside Sudan as GOSS directs. The role of a public servant is described more fully in Topic 1.4 of the Master Curriculum **Reference:** MLPS&HRD (2007). *Manual of Public Service Procedures.* Winstanley, D. (2005). *Personal effectiveness: A guide to action*. London: Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development. Heller, R. & Hindle, T. (2008). *Essential Manager's Manual*. Second Edition. London: Dorling Kindersley Limited.

Topic 6.2: Role of a Messenger

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
ROLE OF A MESSENGER	By the end of the course unit the participating messenger should be able to: a) Explain the meaning of roles/duties of a messenger b) Describe the skills of a messenger c) Understand what it means to be a public servant	i. Roles/duties of a messenger – Responsiveness – The job of a messenger – Quality service ii. Skills of a messenger – Responsiveness – Customer relations skills – Knowledge of customers, organisation and offices iii. Duties of a public servant	– Oral participation – Exercises – Practical application	– Trainers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids	1 day	Knowledge test

Topic 6.2 Expanded: The Role of a Messenger

i. Roles/duties of a messenger	In today's work environment, where close interactions between managers and supervisors is very important, and where customers are highly critical of the services they receive, the messenger has become an increasingly vital resource for any office. The messenger is called upon to serve a variety of tasks and play different roles which all go to enhance the image, and effectiveness of the unit or department. These include carrying messages, covering some front office tasks in the secretary's absence and sometimes undertaking the role of a cleaner. The **duties of the messenger** are to: • Carry messages, documents and files to and from managers and supervisors carefully and speedily. • Respond to requests made by the manager or supervisor. • Answer any phone calls in the manager's or secretary's absence. • Act as a link between various offices/units and customers. • Effectively manage time by demonstrating punctuality in coming to, and leaving the office and in performing duties so that messages always arrive in a timely manner. • When required, to carry out the role of a cleaner, which is to maintain the cleanliness of the office. This includes ensuring that the floor, walls, windows, curtains and ceiling are clean and are well arranged. A clean office creates a positive working environment and is good for his/her health, as well as for the health and efficiency of others including the manager. Note that the roles described here are for a formally appointed messenger employed by the Public Service. **Quality service** in any role means doing a job to the best of your ability and to the highest standards, matching the service requirements of the role and meeting managers' and customers' needs. In being a messenger or undertaking cleaning duties it means: • Delivering messages on time, accurately and reliably. • Being presentable and polite. • Being helpful and responsive to requests. • When acting as a cleaner, ensuring that the office is kept to a high standard of cleanliness.
ii. Skills of a messenger	There are a number of skills required of a messenger, summarised as responsiveness, customer relations skills, and knowledge of customers, organisational structure, and office locations.

	Responsiveness. A messenger needs to be responsive in the way he/she undertakes duties. This means being: • Alert to the needs of his or her superiors and customers. • Careful to listening to instructions, asking questions when she/he doesn't understand. • Always courteous, friendly and polite. • Prompt and efficient in the safe delivery of messages and documents. • Ready to answer the phone or welcome visitors in the absence of the secretary or manager. **Customer relations skills.** Messengers need to be good at customer relations. This means messengers need to help visitors to the office feel welcome and well attended to. The impression that people will have of the entire office is often based on how they are treated by the office personnel (i.e. the secretary and the messenger). Good customer relations always involves treating customers in a welcoming way and with courtesy and respect, endeavouring to meet their requests or to direct them to someone who can help. In this case, it is important that messengers understand: • How to greet visitors and make them feel welcome – a courteous greeting, perhaps the offer of refreshments if they have to wait. • How to find out what the visitor needs, if the secretary is occupied – with questions such as "Can I help you? Who is it that you have come to see?" When answering the telephone on behalf of the secretary, you need to: • Be polite. • Find out who is calling and why, • Put them through to the manager if it's appropriate, if not, redirect them. • Make notes if a message needs to be passed on, • Get their number. **Knowledge of customers, organisational structure and locations.** Messengers need to know the key customers with whom they deal. These will be the managers and staff of the department or unit where they are based, and also managers and staff of other departments/units to whom they deliver and collect messages from. They will also need to know the network of other messengers to create greater efficiency in the way information and documents move around the organisation. Messenger also need to have a good knowledge of the: • Organisational structure – since they will be dealing with many different ministries, departments, units and teams. They need to know how these are linked together and how messages flow within and between them.

	• Location of the various offices – since they will be delivering and collecting materials from many locations, they need to know where offices and particular managers and staff are located.
iii. Duties of a public servant	All public servants have a number of basic duties to fulfill, whatever their role. These are described in the Manual of Public Service Procedures (2007: Chapter 2). Overall that they must dedicate their full service to the people of Southern Sudan, serving them with efficiency and respect. To do this, they should observe ten basic duties, summarised below: • Not to go absent from duty without permission or reasonable grounds. • Be punctual, devote self to duty, carry out duty faithfully and diligently. • Obey and maintain orders or instructions from superiors. • Conduct self in a gentle manner towards superiors, colleagues, subordinates and the public. • Participate in planned training courses inside or outside Sudan. • Avoid improper or unfitting conduct. • Not to disclose confidential or secret information. • Perform duties in accordance with the laws regulations and instructions. • Not without written permission to take or keep any official document. • Carry out the duties attached to his or her post or any other duties of a like nature within or outside Sudan as GOSS directs. The role of a public servant is described more fully in Topic 1.4 of the Master Curriculum **References:** MLPS&HRD (January, 2007). *A policy framework for the Public Service of Southern Sudan.* MLPS&HRD (2007). *Manual of Public Service Procedures.*

Topic 6.3: Customer Care

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
CUSTOMER CARE	By the end of the course unit the participating Secretary should be able to: a) Define Customer care b) Identify/ practice customer care skills effectively c) Practice appropriate ways of handling customers	i. Meaning of customer care ii. Skills for handling customers iii. Ways of handling customers	– Lectures – Discussion – Exercises – Brainstorms – Participation – Practice and role play	– Trainers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids	1 day	Knowledge test Observed role plays

Topic 6.3 Expanded: Customer Care

i. Meaning of customer care	A customer is a person who comes for services from an organisation. Such as customer expects to be treated in a certain way – privileged treatment – by employees of the organisation. It is therefore necessary for every employee in the organisation in to know how to handle such customers in order to enhance their level of satisfaction. Within organisations employees are also (internal) customers of other sections and departments. Customers in general would expect courteous, speedy, friendly service among other things. Customers are influenced by a wide range of factors in their choice of services. Awareness of the full range of customer needs may enable secretaries and other support staff to differentiate a basic need from those of other competitors. Thus, a customer's choice may be influenced by the range and quality of services provided by other ministries.
ii. Skills for handling customers	Skills for working with customers include communications and public relations skills. Communication is a way of messages being transmitted from a sender to a receiver via a channel or medium. Secretaries need effective communication with customers, i.e. to provide clients with adequate information about services in a straight forward, clear and explicit manner. They must also be good listeners so that they understand customer needs and requirements. Every employee has a role to play in promoting good public relations. Such public relations promotes the image of the organisation, including Government departments. This depends on the way each person handles interactions with people external to the organisation, e.g. the public, visitors, employees of other organisations. Public relations is a deliberate and planned activity by an organisation to create mutual understanding between the organisation and its public, including customers. This is done through understanding the Civil Service to deliver services to the people of Southern Sudan, internalizing the fact that the image of government is mirrored through one's services/actions. Such behaviour when in relation to the clientele of an organisation is good customer care.
iii. Ways of handling customers	To promote good customer care there a certain ways of handling such customers, which include: • Serving the public with courtesy, respect and recognising their freedom of self-expression. • Being accessible and responsive to their needs. • Demonstrating the virtues of commitment and dedication in service.

	• Accepting that the customer is believed to be “right”, i.e. to respect that the customer has a right to express their needs and that these should be listened to and acknowledged. • Never promise customers things that cannot be delivered. However exceeding customer expectations is always good and will enhance customer satisfaction. • Whenever a customer asks a question or makes a request, they should receive a response or some feedback. • Body language also communicates to the customer the attitude of the employee – open, welcoming, interested and friendly gestures put customers at ease and will facilitate a more productive conversation.

Topic 6.4: Ethics and Code of Conduct for Support Staff

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
ETHICS AND CODE OF CONDUCT FOR SUPPORT STAFF	By the end of the course unit the participating officer should be able to: a) Explain the meaning of ethics/ code of conduct b) Identify core values	i. Meaning of ethics/code of conduct ii. Core Values a. Integrity b. Commitment c. Faithfulness d. Honest e. Courtesy f. Accountability g. Confidentiality	– Lectures – Discussions – Participation – Practical application	– Trainers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids	1 day	Knowledge test

Topic 6.4 Expanded: Ethics and Code of Conduct for Support Staff

i. Meaning of ethics and code of conduct	Ethics describes socially acceptable behaviour. Awareness that a practice is ethical undesirable may come from social values, often expressed in legislation, professional code, organisational code of conduct and a person's own moral values. For workers in any given organisation there is a code of conduct that all are expected to subscribe to. Such a code of conduct reinforces the ethical standards that should be upheld. However, for many organisations and governments, the codes of conduct are actually written down as official documents that one can refer to. Such codes usually address very wide ranging issues, including relationships with other members of the public, disclosure of official information, acceptance of gifts (bribes from clients), and the mode of dressing among others.
ii. Core values	What are the things that are really important when doing your job in the Public Service? How we behave, how we treat visitors, how we undertake a task – all these things demonstrate our values, in other words "what is important to us". It is also important to know and understand the core (meaning most important) values of the Government of Southern Sudan, and how we can demonstrate those values in our work. For instance, the Government places a lot of value on getting women involved in all areas of Government and treating women fairly and equally. How do these values show up at work? Here is list of core values and how they should be exhibited at work. • Integrity – this is a general attribute that reflects the moral uprightness of an individual. It reflects the manner in which a person is committed to basic principles of good and ethical behaviour and conduct, not only in the professional sense but in social and private conduct. • Commitment – we show commitment through our actions. If we are "committed" to doing a good job, it shows. What things are you really committed to doing well at work? At home? When we are committed to something, very little can get in our way. When we are not committed, almost anything can get in the way of getting something done. We can choose to commit to things. If we are asked to do a job, even if we don't like the work, we can still commit to doing it well – it is a choice we make. • Loyalty – this is owing allegiance to a person or organisation. As an employee, it is important to be loyal to your employer (Ministry), to your manager, department, team, and to your colleagues and friends at work. • Honesty – this means telling the truth and never misleading people. In the workplace, this means being straight with others, respecting other people's or the organisation's property, including finances, and always dealing with information in a truthful way.

	• Courtesy – this is treating people in a polite way and with the respect due to their status. In dealing with clients/ colleagues/ supervisors this means always using polite words like; "Excuse, please, may I, and thank you". • Accountability – implies both a responsibility for results and an obligation to report. Individuals and the organisation collectively may both be held accountable to a range of parties. Accountability may be imposed internally or externally. Support staff should be aware of matters for which they are personally held accountable. • Confidentiality – the employee should not disclose sensitive Government information to unauthorised persons. This is both inside and outside their work activities. Secretaries and messengers have a particular responsibility in this respect because they are often handling sensitive information and dealing with senior managers. GOSS has a set of core values described in the Policy Framework for Southern Sudan (2007: Sections 1.1-1.3), in accordance with Article 142(1) of the Interim Constitutions of Southern Sudan. These are also articulated in the Manual of Public Service Procedures (2007). Since the Public Service must be efficient, effective and responsive to people, the following core values will guide the conduct of all civilian employees of GOSS and its subordinate government entities: • Impartiality. • Professionalism. • Transparency and Accountability. • Responsiveness to the client. • Inclusiveness (non-discrimination). • Equity and affirmative action (including gender, minority ethnic groups and disabled persons). • Integrity. • Efficiency. The Procedures Manual (2007) goes on to state that *"All aspects of the GOSS personnel procedures, systems, regulation, and individual employee behaviour, including recruitment, discipline, advancement, and compensation modalities must be tested and evaluated against these core values."* The Policy Framework (2007) states that *"The effective embodiment of these core values into the new public service will lead to administrative efficiency and effectiveness. Equally important, it will also produce the right balance between the need for administrative continuity and independence from undue political pressures, on the one hand, and the requirement of loyal responsiveness to the government leadership of the day and faithful implementation of its policy decisions."*

	As the Procedures Manual (2007) describes, the focus of every public servant should be on providing quality and timely public service to the citizens of Southern Sudan. This means putting the public first and so creating a customer and results-oriented culture. The following ***principles*** should guide the conduct of every public servant: i. Provide clients with adequate information about services in a straight-forward and open manner. ii. Clearly explain the standards of service that clients may expect. iii. Communicate clearly and effectively. iv. Treat clients with dignity, courtesy and respect. v. Uphold transparency and accountability. vi. Place the common good of the Service, the client and the general public above self-interest. vii. Utilise resources prudently to attain best value for users and citizens. A code of conduct is to be formulated for all employees of the Southern Sudan Public Service, based on and giving explanation of these core values.

Appendix G

Curriculum Area 7: Overview of Functional Areas

Topic 7.1: Public Procurement

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
PUBLIC PROCUREMENT	By the end of this course unit, the participating manager should be able to: a) Explain the meaning of procurement b) Describe the procurement cycle c) Distinguish between different types of procurement methods d) Discuss 'tendering' as a procurement method in Government e) Discuss Government provision and regulations that guide procurement in Government f) Discuss the procedure followed in the disposal of Government assets	i. Meaning of procurement ii. The procurement cycle iii. Different types of procurement methods – Cash – Quotations – Tenders iv. Tendering procurement method – Open tender – Restricted tender – Tender committees v. Government provision and regulations in procurement. vi. Disposal of Government assets – Regulations – Importance of proper disposal – Items qualified for disposal – Disposal methods	– Lectures – Discussions – Exercises – Brainstorms – Expert guest speakers	– Trainers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids – Sample documents	1 day	Knowledge and concept test

Topic 7.1 Expanded: Public Procurement

i. Meaning of procurement	To procure means to obtain or acquire by careful effort. In government, procurement refers to the process of obtaining essential government facilities, materials and services. To do this, procurement procedures are officially put in place. Such procedures are necessary for the maintenance of an efficient and standardized supply function, which is intended to achieve and maintain appropriate stock levels which are necessary to satisfy authorized demands by users. This should be acquired at the minimum cost. To do this it is necessary that up to date inventory and stock control records are maintained so that at no time do stock holdings exceed a given maximum.
ii. The procurement cycle	There are certain stages that the procurement process goes through. In general this would include: • Expression of Interest – the Expression of Interest (EO) stage is where interested parties or contractors or suppliers are invited by the government agency to bid for tender documents through their own letters of Expression of Interest. In this case, they are expected to briefly indicate their key competencies that may warrant their being considered as possible providers of the required materials or services. • Proposals by shortlisted parties – those shortlisted through the Expression of Interest are then invited to give their proposals. Such proposals will be in terms of their technical performance competencies as stipulated in the proposal documents, as well as the financial requirements for the fulfilment of the contract. These could be very detailed at times, in terms of breakdowns of the costs of various aspects of the contract. • Evaluation – the next stage is the evaluation stage which should be carried out by a committee of experts who should be senior officers of the government. The evaluation comprises the technical evaluation as well as the financial evaluation. All the proposals are ranked according to their scoring in the evaluations and a recommendation is subsequently given by the committee based on this evaluation. • Award of contracts – the final stage is that of the award of contracts. Here, the tender committee or board makes the decision taking into consideration all the information availed to it. The committee should not be expected to endorse recommendations that cannot withstand thorough scrutiny. The committee's decision should be communicated by its secretary in writing enclosing or quoting an extract of the evaluation committee's recommendations.
iii. Different types of procurement methods	These methods include: • Cash method – whereby cash is paid upfront to the supplier of materials being sourced. In this case the supplier is identified without having to undergo through an elaborate process. This may be the case where purchase is of a recurring nature from a regular and confirmed supplier and there is no need for

	competitive bidding. This may be done in the interest of economy whereby the need for inviting competitive bids is waived. However the government officer in charge of the process should not commit the government to make higher payments than the ruling market prices, otherwise he or she would be held responsible for the differences. This is the case of the single sourcing procedure in public procurement. • Quotations – a quotation is a contractor's estimate of the cost or price of material. For the purposes of maintaining competitiveness in public procurement, a minimum number of quotations (ideally 5) should be invited for each purchase. However prior authority should be obtained from the Chairman of the relevant tender committee or board before quotations are invited for all purchases valued above a predetermined limit. • Tenders – a tender in this context may be defined as an offer in writing to execute work or supply goods at a fixed price. In this process invitations are usually sent out for interested parties to give their tenders in accordance with some laid down criteria and specifications. The processing of a tender usually culminates into a contractual relationship between the tenderer and the Government. Before the invitation of such tenders the officers in charge should work out the quantities of items to be purchased within the period. There should be a place for placing the tenders (usually a box) which should be placed prominently at a place easily accessible to the members of the public. Tenders should then be placed in the box before a stipulated closing date and time. Those tenders received by post should be placed in the box immediately they are received. The opening of the tenders should be as soon as possible by responsible officers in the presence of interested tenderers or their representatives following the prescribed procedure in opening. These then should be evaluated by a special evaluation committee, who then should then give their recommendations on the basis of which tender committees or boards shall make their decisions.
iv. Tendering procurement methods	Tendering procurement can either be through open tender or restricted tender. Open tender is where bids are solicited from the public. This may be done through public advertisement in the media, and anybody or any firm can then bid and be evaluated among others. This is the most transparent way of sourcing for materials and services. However it is a lengthy and time consuming process. Restricted tender is where bids are solicited from a selected group of suppliers who may have been previously identified on the basis of certain criteria. Although this method is not very transparent, it is however used where there is need for confidentiality in procuring the materials as is the case with defence items, or other such sensitive items. In all such cases, whether it is open tender or restricted tender, tender committees or tender boards are used. These are responsible for ensuring that adjudication of tenders and quotations are strictly processed in accordance with the relevant laws, official policy, regulations and procedures as issued through relevant

	government periodic circulars. Such boards are usually at the central government level, ministerial level and regional (or state) level. They should all comprise senior officers who are representative enough of the spectrum of operations either in the government, ministry and state. There should be a chairman, and members who are appointed in writing.
v. Government provision and regulations in procurement	These should give specific guidelines regarding the procurement of all manner of government material requirements. These requirements range from common user stores to equipment facilities and projects. The regulators should spell out the tender process that should be followed, the conditions or circumstances where restricted tenders can be used and where competitive bidding can be waived. They should also give guidance as to who should be included in tender committees/ boards and the powers and responsibilities of accounting officers in public procurement.
vi. Disposal of Government assets	Sometimes, the Government or government departments find it necessary to disposal of certain of its assets. They could range from expendable stores, consumable stores, vehicles and technical equipment. In all cases it is important that proper procedures be followed, and laid down regulations observed in the disposal of the items. This is to minimize corruption among government officers, and to enhance transparency and accountability. It is also for the purposes of ensuring that the government reaps maximum benefits, both financially and in terms of public image from the disposal of the stores. Proper disposal will also minimize the incidences of environmental degradation/ contamination that may arise from such disposal of assets. Items for disposal – there are certain categories of government assets that qualify for disposal. These include: • Unserviceable items. These are those items which could be damaged, or obsolete, or in the case of vehicles, those which have been involved in accidents. Such stores include both expendable stores as well as consumable stores they would also include vehicles and technical equipments. These items should be examined by a special board of survey to determine the nature of their unserviceability. The board of survey then initiates the write-off process of the items, prior to their disposal. • Surplus stores. These are items that are in excess of the requirements of the particular government departments. Disposal methods – there are various methods that may be used in the disposal of government assets, which include: • Sale of the stores. This depends on the types of stores being disposed off and the nature of their unserviceability. The most common method of selling such assets is through open tender. It is aimed at ensuring that the Government earns the maximum revenue possible under the circumstances. • Destruction. Some items need to be completely destroyed during disposal. This is so in the case of

	dangerous and harmful items such as expired drugs. It is also the case with old currency. Destruction could take the form of burning, burial or dumping in the appropriate places. In every case, a certificate indicating the method used should be prepared and sent to the responsible accounting officer. • Gift. Sometimes, the items may not be damaged, but could only be in excess of the requirements of the government department. The item could also be serviceable but obsolete for that particular department. In such a case it may be worthwhile to donate the items to some worthy cause such as a community group project. • Transfers. As in the case of gifts above, the item could be transferred to some other deserving government agency such as local authorities or state corporations. In all cases, the relevant regulations governing such disposal of government assets should be strictly adhered to. These should be in terms of laws, rules, ministerial circulars and other regulations. It is also important to observe important international conventions, wherever they are applicable.

Topic 7.2: Basic Accounting and Finance in Government

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
BASIC ACCOUNTING AND FINANCE IN GOVERNMENT	By the end of this course unit, the participating manager should be able to: a) Describe the book-keeping process b) Identify accountable documents in Government service c) Interpret cash book entries d) Discuss the importance of bank reconciliation e) Describe the ledger and simple final accounts f) Explain the meaning of suspense and imp rest accounts g) Explain the sources of Government funds (revenue) h) Discuss the system of	i. Book-keeping process ii. Accountable documents iii. The cash-book iv. Bank reconciliation v. Ledger and simple final accounts vi. Suspense and imp rest accounts vii. Sources of government funds *Sources of government funds* – Taxation, rent, fees, fines, others *Classification of government funds* – Revenue – Appropriation in Aid (AIA) – Deposit funds – Donor funds – Loans and interest – Grants viii. Control of government	– Lectures – Discussions – Exercises – Brainstorms – Case studies – Expert guest speakers	– Trainers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids	2 days	Knowledge and concept test

	Government financial control i) Describe the components of a government Budget.	funds ix. Government budget				

Topic 7.2 Expanded: Basic Accounting and Finance in Government

i. Book-keeping process	**Accounting** – is the process of recording the financial transactions of an enterprise. The America Accounting Association (1966) describes it as "The process of identifying, measuring and communicating economic information to permit informed judgement and decisions by users of that information." Since, the users of accounting information are many with a variety of interests in the nature of accounts, the process of accounting measurement involves a compromise between different types of user needs. For example, taxation authorities will want to know the profit of a business, and they will want that profit to be computed on an objective a basis as possible, while the shareholders of a company will want information that helps them assess the value of the company. This means then looking at different aspects of the accounting information In any organisation where financial transactions take place, it is necessary that a record of such transactions is maintained. Such records are made as the transactions are made in various accounts. This is the essence of **book-keeping.** Every book-keeping transaction affects at least two different accounts. As such the transactions are recorded in two separate accounts. The two entries are the **Debit** and the **Credit** entries. This is because a transaction results in the increase of one aspect of business while another aspect is reduced or something reduced from it. For example, when stock is bought using cash, there will be a reduction in the cash, but the stock will increase. This is the meaning of **Double entry concept.** The Double Entry Concept basically means that for every simple entry or transaction that the enterprise undertakes, two accounts will be affected for which one will be debited and another credited. In our example above (Banked cash £100), the two affected accounts are the bank account and cash account. The bank account is credited with the sum of £100 it has received in the form of a cash deposit made by the enterprise. While the cash account is debited with the sum of £100 it has deposited with the bank. While these ways of recording accounts are the preserve of the accounting profession, it is good that managers of other professional disciplines should understand these basic accounting procedures. These entries are made in what is referred to as the **books of original entry or subsidiary books.** The main books of original entry include Cash book, the Sales day book (or journal), the Purchases day book (Journal), the vote books, among others. Each of these books of original entry provides certain information which includes: the date of the transaction; the particulars of the transaction, the amount, the invoice or receipt number where applicable. The information that is recorded in these books of original entry is derived from certain source documents such as the invoices, the credit notes, the cash receipts, and the cheque counterfoils Accounting records are kept in several books of accounts. These consist of books of original entities like journals, ledgers and balance sheets. The journals will tell which account has been debited and which one has

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<td>credit with the transaction amount of money or the value of the transaction, e.g. bank cash of pounds 100; the two affected accounts will be cash account and bank account in which the bank account will be receiving the sum of £100 and hence will be credited for the sum, while the cash account will be giving the sum of £100, in which cash it will be debited. The ledger books will show the two accounts with all transactions of credits and those with the debts. These types of accounts are sometimes known as T accounts, because they reassemble letter ‘T’ with credits on one side and debts on the other side. The following is the illustration of these books:

1. Journal accounts – banked cash: CR (Credit) DR (Debit)
Bank | Cash
£100 | £100

2. Ledger accounts: CR Bank account DR — CR Cash account DR
Cash £100 | — | Bank £100

3. Balance sheet: Liabilities Assets
xxx | xxx

Book-keeping is the process by which the monetary transactions are recorded and kept in an enterprise. Book-keeping refers to keeping of the enterprise’s books of account, which is our example above are: journal entries, ledger entries, trial balances entries, and balance sheet entries, all giving different information related to the enterprise’s financial position. All books of accounts will be in either account receivable or payable, that money being received or paid out. In some cases, the account will consist of one book for accounts receivable and another for payable accounts.</td>
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<td>ii. Accountable documents</td>
<td>There are certain documents that are generated within the accounting process in Government Service that must be carefully maintained and preserved as they may be demanded for scrutiny and verification at anytime. These are referred to as the accountable documents. These would include:

• Payment vouchers which show what has been paid for.
• Invoices issued for services rendered, or received for services provided as a reminder of what is owed.
• Goods received notes issued when goods are received in the store
• Stores issues notes which are given when items are issued to user departments from stores.
• Assets register which is a record of the various assets owned.
• Board of survey documents.
• Local purchase orders issued to authorise purchases.</td>
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	These are some of the documents which need to be stored for a long time before disposal in case of subsequent disputes.
iii. The cash-book	The cash-book is the book where transactions involving cash and cheques are recorded. The entries recorded include receipts or payments of money both cash and cheques. The book therefore has both cash and bank columns. In line with the double entry concept, the entries could be either Debit or Credit entries depending on the nature of the transaction. The cash book serves as a book of original entry as already mentioned. However it also serves as a ledger, this is a principal book for cash financial transactions of the organisation. There are various cash books, which include the petty cashbook one column cash book and the two column cash book.
iv. Bank reconciliation	As already mentioned, most financial transactions involve the bank. Cash and cheques receipts are usually made to the bank. Payments are also usually made through the bank by the use of cheques. The bank therefore issues statements to its clients on regular basis showing all the transactions that have taken place within the period. These transactions that have taken place within the period. These transactions should also ideally be reflected in the cash book as either Debit or Credit entries. There therefore exists a close relationship between the cash book maintained in the organisation, and the bank statement received. Therefore on receipt of the statement, it is necessary that items within it be verified with their corresponding entries in the cash book. This is the process of <u>Bank Reconciliation.</u> There may however be differences between what is reflected in the cash book and what is reflected in Bank Statement. This may arise because of the transactions involving each payments and each receipt. A cheque may have been issued but not yet presented to the bank. There will be an entry for it in the cash book, but it will not be reflected in the bank statement, it could also have been presented to the bank but it is not yet cleared through the banking cheques clearing system. Therefore, there will be no reduction in the cash balance in the bank, while the balance in the cash book will be adjusted. Similarly, a cheques could have been received and presented to the bank, but be not yet cleared. The bank balances will therefore not reflect the amount of the cheques while the cash book will have reflected the same. It is therefore important to be aware of such discrepancies as we carry out a back reconciliation exercise.
v. Ledger and simple final accounts	A ledger is a book that contains different accounts. Transactions are then recorded in their appropriate ledge accounts. These transactions are recorded in the order in which they occur. The ledger account therefore shows a systematic recording of changes that have affected it over a given period of time. To do the recording, it is necessary that receipts and payment vouchers are sorted out appropriately. These then need to be batched appropriately and then balanced off, so that the appropriate ledger accounts can be

	prepared from the appropriately classified receipt and payments vouchers include: • The Sales or Debtors ledger. • Purchases or Creditors ledger. • Cash books – General ledger. • Nominal ledger and private ledgers. The information contained in the ledgers is used to prepare the organisation's final accounts. The principal final accounts prepared are the Trading profit and loss accounts and the Balance Sheet. The Trading Profit and Loss account traces the operational activities of the business including sales and purchases made over the period, the different types of expenses incurred, and the profit or loss made over the same period. The Balance Sheet on the other hand analyses all the assets, the liabilities and the owners' contributions (Equity) so as to determine the net worth of the organisation. The balance sheet shows all liabilities of the enterprise on one side and the assets of the enterprise on the other side. When the enterprise liabilities are more than its assets, this will be an indication of losses. When the assets are more than the liabilities then the enterprise is gaining.
vi. Suspense and imp rest account	In an organisation there might be funds received whose owners or recipient are not known. The fund would also be there because the owners, who cannot be traced, have not claimed them. This happens a lot in pension funds. There could also be payment without clear documents, making it difficult to determine the account to which they should be apportioned. All of these funds are held to what is referred to as suspense account. The suspense account can only be cleared by identifying the appropriate recipient of the fund or the appropriate vote to which payments should be apportioned. An imp rest is a specific amount of money given to another person to carry out certain official functions. The person is later expected to provide a detailed account or explanation on how the imp rest has been used or spent. This is done at the end of the period in which it is supposed to cover. It's then surrendered to the main cashier. Petty cash in an organisation is handled through the imp rest that is provided to the petty cashier. He surrenders the imp rest as follows: • He totals all payment made and recorded. • He surrenders the payment vouchers to the main cashier for scrutiny. • The main cashier then reimburses (pays bank) the amount equivalent to the amount to that the petty cash cashier has made. This restores the imp rest to the original figure.

vii. Sources of government funds	The government in providing services to the public incurs a lot of expenditure. This expenditure has to be financed through various ways, the principal of which are: **Taxation** – this is the main source of fund to the government. Such taxation should either be direct or indirect. The direct taxation includes tax on our personal income from whatever source, and on tax on income made by organisations. Indirect taxes are taxes on consumption and expenditure, such as sales tax, value added tax (VAT), import duties, exercise tax among others. **Fees and fines** – the government imposes the payment of fees for various activities. To commence a business, it is usual to pay a business license fee to carry on certain functions; you need to pay a certain fee. There are also certain fines that are imposed by courts of law for committing certain offences such as traffic offences. These may constitute quite a substantial proportion of government finances **Sale and assets** – government at times raises funds through the sale of some of its assets. Such assets could include its holdings in commercial enterprises, obsolete machinery and equipments, buildings and land. This could provide substantial amounts of revenue. **Borrowing** – such borrowing could be from either domestic or foreign sources. Borrowing from foreign sources could be either from commercial source, or from donor agencies such as the World Bank. It could also borrow from friendly foreign governments. **Donations** - a government could also receive funds as donations from friendly governments, or donor agencies. This is especially common in times of calamities such as famine and natural disasters. So, funds are collected by revenue authorities through forms designed for the purpose, e.g. Income tax forms, which deliver to the treasury and is spent in various ways. In most cases the revenue collecting authorities may not necessarily be the same as the spending authority. Government incomes are uniforms of taxes, customs and duties collected by several organs of government. Its budgets are by deficit financing from funds raised by various organs of the government. Hence, government funded projects are heavily dependent on its ability to collect these revenues, from taxes, duties and fines. For that reason, government accounting is not made in the business format of profit and loss accounts, because government operations are service oriented and therefore it does not measure its success by profits, but meeting the citizens' desires and needs.
viii. Control of government funds	It is very crucial that government funds being public property be properly controlled in their use. This is in order to ensure that such funds are not misused, embezzled, misappropriated or diverted to uses other than the ones that they have been allocated for. There are therefore elaborate measures that are put in place to ensure such control. These include: • Recommendations by the AIE (Authority to Incur Expenditure) holder for the incurring of the expenditure under consideration.

	• Verification of the genuineness of the purchase or expenditure. • Examination that the accounting is correct. • Authorisation for the expenditure to be incurred and the funds to be released. • Auditing that the funds have been spent correctly. • Imposition of a mechanism for appropriate checks and balances.
ix. Government budget	The Budget means the annual financial statement containing an estimate of all anticipated revenue and expenditure of the government for the coming financial year. It also contains a review of the financial position of the previous year, the proposals for financing revenue and capital expenditure for the coming year. In government service, this overall budget is then made up of the budget of the various ministries and departments. For the ministries and departments their budget will be reflected in various ways votes, which are the key areas of expenditure such as training. These votes would then be divided into appropriate sub-votes such as over-sea training or local training to the training votes. Such sub-votes would further be divided into heads, items and sub- items. Each aspect of expenditure in the Government expenditure should be allocated to its appropriate vote, sub-vote, head, item and sub-item. This facilitates control of Government expenditure discussed above. Government budgets are set up in the form of chapters, e.g. chapter one might be salaries or wages. Chapter two might be development etc. The means of government accounts control are institutions like the Auditor General Chamber, which does the audit of public institutions. The three branches of government – the executive, the legislative, and the judiciary – serve as checks and balances over most government operations. The executive branch of government executes and implements operations of government, that is why it is known as the doing arm of government. The legislative branch of government is responsible for making laws, which guide the executive arm on what constitutes a legal operation, and guide the behaviour of civil servants in the delivery of service to the citizens. The judiciary branch is responsible for the law enforcement; it interprets the law and guides the behaviour of law enforcement activities. The whole of these areas are the domain of the fields of study of government and political science but a manager is required to have a basic understanding of these as they influence activities associated with day to day running of organisations.

Topic 7.3: Legal Aspects of Public Administration

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
LEGAL ASPECTS OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION	By the end of this course unit, the participating manager should be able to: a) Discuss the general principles of law and their application in Government service b) Provide government service within the prescriptions of constitutional law c) Appreciate the role of administrative law in enhancing good governance d) Describe the essential aspects of the law of persons.	i. General principles of law – Definition of law – Distinction between law norms, rules and regulations – Distinction between law of contract, law of torts, land law and criminal law ii. The sources of law in Southern Sudan iii. Constitutional law – Principles of constitutionalism – Arms of government as per the constitution of S.S – Fundamental rights and freedoms iv. Administrative law – Legal principles of administrative law – Adjudication agencies	– Lectures – Expert guest speakers – Discussions – Exercises – Brainstorms	– Trainers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids – Sample documents	1 day	Knowledge and concept test

		other than ordinary courts – Remedies available to persons aggrieved by administrative officers v. Law of persons – Nature of legal personality – Types of corporations and companies – Companies versus partnerships – Memorandum and articles of association				

Topic 7.3 Expanded: Legal Aspects of Public Administration

i. General principles of law	Workers in public service operate within the legal framework of the country. They are guided by the laws of the land and the rules and regulations operating therein. It is therefore important that they have a general understanding of the essentials of such laws, so that they are able to conform to the stipulations therein. It is necessary that at the onset, we have a general understanding of the meaning of the term 'law'. In general law may be defined as a rule, enacted or customary in a community, and recognized as enjoining or prohibiting certain actions, and enforced by the imposition of penalties. The laws of a country are to some extent an expression of the morality of that country. We should note that law is much more than mere norms. Norms refer to the prescribed standards of conduct for a community, the customary behaviour that should be conformed to, and they are not overtly enforceable as such. We have also mentioned that law is a rule. So what is a rule? A rule maybe defined as a principle to which action conforms, or is required to conform. It is a principle or standard or the normal state of things. Law is also closely related to regulations, although regulations may not have the wider application and enforceability of laws. To regulate is to control by rules, and to subject the people so regulated to certain restrictions. There are many aspects of law with which the public service office should be familiar. These include the law of contract, the law of torts, criminal law and even civil law. A contract in its simple form may be defined as an agreement, express or implied, which gives rise to legal obligations. It may be in writing or agreed orally, or even implied from the conduct of parties. However there must be both an offer and acceptance of something of value on mutually agreed terms. The law governing such agreements is the law of contract. Torts are private wrongs or civil offenses against people or organisations for which the law grants a remedy. The main objective is to compensate a person for the damage which he has suffered. These are distinct from the branches of contract. A crime is an offense against society. It disrupts the stable environment that we all depend upon to make civilization work. When the citizen's right to live in peace is violated by such activity, the offense is then governed by criminal law. When the private legal rights of an individual are violated, the matter is governed by civil law. Civil law refers to the group of laws that redress wrongs against the individual person. It applies whenever one person has a right to sue another person.

ii. The sources of law in Southern Sudan	The sources of law would generally include: 1. The constitution of the country: A constitution is written, and is a formal document that has been drawn up containing all the fundamental laws. The process of constitution making is at times a painful and acrimonious exercise, calling for a lot of patience and compromise among the various parties and vested interests involved. This is no different in the case of southern Sudan. 2. Legislation by which we mean acts of parliament: The legislative power of parliament is exercisable by the bills passed. The effect of a new act is that it binds all people in the country, without discrimination. 3. Subsidiary legislation, which can also be defined as delegated legislation. Parliament may delegate its legislative function to another body, such as local authorities, statutory boards, and professional bodies, which then becomes known as delegated legislation. The bulk of delegated legislation however emanates from government departments. 4. Customary law, especially African customary law: This is so because there have always been rules applicable to the different ethnic groups in the country. Such rules would form what is described as African customary law. Customary law would for example address matters pertaining to land held under customary tenure, marriage, divorce, dowry, maintenance and matters affecting status, among other issues. Customary law usually applies when one of the parties is subject to, or affected by it. 5. Islamic Law: this may be a significant source of law in the Sudan where there is quite a substantive segment of the population that is Muslim.
iii. Constitutional law	A constitution can be defined as *“A document having a special legal sanctity which sets out the framework and the principal functions of the organs of government of a state and declares the principles governing the operation of these organs”.* A constitution as defined above is a written document although there are cases of unwritten constitutions as is the case in Great Britain. It could also be rigid or flexible in terms of how easily it can be amended. We also have unitary and federal constitutions. In the case of the latter, the powers of state are divided between the central government and the federal states. Constitutional law operates within the principles of constitutionalism. These tend to amplify on the meaning of government, the state, sovereignty, and the rule of law. Constitutional law defines the various arms of government and demarcates the powers of each of the arms in accordance with the principle of the separation of powers. These arms of government Include: 1. The Executive – the executive normally consists of the president (Head of state) the vice president(s),

	ministers and assistant ministers, who are all members of the national assembly. The ministries are staffed by civil servants. The executives implement all the laws made by parliament, as well as carrying out other functions that are necessary for the smooth administration of the country. The powers, functions, composition and limitations of the executive are clearly defined in the constitution. 2. The Legislature – the legislature comprises of the president and the national assembly. The person who presides over meetings of the national assembly is the speaker, who is elected by the national assembly from among persons who are members of the national assembly or who are qualified to be elected as such members. The bulk of the members of the national assembly should ideally be elected by the people on the basis of defined constituencies and are thus representatives of those people in the assembly. They should clearly articulate the interests and views of those who elected them. The work of the national assembly may be divided as basically either, legislative in terms of enacting laws; financial in terms of being a watchdog over the government expenditure through various committees; or critical in terms of ensuring the president ministers are doing their job by means of questions and criticisms. The constitution spells out the composition powers, functions and limitations of the legislature. 3. The Judiciary – the Judiciary adjudicates on the disputes which arise out of the laws made by parliament and administered by the executive. It determines disputes which arise between individuals as well as those which arise between individuals and the state. It will also protect the individual, whether citizen or non-citizen against the excesses of government officials. It acts as the guardian of the constitution. A criterion of freedom is whether a country has an independent judiciary that is not subject to the whims, directives and manipulation of the executive. The judiciary has its own structure and levels within given jurisdictions and is headed by a chief Justice. The constitution should spell out the fundamental rights that should be enjoyed by an individual. These rights are basically universal, touching on issues such as freedom of movement, speech, assembly, ownership of property, life among others.
iv. Administrative law	Administrative law relates to public administration within a country. It is the law which guides the operations of the government officers that are involved in actual administrative duties, right from the grassroots levels to the senior state administrators. Administrative law should be guided by certain principles including natural justice, jurisdiction and discretion. In the execution of administrative law, it is usual to have, other than ordinary courts, some other adjudication agencies. These would deal with matters relating to, among others, liquor licensing, transport licensing, rent, arbitration and land disputes. There are also various remedies that are available to person who may be aggrieved by administrative decisions. These include remedies such as certiorari, prohibition, mandamus, injunction, declaration, damages,

	and account.
v. Law of persons	Legal persons are persons who are given a legal personality by the law, including certain artificial entities which are given a fictitious legal personality by the law. Unlike the natural person, this artificial entity with its legal personality does not die. The legal persons have their rights and liabilities. There are different types of such entities, these include: • A limited company – this can be either public or private. A public limited company is one whose shares may be on offer to the general public through the stock exchange, while a private limited company cannot be offered to the general public. A limited company is formed by the individuals in conformity with the relevant company law, after which it assumes its own legal personality separate from that of the individuals forming it. It can own property on its own, sue and be sued among other things. • A statutory corporation – this is created by an act of parliament. The powers of such a corporation would be limited to those which are expressly conferred by the act, but once created; such a corporation also assumes its legal personality with the said rights and liabilities. • A partnerships – this is a type of unincorporated business organisation owned by at least two persons and not more than 20, although partnerships of professionals such as lawyers can have up to 50 persons. However, unlike the corporations (limited companies), the law does not recognize partnerships as being separate and independent from their owners, or those persons forming them. Persons who wish to form a limited company have to register the company with the relevant government agency such as registrar of companies. These have to subscribe their names to the two mandatory documents, i.e. the memorandum of association and the articles of association. The Memorandum of association gives the name of the company, the address of its registered office, declares its objects, states the amount of capital of the company, and the nature of the liability of its members. It is intended to explain the company to the external world. The articles of association regulate the organisation and management of the company. They set out the rules and regulations governing the internal organisation and the management of the company.

Topic 7.4: Planning and Budgeting

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
PLANNING AND BUDGETING	By the end of this course unit, the participating manager should be able to: a) Explain the meaning and purposes of planning and budgeting b) Describe the relationship between budgeting and planning c) Describe the various types of budgets d) Analyse the components of a budget e) Describe the types of budgets within the government set-up.	i. Meaning of planning and budgeting – Planning refers to preparing a series of action steps to achieve a goal – A budget is an advance game plan for the use of available resources within a special period of time ii. Relationship between budgeting and planning – Budgeting states necessary goals for planning – Budgeting injects precision in planning – It infuses cost consciousness in management when planning – Helps anticipate future	– Lectures – Discussions – Exercises – Brainstorms – Expert guest speakers – Application to own work	– Trainers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids – Sample documents	1 day	Knowledge and concept test

		problems and opportunities iii. Types of budget – Fixed – Variable (flexible) – Long-term – Short-term iv. Components of a budget – Expenditure items – Capital expenditure – Revenue expenditure v. Types of budgets in government – Departmental/ Ministerial – State – Union (GOSS)				

Topic 7.4 Expanded: Planning and Budgeting

i. Meaning of planning and budgeting	What is planning? Planning is one of the most important project and time management techniques and, at the organisational level, essential for the efficient running of any organisation. Planning refers to preparing a sequence of action steps to achieve some specific goal. If you do it effectively, it reduces the time and effort necessary to achieve the goal. A plan is like a map; when following a plan you can always see how far you have progressed towards achieving the goal, and how far you are from the destination. A plan keeps you on track, and knowing where you are is essential for making good decisions on where to go or what to do next. Planning is also crucial for being able to meet the needs of each action step with time, money or other resources because they have been anticipated in the plan. With careful planning you can predict if at some point you are likely to face a problem. It is easier to adjust your plan to avoid or smooth out a coming crisis rather than approach a situation without a plan and try to deal with crises that arrive unexpectedly. In summary, planning is a process for coping with uncertainty by formulating future courses of action to achieve specific results. What is a budget? A budget refers to: • A sum of money allocated for a particular purpose, e.g. the laboratory runs on a budget of $1 million a year. • A summary of intended expenditures along with proposals for how to meet them, e.g. the President submitted the annual budget to Parliament. • A list of all planned expenses and revenues. A budget is an important concept in microeconomics, which uses a budget line to illustrate the trade-offs between two or more goods. In other terms, a budget is an organisational plan stated in monetary terms.
ii. Relationship between budgeting and planning	The relationship between planning and budgeting is best discussed in terms of: • Human and organisational obstacles, e.g. the insufficiency of resources to satisfy plans. • Reallocation of resources, e.g. response to a crisis situation or to institutionalised processes. • Political pressures. Planning and budgeting go together because for plans to succeed they need to be costed and the money necessary to achieve each step allocated so the budget forms and essential part of the plan. Expenditure then needs to be tracked against the plan as the work progresses. Within planning, budgeting helps to:

	• Establish (financial) goals in planning. • Inject precision since evaluating how much each step will cost forces people to consider all aspects, the details as well as the overall picture. • Infuse cost consciousness since at the end of the day plans cannot be enacted unless they can be funded. • Anticipate future problems and opportunities since when expenditure is considered against each step in the plan the flow and timing of necessary funding becomes clear, and contingencies can be built in.
iii. Types of budget	There are typically four types of budget: 1. Fixed budget – a budget that is made without regard to potential variations in business activity. Such budgeting may be effective form with for low variable costs, but otherwise is likely to be inaccurate. 2. Flexible budget – a set of revenue and expenses projections at various production or sales volumes. In other words, it is a budget that adjusts of flexes for changes in the volume of activity. A flexible budget is more sophisticated and useful than a static budget which remains at one amount regardless of the volume of activity. 3. Long-term budget – this is a quarter to quarter plan used for financial statement reporting. It should be prepared during the two months preceding the fiscal year-end to allow ample time for sufficient information gathering. The long-term budgeting should cover a period of at least three years (some go up to five years) on a quarterly basis or short-term budget, even annual basis. The long-term budget should be updated when the short-term budget is prepared. 4. Short-term budget – this is a monthly plan for at least one calendar year. Some managers prefer to leave the one-year budget unchanged for the year in which case it provides projections, while others adjust the budget during the year, based on certain financial occurrences, such as an unplanned equipment purchase or a larger than expected sales trend.
iv. Components of a budget	The following are some of the main components of a budget: • Expenditure items – the classification of an expenditure as capital expenditure or revenue expenditure is governed by certain conventions, by some provisions of law, and by the desire of management to enhance or depress reported profits or losses. • Capital expenditure – this is an amount spent to acquire or improve a long-term asset such as equipment or buildings. Usually the cost is recorded in an amount classified as property, plant and equipment. The cost (except the cost of land) will be charged to depreciation expense covering the useful life of the asset.

	• Revenue expenditure – this is an amount that is expressed immediately thereby being matched with revenue of the current accounting period. Often outlays on research and development, major advertising campaigns, and reconditioning of plant and machinery may be treated as revenue expenditure for accounting purposes, even though they are expected to generate a stream of benefits in the future. Some of the principles useful when setting budgets are: • Distributed authority, responsibility and accountability – authority is distributed to managers at different levels in the organisation, with clarity about how much they have authority to spend. • Bottom-up establishment of priorities – often the people nearest the action have the best idea of the resources necessary so they should be consulted on priorities. • Collaborative, consultative decision making – so that decisions are based on the best information and involve those who will have to implement them. • Clear and concise performance expectations – so that people know what they are working towards, progress can be measured and, if necessary corrective action taken.

v. Types of budgets in government	The budget is the principal mechanism through which the Government reallocates existing resources and provides a limited amount of new resources in order to achieve its desired outcomes within its fiscal policy objectives. The Government's budget in any one year is the key outcome of a cycle of activity that occurs throughout the year. This cycle comprises a range of products and processes which feed into and flow from the budget. Types of budgets in government:
	
	• Departmental/Ministerial budget – the cycle of activity that occurs throughout the year is what we call the Departmental or Ministerial budget. The following steps have to be considered:
	  ◦ Establish goals for the quarter or year.
	  ◦ Define line item expenses.
	  ◦ Establish headcount projections and changes in headcount.
	  ◦ Provide variance for expense line items.
	
	• State budget – given their areas of autonomy within Southern Sudan, each state sets and manages its own budget.
	
	• Union budget – this is the annual report of the Government as a country. It contains the Government's revenue and expenditures for the end of a particular fiscal year, which runs (for GOSS) from 1st January to 31st December. The union budget is the most extensive account of the Government finance in which revenues from all sources and expenses of all activities undertaken are aggregated.

Topic 7.5: Information Technology

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY	By the end of this course unit, the participating manager should be able to: a) Explain the meaning of technology b) Explain the meaning of information technology (IT) c) Discuss the types of electronic devices used in IT d) Discuss the various ways in which Information Technology is applied in an organisation	i. Meaning of technology ii. Meaning of Information technology (IT) – Use of electronic devices to collect, analyze, store and transmit information iii. Types of electronic devices used in IT (e.g. computers, mobile phones, fax machines, etc.) iv. Ways in which IT is applied in organisations – Operational use – Strategic use – Marketing – Customer service – Internal communication – Market research – Communicating with suppliers	– Lectures – Discussions – Case studies – Practical exercises – Brainstorms – Field visits	– Trainers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids – Sample documents – Sample of electronic devises	1 day	Knowledge and concept test

Topic 7.5 Expanded: Information Technology

i. Meaning of technology	By technology, we refer to the use of machines, tools and information in production. Some of the technology used may be quite basic and backward. This is the case in most of the informal enterprises found in towns and in subsistence cultivation. However, organisations have increasingly been adopting quite sophisticated technologies in production. In the more developed countries, there is a quite an increased use of computers and robots, minimizing the need for human labour. Such computer-controlled production is termed 'Computer Aided Production (CAP), and computers are also used in design; Computer Aided Design (CAD). This means that machine use in production has increased tremendously which in turn has increased the importance of information technology in enterprise. This is because information technology is the key to operating automated machines such as robots.
ii. Meaning of information technology (IT)	Information Technology (IT) simply refers to the use of electronic devices to collect, analyze, store and transmit information. As the need for information increases in enterprises due to the use of operating automated machines, it is necessary that better and more efficient ways of collecting, analyzing, storing and transmitting such information be developed. Competitive pressure transfer information quickly has added to the pace of development. Great strides have been made in recent years in this field of information technology; as such information is processed in milliseconds and transmitted over long distances in real time. The degree of accuracy in the analysis of such information has also been highly enhanced through the use of the modern devices available.
iii. Types of electronic devices used in IT	There are many different types of electronic devices that have enhanced the quality of information technology available. These range from the telephone itself, the mobile phone, fax machines and computers. The sophistication and range of applications of each of these devices has in recent years increased by leaps and bounds. Even the mobile phone has features whose masterly would enable the user to do incredible things with the information and data available. This has been extensively discussed in the section Communicating Electronically.
iv. Ways in which IT is used in the organisation	Information technology has very wide application in organisations including governmental organisations. This includes: 1. Operational Use – IT is proving to be invaluable in enhancing efficiency and effectiveness in communication and internal operations of organisations. Decisions need to be made with increased speed and greater accuracy given the nature of the competitive environment within which most organisations operate. Information sharing among departments is crucial to their efficiency. Cross-referencing is also standard practice. This calls for effective communication across the organisational set-up, whether local, regional and global. IT applications such as e-mail, the Internet, and an organisation's Intranet (information that sits on the Internet but is restricted to one's own organisation) have increased the speed of communication within and between organisations, and made information

	much more accessible – from within one's organisation via an organisation's Intranet, or globally via the Internet. Organisations can also use the Internet to publicize their activities (via their own 'website'), advertise and sell services and products, recruit staff, etc. Software packages such as Word, PowerPoint, Excel enable word processing, slide creation and spread sheeting respectively, all powerful ways of documenting and presenting information in forms than can be transmitted and stored electronically. More sophisticated software packages are available for specialized functions such as database creation, human resource management, website creation, publishing documents, accounting, graphic design, etc. 2. Strategic Use – the advent of globalization has meant that organisations are now exposed to more competitive forces than ever before. They therefore have to design strategies that will make them remain relevant if not stay ahead. This is true even for the governments. They therefore need to design strategies for better organisational positioning in the industries in which they operate or in the regions in which they are located. IT plays a key role in such organisational strategic positioning and repositioning. 3. Marketing - marketing approaches have been revolutionalised by Information Technology. New frontiers have been created even for relatively small, local firms who can now access markets and market information globally at a very low cost. Organisations can sell products through electronic catalogues. Bookings and order placements are now being made online. In fact some airlines are discouraging bookings other than online. Some embassies also encourage visa applicants to do it online and check subsequent outcomes the same way. 4. Customer Service – this is the key to survival of organisations. Customer service depends on the quality of customer information received. Organisations can now access customer information through telephone hotlines. Many organisations are providing their customers with toll free telephone hotlines to encourage customer communication. They can also access such information through customer Internet addresses and websites. 5. Internal Communication - good internal communication is crucial in enhancing the quality of service provided by an organisation. It is therefore important that all organisations, including governments, should seek ways to improve their internal communication networks. This can be done through the use of e-mail, voice mail, faxes video conferencing, Intranet and Internet. The benefit attendant to such improved communication includes: • It enhances the motivation of workers which translates in greater productivity of the workers and reduced negativity. • It focuses the workers on goal communality such that efforts are directed in one direction. • It enhances the coordination of service provision throughout the organisation leading to more satisfied clients. • It also improves on the use of office space in the organisation with its attendant cost saving

	implications. 6. Market Research – IT facilities market research. It is much easier to find out about customers' needs, market trends, the position of competitors, etc. through the use of IT. Data collection is now much easier and less time consuming. 7. Communicating with suppliers – it has now become very easy and convenient to communicate with suppliers. This has been particularly made possible through the use of Electronic Data Interchange (E.D.I) facility.

Topic 7.6: Human Resources

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
HUMAN RESOURCES	By the end of this course unit, the participating manager should be able to: a) Explain the importance of HR policy and know how policy is formulated b) Explain various strategies for developing staff c) Set pay and determine when an employee should be promoted d) Write a job description e) Explain the importance of managing performance f) Initiate the hiring of a member of staff g) Explain the purpose of employee assistance programmes and how they are set up	i. HR policy and procedure ii Developing staff – Why develop staff? – Strategies – Factors to consider – Processes iii Setting pay and promotions – Factors to consider – Different pay systems – Promotions iv Job descriptions – Purpose – Content – Formulating job descriptions v. Managing performance – Performance standards – Monitoring performance – Appraising performance vi. Hiring and dismissal – Recruitment/selection – Bases for dismissal vii. Employee assistance	– Lectures – Discussions – Case studies – Practical exercise – Field visits	– Trainers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids – Sample HR documents	2 days	Knowledge and concept test

Topic 7.6 Expanded: Human Resources

i. Human Resources policy and procedure	HR policies and procedures are important for an organisation because they provide common direction and consistency for HR practices, ensure that legal and government requirements are met, set standards for management practice, and enhance employee motivation because they contribute to fair treatment. Different cadres of management have roles to play in the formulation of HR policy, including top management (setting strategic direction), senior management (policy formulation), middle management, team leaders and supervisors (input to policy formulation and implementation), and HR Managers (drafting of policies and procedures, advice to managers, implementation). Areas covered by HR policies and procedures include: resourcing; pay, benefits and promotion; performance management; development; training; grievance and discipline; industrial relations; and safety and health. Factors to consider when formulating HR policy include general organisational policy (so that it is aligned with the organisation's vision, mission, strategy and values), Government regulations (e.g. employment law, health and safety legislation, gender balance), and industry practice (to develop best practice and to be competitive). In Southern Sudan, Section 5 of the booklet A Policy Framework for the Public Service of Southern Sudan (2007) describes some guiding principles for personnel management and procedures in the public service. Section 5.1 states: *"Mindful of the overall goals of equity and affirmative action – promotion, discipline, termination, retirement, training, and all other aspects of personnel management shall be governed by the principle of individual merit and performance in the job. The principle of seniority, however, shall be accorded due respect and consideration, provided that it does not conflict with the principle of merit and performance."* The booklet goes on to state that all standards, criteria and procedures to do with personnel management (recruitment, promotion, discipline, separation, and retirement of government employees) are to be formulated by the MLPS&HRD after wide consultation with other stakeholders. Such procedures should be simple and transparent, focus on the essential priorities, and conform to international good practice and experience in post-conflict situations. They are recommended by the Ministry, approved by the Council of Ministers, and promulgated by the President of Southern Sudan. This subject is covered in more detail in Topic 8.1 of the Master Curriculum: HR Policy and Procedure.
ii. Developing staff	Organisations develop staff to fill more responsible and skilled positions in the organisation, and because it is good for the organisation to get the best out of its employees. Staff development also enhances employee morale and thus contributes to a positive working environment and higher performance.

	There are a number of strategies for developing staff including job rotation, coaching, mentoring, delegation, understudying, secondment, projects, training, education, and external seminars. The strategy adopted will depend on the development needs of the individual and the organisation, and on some of the factors outlined below. Factors to consider when developing staff include their level (or grade), the work responsibilities, performance, potential, the progressional path they are on, and the resources available (since some development activity, e.g. attending training, is costly). Organisations use various processes to implement development including: • Staff development committees/panels – where managers meet to discuss the development of their staff against available opportunities. • Personal development plans – where individual employees draw up their own development plans, reality checked with their manager. • Job posting – jobs are advertised internally and employees encouraged to apply. • Succession planning – suitable candidates are listed for senior posts. • High potential programmes – while it the organisation's responsibility to develop all its staff, those with the potential to fill very senior posts may need particular attention so that they get the range of experience necessary for high office. This subject is covered in more detail in Topic 8.2 of the Master Curriculum: Developing Staff.
iii. Setting pay and promotions	Pay and promotions are important ways of rewarding and motivating staff for their efforts. In setting pay, various factors need to be considered including: pay policy and structure (in the case of public service, Government regulations); job responsibility; education training and experience; individual performance; pay structure of similar organisations (to be competitive), and financial capability. Organisations operate different pay systems, most using salary/wage plus other benefits (e.g. pension, welfare, transport, etc.), some also utilise commissions and bonuses The bases for employee promotion include stepping up to greater responsibility, achieving qualifications, building experience, exhibiting high performance, and demonstrating increased competence. Some organisations progress staff through grades in a programmed way, assuming they meet the necessary criteria for the next level. **For Southern Sudan**, Sections 4 and 5 of the booklet A Policy Framework for the Public Service of Southern Sudan (2007) describe the grade and salary structure for the public service, and the process for promotions. Similarly, the Manual of Public Service Procedures outlines the grade structure, promotion process, and also

gives details of other benefits (e.g. financial advances, personal allowances, medical benefits, pensions, leave).

The grade structure for Southern Sudan is made up of 17 grades split into 5 categories:

- Super Grade (Grades 1-6).
- Administrative and Professional (Grades 7-9).
- Sub-Professional and Technical (Grades 10, 12 and 14).
- Unclassified Skilled (Grades 11, 13 and 15).
- Unclassified Unskilled (Grades 16-17).

Grade	***Grade Category***	***Title or Position***
1	Super Grade	Secretary General; Under Secretary
2		Director General
3		Director
4		Deputy Director
5		Chief Technical Officer/Expert
6		Assistant Chief Technical Officer
7	Administrative and Professional	Senior Inspector/Officer
8		Inspector/ Technical Officer
9		Assistant Inspector/Officer & Graduate Entry
10	Sub-Professional and Technical	Head Staff Clerk/Accountant, Primary Teacher etc.
12		Senior Clerk/Book Keeper, Medical Assistant etc.
14		Clerk/Book Keeper, Secretary etc.
11	Unclassified Skilled	Technician, Artisan etc.
13		Head Mechanics, Senior Driver etc.
15		Fitter, Mechanic, Driver
16	Unclassified Unskilled	Messenger, Unskilled Labourer etc.
17		Cleaner, Daily Paid Labourer etc.

	For each of these grades, there exist titles or positions, as shown in the table above. The wage structure uses these grades and is governed by three general principles: 1. Affordability and sustainability and equal pay for equal work – the pay structure needs to be prudent and maintain an appropriate balance between the public service wage bill and other expenditures. Personnel in similar job positions with similar responsibilities will be remunerated in a similar manner and at an equal value. 2. Competitiveness and capacity to retain – compensation levels in the public service must be comparable with competitive private market salaries; adequate to attract, retain and motivate qualified professionals, managers and technical staff. 3. Minimise monetary and in-kind allowances – compensation and benefits should consist of transparent monetary compensation, keeping use of special allowances to a minimum. For each of the above grades, there is a corresponding salary band (quoted in US$, monthly), detailed in the Policy Framework booklet (2007). Some salary "steps" or increments are to be provided within each grade to permit some progression whilst keeping the structure as simple as possible. The salary structure detailed in the 2007 booklet was due to be reviewed in time for incorporation into the 2008 budget. Thereafter, the guiding principle for general wage level increase should be that "real wages increase annually by the same percentage as the growth in real GDP per capita during the previous year" (Section 4.10). The promotion process in Southern Sudan is laid out in the Policy Framework (2007) and Procedures Manual (2007). Promotion follows the same procedure as that for recruitment, selection and appointment into the various categories of staff (see below). This subject is covered in more detail in Topic 8.3 of the Master Curriculum: Setting Pay and Promotions.
iv. Job descriptions	Job descriptions are important for giving clarity of responsibilities, duties and accountabilities of employees, minimise conflict, help managers to allocate resources, and are also used in other HR processes such as recruitment and job evaluation. A job description needs to contain the job title and grade (job identification), its department & location, a summary of the job's purpose, relationships (to which role the job reports, and other key relationships), and the detailed responsibilities and duties and duties of the job. Job descriptions are formulated by undertaking an analysis of the job – its duties, tasks, responsibilities, main

	outputs, relationships, etc. This is undertaken by the manager with employee participation, and help from the HR unit. Accurate job descriptions are the foundation for job evaluation, which is the process by which jobs are ranked in terms of value to the organisation and the basis for pay determination. This subject is covered in more detail in Topic 8.4 of the Master Curriculum: Job Descriptions.
v. Managing performance	Managing performance is important for organisations and individuals if objectives and targets are to be achieved because 'What gets measured gets done'. The first aspect of managing performance in relation to individuals is determining performance levels so that employees know what they are striving to achieve. This is best done in a consensus building way between the manager and the employee so that the employee owns and is committed to the performance levels set. Performance levels can be defined in relation to benchmarks and through the setting of objectives and targets. Objectives and targets need to be very precisely described and measurable so that performance can be monitored and appraised against them. Monitoring performance is the second aspect. This can be done informally through conversations, and more formally through asking the employee to produce period reports, inspecting work in progress, and getting feedback from clients and other stakeholders. Monitoring is important because it gives the manager an update on how the work is progressing, and the employee time to take stock and useful feedback. If things are going well, it gives the manager a chance to encourage the employee, if things are off-track, it gives the opportunity for corrections to be made and/or support given. The third aspect of managing performance is the appraisal of performance. This usually comes at the end of an agreed performance period (e.g. one year). It is the manager's role to appraise the employee's performance (typically through comments on an appraisal form coupled with an appraisal interview with the employee. This provides a good opportunity for the manager to give feedback to the employee, and it might lead to development activity such as training or coaching. Some organisations link the outcome of performance appraisals (often expressed as an appraisal 'rating' or score) to pay, which gives an added incentive for employees to meet their objectives/targets. There are problems in appraisal such as the perceived subjectivity of managers making appraisal judgements, or comparison by employees that can generate resentment, particularly if pay is involved, or the difficult conversations involved as managers give unwanted feedback to employees. However, high performing organisations have found that the benefits (i.e. higher performance with employees focused on what they know needs delivering) outweigh the problems. There are ways of avoiding/mitigating the problems (see Area 8). **In the Public Service of Southern Sudan**, the Manual of Public Service Procedures (2007: Chapter 4) lays out the guiding principles of performance appraisal in Southern Sudan. With the aim of motivating staff towards high performance, GOSS is committed to developing its employees and has put in place a systematic approach

	to performance appraisal (formal and informal).
	
	Both the Policy Framework (2007: Section 5.12) and the Manual of Public Service Procedures (2007: Chapter 4) set out aspects of the procedure for performance appraisal. Individual merit and performance in the job shall govern issues of promotion, discipline, termination, retirement, training, etc., hence appraisal of performance is very important. In addition the principle of seniority is to be accorded respect and consideration, providing that it does not conflict with the principle of merit and performance.
	
	An annual assessment of individual performance will be conducted by the immediate supervisor based, among other things, on a prior agreed work plan. The assessment should be based on a few simple and explicit criteria, and always shared with the individual concerned but otherwise kept strictly confidential within the public administration.
	
	Adverse performance assessments will always be shown to the individual concerned, that the individual should have the opportunity to discuss the assessment before it is finalised, comment on it in writing, and appeal its outcome to higher administrative levels. Meritorious performance should be recognised in a variety of ways, including non-monetary recognition and accelerated increments within grade.
	
	The Manual of Public Service Procedures (2007: Chapter 4) states that managers responsible for evaluating staff performance may use the following set of performance appraisal ratings:
	
	• *Excellent:* This rating shall be reserved for employees who throughout the year consistently go beyond the implementation level outlined in their job descriptions.
	
	• *Very good:* This rating indicates that the individual consistently performs to the standards and expectations as defined in his/her job description. The employee demonstrates the knowledge, ability, skills and attitudes required by the job for which he/she has been hired.
	
	• *Good:* This rating indicates that the employee barely performed his/her responsibilities showing some improvement.
	
	• *Satisfactory – Needs Improvement:* This rating indicates that the employee needs to improve in one or more key areas of responsibilities as outlined in his/her job description.
	
	• *Low – Poor Performance:* This rating indicates that the employee consistently performed below the standards and expectations set. This is sub-satisfactory performance. Documentation needs to be provided which:
	  ◦ Specifies examples of poor performance.
	  ◦ Indicates that the employee has been advised of his/her poor performance.

	• Support has been given by supervisor towards correcting deficiencies. The Public Service Reforms Implementation Frame Work Manual (2008) sets out planned developments to performance appraisal in the Public Service of Southern Sudan. This subject is covered in more detail in Topic 8.5 of the Master Curriculum: Managing Performance.
vi. Hiring and dismissal	Hiring – recruitment and selection processes – are important so that the organisation is suitably resourced be able to undertake its activities, and need to take into account the resourcing policy of the organisation (including principles like non-discrimination, merit based). The recruitment process refers to generating a pool of candidates to meet requirements. It begins by ascertaining staffing needs through HR resource planning, which is closely linked to and relies on business planning (since resourcing follows business activity). Recruitment then focuses on identifying suitable candidates either from internal or external sources. If recruitment is external, this usually involves placing job advertisements that comprise a job description and sometimes also a personnel specification (i.e. a profile of the ideal person with the skills and competencies who would fit the job) In the selection process, managers and HR use selection techniques to short-list then select the candidate for the job. These techniques include selection interviews, psychometric tests, assessment centres, and reference checks. A job offer is then made detailing the job offered, salary, terms and conditions. Employees leave organisations in various ways – voluntarily through resignation, or at the end of their careers through retirement. The organisation can terminate employment under certain circumstances where there are grounds for dismissal. Such grounds for dismissal include changed requirements (e.g. when an organisation needs to lose staff through downsizing and redundancy), unsatisfactory performance, and misconduct. In each of these cases, HR procedures need to be followed. In the cases of unsatisfactory performance and misconduct, if the matters cannot be resolved by the interventions of the manager (e.g. through conversation, coaching, training, etc.), the organisation's disciplinary procedure would normally be followed – this ensures a fair and systematic approach, fulfils the requirements of employment law, and helps avoid wrongful dismissal which is bad for the employee and the organisation alike. **In Southern Sudan,** the Policy Framework (2007) states that recruitment is to be, as a general principle, merit-based, but also needs to be mindful of: • Representativeness of various population groups. • Gender considerations. • Equity and affirmative action criteria of the core values of the public service. In addition, there are some groups that require special attention.

	The Policy Framework (2007) and Procedures Manual (2007) stipulate the selection and appointment procedures for the various categories of staff. The criteria for selection as laid in the Procedures Manual (2007) and Policy Framework (2007) in descending order of importance (1 highest priority) are: 1. Years of experience in the post (or its equivalent) to be filled or service in the SPLA. 2. Satisfactory references or other assessments of past performance (e.g. service in the SPLM/SPLA). 3. Education (as appropriate to the post to be filled). • University Degree. • Vocational Training. • Secondary School Certificate. • Primary. • Informal training. 4. Functional literacy in English. 5. Gender balance. 6. Geographic balance. 7. Computer literacy. There are several ways that an individual's employment with an organisation can be terminated; these include retirement, resignation, redundancy, underperformance, and misconduct. Each must be handled with care and due process. **In Southern Sudan**, the Manual of Public Service Procedures (2007) describes various ways that employment can be terminated: • Voluntary termination: from the employee's initiative e.g. resignation or desertion (Discipline Services only). • Involuntary termination: due to death, dismissal, disciplinary action (suspension), medical and old age retirement, end of contract or retrenchment. • Selection to fill a constitutional post. • Termination by the President of GOSS for public interest. Employees have the right of appeal against involuntary termination. Suspension has to follow the necessary disciplinary procedure (see Procedures Manual, 2007). Retirement policy is set out in the Procedures Manual (2007) as follows:

	• Voluntary retirement age for GOSS staff is 60 years. • Compulsory age for retirement is 65 years. • The unit shall give the employee 6 months notice to prepare for retirement. • Procedures will be set out in the Public Service Regulations which will be issued following the promulgation of the Public Service Act or other interim regulations in place prior to the Act coming into force. This subject is covered in more detail in Topic 8.6 of the Master Curriculum: Hiring and Termination.
vii. Employee assistance	Employee assistance (EA) refers to mechanisms put in place by organisations to support employees with non-work type issues (usually personal issues or problems) in a confidential way. Employee assistance programmes (EAPs) are set up by organisations, but are usually separate from an employee's management line so that employees can get help confidentially. They are beneficial to organisations because they help resolve issues that might otherwise affect employee work performance and work relations. They are beneficial to employees through offering an additional method of getting support outside of family, friends, work colleagues, etc. I.e. when it is important to be able to talk to a professional helper who is impartial and objective. EA tends to be useful for employees struggling with issues such as drug and substance abuse, gambling, stress, and family problems. Work problems can also be addressed (e.g. relationships at work) where an employee finds it difficult to speak with their boss or colleagues. Employee assistance programs can be in-house assistance (using EAPs staff), or out-of-house model (contract with vendors). When organisations set up an EAP it is important to clearly specify the goal/philosophy of the EAP, and develop a policy statement. Staffing needs to be professional (e.g. trained counsellors), and confidentiality must be respected. Managers and supervisors need to be aware of the EAP, and communication sufficient that staff know how to access EAP. This subject is covered in more detail in Topic 8.7 of the Master Curriculum: Employee Assistance. **References:** MLPS&HRD (January, 2007). *A Policy Framework for the Public Service of Southern Sudan.* MLPS&HRD (February, 2007). *Manual of Public Service Procedures.* MLPS&HRD (August, 2008) *Public Service Reforms Implementation Framework Manual*.

Appendix H

Curriculum Area 8: Human Resources

Topic 8.1: Human Resources Policy and Procedure

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
HUMAN RESOURCES POLICY AND PROCEDURE	By the end of this course unit, the participating manager should be able to: a) Explain the importance of a well defined HR policy. b) Discuss the roles of various management cadres in the formulation of the HR policy. c) Discuss the areas covered in the HR policy. d) Discuss the factors considered in formulating the HR policy.	i. Importance of HR policy and procedure – Common direction – Conformity with government requirements – Standard of management practice – Employee motivation ii. Roles of various management cadres iii. Areas covered – Resourcing – Pay and benefits – Career development – Training – Grievance and discipline – Relationships with trade unions – Safety and health iv. Factors considered in policy formulation	– Lectures – Discussions – Exercises – Brainstorms – Expert guest speakers	– Trainers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids – Sample HR policies	1 day	Knowledge and concept test

		– General organisational policy – Government regulatory stipulators – Industry practice				

Topic 8.1 Expanded: Human Resources Policy and Procedure

i. Importance of HR policy and procedure	HR policy is important because it aligns the way employees are treated and managed in a common direction corresponding to the organisation's purpose and values. This provides consistency and aids efficiency since HR activities are undertaken in prescribed, systematic and fair ways. HR policy also ensures conformity with government requirements, including employment legislation, so that employees are treated fairly, equitably and lawfully. Having well thought out and well communicated HR policies enhances standards of management practice since managers have clear guidelines to follow on key areas of HR management such as recruitment, pay, promotions, etc. Following policies that are built on best practice means that managers are more likely to handle people management situations (which can be difficult!) in constructive ways and thus maintain the motivation, working relationships and performance of employees. The consistency, clarity and fair treatment afforded by HR policy can attract people to and retain them in an organisation, and contribute to their motivation. E.g. if employees see that an organisation has policies that of competitive pay, progressive staff development, fair handling of grievances, etc., then they are likely to think more highly of the organisation. HR Policy usually refers to statements that outline an organisation's approach, guidelines and boundaries concerning different aspects of HR management. Procedures normally detail how such policies are enacted by managers and HR staff. E.g. an organisation's recruitment policy might state that all jobs will be advertised internally before going external, that candidates will be judged on their qualifications and experience, that all shortlisted candidates will be interviewed by a manager, etc. The recruitment procedure would then detail how adverts should be constructed and placed, the sequence of events from advertising, short-listing, interviewing, offering/rejecting candidates, what the offer letter should contain, etc.
ii. Roles of various management cadres	Different roles are played by the various management cadres involved in HR policy formulation. For example: • Top management – have the strategic responsibility to determine the overall direction of HR policy, and to ensure that it is aligned with general organisational policy. • Senior managers – might input to policy development, support and develop proposals by top management, and implement policies. • Board of directors – will review strategic policy proposals/changes and give (or not) their stamp of authority through approval.

	• HR managers/professionals – will often have a role in interpreting senior management direction and crafting policy to achieve their aims, then of devising the procedures necessary to implement the policy • Middle managers, supervisors, team leaders – implement policy using the procedures. Also to input to new policy formulation based on their experience of managing staff or to meet needs that arise not covered by existing HR policy. • Staff – through consultation and offering ideas, to contribute to policy formulation.
iii. Areas covered	HR policies and procedures cover all the major areas of HR management including: • Resourcing – how staff are attracted, selected, recruited and retained. • Pay, benefits and promotion – how staff are rewarded and promoted. • Performance management – how staff are appraised. • Career development – how staff are developed and their careers progressed. • Training – how training needs are assess and how training is managed. • Grievance and discipline – how grievances of staff are dealt with, and how disciplinary action should be managed. • Relationships with trade unions – how relationships with unions and other representative bodies are handled. • Safety and health – how issues of health and safety are handled (usually in line with national health and safety at work legislation. In Southern Sudan, the Policy Framework (2007) and the Manual of Public Service Procedures (2007) contain many of these HR policies and procedures.
iv. Factors considered in policy formulation	There are several factors to consider when formulating HR policy including: • General organisational policy – HR policy aims to ensure that employees are treated and managed in ways such that the organisation gets its business done effectively and efficiently, hence needs to be in line with and guided by the organisation's general policy, i.e. its vision, mission, strategy and values. Research and experience have shown that generally speaking, when HR policies are formulated fairly, communicated widely, and implemented consistently, then they contribute to employee motivation and positive employee relations. • Government regulatory stipulators – such regulations provide guidance and boundaries to policy formulation, e.g. employment law, health and safety legislation, affirmative action on gender balance, etc.

	• Industry practice – what other organisations in the sector are doing also needs to be considered. There might be best practice to adopt, or competitive pressure to formulate policy in a particular way (e.g. if your competitors are recruiting all the best talent then you may need to adjust your recruitment and/or pay policy).
v. Guiding principles for Southern Sudan	Section 5 of the booklet A Policy Framework for the Public Service of Southern Sudan (2007) describes some guiding principles for personnel management and procedures in the public service. Section 5.1 states: *"Mindful of the overall goals of equity and affirmative action – promotion, discipline, termination, retirement, training, and all other aspects of personnel management shall be governed by the principle of individual merit and performance in the job. The principle of seniority, however, shall be accorded due respect and consideration, provided that it does not conflict with the principle of merit and performance."* The booklet goes on to state that all standards, criteria and procedures to do with personnel management (recruitment, promotion, discipline, separation, and retirement of government employees) are to be formulated by the MLPS&HRD after wide consultation with other stakeholders. Such procedures should be simple and transparent, focus on the essential priorities, and conform to international good practice and experience in post-conflict situations. They are recommended by the Ministry, approved by the Council of Ministers, and promulgated by the President of Southern Sudan. **References:** MLPS&HRD (January, 2007). *A Policy Framework for the Public Service of Southern Sudan.* MLPS&HRD (February, 2007). *Manual of Public Service Procedures.*

Topic 8.2: Developing Staff

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
DEVELOPING STAFF	By the end of this course unit, the participating manager should be able to: a) Describe the relationship between training and development b) Designed appropriate staff development strategies c) Discuss the factors to consider in designing staff development strategies d) Describe staff development processes e) Present GOSS's commitment to staff development	i. Relationship between development and training – Meaning of development. – Meaning of training ii. Staff development strategies – Job rotation – Coaching – Mentoring – Delegation – Understudying – Secondment – Projects – Acting up – Training – Education – Outside seminars – E-leaning iii. Factors to consider – Level of staff (grade) – Work responsibilities – Skills, experience	– Lectures – Discussions – Exercises – Brainstorms – Case studies – Application to own team	– Trainers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids	2 days	Knowledge and concept test

		and expertise – Performance – Potential – Progressional path – Resource available iv. Development processes – Staff development committees/panels – Personal development plans – Job posting – Succession planning – High potential programmes v. Staff development in Southern Sudan				

Topic 8.2 Expanded: Developing Staff

i. Relationship between staff development and training	Staff development refers to the enhancement of employees' skills, knowledge, experience and confidence so that they are able to progress to more responsible positions and thereby contribute more to the organisation and also find greater job satisfaction. Organisations have strategies by which they develop staff, and processes to facilitate this development. Training is one such strategy whereby employees learn particular skills and acquire knowledge to help them do their jobs better or prepare them for the next job. Training helps employees learn new knowledge and skills through a structured learning programme usually led by a trainer who is an expert in the subject. It is one of the most direct methods to enhance skills and knowledge, and usually involves the employee stepping aside from their job for a period of time (e.g. a few hours, a day, a week, a few weeks) to undertake the training.
ii. Staff development strategies	There is a range of strategies that are useful in developing staff including: • Training – this refers to a form of occupational learning whereby employees acquire job related knowledge/learn skills, usually through a structured programme led by a qualified trainer. This is usually one-to-many, the common element being that everyone is following the same course of instruction. Whilst training courses impart instruction and content from experts, they usually involve interaction so that employees are engaged in the experience, and exercises so that employees can try out and practice new skills. • Job rotation – employees move to different jobs in rotation so that they learn how to undertake a different role and thereby develop new skills and experience. • Coaching – a personal (usually one-to-one) approach whereby a coach assists an employee to learn a new skill, overcome a performance issue, practice a skill, learn from self-discovery, and benefit from feedback. • Mentoring – like coaching, this is a one-to-one personalised approach but usually focused on longer-term development and career issues with a mentor who is more experienced and whose wise counsel is respected. • Delegation – this is when a task or responsibility is given to a subordinate to undertake. It may be challenging so that new skills and knowledge are acquired, but it should not be beyond the subordinate, and the manager who delegates should ensure that the subordinate receives the necessary support. • Understudying – this is when a less experienced person works with someone more experienced as an 'understudy'. The concept is similar to that of an 'apprentice', where the less experienced person learns

	by watching and assisting the expert, gradually being allowed and encouraged to try more themselves. • Secondment – this refers to the allocating of a person to a different unit, team or function so that through the experience they learn new skills and knowledge. Some organisations second people to different parts of the organisation (e.g. from manufacturing to marketing), or to different locations, sometimes different countries to gain international experience. • Projects – becoming a member of a project team is a good development experience that requires a person to apply their skills, in a team environment, to achieve a particular goal within project deadlines. • Acting up – standing in for the boss is a good way of developing new skills and preparing for a more senior role. • Education – sometimes, for a person to make a development step, further education is required, e.g. to acquire specialized knowledge through undertaking a masters degree. This can be done full-time (if the organisation is willing to sponsor the person/can afford to lose them for a period of study), part-time, or in the person's own time (e.g. through evening study or distance learning). • Outside seminars – seminars, conferences, training programmes, etc. run by external organisations can be a good source of development for staff, e.g. a seminar on employment law for HR mangers, or an external course on accounting for finance managers, or a conference on public service. • E-learning – the Internet and other forms of electronic media offer many opportunities for learning, from informally searching for and accessing information to structured e-courses.
iii. Factors to consider when developing staff	There are a number of factors to consider when thinking about the development of staff, including: • Level of staff (grade) – the appropriate development strategy for an individual will depend on their current level, i.e. their level of responsibility in the organisation. • Skills, experience and expertise – the level of skills, knowledge and experience that they already have and the expertise that they demonstrate. An appropriate development strategy will take them beyond this but to a level and at a pace that they can manage. It may address particular gaps, or seek to add new skills, knowledge or experience. • Work responsibilities – development will seek to help an employee better fulfil his/her current work responsibilities, and/or prepare him/her for greater responsibilities in the future. • Performance – development should relate to a person's performance. If the person is performing well,

	their manager should be thinking how to develop them further. If the person is underperforming or struggling in particular areas, the manager should be targeting development activities to address gaps in the person's skills or knowledge. • Potential – all staff have the potential to develop beyond what they are currently doing, and it is part of a manager's role to help their staff recognise their own potential and strive to achieve it. Of course, not all staff have the same potential – some may be able to progress a few grades, others right to the top of the organisation, therefore different development strategies are appropriate. Those identified with 'high potential', i.e. they are perceived to possess the innate ability to progress a long way in an organisation, need to be given development opportunities that will enable them to achieve this potential, which may mean giving them a wide range of experiences in preparation for more responsible positions. Some organisations have processes for identifying and progressing 'high potential' staff. However, this should not detract from a manager's and an organisation's responsibility to provide development opportunities for all their staff with the aim that everyone should be encouraged and enabled to achieve their potential. • Progressional path – managers will need to consider the progressional path for the individual – where is their career leading? What is it they want to do? What is the next best step for their functional and/or professional development? So as well as thinking about helping the person to develop their skills for their current role, the manager should have his/her eye on the future progression of the individual – where are they likely to go next? What development now will help them get there? The choice of development strategy should be done with progressional path in mind. • Resource available – of course, providing development opportunities will to some extent depend on available resources; development activities such as training programmes cost money which has to be budgeted for. Also, when employees attend them they may be away from the office, so the productivity of the team may be temporarily affected. A manager will be expected to ensure that his/her team continues to deliver against their current objectives *and* that his/her staff have opportunities to develop in their current roles and are prepared for future progression. This is yet another balancing act required of managers! Managers need to view training and other development opportunities as investments in their staff that will eventually pay off within the team through enhanced performance, and within the organisation by preparing people for more responsible positions.
iv. Staff development processes	In many organisations staff development is a joint responsibility; firstly the responsibility of every manager for his/her staff, *and* secondly the responsibility of individuals themselves to seek out and take up development opportunities. To assist managers and individuals to implement development strategies many organisations have in place various *development processes*. Some of these are driven by the organisation, some by the individual.

	Organisations set up some processes by which they actively manage staff development through discussing staff and linking them to opportunities, by planning succession for particular (usually senior) roles, and by placing some staff on high potential programmes. • Staff development committees/panels – this is where managers meet together to discuss staff that report to them and generate appropriate development opportunities, as well as fill key positions. This can be done by the senior management for the development of high potential staff and the filling of top jobs, by functions to ensure people progress in their functional disciplines, and by departments and teams. Such panels are often presided over by a senior manager. • Succession planning – this is the other side of the coin to job posting – it is a process by which plans (usually lists of potential candidates) for filling key positions are created and then kept up to date so that when a particular position becomes vacant the people with the appropriate experience have already been identified. It is usually done for key positions that need to be filled quickly and with people who have the necessary skills and experience. Such a process can be run alongside job posting, both processes in effect generating potential candidates for a new or vacant position. • High potential programmes – some organisations use methods (over and above an individual manager's judgement) to indentify employees with high potential e.g. testing techniques, or assessment centres (where employees are subjected to various interviews, tests, exercises and simulations and evaluated against certain criteria). Once identified, such employees' development is then carefully planned and monitored, sometimes accelerated, so that they get the range of experience necessary for them to achieve the potential and, from the organisation's perspective to provide a pool of people to fill future senior positions. There are other processes which invite the employee to take the initiative and be active in their own development. These include: • Personal development plans – this process is the other side of the coin to management discussions of staff development – it is a process by which staff are encouraged to develop their own personal development plans (reality-checked with their manager) as a way of expressing their future aspirations, and of helping to guide their manager in finding the appropriate opportunities. Such a plan would normally be discussed between the manager and employee during a development discussion (perhaps as part of the performance appraisal process, sometimes separately to this), when the plan would be completed and actions agreed. • Job posting – this is the process of advertising jobs (either newly created, or those that have become vacant) internally, and is usually done before the organisation embarks on external recruitment. It gives staff the opportunity to apply for jobs that interest them and that fit with their own development

	aspirations. This process is the other side of the coin to succession planning – both processes produce candidates for jobs.
v. Staff development in Southern Sudan	The Government of Southern Sudan places great importance of the development of its human resource, since the capacity of the organisation to deliver its objectives and translate its policies and programmes into tangible results depends on the quality of its human capital – its employees (Public Service Reforms Implementation Framework Manual, 2008: 5.7). The Reforms Manual states that in order to develop its human capital the organisation will: i. Establish the organisation's vision. ii. Establish the strategic objectives required to deliver the vision. iii. Determine the human capital required to effectively deliver the strategic objectives. iv. Determine the skills gap between the skills of the existing human capital and the desired ones. v. Develop a human capital development programme. vi. Update the programme as and when necessary with new changes. The Manual of Public Service Procedures (2007) also makes clear the commitment of GOSS to the development and growth of its employees, particularly in the context of ensuring high performance using, among other processes, performance appraisal (Sections 4.1 and 4.2 of the Procedures Manual). It stipulates that many aspect of personal management (including promotion, training and career advancement) will be governed by the principle of individual merit and performance in the job. The principle of seniority will also be given due respect and consideration, provided that it does not conflict with the principle of merit and performance. The existence of this Master Curriculum is also evidence of GOSS's commitment to developing employees through training so that they are equipped with the skills and knowledge to do their jobs and to progress in the organisation. **References:** MLPS&HRD (2007). *A Policy Framework for the Public Service of Southern Sudan.* MLPS&HRD (2007). *Manual of Public Service Procedures.* MLPS&HRD (2008). *The Public Service Reforms Implementation Framework Manual.*

Topic 8.3: Setting Pay and Promotions

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
SETTING PAY AND PROMOTIONS	By the end of this course unit, the participating manager should be able to: a) Explain the factors considered in setting pay for employees b) Discuss different pay systems for employees c) Explain the pay and grade structure in Southern Sudan. d) Discuss the basis upon which promotion of employees is made e) Discuss the ways of effecting promotions f) Explain promotions in Southern Sudan	i. Factors to consider in setting pay – Pay policy and structure – Job responsibility – Education training and experience – Performance – Competitors – Financial capability ii. Different pay systems – Straight salary – Salary + commissions and bonuses iii. Grade and pay structure in Southern Sudan. iv. Basis for promotion and ways of effecting promotion v. Promotions in Southern Sudan	– Lectures – Discussions – Exercises – Brainstorms – Case studies	– Trainers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids	2 days	Knowledge and concept test

Topic 8.3: Expanded: Setting Pay and Promotions

i. Factors to consider in setting pay	Pay refers to the compensation or reward given to an employee in return for services rendered to the enterprise. Pay tends to be of two types: those direct financial payments in the form of salary or wages, and incentives, bonuses and payment in kind, like paid insurance and paid holidays. Salaries are paid on a monthly, fortnightly or weekly basis and tend to be standard sums of money paid according to the person's annual salary. Wages tend to be weekly, daily or at the time, based on units or piecemeal depending on the nature of work. Wages tend to be paid to employees that are not in permanent employment of the organisation, or in jobs which are seasonal/occasional and not of permanent nature. There are a number of factors to consider when setting employees' pay: 1. Pay policy and structure - this is determined by an organisation's regulations and guidelines. Every organisation has its own pay policy and a pay structure for how it pays its employees. A pay policy comprises the way an organisation values and pays for the work done by its employees, usually differentiating between employees using criteria such as job responsibility, seniority, qualifications, experience, performance, etc. (often expressed in terms of job levels or grades, as determined by job evaluation). Pay policy also describes how the organisation wishes to set its pay in relation to competitors or other comparators, how often employees' pay is reviewed, what pay review budgets are based on, and who is responsible for setting the pay of employees. A pay structure usually comprises pay levels, sometimes expressed as a band defined by a minimum and maximum, that correspond to each job level or grade. Some organisations aim to progress employees' pay, over a period of time (e.g. a number of years), through the grade band to the maximum. To gain further progression, an employee would then need to be promoted to the next grade level. The grade band levels would normally be reviewed at the same time as the pay review, and depending on market conditions/available funds, may be adjusted. 2. Job responsibility – which encapsulates the seniority of the job, how the organisation values the duties undertaken, and how it compares to other jobs. For example, organisations usually pay senior managers more than middle managers because their jobs carry more responsibility, are more complex, have greater financial accountability, have more people or teams reporting to them, etc. Some organisations use job evaluation systems to establish the 'size' of jobs so that they can grade them correctly, and then attach pay levels or bands to each grade level. 3. Education, training and experience – this would be used to assign a grade level to the employee on recruitment, and therefore an associated pay level or band. It might also be used to position the employee within a particular pay band. For example, an employee taken on as an engineer possessing an engineering degree would be assigned a grade and associated pay level commensurate with his/her qualification, and at a higher level than someone without such a degree. A person doing the same job with a master's degree might be placed at a higher pay level within the band. Similarly, relevant training

	and experience would be taken into account when setting the individual pay of employees. Most organisations however, would stipulate that such education, training or experience has to be *relevant* to the job. E.g. if someone is employed as a secretary and has an engineering degree, they would be paid at the level of a secretary, not for their engineering degree. In GOSS and GONU education is recognised through different scales: • Secondary School Graduate – scale J - £25,000. • Two year college graduate – scale H - £40,000. • University graduate – scale Q - £65,000. 4. Performance – this is used in setting pay by many commercial organisations, and increasingly in the public sector. So it is not only the responsibility of the job, and the education and experience a person brings to the job that is taken into account, but also how well they perform in the job. Organisations that use performance as a pay setting criteria usually have a 'performance appraisal' process to measure employees' performance, and would include their pay policy a definition of 'performance-related' pay. Commercial organisations use performance-related pay as a way of rewarding good performance, and of motivating employees to higher performance. However, for it to work well, the way that performance is measured has to be clear, fair, and seen to be fair. If it is not, such an approach causes resentment among employees doing the same job, especially if they think they are doing it better than their peer but getting paid less because he/she has been appraised as doing it better. Typically, appraisal processes are based on managers agreeing with individual employees particular work objectives over a defined time period (e.g. a year), and then appraising the employee's progress against these objectives at the end of the time period (often expressed as an appraisal rating), which is then used as one of the inputs to setting pay. 5. Competitors – in setting pay, organisations also look at what competitor and/or comparator organisations are doing. For example, a retail organisation will want to be able to recruit and retain employees in competition with other retail organisations who need similar staff, so will need to set competitive salaries, so it will have a similar pay structure. In its pay policy, it might decide that it wants to be a median (in the middle of its competitors) payer, or that it wants to be an upper quartile payer (i.e. in the top 25%). Before organisations undertake pay reviews, they would usually survey the market within which they operate so as to understand the pay policy and positioning of competitors. Such surveys are usually undertaken by comparing the average pay of particular jobs at particular levels with competitor organisations, e.g. a senior manager, a procurement professional, a new graduate, a technician, a secretary, etc. Jobs used for such surveys need to be clearly described so that comparisons across companies are like-for-like. This is achieved through clear job descriptions or sometimes through job evaluation techniques (e.g. the Hay system) that score jobs on criteria such as responsibility, freedom to act, financial accountability, etc. Describing and evaluating jobs is covered in more detail in Topic 8.4 of the Master Curriculum.

6. Financial capability – of course, whatever an organisation might like to pay its employees, at the end of the day, it must be able to afford it. So the financial capability of the organisation comes into play. In commercial organisations this might vary depending on how well the business is going, so in a good year there would be more scope for pay increases, in a bad year less scope. Whilst the public sector does not have the variables of profit/loss, it has budget variations and limitations none-the-less, and like any organisation has to be able to balance its books.

In government, there are government rules and regulations in place that guide the standard of pay at various levels of the organisation. For example, most governments set minimum wages that represent the least that an employee can be paid in a country. Also governments have standard grade and scales through which entrants into the civil service move through during their career and eventually to retirement. Each job level has a grade associated with it, and each grade has a salary level/band within which pay should be set. Simply put, a new employee joining employment in an organisation and working their way through to retirement will go three general zones, classified as:

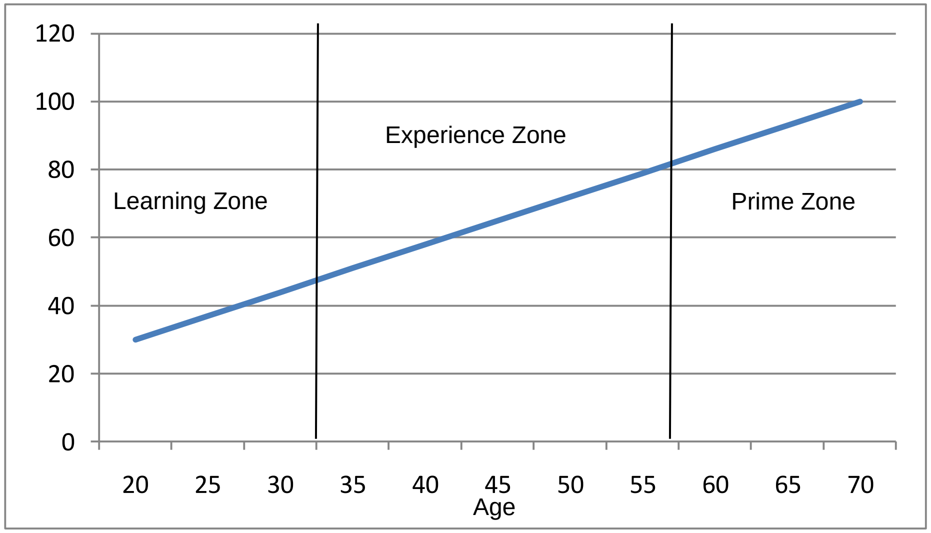
a) Learning zone – the employee gets to grips with the job tasks and masters the art or technique of that job, and learns to function in the organisation. They are learning from others and at the same time starting to contribute.

b) Experience zone – the employee begins to master the job tasks and starts to become highly productive – they are gaining experience and using that experience to the organisation's benefit. They can share their experience with others.

c) Prime zone – the employee is highly experienced, very valuable to the organisation, and can offer wisdom and guidance to others. At some point might begin to retire from it.

This type of zonal passage is illustrated like thus:

Wage Level (000's)

	 Of course, this highly is generalised and factors such as individual performance and potential will mean that individuals will progress through such zones at different speeds and in different ways.
ii. Different pay systems	There are different ways that organisations pay employees. Traditionally, manual workers were paid a weekly wage (often in cash), whereas office workers were paid salary on a monthly basis. The latter is now more common, with the money being paid into employees bank accounts. Payment is according to the salary in the employee's employment contract and as adjusted by subsequent pay reviews and promotions. Some organisations also use bonuses (usually cash amounts) for added incentive, either paid at salary review time, or at the time they are earned. They would typically be linked to the achievement of particular targets or levels of performance. Sometimes such bonuses are set up at the beginning of a performance period, e.g. if an employee achieves outstanding performance then they will earn a 5% (of basic salary) bonus. In some organisations particular roles, for example sales executives, receive some of their remuneration in the form of commission so that it is very directly related to their personal performance, e.g. an insurance salesperson, in addition to their basic salary, might earn 3% (of the product value) commission on every product they sell. In some sectors it is traditional to receive 'tips', e.g. restaurant staff, and this contributes to their basic salary to create a living wage.

	Other ways of compensating staff include benefits such as pension, paid holiday entitlement, life insurance, share schemes, executive stock options, transport, housing, company car, etc.
iii. Grade and pay structure in Southern Sudan	Sections 4 and 5 of the booklet A Policy Framework for the Public Service of Southern Sudan (2007) describe the grade and salary structure for the public service, and the process for promotions. These are summarised below. The grade structure for Southern Sudan is made up of 17 grades split into 5 categories: • Super Grade (Grades 1-6). • Administrative and Professional (Grades 7-9). • Sub-Professional and Technical (Grades 10, 12 and 14). • Unclassified Skilled (Grades 11, 13 and 15). • Unclassified Unskilled (Grades 16-17). For each of these grades, there exist titles or positions, as shown in the table below. The wage structure uses these grades and is governed by three general principles: 1. Affordability and sustainability and equal pay for equal work – the pay structure needs to be prudent and maintain an appropriate balance between the public service wage bill and other expenditures. Personnel in similar job positions with similar responsibilities will be remunerated in a similar manner and at an equal value. 2. Competitiveness and capacity to retain – compensation levels in the public service must be comparable with competitive private market salaries; adequate to attract, retain and motivate qualified professionals, managers and technical staff. 3. Minimise monetary and in-kind allowances – compensation and benefits should consist of transparent monetary compensation, keeping use of special allowances to a minimum.

Grade	***Grade Category***	***Title or Position***
1	Super Grade	Secretary General; Under Secretary
2		Director General
3		Director
4		Deputy Director
5		Chief Technical Officer/Expert

	6		Assistant Chief Technical Officer
	7	Administrative and Professional	Senior Inspector/Officer
	8		Inspector/ Technical Officer
	9		Assistant Inspector/Officer & Graduate Entry
	10	Sub-Professional and Technical	Head Staff Clerk/Accountant, Primary Teacher etc.
	11		Senior Clerk/Book Keeper, Medical Assistant etc.
	12		Clerk/Book Keeper, Secretary etc.
	13	Unclassified Skilled	Technician, Artisan etc.
	14		Head Mechanics, Senior Driver etc.
	15		Fitter, Mechanic, Driver
	16	Unclassified Unskilled	Messenger, Unskilled Labourer etc.
	17		Cleaner, Daily Paid Labourer etc.

For each of the above grades, there is a corresponding salary band (quoted in US$, monthly), detailed in the Policy Framework booklet (2007).

Some salary "steps" or increments are to be provided within each grade to permit some progression whilst keeping the structure as simple as possible. The salary structure detailed in the 2007 booklet was due to be reviewed in time for incorporation into the 2008 budget. Thereafter, the guiding principle for general wage level increase should be that "real wages increase annually by the same percentage as the growth in real GDP per capita during the previous year" (Section 4.10).

It is the intention of the Public Service, as one of its planned reforms, to introduce performance reward as the final phase of the performance management process (Public Service Reforms Implementation Framework Manual, 2008).

iv. Basis for promotion and ways of effecting promotion	**Basis for promotion.** Organisations promote employees to fill more responsible positions and/or to recognise growth in skills and experience. Promotions are a way of developing staff and usually highly motivational since they give public recognition as well as greater reward through increased salary. Promotions need to be carefully considered and based on factors such as: • Greater responsibility – has the employee been appointed to a more responsible position? • Qualifications – has the employee recently achieved a qualification relevant to their job that warrants a

	higher level in the organisation (e.g. a master's degree)? • Experience – has the employee's experience advanced such they are now contributing at a higher level? • Performance – is the employee's performance such that they are operating at a higher level? • Competence – has the employee developed their competence in a significant way? • Programmed – has the employee reached the next stage in a programmed development path (e.g. organisations often move new graduate recruits through their first few levels in a step-wise way providing the person is performing and learning as required). It is important that promotions are merited in one or more of the above ways, i.e. not based on family or friendship networks, promises, allegiances, etc., but truly deserved. **Ways of effecting promotion.** Organisations have different methods for effecting promotion. The simplest is when an employee is appointed to a more senior role which is already at an established grade level. Promotion within an employee's current role usually involves job evaluation to show that the role has changed in terms of level, or that the person is performing at the higher level. In some organisations, promotion is via a structured progression as employees build experience and demonstrate that they are operating at the next level. Some organisations have graduate entry schemes that move new graduates through their first few grades as the meet the requirements for each level. Some organisations develop sets of grading standards which describe the technical competences and behaviours required at each grade. Depending on the grade level, promotion decisions are usually made by: • Line managers, or • Senior managers, or • Promotion boards comprising senior managers. The HR unit is also usually involved, advising on aspects such as job evaluation, grade levels, and ensuring consistency and that promotions policy and procedures are followed.
v. Promotion in Southern Sudan	In Southern Sudan, employee promotion is based on the employee's progress along the profession curve or in the Government structure from Scale 14 to Scale 1. A move from, for example, Scale 9 to 8 might require a promotion board on panel making assessment after being on Scale 9 for a number of years. The board/panel will make its promotion decision by means of an assessment of performance and experience, in some cases it

	could be through examination. In some promotion systems points are used, so that level of education is given say 5 points, and performance say 5 points, etc. In this case a candidate who gets the requisite number of points gets the promotion. In the GOSS/GONU system certain levels, particularly the senior Scales 5 to 1 and 1 Special, are reserved as leadership posts and are decided by the President or the Council of Ministers (see below). The promotion process in Southern Sudan is laid out in the Policy Framework (2007) and Procedures Manual (2007) and follows the same procedure as that for recruitment, selection and appointment. • Recruitment, appointment or promotion should only take place after a careful assessment of the need to employ or promote such permanent or contract staff has been made and deemed to be absolutely necessary. • Where possible, vacancies should be filled by internal departmental transfer or promotion. Where no suitable candidate/s is/are available, all vacant posts must be advertised through available media. • All internal transfers and promotions, no further probation is normally required. However, if any new position has certain special skills or physical requirements, then the employee may be required to undergo some training or orientation prior to taking over his/her new position. • Recruitment will be related solely to the applicant's suitability for the post and will not be influenced by race, creed, sex or religion, etc., unless specified otherwise by the relevant laws in force. Promotion into the various categories (grades) of staff follows the same procedure as that for recruitment, selection and appointment: • Under Secretaries by the President of GOSS. • All other Super Grade posts by the Council of Ministers. • Deputy Directors and above by direct appointment. • Administrative, Professional, Sub-Professional and Technical staff by Under Secretaries/ Director Generals of respective Ministries subject to endorsement by the MLPS&HRD. Where the vacancy cannot be filled by internal promotion, a Ministry Appointment Board must be formed to undertake the selection process, chaired by a senior staff member of higher grade than the post being filled. Selection will be confirmed by the concerned Minister, and papers forwarded by the Under Secretary or Head of Department to MLPS&HRD for final approval of the appointment.

	• All classified staff appointments must be processed through the MLPS&HRD, who will verify whether the selection has been conducted using the approved selection criteria. • Unclassified staff will be engaged by the Director of Administration and Finance in consultation with the Under Secretary/Head of Unit of the Ministry concerned. Unclassified staff employment is subject to budget provision, and unclassified staff that have spent three months continuous service without a break are considered permanent staff. Details of selection procedures at each of these levels is given in the Procedures Manual (2007). **References:** MLPS&HRD (2007). *A Policy Framework for the Public Service of Southern Sudan.* MLPS&HRD (2007). *Manual of Public Service Procedures.*

Topic 8.4: Job Descriptions

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
JOB DESCRIPTIONS	By the end of this course unit, the participating manager should be able to: a) Discuss the importance of job descriptions in an organisation b) Describe the contents of a job description c) Formulate job descriptions for his/ her staff	i. Importance of job descriptions – Recruitment to roles – Role clarification for employees – Clarifies accountability – Conflict minimization – Job evaluation – Management guidance in resource allocation ii. Content of a job description – Job identification – Department & location – Job summary – Relationships – Responsibilities and duties iii. Formulating job descriptions – Job analysis – Employee, manager and HR participation – Job evaluation – Job descriptions in S.S.	– Lectures – Discussions – Exercises – Brainstorms – Practical exercises	– Trainers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids – Example job descriptions	1 day	Knowledge and concept test

Topic 8.4 Expanded: Job Descriptions

i. Importance of job descriptions	Job descriptions are important for a number of reasons to do with employees' roles including: • Role clarification – for new and existing employees, it is important for them to have a clear statement of the job, its responsibilities, duties and tasks, so that they understand what is being asked of them. • Clarifying accountability – linked to the point above, job descriptions help clarify accountability, i.e. who is accountable for what. This is important to minimize duplication, and is also important for managing performance where individuals are appraised against targets and objectives set against the responsibilities in their job description for which they are accountable. • Conflict minimisation – having clearly defined roles and responsibilities as provided by a job description reduces the chances of conflict over who is responsible for what, or who should have undertaken what. • Performance appraisal – it is important for the employee and his/her manager to have a clear understanding of the employee's role and duties, against which measurable objectives can be defined and used to appraise performance. • Job evaluation – organisations use a process called "job evaluation" to assess the value of jobs to the organisation, usually expressed as the level or grade of the job. Job evaluations are usually based on job descriptions since such evaluations assess factors such as the roles, responsibilities, tasks of the job, its relationships to other jobs, its accountabilities (including financial), etc. • Management guidance in resource allocation – good job descriptions help manages select and allocate people and other resources in support of those jobs. Job descriptions are also crucial for recruitment: • Recruitment to roles – when recruiting for new or existing roles it is important to be able to clearly define what the job entails, the responsibilities and tasks, etc. so that people with the right skills, qualifications and experience apply. • A support to advertisements – the key elements of a job description, sometimes with a personal specification (e.g. specifying qualifications and experience, and specific aptitudes and competencies relevant to the job) are used in job advertisements.

ii. The content of a job description	Job descriptions typically contain the information described below (Bratton & Gold, 2007): Job identification - job title and grade (level) Department and location Responsible to Relationships Job summary - purpose of job/overall objectives Responsibilities and duties Physical/economic conditions This information may be summarised as follows: • Job identification – this includes the job title, such as Senior Engineer, or Personal Secretary, or Accounts Clerk, or Director General, or Inspector. Such titles should give some idea of the function of the job and its level of responsibility. As part of the job identification, the job would also usually have a level or grade attached to it. This clearly denotes the positioning of the job in the organisation's hierarchy, and is used for pay and promotional purposes. For a job advertisement, the job description would also include salary or salary range for the job (described as 'economic conditions' in the list above). • Department and location – a job description would include the ministry, department, unit or team that the job is part of, and where the job is based in terms of location. E.g. MLPS&HRD, CPU, Juba. • Job summary – this includes the purpose and overall objectives of the job, i.e. the job description in a nutshell. It is the sort of statement made when someone asks the question "What is it that you do?" Such a summary, e.g. for a Senior Inspector for training, might be; "The role is to provide managers with guidance on training strategy and the availability of training programmes. Its main objectives are to: provide timely and professional training advice; analyse training needs, develop or buy training programmes to meet needs; and organise the delivery of those training programmes • Responsible to – i.e. who is the employee's line manager? This is usually expressed as a position rather than a person since people change roles. E.g. "Responsible to the Minister of Labour", or "Responsible to the Director General". • Relationships – a description of other key relationships, i.e. other key roles, teams or groups that the job interacts with. E.g. "This role is part of the Customer Service team, which works closely with two other departments (Accounts and Operations), and also interacts with the general public".

	• Responsibilities and duties – these describe the content of the job in terms of its responsibilities, duties and tasks. There should be enough detail to define the role and the activities that it includes for a potential candidate applying from outside to get a clear picture of the job. It should also be detailed enough for the current incumbent to be absolutely clear about his/her role and responsibilities. For example, for a Training Inspector such a description of responsibilities and duties might be: The key responsibilities of this role are to: • Provide specialist advice on training to managers and staff. • Source training programmes to meet training needs. • Monitor and evaluate the impact of training and make recommendations to improve training provision. The specific duties of this role are to: • Work with managers and staff to undertake an annual analysis of training needs. • Organise the delivery of training programmes through liaising with managers and external providers. • Ensure that training activities are well publicized throughout the organisation, and that the participants selected for training are those appropriate for the particular programme. • Manage the administration of training programmes including booking venues, organizing participants' joining arrangements including travel and accommodation. • Administer the training budget for the above mentioned training programmes. • Maintain the training database so that records of training delivered are routinely updated. • Ensure the feedback from each training programme is reviewed and where appropriate, acted upon. • Produce an annual evaluation report of training impact, with recommendations. • Keep the Director General and wider training team informed of training activities.
iii. Formulating job descriptions	Formulating job descriptions requires some analysis first, and involves the manager, employees and HR. Once job descriptions are in place they are useful for giving employees clarity about their jobs, for recruitment, and for processes such as job evaluation. 1. Job analysis – before writing a job description, some process of job analysis has to take place, which is the process of collecting and evaluating information about the tasks, responsibilities and the context of a specific job, e.g. the major tasks undertaken, the expected outcomes, the relationship of the job to other jobs and to the hierarchy, and job holder characteristics. Some of this information might be obvious or readily available inside the current incumbent's head, some might need to be researched or defined, especially if the job is new or evolving. The job analysis information is used to formulate the job

description.

2. Who prepares the job description? – if it is a new role, the manager to whom the role reports is probably in the best position to write the job description, since he/she will have in mind the responsibilities and duties that the role is to perform. The Human Resources unit can help with their experience of having seen many job descriptions, and would certainly be involved if the job description was to be used as part of a job advertisement.

   If it is an existing role, then the current or previous incumbent of the job is probably the best person to write the job description, with some advice from the manager/HR, since they have firsthand experience of doing the job.

   If the description is being written for reasons of job evaluation (i.e. to grade the level of the job) or promotion (to see if the job warrants promotion of the individual doing it), then it is probably best written with inputs from both the incumbent and the manager.

   The above two cases involve employee participation, which is a good principle for job descriptions because those who are closest to the jobs usually know them best.

3. Job evaluation – as described in (i) above, once job descriptions are in place they are used for several purposes, one of which is job evaluation. Job evaluation is a systematic process for determining the relative worth of jobs within an organisation, i.e. how jobs are ranked in terms of level and, in most organisations, it is used to determine differentials (usually termed levels or grades) for pay purposes. Good job evaluation depends on having accurate job descriptions.

   From the job descriptions, compensable factors are selected – these are the factors the organisation chooses to reward through differential pay, typically factors such as skill, effort, knowledge, responsibility and working conditions. There are four methods that organisations use to undertake job evaluation (Bratton & Gold, 2007: 384):

   - Ranking – jobs are ordered from the least to the most valued, e.g. in a factory setting this might be File Clerk, Labourer, Driver, Secretary, Machinist, Inspector.

   - Job-grading – similar to ranking, this places jobs in a hierarchy of labelled grades, so that there might particular types of jobs (of similar value) in one grade. Using the factory example, File Clerk and Labourer might be grade 1, Driver and Secretary grade 2, Machinist grade 3, and Inspector grade 4. This is a simple method, but complex jobs might be difficult to place.

   - Factor comparison – this is a quantitative method in which the compensable factors for each job (e.g. skills, mental effort, responsibility, etc.) are ranked and a monetary value allocated to each factor and used to generate the pay for each job. This method is less used because of its complexity.

- The point method – this is similar to factor comparison, except that each factor is scored for each job using points, and the scores added up to give an overall points score for the job, which used to establish the job's ranking in a hierarchy. This is the most commonly used job evaluation method, and has the advantages of being stable over time and comprehensive. The Hay job evaluation system is a point-based method that is used by many large companies and used across companies to compare jobs and for market analysis of pay trends.

4. Job descriptions in Southern Sudan

The Public Service Reforms Implementation Framework Manual (2008) states that job descriptions are required for all jobs – they are required for the recruitment and deployment of staff among other things. As part of the reforms, all existing job descriptions should be reviewed and updated, and job descriptions should be developed for the jobs that do not have one.

The Public Service reforms also include the undertaking of a job evaluation exercise for the Government of Southern Sudan and the states. This will:

i. Help to streamline the grading and salary structure (see Topic 8.3) for all jobs at GOSS and the state levels.

ii. Ensure that jobs of the same grade are remunerated equally whether it is at GOSS or state level.

iii. Facilitate transferability of personnel between GOSS and states and help to eliminate the concentration of highly qualified staff at the GOSS level.

References:

Bratton, J. and Gold, J. (2007). *Human resource management: Theory and Practice* (4th Edn.). PALGRAVE MACMILLAN: Basingstoke, UK.

MLPS&HRD (2007). *A Policy Framework for the Public Service of Southern Sudan.*

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Topic 8.5: Managing Performance

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
MANAGING PERFORMANCE	By the end of this course unit, the participating manager should be able to: a) Determine performance levels for employees b) Monitor performance of employees c) Appraise performance of employees	i. Determination of performance levels – "What gets measured gets done" – Consensus agreements – Performance bench marks – Target setting ii. Monitoring performance – Periodic reports – Inspecting – Feedback by clients/ stakeholders iii. Performance appraisal – Reasons for appraisal – Appraisal process – Problems in appraisal – Appraisal interviews – Giving feedback – Benefits of appraisal iv. Performance evaluation in Southern Sudan	– Lectures – Discussions – Exercises – Brainstorms – Case studies – Role plays (giving feedback)	– Trainers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids – Sample appraisal forms	2 days	Knowledge and concept test

Topic 8.5 Expanded: Managing Performance

i. Determination of performance levels	Performance in organisations doesn't just happen; it needs to be managed. By managing performance we mean being clear on what the organisation is trying to achieve (e.g. a vision, objectives, targets), monitoring progress along the way, making necessary adjustments, and measuring what is actually achieved. Experience in organisations has shown that managing performance is this rigorous way increases the chances of an organisation achieving its goals and exhibiting high performance. The saying 'What gets measured, gets done' is relevant in this context. In the public sector there has been a trend towards a customer oriented approach to performance measurement. In local government in the UK for example the Best Value framework was introduced in 1997 in order to re-orientate service delivery towards citizens and customers and produce a quality-driven organisation. It has five dimensions of performance indicators (Bratton & Gold, 2007): 1. Strategic objectives – why the service exists and what it seeks to achieve. 2. Cost/efficiency – the resources committed and the efficiency with which they are turned into outputs. 3. Service delivery outcomes – how well the service is being operated in order to achieve the strategic objectives. 4. Quality – the quality of the services delivered, explicitly reflecting users' experiences of the services. 5. Fair access – ease and equality of access to the services. Just as an organisation has to manage its overall performance so as to achieve its objectives and meet its targets, so it is important that individual performance is managed. Such performance management gives clarity to employees of what is expected of them in terms of standards and targets, helps them understand priorities, and provides them with valuable feedback on their work so that they are recognised for their good work and understand the areas where they need to improve. From the organisation's view point, managing performance is a way of ensuring that individual goals and priorities are aligned with the organisation's goals and priorities (otherwise the strategy of the organisation cannot be implemented). It also gives managers a way of monitoring, and where necessary correcting performance, of highlighting training needs and, in some organisations it is used as an input to pay determination (hence 'performance-related pay'). It enables managers to identify high performers and, where performance goes badly wrong, it provides valuable information should disciplinary action be necessary. Determination of the performance levels required of employees are best agreed through consensus between the employee and his or her manager so that they are clearly understood and importantly, 'owned' by the employee. This will usually be based on requirements of the employee's role (as expressed in their job description), expressed as a number of objectives or targets that can be measured over a set period of time.

	Performance bench marks might be available for staff undertaking particular roles at particular levels of experience. For example, some organisations describe the competencies required of staff at particular levels. Target setting is very important to managing performance since it establishes what is to be achieved and how it will be measured. In setting such targets the acronym SMART is useful; such targets or objectives should be: • Specific – not generalised by precise and clear (e.g. Review the market data for consumer businesses in the drinks sector and produce a report). • Measurable – containing some sort of metric (e.g. a 20-page report containing data, analysis, recommendations and conclusions) so that achievement or not can be determined. • Achievable – targets can be challenging (so that people work hard) but not impossible, which can be demotivating. (Some versions of the SMART model have "A" for "Agreed"). • Realistic – within the person's capability and the resources available. • Time bound – so it is clear by when it will be achieved (e.g. …by the end of the third quarter). Such targets/objectives would be recorded as reminders of priorities as work is undertaken, and for reference later in the performance appraisal process (see below).
ii. Monitoring performance	Once performance targets and/or standards have been set and agreed, it is important to monitor performance. This gives the manager opportunities to praise good work (which will encourage and motivate the employee), and to spot problems and provide support or initiate corrective action. It is not helpful for a manager to save all his/her comments to the end of the performance period since this prevents the employee from doing anything to adjust their performance along the way. Monitoring performance can be done informally (e.g. occasionally checking with an employee how their work is going) and more formally through: • Periodic reports – e.g. an employee might provide a quarterly report of their work, or submit a report at each important milestone. • Inspecting – by the manager inspecting how the employee is working to see what is going well/whether there are any problems. • Periodic reviews – e.g. the manager and employee might hold a mini-review at the end of each of the first three quarters, with the final appraisal review at the year end.

	• Feedback by clients/ stakeholders – getting feedback from an employee's clients or other stakeholders (e.g. colleagues in the team or other teams who know/rely on the employee's work) Such monitoring, if done in the spirit of supporting the employee (rather than checking up on them or trying to catch them out), can be a powerful development activity and open up coaching opportunities, as well as ensuring that the individual's (and therefore the organisation's) objectives get met.
iii. Performance appraisal	1. **Reasons for appraisal.** Most organisations that describe themselves as "performance-based" or "high performing" have, as part of their management of performance, a way in which they appraise the performance of employees. This reason for this is as stated earlier – "what gets measured gets done", i.e. if employees knows they will be measured against particular targets or objectives, they are more likely to be motivated to get these done. This is particularly the case if recognition or even pay decisions are based on such performance appraisal. 2. **Appraisal process.** So, in such organisations, there will be an established appraisal process comprising elements such as: • Setting and agreeing of targets/objectives (recorded). • A performance period (typically a year). • Monitoring of performance during the performance period (can be recorded). • An appraisal of performance – usually an appraisal form is completed by the employee showing achievements against targets/objectives, with appraisal comments added by the manager. • An appraisal interview between the manager and the employee for discussion of performance and feedback by the manager, and completion of the appraisal form. • An appraisal 'rating' or score that summarises the employee's level of performance – this would be documented with the completed appraisal form as part of the employee's record and, in some organisations is used in pay determination. A typical rating scale: 1. Outstanding performance – meeting all targets/objectives, exceeding some. 2. Good performance – meeting all targets/objectives. 3. Satisfactory performance – meeting key targets/objectives. 4. Underperformance – not meeting all key targets/objectives. • A discussion of development and/or training needs arising from the appraisal – this can be done as part of the appraisal interview or, in some organisations, is done separately as part of the staff development process. • Setting of targets/objectives for the next appraisal period as the process starts again.

3. **Problems in appraisal.** Performance appraisal can create problems because it involves managers making judgements about and giving feedback to people who may not agree with those judgements or do not want to receive the feedback (especially if it is negative). While performance appraisal can be more powerfully motivational if it is linked to recognition, pay, promotion or other benefits, these linkages can also make it more contentious if the results of the appraisal are contested. So, here are some of the problems associated with appraisal and some suggested ways of avoiding or mitigating them:

Problem associated with appraisal	***Ways of avoiding/mitigating the problems***
The manager's judgement is regarded as subjective.	Set SMART objectives. Give lots of examples, show you are being objective.
The employee thinks that his/her appraisal is unfair.	Explain reasoning with specific examples.
The employee complains they didn't know they were doing things wrong.	Monitor and give feedback during the year (don't leave it till the end). Provide support and training if an employee is struggling.
The employee will not accept feedback and difficult conversation ensues.	Start with positive aspects, invite employee for his/her comments, give negative feedback sensitively.
Employees compare appraisal ratings/scores and get resentful.	Focus on that individual's performance. Look ahead to what they can do to improve their score in future.

Hopefully, in most situations the problems mentioned above can be avoided, mitigated or resolved in a positive way – as with many management activities, listening to the employee's concerns, communicating clearly throughout, and being as fair, open, and honest as possible will go a long way to help.

4 **The performance appraisal interview.** Most performance appraisal processes have, as an important step at the end of the appraisal period, an interview between the manager and the person being appraised. This has a number of purposes:

- To discuss the person's performance – an opportunity to give praise for good work and/or feedback and advice where improvement is needed.
- To award the appraisal rating (if this is part of the process).
- To discuss training and development needs.
- To agree actions.

As well as the above purposes, such an interview is also good for communication generally, as well as an opportunity for the employee to voice their opinions and concerns, and may lead to coaching or counselling by the manager. Such interviews are usually easy to manage if the employee has performed well and the messages are positive. However, they can be difficult conversations if the employee has not performed well, or has a very different opinion of their performance to the manager. In such cases the interview needs to be handled skilfully so that it remains a constructive, even if difficult, conversion.

Some general guidelines for holding an appraisal interview are given below:

- Put the person at ease – build rapport.
- Ask them for *their views* on their performance.
- Give *your views* on their performance – be specific, use examples – praise good performance, point out areas for improvement.
- Allow time for discussion/questions/clarification.
- Give appraisal rating (if this is part of process).
- Discuss training/development needs.
- Agree actions (to complete process, development actions, to set objectives for the next appraisal period).

5. **Feedback.** Giving feedback that is accepted and useful is not easy. To be effective feedback needs to be given with:

- Clarity – based on evidence, observations, examples, facts.
- Honesty – telling it how it is, providing insight not flattery!
- Sensitivity – able to deliver difficult messages in acceptable ways, sensitive to the person, the issues, and how much feedback to give when.

Feedback can be used to raise a person's awareness of their performance and its effects, help them to test their own interpretation, and to take ownership of an issue, problem or challenge. Some tips for giving feedback:

- Ask for permission: *'May I offer you some feedback?'*
- Ask for their views on their performance first.
- Start with the positive.
- Initially be descriptive, not evaluative.
- Refer to performance, behaviour, outcomes, not the individual.
- Be specific, not general.
- Be timely; as soon as possible after an event and with ample time for discussion.
- Evaluation should relate to established criteria: objectives, improvement goals.
- Focus on issues that the individual has control over and can change.
- Your reactions and opinions should be presented as such - not as facts.

- Encourage reactions from the individual; their feedback on your feedback - *listening* and *watching* are key skills.
- Feedback should communicate your acceptance of their right to be different.
- If a person reacts in an emotional way, respond to the emotion rather than try to convince with facts.

Receiving feedback is the other side of the feedback coin, and in constructive relationships there is flow both ways. To benefit from receiving feedback from others we need to:

- View it as an opportunity to learn and develop.
- Be open, listen, and acknowledge understanding.
- Ask for examples, facts not opinions.
- Evaluate before deciding what to do.
- Avoid immediately defending or justifying.
- It does not require you to accept it all as true.

However, there may still be someone who feels they have been unfairly treated and it is of course their right to express this, and if they are not satisfied, to appeal to a higher authority. Usually in organisations, such issues are dealt with internally as a 'grievance' through a 'grievance procedure' that clearly stipulates the steps and actions of both parties. The HR department would normally be the custodian of such a procedure, and the procedure itself would usually be hosted by a senior manager who would look impartially at the issues.

6. **Benefits of appraisal.** While there are some problems and challenges with managing and appraising performance, they pail into insignificance when compared to the problems faced by organisations, managers and employees if there is no attempt to manage performance – organisational goals are not achieved, employees are unclear of their targets and priorities, and managers have less assurance that employees are working on the right things, and less evidence to use in rewarding good performance/correcting poor performance. And there are some very tangible benefits of undertaking appraisal including (Bratton & Gold, 2007: 284):

- Improving motivation and morale.
- Clarifying expectations and removing ambiguity about performance.
- Determining rewards.
- Identifying training and development opportunities.
- Improving communication.
- Selecting people for promotion.
- Managing careers.
- Counselling.
- Discipline.

	• Planning remedial actions. • Setting goals and targets. So, while managing performance can be one of the most demanding tasks that managers face in dealing with employees, overall it is worth it.
iv. Performance evaluation in Southern Sudan	1. **Guiding principles** The Manual of Public Service Procedures (2007; Chapter 4) lays out the guiding principles of performance appraisal in Southern Sudan. With the aim of motivating staff towards high performance, GOSS is committed to developing its employees and has put in place a systematic approach to performance appraisal (formal and informal) in order to: • Identify an individual's current level of job performance. • Identify employee strengths and weaknesses. • Enable employees to improve their performance. • Provide a basis for rewarding employees in relation to their contribution to overall goals of the GOSS. • Improve communication between employees and their supervisors • Motivate employees and identify training and development needs. 2. **Performance appraisal procedure** Both the Policy Framework (2007: Section 5.12) and the Manual of Public Service Procedures (2007: Chapter 4) set out aspects of the procedure for performance appraisal. Individual merit and performance in the job shall govern issues of promotion, discipline, termination, retirement, training, etc., hence appraisal of performance is very important. In addition the principle of seniority is to be accorded respect and consideration, providing that it does not conflict with the principle of merit and performance. Merit and seniority will guide salary increases and career enhancement, with weight given to merit considerations increasing at higher grades, and with promotion or appointments to Super Grade positions being based entirely on merit and performance. An annual assessment of individual performance will be conducted by the immediate supervisor based, among other things, on a prior agreed work plan. The assessment should be based on a few simple and explicit criteria, and always shared with the individual concerned but otherwise kept strictly confidential within the public administration.

	Adverse performance assessments will always be shown to the individual concerned, that the individual should have the opportunity to discuss the assessment before it is finalised, comment on it in writing, and appeal its outcome to higher administrative levels. Meritorious performance should be recognised in a variety of ways, including non-monetary recognition and accelerated increments within grade. 3. **Performance appraisal ratings** The Manual of Public Service Procedures (2007: Chapter 4) states that managers responsible for evaluating staff performance may use the following set of performance appraisal ratings vi. *Excellent:* This rating shall be reserved for employees who throughout the year consistently go beyond the implementation level outlined in their job descriptions. Examples include: • Generating new practical ideas, which improve not only their work effectiveness but also the overall working conditions. • Assuming expanded responsibilities for team efforts not included in their job descriptions. vii. *Very good:* This rating indicates that the individual consistently performs to the standards and expectations as defined in his/her job description. The employee demonstrates the knowledge, ability, skills and attitudes required by the job for which he/she has been hired. viii. *Good:* This rating indicates that the employee barely performed his/her responsibilities showing some improvement. ix. *Satisfactory – Needs Improvement:* This rating indicates that the employee needs to improve in one or more key areas of responsibilities as outlined in his/her job description. x. *Low – Poor Performance:* This rating indicates that the employee consistently performed below the standards and expectations set. This is sub-satisfactory performance. Documentation needs to be provided which: • Specifies examples of poor performance. • Indicates that the employee has been advised of his/her poor performance. • Support has been given by supervisor towards correcting deficiencies. 4. **Developments to the performance management system** The Public Service Reforms Implementation Framework Manual (2008) sets out planned developments to performance appraisal in the Public Service of Southern Sudan including:

	• An annual performance plan (for the organisation) derived from the strategic plan. • Individual work plans – developed by individual staff to deliver their portion of the annual plan. • Review of the current performance appraisal instrument. • Training of managers on the appraisal instrument, and on how to conduct periodic performance reviews. • Performance agreements – based on individual work plans, these are the agreements signed between an employee and his/her manager committing to deliver the assigned objectives in terms of the stated targets and deliverables and subject to agreed working conditions. It would be signed for one year and would be the basis for performance review during the year, performance appraisal and performance reward. • Performance reviews – the supervisor meets with his/her staff periodically to discuss progress in the delivery of the agreed objectives. • Performance reward – to reward employees according to their level of individual performance. Poor performers would b sanctioned and given notice for improvement. **References:** Bratton, J. and Gold, J. (2007). Human resource management: Theory and Practice (4th Edn.). PALGRAVE MACMILLAN: Basingstoke, UK. MLPS&HRD (2007). *A Policy Framework for the Public Service of Southern Sudan.* MLPS&HRD (2007). *Manual of Public Service Procedures.* MLPS&HRD (2008). *Public Service Reforms Implementation Framework Manual.*

Topic 8.6: Hiring and Termination

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
HIRING AND TERMINAT-ION	By the end of this course unit, the participating manager should be able to: a) Comply with the hiring policy of the organisation b) Discuss the terms and conditions for new employees at different levels c) Follow the appropriate process while participating in the hiring of employees d) Discuss the grounds for termination of employment/ dismissal of employees e) Comprehend the ways of avoiding wrongful dismissal of employees	i. Hiring policy of the organisation – Equal opportunities – Non-discrimination – Merit based ii. Recruitment process – Ascertaining staffing needs – Attracting candidates – Recruitment in Southern Sudan iii. Selection process – Selecting candidates – Checks (medical, vetting, forms) – Selection interviewing – Selection in Southern Sudan iv. Terms and conditions – Salary- permanent/ temporary/ probationary – Transport – Welfare	– Lectures – Discussions – Exercises – Brainstorms – Expert guest speakers – Case studies – Role plays (interviewing)	– Trainers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids	2 days (3)*	Knowledge and concept test

		– Termination – Others v. Termination of employment – Changed requirements – Unsatisfactory performance – Misconduct – Termination of employment in Southern Sudan vi. Avoiding wrongful dismissal – Proper employment policies – Dispute resolution procedures – Disciplinary procedure in Southern Sudan				

(3)* This course can be extended to 3 days for more practice at interviewing skills.

Topic 8.6 Expanded: Hiring and Dismissal

i. Hiring policy of the organisation	Each organisation has its own hiring policy, although certain aspects are determined by legislation, particularly elements of a country's constitution and employment law. Whether or not they are covered by law, there are certain principles that form a sound and ethical foundation to hiring policy such as: • Equal opportunities – that equal opportunities will be offered to all applicants irrespective of their background, ethnicity, gender, etc. • Non-discrimination – that people will not be discriminated against because of factors such as ethnicity, gender. • Merit-based – that hiring decisions will be based on merit, i.e. that the person has the requisite skills, knowledge, qualifications and experience to do the job, rather than on factors such as ethnicity, tribe, background, connections, etc. In the recruitment and selection processes that lead up to hiring decisions, such merit should be clearly established through techniques such as interviewing, testing, taking up references, etc. At the same time the post needs to be approved, and the job needs to be clearly defined so that the skills required are evident. This merit-based approach should be reflected in hiring at GOSS and State levels to prevent people ending up in jobs for which they are not suited and therefore cannot deliver what is required of them. Organisations may also define policy concerning other aspects of hiring such as: • All jobs should be advertised before they are filled. • All jobs should be advertised internally as well as (or before) being advertised externally. • All applicants will receive a response from the organisation. • Shortlisted candidates will be interviewed. In Southern Sudan, the Policy Framework for the Public Service of Southern Sudan (2007; Section 2.1) contains certain guidelines for hiring, repeated in the Manual for Public Service Procedures (2007; Chapter 1). The overall recruitment and employment policy of GOSS is to uphold: • The goal of providing effective and efficient public services; • Broad representativeness of the various population groups in the public service of Southern Sudan; and • In accordance with the core values of the public service (particular equity and affirmative action).

	However, the Procedures Manual also emphasises in Chapter 1 that *"individual recruitment into the new public service of GOSS shall be based mainly on individual merit and qualifications directly relevant to performance in the job for which the individual is being considered".* The hiring of certain special categories of employees is referred to in the sections on recruitment and selection below.
ii. Recruitment process	*"Recruitment is the process of generating a pool of capable people to apply to an organisation for employment. Selection is the process by which managers and others use specific instruments to choose from a pool of applicants the person or persons most likely to succeed in the job(s), given management goals and legal requirements"* (Bratton & Gold, 2007: 239). Recruitment and selection are critical for organisations since they form the process by which organisations attract and take on the people they need to meet their objectives. They are also the first stage in building the organisation-employee relationship, some of which is explicit (through the contract of employment, terms and conditions, etc., some of which is implicit (often referred to as the 'psychological contract'). Both help establish the expectations and obligations that comprise the employment relationship, and therefore will shape the employee's view of and commitment to the organisation. Recruitment starts with identifying staffing needs. This might be done organisation or department-wide using a human resource planning process (closely linked to the planning of the business activity). Such a process would use data such as the current staff profile of the organisation or department (e.g. staff numbers, ages, skills), attrition rates (i.e. the numbers of people who will leave each year through retirement, turnover, etc.), and the staffing requirements of the business activity. Such resource planning would yield the numbers and skills that need to be recruited. Or staffing needs might be ascertained less formally as managers react to changes in staffing in their team (e.g. someone resigns), or foresee a growth in activity. **In Southern Sudan,** before any recruitment begins, the post needs exist in the nominal roll for that Ministry or State. The nominal roll is prepared before the budget is approved for the year in question. Anyone appointed to a position which is not on the nominal roll cannot have a substantive appointment – such a position would have to be confirmed during the next budget cycle by inclusion in that year's nominal roll. Once staffing needs are identified, and in the case of Southern Sudan, posts created on the nominal roll, then comes the generation of a pool of capable candidates to fill the staffing needs. There may be an internal pool of candidates already available, or the organisation may need to attract applicants from outside. Whichever, it is important that the job is described well so that the pool of candidates generated are appropriately skilled and qualified. A job description for recruitment would typically contain:

	Job identification – job title and grade (level) Department and location Responsible to Relationships Job summary – purpose of job/overall objectives Specific duties and responsibilities Physical/economic conditions In addition to a job description, some organisations also use a 'personal specification' in an attempt to profile the 'ideal' person to fill the job. Such a specification might specify qualifications and experience, specific aptitudes and competencies relevant to the job, innate abilities, attainments, disposition and motivation. If the organisation looks externally to generate its pool of candidates, then thought needs to be given advertising the job vacancy. This can be done by word of mouth, but to tap a wide pool it is necessary to use communication media such as newspapers, notice boards, journals, and electronic media such as the Internet. A typical job advertisement would include the key elements of the job description shown above and perhaps also the personal specification. It would also need to say something about the organisation – this is a good opportunity to project a positive image of both the job and the organisation. Placing of the advert is important so as to tap the candidates who are likely to have the requisite skills. Some organisations use a specialist recruitment agency to create and place the job advert, and also sometimes to screen and shortlist candidates against the job description/personal specification. For very senior or very scarce roles, and organisation might sub-contract the recruitment process to a 'head-hunter' organisation that specialises in seeking out the right candidates and encouraging them to apply. It is usually required that applications are made by the combination of a letter, a completed application form, and/or a curriculum vitae (CV), although increasingly applications can be completed online or submitted by e-mail. The test of a successful recruitment process is whether it attracts a sufficient number of people of the desired quality within the budget set (yes, like all other management processes, recruitment costs money and therefore needs to undertaken in a cost effective way – this is also argument to work hard on retaining staff since recruitment can take up a lot of time and money) **In Southern Sudan,** the Policy Framework (2007) states that recruitment is to be, as a general principle, merit-based, but also needs to be mindful of:

	• Representativeness of various population groups. • Gender considerations. • Equity and affirmative action criteria of the core values of the public service. In addition, the Procedures Manual (2007) mentions four groups that require particular consideration: • Former civilian CANS employees and demobilized SPLA soldiers. • Former Southern Sudanese GOS employees. • Regular new employees • Specialized temporary employees. NB. The slightly earlier Policy Framework (2007) mentions four groups: • Current civilian employees of the SPLM. • Current civilian employees of the Government of Sudan (GOS) who were employed in the Coordinating Council for Southern Sudan (CCSS) and State Administrations. • SPLA demobilised soldiers. • New regular employees to be recruited. • Specialised temporary employees – Southern Sudanese experts from the Diaspora. The treatment of each of these groups is detailed in the Procedures Manual (2007) and the Policy Framework (2007) respectively. The Procedures Manual (2007: 1.2) gives some guiding principles on recruitment and appointments: • Recruitment, appointment or promotion should only take place after a careful assessment of the need to employ or promote such permanent or contract staff has been made and deemed to be absolutely necessary. • Where possible, vacancies should be filled by internal departmental transfer or promotion. Where no suitable candidate/s is/are available, all vacant posts must be advertised through available media. • All internal transfers and promotions, no further probation is normally required. However, if any new position has certain special skills or physical requirements, then the employee may be required to undergo some training or orientation prior to taking over his/her new position. • Recruitment will be related solely to the applicant's suitability for the post and will not be influenced by race, creed, sex or religion, etc., unless specified otherwise by the relevant laws in force.

iii. Selection process	Once a pool of candidates has been generated, selection can take place. This would normally be done by the recruiting manager with help from a Human Resources Manager/Adviser. Sometimes it would be undertaken by a panel of managers. The first task is short-listing the pool of candidates (if this has not already been done by an external recruitment or headhunting agency). This is necessary since in the event of multiple applications, it is not practical to interview everyone. In any case, there will be applicants who clearly do not meet the job or personal specifications and can be ruled out. However, this must be done with care, and in line with recruitment policy (particularly legal aspects), so that discrimination or prejudice does not sneak in at this stage. Such short-listing might simply be done by comparing applications/CVs against the job description/personnel specification, and/or by undertaking reference checks, and/or by using tests (see below). There are a variety of selection techniques that are used for the manager to decide who to make the job offer to. These include: 1. Selection interview – this is the most widely used technique for selection. The candidate is invited for an interview with the recruiting manager (or panel of managers). An interview with HR may also be arranged if the HR Manager has not been present at the management interview. A selection interview will seek to ascertain if the candidate has the skills/knowledge/experience required by careful and probing questioning. The interview will also give an insight into the candidates more general competencies such as interpersonal and communication skills, and whether they are likely to fit into the team and culture of the organisation. Of course, it is also a good opportunity for the candidate to 'interview' the organisation to see if he/she thinks the job meets their requirements and needs. 2. Psychometric tests – some organisations require candidates to complete written tests. These are of two types: *ability tests* which focus on mental skills (e.g. verbal reasoning, numeracy, handling an in-tray of issues) or physical skills (e.g. keyboard speed), and *inventories* which are self-report questionnaires about personality indicating traits, intelligence, values, interests, attitudes and preferences. The theory is that such factors can help predict job performance. For ability tests, there are clearly right and wrong answers or measurement that allows ranking. With inventories, there are no right or wrong answers but a range of choices, and organisations use the outcomes to see if the candidates meet the personal specifications of the job or have the desired attitudes to fit in with the culture of the organisation. Such tests are usually used as part of a range of techniques including selection interviewing. Sometimes they are used *before* interviewing as a way of screening out candidates. 3. Assessment centres – given the weaknesses found in applying single selection techniques, some organisations combine techniques and apply them together at an event referred to as an assessment centre. Candidates may complete tests and be observed as they take part in an interview, a case study presentation, group exercises and a role play. Such events may be structured over a day or longer. It is argued that using a combination of techniques gives a fuller picture of an applicant's strengths and

	weaknesses, and leads to better decisions when choosing the person most suitable for the job. Clearly, such a process is time and personnel intensive and therefore expensive, so organisations would tend only to use assessment centres for very key or senior positions. 4. Interns – a particularly good way of selecting new graduates is to have them work in the organisation as summer interns during their vacation – this is good for them when they are students (for experience and earning money), and good for the organisation as these students, who are potential candidates, can be observed working/performing over a period of time, which usually gives a much better indication of suitability than a selection interview alone. Since almost all selection decisions involve an interview of the candidate(s) by the recruiting manager and sometimes the HR professional involved, selection interviewing skills are important in the hiring process. As with all interviewing, they include the following questioning and listening skills: ***Questioning*** is the interviewer's primary method of extracting information from the candidate. However, there are various types of questions, and how they are used will often determine the success of the interview in terms of did I, as the interviewer, find out if this person has the skills, knowledge and experience necessary to do this job. There are several types of useful questions: • *Open* – questions that invite a person to talk, e.g. *"Can you tell me about…?"; "What experience do you have in...?"* • *Probing* – follow-up questions that probe deeper, e.g. *'Can you tell me more about…?'* • *Reflective* – to gain further information by repeating something or reflecting the feelings expressed, e.g. *"You say he over-reacted; how…?"* • *Closed* – questions that invite the answer "yes" or "no" – useful for finding out or checking facts, acting as a brake on the conversation, or getting commitment, e.g. *"Have you experience in project management?"* • *Comparison* – an alternative to closed questions but are more likely to extract information and can be easily followed by "why", "how" or "what". E.g. *"Which option did you like best, A or B…?"* Questions usually best avoided are: • *Leading* questions – these state or hint at the desired answer and can be viewed as manipulative. E.g. *"You would like to work in this organisation, wouldn't you?"* However, they can be useful for making suggestions to a candidate.

- *Multiple* questions these ask several things at once and can be confusing or lose important information since the person will often only answer one of the questions. E.g. *"What is the best piece of work you have ever done, when was it, and what skills did you use?"* It would be better to split such a question into several questions.

Listening is a complimentary skill to questioning, and as a rule, the interviewer should do more listening than speaking/questioning if he/she is to really find out about the candidate. Active listening is a positive act not a passive one and is foundational to good understanding. It involves interpreting what is said *and* what is not said, tuning in to both verbal and non-verbal messages. Active listening helps to create a climate of trust where the individual can express themselves, and opens the way for the interviewer to explore further. We listen with our *ears* noticing what is said, how it is said and the tone. We show that we are listening with our *eyes* (maintaining eye contact) and our *body language*.
Other skills related to listening are:

- *Reflecting or Paraphrasing content* – the interviewer restates the essence of what he or she has heard – this shows that the interviewer is attentive and is a good way of checking understanding.

- *Reflecting feelings* – the interviewer mirrors verbal and non-verbal messages and restates to check underlying feelings.

- *Summarising* – the interviewer uses summaries to check understanding and as a useful way of bringing structure to the interview, moving it on if necessary.

In selection interviewing, the interviewer is especially interested in finding out if the candidate has the required knowledge, skills, qualifications and experience to do the job, or is able to develop them. Simply asking this as a closed question, i.e. "Do you have the skills to do this job?" is not very helpful as it will probably generate the answer "Yes". Rather, the interviewer needs to use a variety of questions to uncover evidence of the candidate's skills and knowledge (e.g. from past examples) or pose some hypothetical scenarios for the candidate to show what they would do if faced with a particular challenge. Some example questions for this purpose are given below:

"This job requires knowledge of managing projects. Give me an example of how you have successfully managed a project in the past?"

"You said one of your strengths is leading others. What do you think is most important aspect of leading others?"

"What is the biggest challenge you have faced at work, and how did you deal with it?"

	"You are working on an important piece of work and it is running late. What would you do?" *"Two of your team members are in conflict with one another and it is detrimental to their work. How would you help them resolve it?"* Such questions prompt the candidate to give evidence and examples from their experience, or to demonstrate how they would respond to a particular situation, thus revealing their depth of knowledge or skill in relation to the topic you are asking them about. **In Southern Sudan,** selection and appointment into the public service of GOSS (Super Grades and non Super grades), shall be through free and fair competition and merit and in accordance with the approved ***selection criteria***, which are laid out below (Policy Framework, 2007; Procedures Manual, 2007) in descending order of importance (1 highest priority): 1. Years of experience in the post (or its equivalent) to be filled or service in the SPLA. 2. Satisfactory references or other assessments of past performance (e.g. service in the SPLM/SPLA. 3. Education (as appropriate to the post to be filled). • University Degree. • Vocational Training. • Secondary School Certificate. • Primary. • Informal training. 4. Functional literacy in English. 5. Gender balance. 6. Geographic balance. 7. Computer literacy. ***Selection procedures*** – the post must be vacant in the approved budget of the unit, and the preference is to fill the post internally by promotion. The head of the relevant unit will form a Departmental Board of Promotion to select a suitable candidate from a departmental short list presented by the head of the unit. Members of the Promotion Board must hold posts of higher grade than that being filled. The Board will study personnel reports on each candidate, conduct interviews, and present recommendations to the head of the unit. After approval of the concerned Minister, the request is sent to MLPS&HRD for issuance of an appointment or promotion letter. The Policy Framework (2007) and, in more detail, the Procedures Manual (2007) stipulate the selection and appointment procedures for the various categories of staff: • Under Secretaries by the President of GOSS.

	• All other Super Grade posts by the Council of Ministers. • Deputy Directors and above by direct appointment. • Administrative, Professional, Sub-Professional and Technical staff by Under Secretaries/ Director Generals of respective Ministries subject to endorsement by the MLPS&HRD. Where the vacancy cannot be filled by internal promotion, a Ministry Appointment Board must be formed to undertake the selection process, chaired by a senior staff member of higher grade than the post being filled. Selection will be confirmed by the concerned Minister, and papers forwarded by the Under Secretary or Head of Department to MLPS&HRD for final approval of the appointment. • All classified staff appointments must be processed through the MLPS&HRD, who will verify whether the selection has been conducted using the approved selection criteria. • Unclassified staff will be engaged by the Director of Administration and Finance in consultation with the Under Secretary/Head of Unit of the Ministry concerned. Unclassified staff employment is subject to budget provision, and unclassified staff that have spent three months continuous service without a break are considered permanent staff. Details of selection procedures at each of these levels is given in the Procedures Manual (2007). For ***new appointees***, the Ministry or Departmental Recruitment Board will interview short-listed candidates derived from an evaluation of responses to advertisements from the Labour Department (or a list related to demobilisation of the SPLA). The Departmental Recruitment Board is usually composed of 3-5 people, at least one of which is a knowledgeable person from outside the recruiting institution. Selection will be confirmed by the concerned Minister, and papers forwarded by the Under Secretary or Head of Department to MLPS&HRD for final approval of the appointment. Newly appointed staff: • May be required to undergo a medical check-up • Must undergo the induction course or programme before taking up their post. • Must initially serve on probation for a period of 3 to 12 months depending on level. This period can be extended if necessary. All appointments, promotions and terms of service for employees at all levels above unclassified will not be effective before the issuance of a letter of clearances and appointments by MLPS&HRD. These procedures for newly appointed staff may not necessarily be followed for the recruitment of unclassified casual workers – however no casual worker should be allowed to work for a GOSS unit for more than 3 months on temporary terms of employment.

iv. Terms and conditions	Before hiring takes place, the terms and conditions need to be agreed and offered to the candidate. This would normally be done through an offer letter with more detailed terms and conditions appended. Typically, an offer letter would include: • Job title and grade – the title of the job being offered and the level. • The salary and salary band – the starting salary and the salary band to give the candidate an idea of salary progression. • The location – where the job is based, and an indication of mobility required. • Working hours – normal working hours (e.g. Monday to Friday, 8.00 am to 5.00pm with a one hour break 1.00 to 2.00pm). • The type of contract – is this a permanent position, temporary or probationary? If one of the latter two, what are the timescales involved? • Date of reply – an offer letter would normally have a lapse date, e.g. a week or two (this enables the organisation to move to another candidate if this one rejects the offer). Other terms and conditions not in the cover letter would be detailed in an appended document, usually including items such as: • Notice period – this is the time period that would have to be granted in advance by the employer or employee to end the contract of employment and, depending on the job, is typically a week, a month, or sometimes three months (often, the notice period increases with increasing service). • Leave entitlement – including details of annual leave, sick leave, maternity leave, study leave, leave without pay, etc. • Other entitlements/benefits, e.g. transport, vehicles, welfare, medical, insurance, pension arrangements, personal allowances, etc. • Termination – causes for dismissal, such as unsatisfactory performance, gross misconduct, etc. Details of disciplinary and grievance procedures. • Confidentiality – a clause about confidentiality, intellectual property, etc.

	Details of general terms of employment for GOSS can be found in the Manual of Public Service Procedures (2007).
v. Termination of employment	There are a variety of ways that the employment contract with an employee can end. Of course, the most amicable of these are usually normal retirement at the end of a person's career, or resignation because the person chooses to leave and take up a job elsewhere. But there are times when the organisation proactively terminates a person's employment. For this to happen there needs to be reasonable grounds for dismissal. Grounds for dismissal include: • Changed requirements – the world of work is constantly changing, which means that organisations' requirements for particular skills are also subject to change. E.g. if an organisation automates its production line it will not need the number of operators necessary before. Or if a company loses market share, it will sell less products and make less money, and therefore need less staff. Or if a whole industry is in decline (e.g. coal mining and shipbuilding in the UK over the last 20 years), companies working in that industry will need to 'downsize'. Such changed requirements can mean that some staff now longer have jobs and are therefore made 'redundant'. The blow can be softened by processes such as early retirement and voluntary redundancy (with financial packages as incentives), but sometimes it is necessary to enforce redundancy on employees. Such situations are covered by employment law (in some countries including statutory redundancy payments) and need to be handled with care since they cause great upheaval in organisations both for those who leave and those who remain. • Unsatisfactory performance – to fulfil their part of the employment contract, employees need to perform the duties and responsibilities written in their job description and to the required standards. If an employee is not fulfilling these duties and delivering unsatisfactory performance, this should be picked up by the manager as part of the ongoing review of performance and, if not corrected, reported in the performance appraisal documentation. Every effort should be made by the manager to coach and support the individual, perhaps providing additional training, so as to turn the situation around and get a positive outcome. If this is not possible (e.g. the person is not capable or does not want to do the job), then alternative jobs should be investigated. If all possible alternatives have been investigated/tried and performance remains unsatisfactory, then in most organisations a disciplinary procedure would be embarked upon. This would entail giving the employee a warning (usually verbal warning first, then a written warning) that if things didn't improve, action will be taken. There may be a disciplinary hearing with the employee given an opportunity to put their side of the argument, with the option to have a representative present (e.g. colleague or union representative). There might then be a time period to see if things improve. If not, there could be suspension and a final written warning followed, if nothing changed, by dismissal. Such situations are in most countries covered by employment law that ensures that employees' rights are respected. Hence it is important that managers and HR follow the organisation's procedures to the letter, ensuring that all

necessary steps are taken and that all actions, meetings, warnings, and conversations are documented.

- Misconduct – in most organisations actions of gross misconduct are dismissible offences. Such acts might include stealing from the organisation or from other employees, violence at work, misuse of company resources, insubordination, bullying or sexual harassment of other staff, flagrant breaking of the organisation's regulations, fraudulent use of the organisation's money, etc. As with unsatisfactory performance, a disciplinary procedure would normally be followed, except if the offence was so serious that it warranted summary dismissal, i.e. the person's employment contract is terminated on the spot and they are escorted off the site. Of course, sometimes misconduct is of a criminal nature and if that is the case, the appropriate authorities need to be involved once this is known.

In Southern Sudan, the Manual of Public Service Procedures (2007) describes various ways that employment can be terminated:

- Voluntary termination: from the employee's initiative e.g. resignation or desertion (Discipline Services only).
- Involuntary termination: due to death, dismissal, disciplinary action (suspension), medical and old age retirement, end of contract or retrenchment.
- Selection to fill a constitutional post.
- Termination by the President of GOSS for public interest.

Employees have the right of appeal against involuntary termination. Suspension has to follow the necessary disciplinary procedure (see Procedures Manual, 2007).

Retirement policy is set out in the Procedures Manual (2007) as follows:

- Voluntary retirement age for GOSS staff is 60 years.
- Compulsory age for retirement is 65 years.
- The unit shall give the employee 6 months notice to prepare for retirement.
- Procedures will be set out in the Public Service Regulations which will be issued following the promulgation of the Public Service Act or other interim regulations in place prior to the Act coming into force.

vi. Avoiding wrongful dismissal	It is important for organisations to avoid wrongful dismissal. Firstly, because it is morally unjust. Secondly, because it has a detrimental effect on employee morale and will prompt other employees to wonder whether they will be fairly treated. And thirdly because in most countries it is a breach of employment law which lays the organisation open to prosecution, bad publicity and punitive fines. To avoid wrongful dismissal it is important for organisations to have proper employment policies in place which, for example, outlaw discrimination and promote diversity, and lay down clearly the codes of conduct and regulations of the organisation. And that these are available and clearly communicated. It is also important that aligned to such policies, organisations have dispute resolution procedures in place that managers and staff are aware of. These include a disciplinary procedure (which managers can use to formally raise issues of unsatisfactory performance or misconduct with employees) and a grievance procedure (that employees can use to formally raise a grievance with the organisation). A disciplinary procedure should incorporate the features of (Bratton & Gold, 2007): • Fairness – i.e. even-handedness in the hearing, the right to be heard and the right to appeal. • Facilities for representation – the right to have another employee or representative present. • Procedural steps – that follow progressive discipline process, i.e. that the employee is notified of unacceptable conduct and there is adequate opportunity for corrective action. • Management rules – covering issues such as unreliability, negligence, insubordination, safety, theft, and unacceptable behaviour. In the UK, the Employment Act 2002 created a prescribed procedure for handling discipline in the workplace comprising three steps that require: 1. The employer to specify the concerns in writing. 2. The employee to attend a formal meeting with the manager. 3. A right to appeal on the part of the employee. Having such dispute resolution procedures in place means that the issues of a case are thoroughly reviewed before dismissal decisions are made therefore minimising the risk of someone being wrongfully dismissed. **In Southern Sudan,** pending issuance of the Public Service Disciplinary Act, discipline procedures are laid out in the Manual of Public Service Procedures (2007). Staff can be disciplined for a number of offences including conviction of certain criminal offences; absence from duty without permission; drunkenness on duty; falsification of records; wilful destruction of government property; insubordination or repeated disobedience; refusal to accept work; loss or destruction of government property through neglect; unauthorised use of stores, vehicles,

	equipment, etc.; private employment; and disclosure of classified materials. A basic principle is that no individual should be punished without knowing the charges made or without having the opportunity to defend him/herself. The person can be suspended while investigations are undertaken, although a person cannot be suspended until he/she has been asked to give an explanation of the facts in writing. Punishments should be proportional to the offence and can include dismissal (with or without service benefits); reduction in grade; termination of contract or temporary appointment; cut of pay, premature retirement, etc. Disciplinary action will be recorded on the individual's personal file. Employees have the right of appeal to the Public Service Commission of Southern Sudan. Disciplinary proceedings may be instigated by the Head of a Unit, Director of a Department or any supervisory officer. The case will be heard by the Departmental Board of Discipline appointed by the Under Secretary, if Super Grade, by the Central Board of Discipline. Further details are contained in the Procedures Manual (2007). **References:** Bratton, J. and Gold, J. (2007). *Human resource management: Theory and Practice* (4th Edn.). PALGRAVE MACMILLAN: Basingstoke, UK. MLPS&HRD (2007). *A Policy Framework for the Public Service of Southern Sudan.* MLPS&HRD (2007). *Manual of Public Service Procedures.*

Topic 8.7: Employee Assistance

TOPIC	SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	RESOURCES	TIME	EVALUATION
EMPLOYEE ASSISTANCE	By the end of this course unit, the participating manager should be able: a) Explain the meaning of employee assistance. b) Discuss the reasons that may necessitate employee assistance c) Discuss the types of Employee Assistance Programs (EAPs) possible d) Describe the steps followed in instituting employee assistance programmes	i. Meaning of employee assistance – Distinguish from other forms of welfare facilities – Problems in their lives ii. Reasons for employee assistance – Drug and substance abuse – Gambling – Stress – Family problems iii. Types of employee assistance programs – In-house assistance (using EAPs staff) – Out-of-house model (contract with vendors) iv. Steps in instituting EAP – Goal/ philosophy specification – Policy statement	– Lectures – Discussions – Exercises – Brainstorms – Expert guest speakers	– Trainers – Stationery – Flipcharts – Manuals – Handouts – Audio/ visual aids	1 day	Knowledge and concept test

		development – Professional staffing – Confidential record-keeping system establishment – Supervisors training – Publicity of the EAP – Legal issues/ considerations				

Topic 8.7 Expanded: Employee Assistance

i. Meaning of employee assistance	Employee assistance (EA) is the process by which an organisation provides support to its staff for what are usually non-work issues (e.g. personal problems); issues directly related to work would normally be dealt with by the employee's manager, or through interventions such as coaching or training. The motivation for an organisation providing EA for non-work issues can be altruistic, but there is also self-interest on behalf of the organisation since such non-work issues often affect the well-being of the individual, and therefore can also have an impact on the person's work performance. Employee assistance (EA) can be provided in-house or externally. It is distinguished from other forms of support (e.g. support from a person's manager) because it is usually independent of the employee's management line or team, and the employee's issue is treated in full confidence by the person providing the EA support. It is different from support by an employee's family, friends or external network because it is provided by the organisation, but the employee's issue or name is not fed back to the organisation. So it is a way of an organisation providing support but in a confidential, non-publicised, anonymous way. Of course, there is no compunction to use EA support provided by the organisation – employees can find their own support from colleagues or the manager at work, from a union, or from family, friends, church, other networks or professional bodies. EA gives them another option.
ii. Reasons for employee assistance	EA is usually provided for non-work issues, typically of a personal nature. These include drug and substance abuse, gambling, stress, and family problems. Such problems can affect work performance, but usually require professional help to overcome. Additionally, they represent the type of issues that most employees would not want colleagues or their manager to know about, and therefore would rather get off-line help. Sometimes there might be issues closer to work that an employee seeks EA support for, e.g. if the employee has a difficult relationship with another colleague, or is involved in a conflict situation at work. The benefit of seeking EA help in such a situation is that it is a way of getting some objective advice, a shoulder to cry on. The downside is that the EA person will not be in a position to intervene in the work situation (since EA support is kept confidential and separate from the management line), so if the matter is not resolved, at some point the employee will have to approach someone in the organisation if it is a work issue.
iii. Types of employee assistance programmes (EAP)	Employee assistance programmes (EAPs) can be in-house or external. In-house EAPs would normally have EAP staff dedicated to this role, usually with counselling, psychological or medical training. In some organisations there are welfare officers who play an EA role. Some organisations have occupational health departments that also cover EA type issues. Out-of-house EAPs have become more popular for reasons such as an organisation may not have or want to have people with EA specialist skills in-house, or staff feel more comfortable knowing that they are speaking to a truly impartial person separate from the organisation. Organisations set up external EAPs by contracting with

	an appropriate vendor who agrees to provide face-to-face and/or telephone EA support by professionals. Such contracts are usually based on a pre-defined minimum number of contact hours (so that there is a guaranteed availability for staff), and can be adjusted depending on actual take-up. Usually, the EAP company will report back to the organisation metrics like the number of individuals dealt with, the number of contact hours, and the types of issue, but not details that would identify particular individuals. With both in and out-of-house EAPS, contact numbers, the process for getting help, and assurances of confidentiality would be publicised within the organisation, and managers particularly made aware of how to refer people should they think they need EA support.
iv. Steps in instituting EAP	In establishing an EAP, there are a number of steps to undertake: 1. Goal/ philosophy specification – what is the goal and philosophy of the programme, i.e. why are we doing this? Since there is a cost involved, there needs to be a justification. It may be based on a cost-benefit analysis argued from the point of view that unresolved personal problems reduce work performance and increase absenteeism. 2. Policy statement development – any programme needs to be guided by a clear policy. In the case of EAP, a policy statement would cover items such as who was entitled to use the programme, confidentiality, how the programme would be staffed, etc. 3. Professional staffing – given the types of issues dealt with through EAPs, staff would normally need to be professional counsellors, and able to refer people to more specialist help when appropriate (e.g. medical help for drug abuse). 4. Confidential record-keeping system establishment – one of the most important aspects of an EAP is the confidentiality of the consultations, and the fact that employees can access EA support without having to tell their manager. So this confidentiality needs protecting, and any records keeping done so within the philosophy that confidentiality with regard to the employee's issue and identity are protected. If this lapses, then EAP loses its credibility and people will not use it. 5. Supervisors' training – managers and supervisors need to be aware of the organisation's EAP, the philosophy and policy behind it, and how people can access it. 6. Publicity of the EAP – so that employees understand what the EAP offers, how confidentiality will be handled, and how to access support. 7. Legal issues/ considerations – EAPs need to be set up in full knowledge of the law, particularly that covering use of illegal substances.