

CIVIL SOCIETY EMPOWERMENT

Project
Project
Management
Management

PASSIA

Palestinian Academic Society for the Study of
International Affairs, Jerusalem



CIVIL SOCIETY EMPOWERMENT

Project Management

Based on a PASSIA Training Course



PASSIA
Palestinian Academic Society for the Study of International Affairs

PASSIA, the Palestinian Academic Society for the Study of International Affairs, is an Arab, non-profit Palestinian institution, with a financially and legally independent status. It is not affiliated with any government, political party or organization. PASSIA seeks to present the Question of Palestine in its national, Arab and international contexts through academic research, dialogue and publication.

PASSIA endeavors that its seminars, symposia and workshops, whether international or intra-Palestinian, be open, self-critical and conducted in a spirit of harmony and cooperation.

PASSIA's *Civil Society Empowerment through Training and Skills Development* program has been designed to provide training seminars for Palestinian NGO professionals, practitioners and university graduates, with the aim to improve their operational abilities. It is hoped that this will enable them to deal more efficiently with the tasks ahead in their civil society.

This publication contains the proceedings of the Training Program on *Project Management*, which was conducted in April 2001 by local and foreign experts in the field.

The PASSIA program on *Civil Society Empowerment through Training and Skills Development* is kindly supported by the United States Agency for International Development (USAID), West Bank and Gaza Mission, American Embassy, Tel Aviv.

Previously published as part of the *Civil Society Empowerment* series:

Policy Analysis (PASSIA, January 1998)
Strategic Planning (PASSIA, September 1998)
Media and Communication Skills (PASSIA, April 1999)
Leadership Skills (PASSIA, May 2000)
Conflict Resolution and Negotiations (PASSIA, November 2000)
Research Skills (PASSIA, November 2000; Arabic)

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May 2001

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INTRODUCTION

PASSIA's *Civil Society Empowerment through Training and Skills Development* program arose as a response to the need in Palestinian society for the establishment and running of effective organs of civil society. Aimed at imparting a solid theoretical background as well as fostering essential practical skills, the program was designed to play an important part in the development of decision-making skills, personnel management skills and negotiation skills vital in the achievement of both individual and organizational goals. It is the human resources that make up the fundamental pillar of Palestinian civil society and are essential in the development of any stable society. To further equip Palestinian professionals, graduates and practitioners for the challenges inherent in fostering such a society domestically, PASSIA has established a series of seminar and workshop based training courses, which incorporate theoretical and practical training in areas relevant to the present and future role of Palestinian civil society organizations (CSOs).

Each of the seminars PASSIA runs as a part of this training program includes three interrelated activities:

1. *Preparation.* Approximately three weeks before the actual training program begins, participants are provided with preparatory reading material gathered by the PASSIA Project Team in coordination with the trainers and lecturers. The participants are also required to write a short paper on an issue related to the course subject.
2. *Intensive Training Seminar.* Trainees attend a five-day lecture program conducted by local and international experts. The lectures range from theoretical concepts to functional skills, exercises and case studies, whereby the participants are continuously encouraged to apply what they have learned to the institutions with which they are involved.
3. *Follow-up Program.* The intensive seminar is followed by two workshop days, concentrating on skill enhancement. The major goal is to link and apply the skills learned to actual issues of concern in the participants' working environment. Participants prepare for the workshops by completing practice-oriented writing assignments.

CIVIL SOCIETY EMPOWERMENT: PROJECT MANAGEMENT

In the following pages PASSIA the proceedings of the *Project Management* course, which took place from February-April 2001, are presented. This is hoped to serve both as a brief and multifaceted introduction to the issues addressed during this course, as well as a record of the event. The intention is not to replicate the seminars *per se*, as by their very 'workshop-style' nature they do not immediately lend themselves to print. However, by giving the reader a brief window on some highly varied methodologies and analyses, it is hoped that a broad, if limited, survey of the complexities of project management has been achieved.

As the training program aimed specifically at practitioners and team/staff members concerned with project formulation, coordination and implementation within organizations, it focused on improving the ability of the participants to define, plan and manage projects effectively by providing the practical methods, skills and tools of project formulation, implementation and documentation. The course provided the practical knowledge of project management principles, supported and demonstrated by means of role-playing and other hands-on exercises.

The lecturers whose work appears herein were chosen with diversity in mind and as part of an effort to present comprehensive and up-to-date work in the field.

THIS PUBLICATION

The following report is meant to be used as a handbook and, as such, PASSIA hopes it will allow for the widest possible dissemination of the course material and instructions amongst the Palestinian civil society community. The aim is to provide a practical tool that will empower a large number of NGO and other practitioners with knowledge and skills from which they can clearly benefit.

*The PASSIA Project Team
May 2001*

1

AN INTRODUCTION TO PROJECT MANAGEMENT: THE FOUNDATION FOR SUCCESS

*John Moore*¹

Project management has been called both an art and a science. In any environment – whether public sector (government), business, or non-profit – the difference between success and failure is often the ability to effectively manage a spectrum of projects under a variety of time, resource, and customer constraints.

Mastering the science of project management provides a foundation for the art of leadership; the necessary skills are common to both. There is no question that the best project managers are also outstanding leaders. They have vision, they motivate, they bring people together, and, most of all, they accomplish great things.

In looking at project management, it is important to draw upon existing academic as well as professional research and experience. As such, the business model is held out as an important foundation; it contains the most developed body of research and case studies with respect to project management. Unlike other research on project management, the private sector has a firm tradition of applying theory to everyday requirements. While the business model serves as a useful paradigm, the principles derived are applicable to a variety of government and NGO organizations.

Before getting into the principles and techniques of project management, let's first try to conceptualize what a project and project management actually represent.

¹ John D. Moore is an international consultant providing management services to private, public, and non-profit organizations. He has been involved in project management for the last eight years. From 1993 to 1996 he worked with Gulf Eternit Industries (GEI), and from 1996 to 1999 as project and crisis manager with the US State Department and Department of Defense.

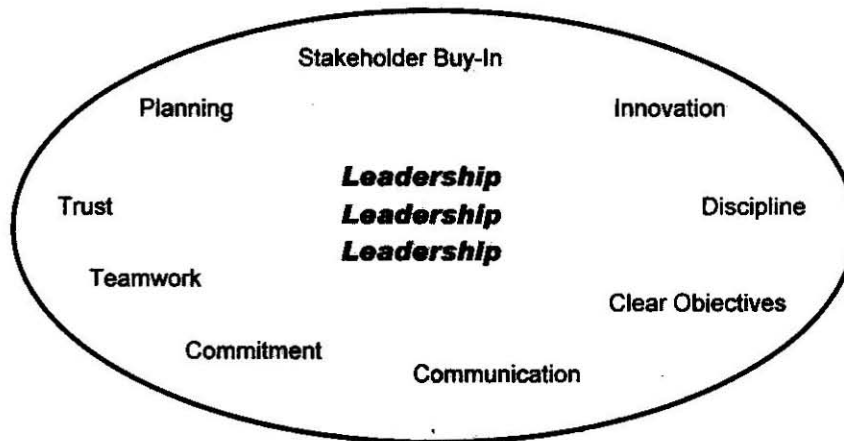
A **project** is a unique set of activities that are meant to produce a specific outcome, with a specific start and finish date, and a specific allocation of resources. This is in contrast to ongoing operations that involve repetitive work with no defined end. Projects are bounded by three elements or project 'parameters': results, time and resources.

Project management is a formal management discipline in which projects are planned and carried out using a *systematic, repeatable* and *scaleable* process.

It is the process of developing substantive data about each project parameter so that the decision-making between parameters is more effective. Whether you are the project manager or part of the team, or working in a 60-person effort, these skills can be adapted to increase organizational and individual capacity. You apply the same methodology to a \$50,000 project as to one with a budget of ten million dollars. Of course, each project will be different in scope, but the thinking process –the project management paradigm – in which each project is planned and executed will be similar.



FUNDAMENTALS FOR SUCCESS



Leadership

Leaders motivate, they inspire, they create vision. Leadership can involve a single person or team of people that take charge and are both responsible and accountable. Leadership is about stepping in front, taking risks when required, and inspiring other members of the organization to excel. True leaders also have the ability to be good followers.

In a project management team, the project manager is typically the team leader. However, each team member is required to lead as well, assuming responsibility for their specific tasks while assisting other team members to achieve team objectives.

The project manager and project team are expected to deliver the project on time, on budget and on schedule. And, when conditions make such performance impossible – such as an unexpected closure of Ramallah – the project leader must make it clear that objectives must be changed to fit new realities. Even when things happen that are not controllable, the project manager and team are still responsible. A lack of responsibility by the project manager will result in poor team cohesion and a subsequent lack of responsibility in team members.

What leads to failure?

Success is contingent upon a variety of factors as detailed above. In the light of these fundamental success factors, let's look at some characteristics of failure.

□ Team member ill suited to project. Having a team composed of people who are both committed and capable is essential. That said, human resource constraints, often coupled with multiple simultaneous projects, can reduce the pool of quality personnel. If these personnel are trained appropriately either before or during the opening weeks of the project, then team cohesion and efficiency will increase. If they are not trained, or are not willing to be trained, it is best to exclude them from the project. That said, team leaders must search for ways to motivate and bring out positive qualities in every team member. This can, at times, be frustrating and does not always achieve desired results. If an effort is not made to create a balanced team, high stress on capable individuals is certain and less-than-optimum project performance or failure – either on the current or succeeding project (burnout) – almost certain.



□ Political expediency, infighting: Decisions at the project level should be based upon what is required for project success. At times senior management will take decisions that negatively impact certain projects, but enhance overall organizational goals. Basing decisions on individual self-interest – promotion, accountability avoidance, attacking perceived enemies – ultimately results in a drop in organizational, team, and individual performance and subsequent reward. This does not mean that decisions are made in a vacuum avoiding political or external considerations; doing so will itself result in failure. Decisions must instead balance political interests with what is required to achieve success.

□ Micro-manage project managers and teams: The relationship between senior management and the project manager, and in turn the project manager and team members, should be based on respect and trust. While a higher level of intervention in team issues is likely required at project onset and times of crisis, such intervention should be kept to a minimum – let people do their jobs. Mistakes may happen, but good monitoring and control procedures will mitigate the risks from mistakes while team members learn. If management is forced to intervene because of team negligence, then the quality of team personnel should be questioned.

□ Never admit a project is a failure or irrelevant: Sometimes projects, for whatever reason or set of reasons, do not succeed. It is therefore essential, through constant monitoring and assessment, to declare a project as a failure when no positive end state is possible. In addition, as the organization evolves, certain projects may become redundant or irrelevant to changed organizational vision. So-called “cutting of losses” will both free up resources for use on other potentially successful projects while minimizing the institutional and personnel damage from unnecessarily extending doomed or irrelevant projects.

□ New ideas die from inertia: Innovation is central to organizational development, yet a sometimes over-conservative approach to new ideas is characteristic of management as well as staff – most people are not comfortable with change. Yet, when new ideas are put forth, the project manager must assess them for potential value and then decide whether they are worth implementing. Such evaluation should consider the judgment of team members and senior decision-makers. Evaluate each idea on its merits; think about it as a leader as a project manager. The history of organizations is replete with missed opportunities due to an unwillingness to consider new ideas.

□ Don't build-in fallback options: Nothing ever works in strict accordance to pre-project planning, yet gauging the potential for deviation – or alternative scenario analysis – is essential to try and determine how project plans may change or need to change given the fluid nature of most operating environments. The use of risk management is critical if projects are to achieve their full potential. And, as project manager, a changing environment should never be an excuse for poor performance. Managers do not have a crystal ball to tell them the future, but risk management and pre-project scenario analysis can provide capabilities and processes for managing change.

□ Push an idea into practice too quickly: While not acting upon new ideas can prove fatal, the reverse is also true. Implementing ideas without having fully evaluated them can prove disastrous. Ideas must be evaluated and hopefully tested before being fully integrated into the project management process.

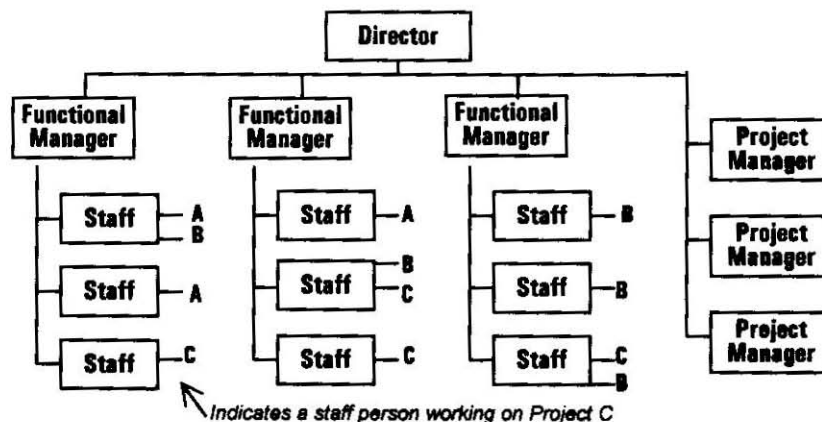
John Moore¹

TYPES OF PROJECT TEAM ORGANIZATIONS

There are a variety of projects and possible organizational methods for structuring a project team. Differences are dependent upon the size of an organization, type of projects, and general organizational culture. Three general types of project organization are the Matrix, Project-Oriented and Program-Oriented methods.

Matrix Organization

Required when many projects span departments or offices. This structure gives authority to both project and functional managers. Functional managers will be involved in deciding who will work on project teams and will be responsible for long-term administrative duties. Project managers assign, monitor and coordinate work among the project team. The main problem is that everyone has two "bosses" – and, if people are working on more than one project, they will be reporting to even more managers. Yet, in small organizations with limited resources, this may be the best – or only – option. Good communication and working relationships between the project and functional managers are needed.

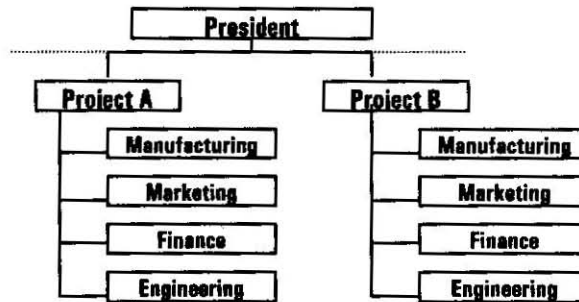


- Staff members report to functional managers as well as project managers
- Project managers have equal authority to functional managers

¹ See footnote page 3.

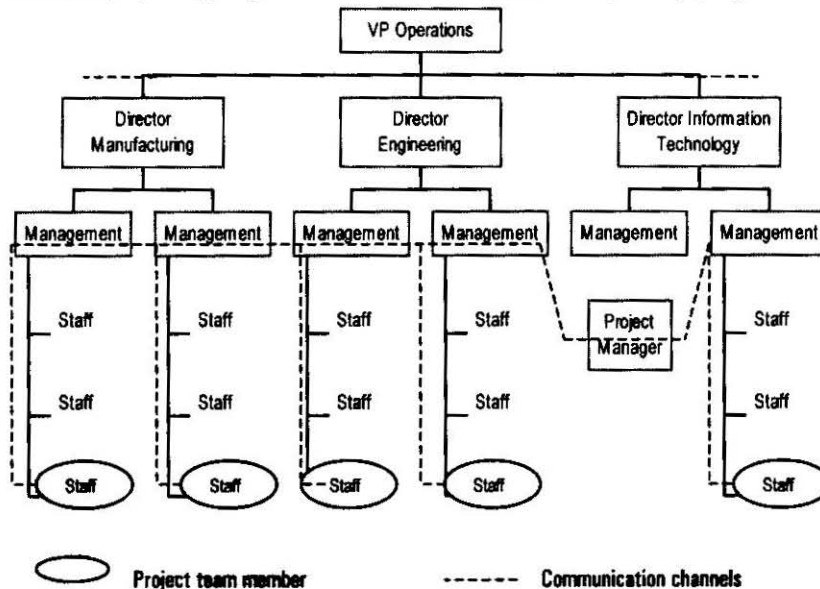
Project-Oriented Organization

This type of organization is appropriate for firms that work on large, long-term projects. Rather than finding projects within and among functional departments, functional departments exist within the project. Project-oriented firms may have redundant operations among multiple projects, but are willing to put up with such inefficiencies in order to maximize effectiveness on the project. The problem with this type is that it can be inflexible and is most applicable to large organizations with large budgets.



Program-Oriented Organization

Another style of project organization revolves around a specific program. Programs consist of many related projects, but, unlike a single project, they have no completion date expected. A government or large business firm provide good examples. For instance, one section of a government agency is responsible for providing driver's licenses. This requires several types of projects, and all of these project functions are carried out within that department. This case shares similarities with project-oriented organizations. An example might be a government health ministry having 15 different projects going on at the same time under one primary program.



BEFORE THE PROJECT STARTS

Pre-project preparation, prior to the onset of the project life cycle, revolves around understanding general organizational goals and those potential projects that the organization may take on. Project managers typically have a good idea as to what types of projects they, and the organization, are going to be involved with. Project managers should communicate closely with those individuals or departments that are responsible for identifying and selecting projects. This enables the project manager to shape the organization's approach to project selection while creating preliminary project plans such as identifying resource needs and likely project organizational structures. Pre-project preparation also includes initial risk assessment. Using historical trends, i.e. experience gained from past projects, the project manager can gain insight into what the next project will require and what types of changes, crises, and potential obstacles to success exist.

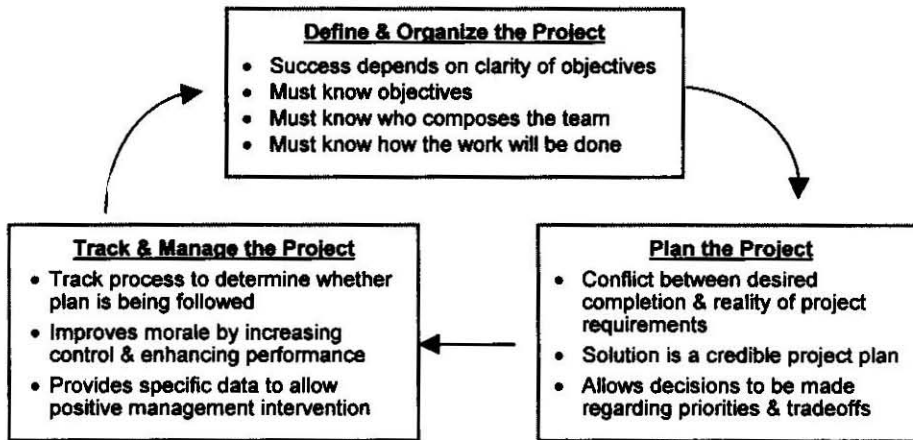


Both during the pre-project and initial project stages, it is important to assess what actors are involved in, impacted by, or who have impact on, the project. **Stakeholder analysis** is a process in which key 'players' are identified and their position vis-à-vis the project assessed. Knowing people who are against the project can be just as, if not more, important as knowing who supports the project.

<u>Stakeholder Name</u>	+	Neutral	-	<u>Reason for Position</u>	<u>Strengths & Weaknesses (relative to project)</u>	<u>Strategy</u>

Rank your stakeholders by relative importance to project success. In meeting the desires of stakeholders, the concept of trade-offs is again used. As the cliché goes, you cannot please all people at all times. Project managers must try to understand the motivations of all stakeholders. Why do certain people support the project while others are against it? Are there political issues affecting senior management perspectives, do they perceive the project as being in line with their individual as well as organizational interests? What information do stakeholders need?

THE PROJECT LIFE CYCLE²



Before getting into each individual aspect of the project life cycle, a brief overview of the three primary headings of the cycle will set the stage for further discussion.

■ *Define & Organize the Project*

Project success is tightly linked to the establishment of cogent, concise organizational and project objectives. It is critical for the project manager to understand the project purpose, who will compose the project team, and the manner in which the work will be conducted. In turn, the project manager must ensure that a similar understanding is provided to the team, senior management, and relevant stakeholders.



The need to know project objectives seems like common sense. Yet, time and again, team members – even project managers and senior staff – use the excuse “I didn’t know” as a reason for failure or less than optimum performance. Not knowing is never an excuse; if you don’t know something, find out, ask questions until you do.

- Establish project organization
- Define project parameters
- Plan project framework
- Assemble project definition documents

² Project life cycle information derived from Harvard Business School methodology, *Project Management Manual*, Harvard Business School: Cambridge, 1996.

■ *Plan the Project*

Planning is the backbone of sound project management. Given the importance of project success, the balancing of scheduling demands with the risks involved in shortening the project lifespan can prove contentious; many people, departments, and possibly external institutions have an interest in both when and how projects will be implemented. A sound plan that incorporates stakeholder interests while reflecting project realities is the primary way to focus attention on what is required to achieve success, it is a map of how the project will proceed. If sound plans are not provided, the likelihood of achieving project objectives decreases significantly, potentially leading to catastrophe. Imagine an NGO or government ministry that conducts projects without incorporating budget data and human resource constraints into the planning process. The ensuing chaos may result in the reduction, if not cessation, of the provision of essential goods or services. Key planning steps are:



- Develop the Work Breakdown Structure (WBS)
- Develop the Schedule
- Analyze Resources
- Optimize tradeoffs
- Develop Risk Management Plans

■ *Track & Manage the Project*

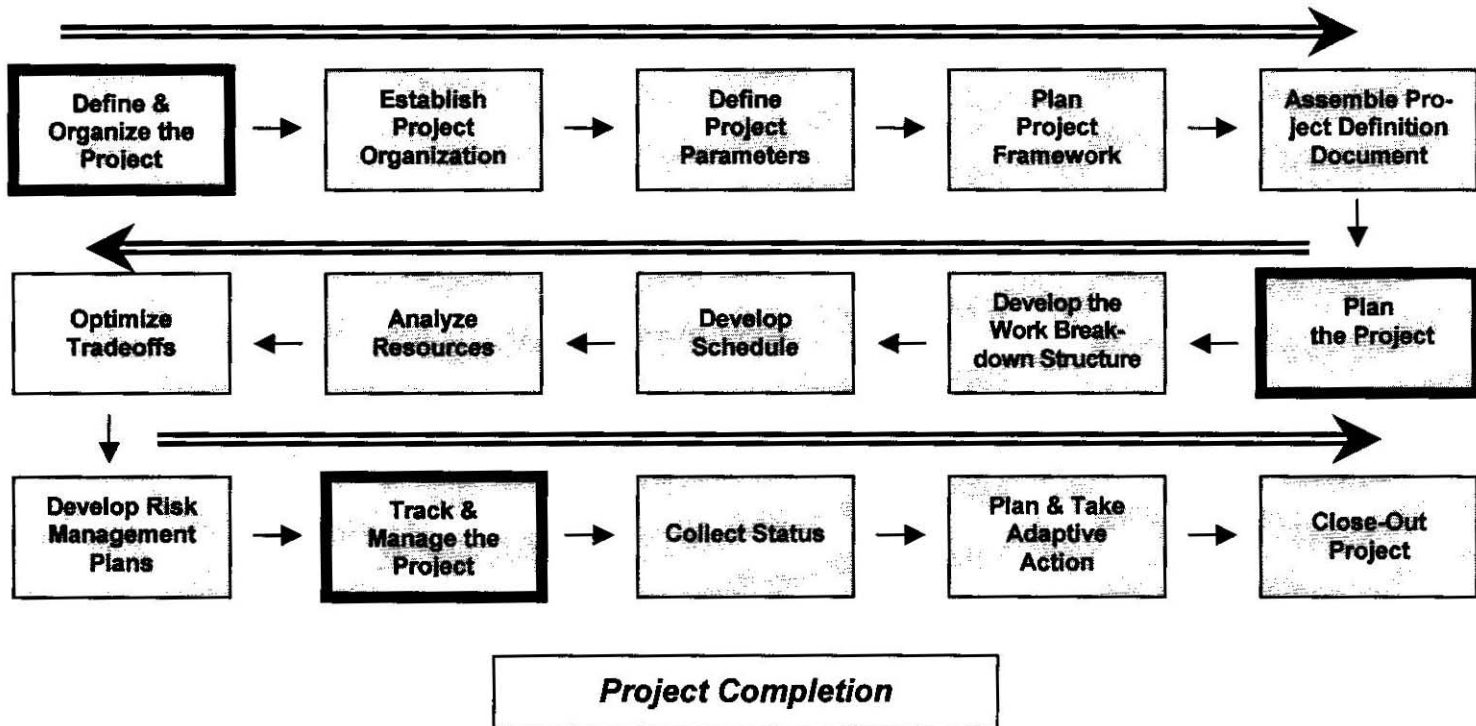
Planning, while the backbone of project management, is not enough. The tracking and monitoring of a project after implementation begins is essential to determining when, why, and how a project differs from original plans; such concepts might be compared to the human body's nervous system. No project will ever go exactly according to pre-existing plans, thus tracking, monitoring, and evaluating the project throughout its lifetime is essential in determining how to adapt plans to meet a changing project environment.

Although such concepts are simple, tracking and monitoring – at the strategic and tactical level (macro vs. micro) – are often not conducted once project implementation begins. Team members focus on their specific tasks without a coordinated attempt to fuse discrete jobs together systematically to move towards stated project objectives. Primary concepts are:

- Collect status
- Plan & take adaptive action
- Close-Out the project

Key aspects of these three areas – define and organize, plan, and track and manage the project will be addressed subsequently as the life cycle is discussed.

THE LIFE CYCLE



3

DEFINING AND ORGANIZING THE PROJECT

John Moore¹

ESTABLISHING THE PROJECT ORGANIZATION

As indicated previously, knowing project objectives and the responsibilities of each team member as well as the role of senior management and relevant stakeholders is essential. This step ensures that basic things such as the identification of the project manager and project team members along with their positions and responsibilities within the project structure. Thus, there are several questions that need be asked when establishing the **team structure**.

- Who is the project manager? What are the project manager's responsibilities and level of decision-making authority?
- Have the project manager's roles, responsibilities, and authority been agreed with management as well as team members and subsequently written down?
- Who is on the team? What are the qualifications / skills of each team member?
- Are all personnel involved in project-related work known?
- What are the member-specific roles, responsibilities, and level of decision-making authority of each team member? Have they been agreed with management and written down?
- Has a team roster been completed?
- Who sponsors the team? To whom does the team report?



Highly motivated, qualified project managers are central to overall project success. As such, the best project managers exhibit a variety of traits, including but not limited to:

¹ See footnote page 3.

- Positive leader, mentor, coach, and teacher
- Able to maintain a strategic view
- Excellent communication skills
- Effective organizational skills
- Committed to achieving project goals

In addition to these traits, the **project manager** ensures that team members understand their roles and responsibilities as well as implementing sound project management principles. At the same time project managers keep team resources centered on achieving project objectives through planning and implementation, effective tracking and monitoring of project status, maintain (or oversee maintenance of) project records and files, and act to resolve intra-team conflicts as well as conflicts between the team or project and other internal and external actors. Simultaneously, the project manager must communicate the project status to team members and stakeholders while continuously updating an *issues log* detailing what, in line with existing or revised plans, needs to be resolved or addressed to achieve project aims.

Team members in turn must take the responsibility of learning and using project management skills to assist in the planning and execution of the project. Commitment and a willingness to perform project tasks are essential, as is team member involvement in providing insights as to project progress and potential risks or issues to be addressed; this enables more efficient tracking and monitoring by the project manager.

One tool to use is the **team roster**, which outlines basic team information, such as the following:

<u>Name & Title</u>	<u>Project Role(s) & Responsibilities</u>	<u>Home Organization/ Department.</u>	<u>Phone & Fax Nos.</u>	<u>E-Mail Address</u>	<u>Office Location</u>	<u>Emergency - After Hours Contact Details</u>

DEFINING THE PROJECT PARAMETERS

As indicated earlier, it is essential to understand clearly what the projects' various elements, objectives, and outputs are.

The **Project Objective Statement (POS)** details what the project is supposed to achieve; it is the mission. This details what the project aims to achieve, the length of time to achieve project aims, and a statement of what resources will be needed. These three points are known as the project's *scope*, *schedule* and *resources*.

Scope should capture the essence of the project's successful outcome.

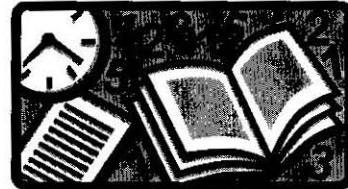
Schedule should capture the desired, or target, completion dates for the project. How long it is going to take you to finish each task.

Resources capture the allocation of human, material, and financial and resources to the project

The POS is short, concise, and visionary. The POS pushes people to focus, thinking about the project's purpose and how they fit into that purpose. Moreover, the POS sets the stage for the development of project strategy and methodology, structure, resource requirements, schedules, and implementation processes.

A good POS exhibits the following characteristics:

- Written in 25 words or less
- Uses plain language
- Cogent and concise
- Visionary and inspiring



Keep it short and to the point; less equals more. The more people read, the more opportunity they have to lose track of what the project aims to accomplish.

A good POS might be, in relation to the American project that placed a man on the moon, as follows:

The United States will place a man on the moon and return him to earth by the end of 1969 at a cost of USD 20 billion.

Statement of Major Deliverables

This is another technique that further refines the scope stated in the POS. Major deliverables are the major project outcomes or results that are the primary focus of management attention and represent the basis for determining project success.

In a project, you are supposed to provide several **outcomes**. In reference to the placing a man on the moon example, some major deliverables would be:

- Completion of rocket engine testing
- Completion of design, testing, and construction of space communication systems
- Completion of construction of the spacecraft
- Completion of astronaut training
- Completion of construction of the space launch facilities
- Placing a man on the moon
- Safe return of astronaut to earth

The IS/IS NOT Approach

As major deliverables are key to the project's success, it is important to clearly define and comprehend each deliverable. The IS/IS NOT technique, using team brainstorming, provides a quick yet effective picture of what constitutes each project deliverable. The IS column represents those things that are characteristic of the deliverable while those in the IS NOT column represent what is not included in the deliverable. This helps define what each deliverable is, avoiding the so-called "mission creep" wherein additional traits or associated outcomes are assigned to each deliverable, a phenomenon allowed by ambiguous, ill-defined deliverable descriptions. When presented to senior management, it also allows them to quickly assess whether each deliverable defined by the team is in line with management and organizational vision.

IS	IS NOT
Services Enhancement	A strategic plan
Patient Satisfaction	An employee performance review
Increased Public Information	
Job satisfaction	

PLANNING THE PROJECT FRAMEWORK

Having a properly defined and comprehensive approach to how the project will be carried out is essential to minimizing time and resource wastage. At the same time, a smooth running "well oiled" project builds morale, decreases stress, and increases team cohesion.

Although technology allows for a certain decentralization of communication, meetings are still the primary means of communication and project work; unfortunately, they can also become a major source of frustration and wasted time.

Everyone has been present at a meeting they either had no need to attend or that was mismanaged. Given these negative meeting experiences, a more proactive approach to managing meetings is required.

Key points to remember when **organizing meetings** are:

- Establish a regular meeting time and duration
- Establish attendance guidelines to ensure only those personnel needed are present
- Set a focused agenda for every meeting and disseminate it prior to the meeting
- Aggressively manage issues during the meeting to keep focus
- Log and identify problems, but do not try to solve them in the meeting – solve them directly with those personnel relevant to the problem afterwards
- Establish decision-making procedures (decisions by consensus, by majority vote, by project manager alone, by senior management, etc.) and who is going to be making decisions at that level



Project management is based on continuous management of project-related issues. A methodological approach to recording or logging all relevant issues is a mechanism by which the project manager remains in control of the project's progress. Thus an issues log is created wherein issues are listed with a person being identified to handle or address each issue. Also, an escalation path detailing what steps are

to be taken for solving unresolved issues is useful in making it clear who or what is required at successive levels to overcome problems and push the project forward.

The Kick-Off Meeting

The kick-off meeting is the first meeting of the project manager and the project team; senior managers or other stakeholders may also be present. The kick-off meeting is important as it sets the project's tone. It also offers an opportunity for initial brainstorming as to project team structure, plans, potential problems and risks.

Sample Agenda for kick-off meeting:

- Introductions
- Vision
- Scope and Objectives
- Risks, Challenges and Constraints
- Project Approach
- Team Members and Project Organization Chart
- Roles and Responsibilities
- Timeline
- Major Milestones
- Process, Standards, Methods
- Quality Plan
- Project Management and Schedule Planning Guidelines
- Centralized Document Storage Location
- Project Collect Status Requirements
- Training Schedule
- Lessons Learned from Previous Projects and Key Success Factors
- Project Expectations and Next Steps
- Unresolved Issues, Assignments, and Target Dates Adjourment

Systematic logging of all issues in an issues log makes decision-making about the issues easier since the process of logging itself focuses the issue. The issues log is usually maintained by the project manager and used to identify problems that cannot be immediately resolved. He is the coordinator, he is not doing all the work himself, he needs to know what is going on within his team, within the project.

Sample Issues Tracking Form

Issue #	Date	Originator of Issue	Description & Potential Impact	Action Person (Task Owner)	Action by Date	Status or Resolution
24	Dec. 2, 2000	Ahmed Munir	Faster than expected decrease in budget, could result in cost over-run	Project Manager	Dec. 5, 2000	Open, will discuss with financial officer
25	Feb. 6, 2001	Jennifer Sarah	Field personnel at site X were injured in accident, new personnel needed	Jennifer Sarah	Feb. 10, 2001	Resolved; new personnel sent to site

A project file should be maintained by a team member to serve as the central repository of all project documents. It is necessary to keep all documents in one central location. People may keep photocopies of certain different pieces that are on use. That is fine, but all the project information should be kept in one room. Even if the project is several parts, you have to keep them all together. People cannot come and borrow for a couple of days. One has to sign it out, or read it in the office. Sometimes it can be kept in the directory, which is shared where somebody can read it, but cannot edit it.

Having a communication plan that details how the project team will conduct internal and external communications is necessary to save time lost over inefficient or missed communication.

ASSEMBLING THE PROJECT DEFINITION DOCUMENT

Once the project is organized and the project framework established, the information from these steps is assembled into what is known as the **Project Definition Document (PDD)**. The PDD is going to be the core document that you are going to have in your files, or in your central location, and will remain the primary reference point detailing project organization and framework throughout the life of the project.²

Key issues or questions when preparing the PDD are:

- Is the issues log being regularly *updated and reviewed*? It is not good just to log, you have to do something about it. If you bring out an issue or a problem, and it is finished and corrected, you don't have to deal with it anymore. But if it has not been corrected, it actually has to be sorted out.

² A sample PDD is attached as Appendix 1.

- How will the team *resolve disagreements and conflicts*? Is it by consensus? Or depending on the issues where the project manager is going to take the decision. Everybody has to agree on how this is going to happen, so you try to minimize the amount of fighting, conflict or personal clashes that can occur.



- Is there an escalation path for *unresolved issues*?
- How will the team *communicate* (e-mail, memoranda, telephone, etc.) Don't rely on verbal communication. Verbal communication is always a central medium, but it is important to write down the essence of verbal communication – then check what is written with the person or people with which verbal communication occurred – to ensure that what was heard was what was meant. Moreover, writing down verbal communication will mitigate the risk of misunderstanding when sharing that communication – be it from management, between team members, or from stakeholders – with others.



Key questions:

- Has senior management *authorized* and agreed to the PDD in *writing*?
- Have these agreements been written down & *stored* in the project file?

A key point to remember is that, although the project manager will have non-management tasks to accomplish particularly if it is a small team, the major role of the project manager is to coordinate team activities. Project managers should not be involved so much in doing the tasks as ensuring they are carried out effectively, in accordance with accepted work procedures and plans, and on time. The team is supposed to do the tasks. There is not enough time to both coordinate and do all of the work required by the project.

4

PLANNING THE PROJECT

*John Moore*¹

DEVELOPING THE WORK BREAKDOWN SCHEDULE

A sound project plan must account for each task and sub-task required to reach the project objectives; achieving only part of the project's stated goals is not sufficient. Identifying tasks and who is responsible for each task clarifies the role of each team member, while giving them the chance to further define what is required for completing their specific job(s).

The *Work Breakdown Schedule* (WBS) is the most important project management tool and is the basis for all other project management planning. It is a structured way of breaking a project down into its various components.

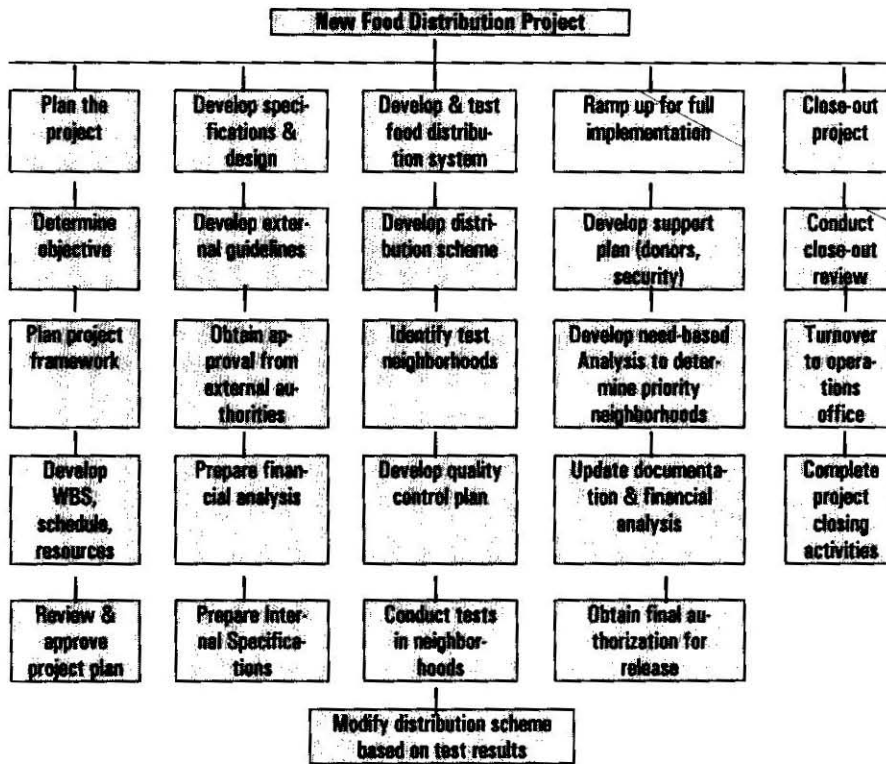


Key questions to ask when developing a work breakdown schedule are:

- Are all the tasks identified and do they have ownership?
- Are all the tasks assigned to the best-qualified team member(s) for that task?
- Are often-forgotten tasks such as planning the project, approval cycles, testing, printing, etc. included?
- How long will the tasks take? Hours? Weeks? Days?

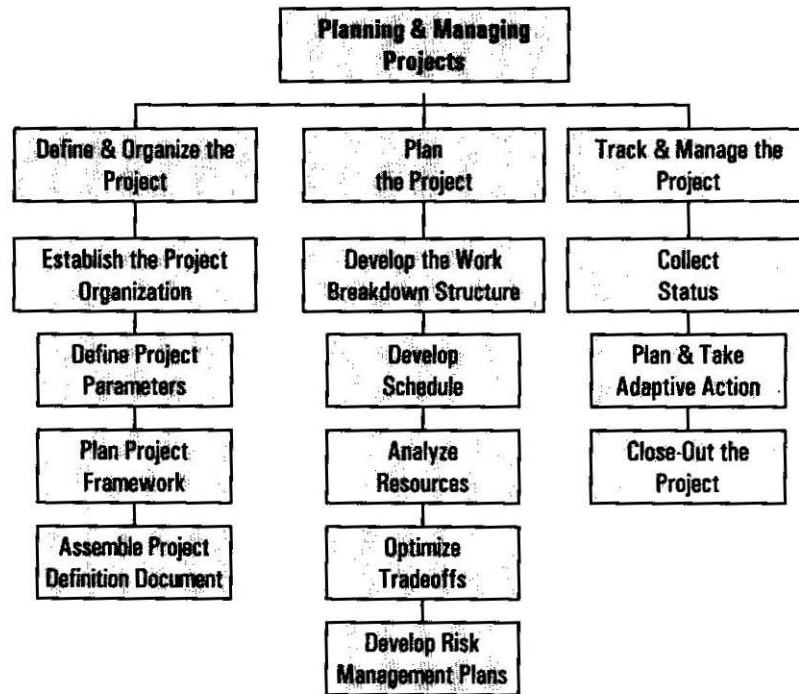
¹ See footnote page 3.

Sample Project WBS



A good way to start identifying tasks is to gather the team in one room for a “brainstorming” session, in the kick-off meeting. Have each member write down as many tasks as they can think of. Try to get it down to the lowest effective task level. At the same time the team is helping to generate tasks and related ideas, they will develop a better understanding of their role(s) vis-à-vis the project. Moreover, as the team members are being asked to think and give ideas, trust and esprit d’corp will be developed between the project manager and the team as well as between the team members themselves. As each task is identified and agreed, a team member will be assigned responsibility for each task.

Life Cycle as WBS



DEVELOPING THE PROJECT SCHEDULE

In most project situations the question "When will the project be completed?" is the primary concern of stakeholders and the project team alike. Developing a schedule in a disciplined, systematic manner is likely to be both predictable and reality-driven. Credible schedules support good project management by highlighting those tasks and task-related decisions that must be made or reached within a given period of time. While planning is the road map to success, schedules dictate how long it takes to get there.

A schedule is created from two primary factors:

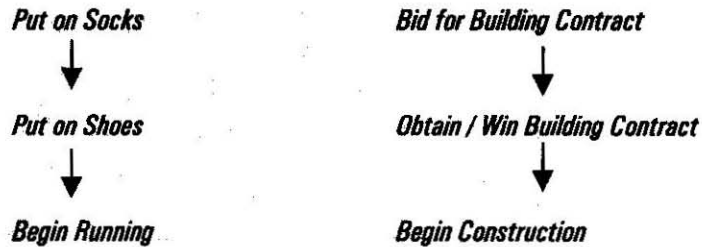
- Logical relationships between tasks or sub-tasks (called dependencies)
- Time estimates for each task



Logical relationships are the sequence or flow of work in the project. They are usually displayed in a dependency diagram.

Breaking down projects into the lowest level tasks in a sequential way is central to schedule development. Moreover, the logical sequencing of tasks and sub-tasks gives ready insight as to what work has been left out of the original plan. When such omissions are discovered, the project team can return to the WBS stage to further define what tasks are required, with these tasks then incorporated into a revised schedule.

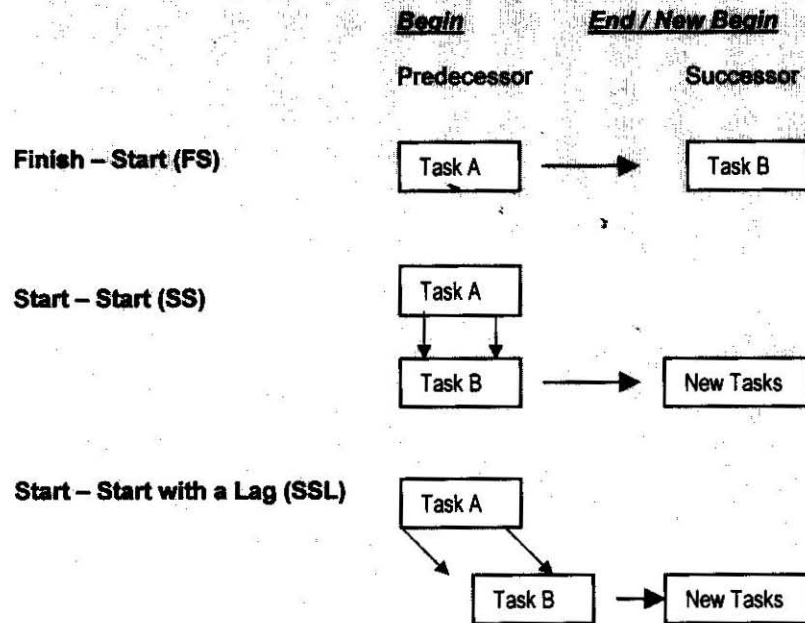
Examples of Dependency / Sequences



Logical Relationships

Three common and useful types of logical relationships are:

- **Finish-Start (FS):** In this common relationship, a new task cannot begin until the task preceding it has been completed. For example, a teacher cannot grade a paper until it has been turned in to the teacher.
- **Start-Start (SS):** In this relationship, work on one task cannot begin until work on another related task has begun. However, once that related task work is begun work on the second task can begin and continue in parallel with the related task. For example, a list of potential donors to approach as funding sources is under development, yet, once a name is placed onto the list research can begin into that donor while new donor names are being added. Without the first donor name being identified, no research could begin.
- **Start-start with a Lag (SSL):** In this relationship, wherein a lag represents a delay between tasks, one task begins while a second task begins only when the first task reaches a specific enabling point. For example, imagine a firm that is developing a new software system to monitor financial records. Before software development can begin, however, a hardware design is required. As soon as that hardware design is finished, the software design can begin in parallel with the creation of the actual hardware system.



Milestones

A *milestone* refers to a specific date and generally refers to key points or events in the project lifespan. Milestones are important because they typically represent the end point for a series of dependent tasks and thereby give insight as to project status vis-à-vis existing plans and schedules. Milestones are useful markers as they focus management, related stakeholders, as well as the project team upon key macro-level project tasks.

If the project is achieving its milestones in accordance with scheduled dates, that is an indicator that the project is going well. However, if milestone date slippage occurs, that signals to management and the project team that problems are present either in project planning – unrealistic plans and schedules – or implementation.

Examples of milestones:

- Start and Finish of a project
- Receipt of funding
- Completion of major deliverables
- Formal reviews or draft reports
- Training
- Testing
- Government approval
- Customer acceptance

Estimating Task-Length

Estimating how long a task will take to complete is often a contentious area of project planning. A good approach to estimating task or sub-task length is to develop an initial WBS using *historical* experience and trends (per task type) to quickly approximate task duration. While estimates are sufficient initially, further refinement of task length estimates throughout the project's lifespan are critical.



Historical data should be used to glean insight into how long tasks have taken previously. A situation might arise wherein a senior manager thinks the project team can complete a specific task within two months. Yet, the project manager's review of historical data reveals that similar tasks have typically taken four months. After determining that the previous tasks were handled properly, the project manager must relate this information in a cogent, concise manner to management. This will both adjust management to project task reality while ensuring a credible schedule.

Gantt Charts

A *schedule* is created by superimposing the dependency diagram, inclusive of task length estimates, on a calendar or time line. An efficient and common way of doing this is by creating a *Gantt Chart*. A Gantt Chart shows tasks in time and is easy to develop, read, and understand. Gantt's can be created by hand by drawing in the tasks in sequence for the defined durations and drawing in lines to indicate the dependencies against a time line. They can also be created used specialized software programs such as *Microsoft Project Manager*.²

ID	Task Name	December		January		February		March	
		12/12	12/26	01/09	01/23	02/06	2/20	03/5	
1	Design Subsystem 1								
2	Develop Subsystem 2								
3	Manufacture Subsystem 1								
4	Test Subsystem 1								
5	Install Subsystem 2								

² The following is an example of a Gantt Chart constructed with Microsoft Project Management.

ANALYZING RESOURCES

"I need more resources!!!"

Adding resources – human, financial, or material – rarely improves project performance. Instead of raising the resources alarm, project managers need to *analyze* their actual *resource requirements* and develop a detailed picture of what the status of resources is and what can be done to improve existing resource performance and enable more *effective* resource related decision-making.



Key questions:

- Is one resource carrying too much of the task load?
- Do any resources have capacity not being used?
- What resources are impacted by parallel work?
- Are team members trained to perform the work?
- Is the right equipment being used?
- Is the right work process being used?
- Can new resources be identified?

The Gantt Chart can become central to analyzing resource issues; it indicates whether the same person or piece of equipment is the owner of multiple tasks as well as whether the same person owns several parallel tasks. It also indicates what resources are not being assigned tasks.

OPTIMIZING TRADEOFFS

The main motivator for implementing project management is to enable more *effective* decision-making by providing key management with the information they need to make informed – sometimes difficult – decisions. At the heart of successful project management lies the fact that it is almost always necessary to give up something to achieve an optimum overall result in light of existing constraints and project environment realities.



Key Questions:

- Is the project or task / task-owner within the bounds of the POS?
- Is it possible to reduce the scope or change task sequence?
- Is it possible to enhance resource performance or obtain additional resources?
- Are there new or alternative work processes that can further optimize time and resource use?

If new methodologies or procedures are introduced, they must be made transparent to the project team, relevant management, and possibly additional stakeholders. The way in which trade-off optimization is made will differ dependent upon organization type, project type / purpose, and personnel involved. Yet, the concept – enabling informed decisions – will remain constant. Some potential trade-off decisions may be:

- Reduce or eliminate one or more major deliverables
- Change the sequence of work
- Develop new ways or adopt alternative ways to perform work
- Change the resource mix
- Accept the new project parameters

Maintaining a Strategic View

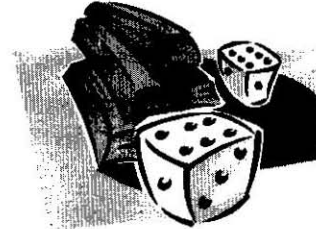
The project manager definitely has to worry about the minutest of project details. But at the same time, the project manager must be able to maintain and channel the project in line with the initial project vision (POS) and organizational objectives. Strategy is the vision, it lays out what is to be accomplished and the basics of how to get there. Tactics are the actual steps, the process, of achieving strategic vision. A successful project manager will employ tactics that are in line with and support project strategy.

The essence of effective optimization is examining the entire project plan and developing creative means for making it more efficient. Virtually anything about a plan can be changed, but the changes should be done in a **systematic** way, **visible** to all project participants. Analyzing and assessing project plans and schedules and subsequently developing “what if?” scenarios (multiple scenario analysis) will go a long way to achieving efficiency in trade-off decision-making.

DEVELOPING RISK MANAGEMENT PLANS

All projects, as with all aspects of life, contain elements of risk. Yet, despite this fact, many project planners either ignore or do not put sufficient effort into identifying, understand and mitigating risks. This often proves disastrous.

When asked at project onset, most team members can identify risks to project success. Also, often following unsuccessful or failed projects, team members can identify that the reasons for failure was known prior to project onset but no mitigating action was taken. People – managers, team members, stakeholders – are aware that project risks exist but are rarely willing to proactively manage them.



Causes

This phenomenon of no or little risk management is due to a variety of factors. Some causes might be:

- Willing state of disbelief “It won’t happen to me”
- Perceive little or no time to identify, understand, and manage risk
- Perceived ability to overcome risks as they occur “the ad hoc approach”
- People dislike proactive – or any type of – risk management

Components

Risk management is broken down into two components. Risk assessment occurs first, followed by the actual risk management. They are defined as follows:

Risk Assessment

The project team quickly brainstorms possible risks to the project, then rank orders each risk by priority, likelihood, and potential result (if risk occurs). Focus is typically given to the top 2-5 risks (possibly more) dependent upon the size of the project and the project environment/context. A risk management plan is then created or outlined for each of the top risks. In risk assessment, one looks over historical data to see how much the average project deviates from initial expectations. In business, for example, one produces output, may have to from the work force; one must know how long he can sustain that. If at a certain

point one cannot sustain if he has to shut down the business. In a humanitarian development project, one is not only talking about closing down a business but has to consider the impact this may have on all the people involved.

Risk Management

Plans that detail various alternative or parallel actions to be taken to reduce risk probability (preventive actions), and actions to be taken if the risk happens (contingency plans). Preventive actions may require that additional tasks be added to the project plan. Contingency plans require a "trigger" that sets the contingency plan into effect. An example might be that a contingency plan will go into effect when financial resources fall below 70 percent of what was originally planned. Thus the 70 percent point is the trigger; if finances fall below 70 percent the contingency plan is implemented.

Project Parameter	Potential Problem	When & How It Could Occur	Alternative Action	Owner of Action (member responsible)
Quality				
Budget				
Schedule				
Stakeholder Impact				



Key Questions:

- Have risks to the project been identified?
- Have they been defined by priority?
- Have actions been taken that reduce the probability that a risk will occur?
- Are there contingency plans if the risk actually occurs?
- How will you know if the risk has occurred?
- What is going to put your contingency plan into action?
- Who is responsible for managing project risks?

Risk Assessments and *Risk Management Plans* are written up and included in the project file, likely as an attached appendix to the PDD. Also, a team member is typically given the task of monitoring those factors that influence the contingency plan triggers. If a trigger point is reached, the team member will alert the project manager who will then implement the requisite contingency plan.

Everyone has a part to play in risk management, from the lowest level employee on up to the organization's top manager. In a project environment, the project manager – in conjunction with the team – will be responsible for identifying and managing risk. In a larger project team, a team member may be assigned the specific task of monitoring risk. Risk management procedures may also be dependent on the project's organizational structure. For example, in a matrix organization with a functional structure, you could have within each functional stream one person to assess that specific functional risk. One person could be for financial risk, another could be for management risk, and another one could assess political risk.



5

TRACKING AND MANAGING THE PROJECT

John Moore¹

COLLECTING STATUS

Keeping the project in line with existing plans and objectives is a difficult challenge. The aim of tracking and monitoring is to concentrate team attention on those factors that give the most insight into and indication of how the project is proceeding. If the tracking and monitoring process is conducted efficiently, the information derived will enable the project manager, team members, management, and certain stakeholders the ability to take decisions reflecting the changes that occur in all projects.



A key result of effective tracking and monitoring is the ability to adaptively manage in "real-time" all aspects of the project. "Real-time" means that as soon as a change in the project is identified as having happened or is in need of happening, the project manager and relevant personnel are immediately aware of that change. Although real-time is hardly ever achieved, it is the goal of tracking and monitoring. Thus, the better information you have the closer you actually get to real-time management.

At the same time, effective tracking provides so much focus and concentrated energy that teams often become enthusiastic and motivated by examining project progress and making *timely, informed* project decisions. If the team is not sure what is happening, they will not feel involved in project decision-making and become less motivated to efficiency and innovation.

An effective tracking and monitoring system will collect information – or status – on at least three primary subjects; schedules, open issues

¹ See footnote page 3.

(remember the *issues log*), and risks. Areas usually included under each are:

Schedules

- Have tasks begun according to existing schedules? If not, why not and what is being done to start them?
- Have tasks been completed according to existing schedules? If not, why not and what is being done to get them finished?

Open Issues

- What is the status of all open issues?
- What actions can be done to resolve them?
- Are any new open issues apparent?

Risks

- What is the status of the identified risks?
- Are any new risks apparent?

How the project manager and project team collects information varies from organization to organization. Some typical ways to collect information are as follows:

- Meetings (from meeting reports or minutes)
- One-to-one / individual meetings
- Submission of update reports by team members
- One-on-one meetings between the project manager, senior management, or other stakeholders
- Attributable or un-attributable surveys of team members
- Customer / stakeholder service feedback

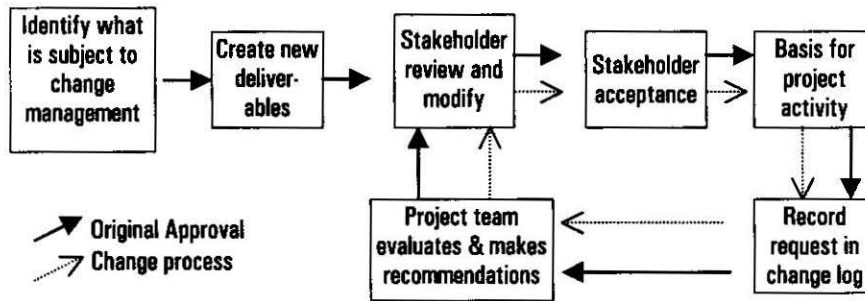


Key questions:

- How often will "collect status" be formally done?
- How will it be done? What will be the format?
- What information will be monitored?
- What decisions will be made?
- What actions will be taken?
- How will these decisions and actions be communicated?

PLANNING & TAKING ADAPTIVE ACTION

Every kind and size of project faces changes. The specific change management process followed should fit the size and complexity of your project. But every change management process follows the same fundamental model.



PROJECT CLOSE-OUT

Experience – individual, team, management, and organizational – gained during a project is one of the most valuable outcomes, and can play a significant role in determining future project success. But this learning must be realized and retained by the organization. An effective close-out procedure will both capture this experience and ensure that the project's finish is conducted smoothly and that no outstanding project-related issues remain. The close-out process allows for an assessment of what practices did or did not promote project effectiveness. Such assessments are key to deriving new processes and methodologies for improving future project performance. If a proper close-out is not conducted, the organization loses the potential for increased efficiencies as lessons are having to be learned again – at the organization's as well as future team's expense!

That said, many project managers and team members perceive themselves as being too busy with plans for the next project or other issues to formally close out a project. Those teams that take the time – it can be done in a day – achieve greater performance in succeeding projects.

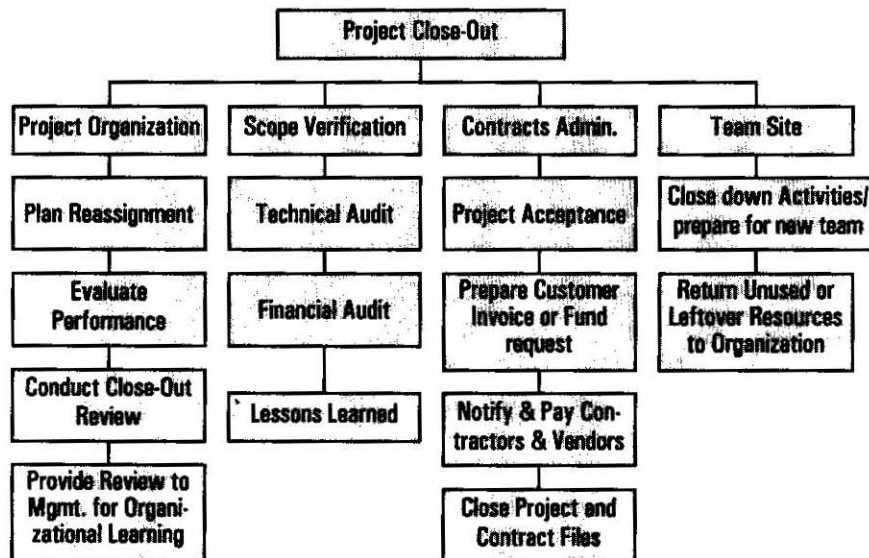




Key questions to ask while closing out:

- What project management techniques were effective? What techniques were not effective?
- What project management aspects need improvement? How can they be improved?
- Has all project paperwork – ex. personnel, financial, organizational, stakeholder-related – been completed?
- Have the 'lessons learned' been recorded and filed accordingly?
- How can the "lessons learned" be used in the future?
- Has the project file(s) been stored properly?
- Have the team workspaces been cleaned and made ready for the next team's use?
- Have any remaining resources – financial or material – been returned or reported?
- Have all consultants, contractors, and vendors been paid?
- Celebrate project success!

Sample WBS for Close-Out Phase



An important, and often neglected, close-out activity is to acknowledge each team member's contributions to project success; thank people for their work, it is the least – and often most appreciated – thing they deserve.



CRISIS MANAGEMENT PRINCIPLES

This chapter outlines a conceptualization of what crisis management means.

Key Goals

- Define crisis management and its importance
- Relate project management to crisis management; crisis management is a subset of project management.
- Understand the role of pre-crisis planning, organization, and simulation
- Understand and implement a crisis management methodology
- Understand and implement monitoring and control mechanisms
- Understand and implement post-crisis evaluation processes

A Crisis

A crisis in its most general sense is a defining moment – a point in a developing series of events where significant change becomes possible, and which therefore calls for decisions by those in authority. This change can be positive or can be negative. A key distinguishing aspect of crises is the need for rapid judgment and decision by top leadership.



¹ See footnote page 3.

The term crisis is typically used to refer to sudden and unexpected developments that pose an immediate threat to what might be described as central or basic values. Crisis comes from a Greek word 'krisis,' which means 'judgment' or 'decision'.

Examples of crises might be:

- Closure of transportation routes into and out of the West Bank and Gaza
- Denial of financial transfers to the Palestinian National Authority
- Loss of water or sewer services to a village
- Loss of donor monies during the middle of a project

The rapid pace of events during a crisis requires dynamic, agile and informed decision-making. A crisis management team will ensure that senior leadership within the organization is informed; the team fuses information with operating realities, and then provides the leadership with a series of potential options for subsequent decision. A senior manager may decide to develop a new alternative crisis solution, but the team's provision of information such as financial data, impact studies, and experiences from past crises will save the decision-maker – and organization – time and enable effective decision-making to occur.

It is important to note that not every hardship or organizational concern constitutes a crisis. Such routinization results in crises being at once everywhere and nowhere, and thus the concept of a 'crisis' loses utility as a tool of analysis and organizational activity.

"Crises do not just represent negative aspects, they can provide opportunities for innovation not present in routine operations."

Crisis Management

Crisis management is a formal management discipline in which a crisis or crises are managed through a process of pre-planning, simulation, and organizational structuring using a *systematic, repeatable* and *scaleable* process. It is the process of developing substantive, systematic data about potential crisis parameters so that the tradeoff decision-making between parameters can be made quickly and effectively.

"Properly understood, crisis management is an aspect or mode of strategy, not a substitute for it."

The purpose of crisis management is to overcome time, resource, and organizational constraints to mitigate the negative aspects of a crisis, while using the innovation inherent in successful crisis management to create opportunity and lasting positive change. Successful crisis management requires carefully staffed and structured crisis management mechanisms that can operate to some extent independently of parochial interests and even top leadership. Making crisis management subordinate to personalities, politics or parochial (institutional) interests is an invitation to disaster.

For example, two ministries are providing essential services tied to health care and education, yet they have been working according to different agendas due to a lack of pre-crisis planning and coordination between ministry leadership. Suddenly, financial support becomes constrained and the two ministries must work together on a limited budget. Yet, as the crisis unfolds, these ministries are unwilling to alter or ignore their parochial interests – in the form of pet projects – to bring about a speedy resolution to the crisis. The crisis management team trying to coordinate action between the two ministries spends more time trying to solve bilateral problems between the two ministries than actually managing the crisis. Indeed, the ministries become a source of crisis – as well as inefficiency and potential loss of life – themselves!

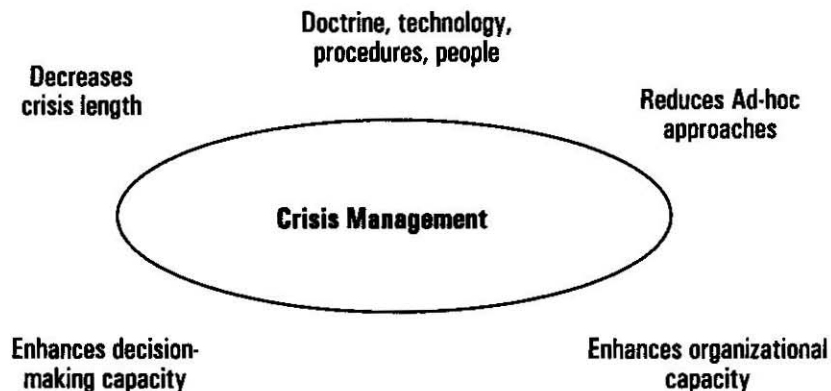
"At the operational level, the great challenge for crisis management remains the disciplined and rapid coordination and integration of diverse organizational functions."

This can be done through planning, based on the institutional and individual experience. Good pre-crisis planning, combined with trained personnel, will help achieve a key aim of crisis management – to decrease the crisis time period. In the absence of planning, a crisis will most likely continue for an extended period, with the crisis environment becoming the routine nature of operations.



THE IMPORTANCE OF CRISIS MANAGEMENT

As already mentioned, crisis management mitigates the risks and negativity of crisis situations while maximizing the opportunities presented by the fluid, non-routine nature of the crisis environment.



■ Doctrine (methodology), technology, procedures, people

People are always the key. People make plans, use technology, and implement procedures. Without good people, crisis management is impossible. The vital role of doctrine and planning for crisis management must also be emphasized. Technology, procedures, and personnel are effective when shaped by an overarching, dynamic planning process based on a widely understood organizational strategic doctrine. Doctrine should provide working definitions of crisis and crisis management, explain its relationship to routine or non-crisis decision making, address the organizational implications of crisis management, and describe its various elements and requirements.

■ Reduces ad-hoc approaches / enhances decision-making capacity

Dynamic, agile and informed crisis decision-making is essential. Yet, it is often the case that senior management and top leaders are unprepared to make substantive crisis decisions. A crisis management team will ensure that senior leaders are brought up to speed quickly by providing relevant information and analysis in a concise and timely manner.

■ **Enhances organizational capacity**

Crisis management enables the organization to meet crisis requirements while maintaining a level of governance, services, or commercial activity that would otherwise (i.e., without crisis management) not occur.

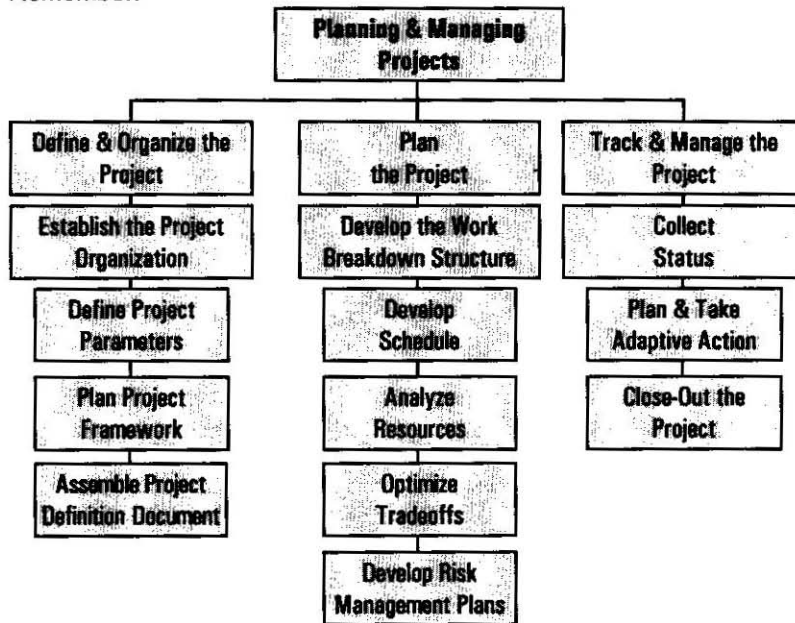
"Today's crises do not excuse us from the responsibility of dealing with long range problems, or even from preparing for tomorrow's crises".

Keeping a strategic vision regarding the post-crisis environment is necessary to ensure continuance of organizational activity and effectiveness upon crisis' end. The intense nature of crises draws team members and senior leadership into focusing on crisis specific events and actions, thus losing sight of the bigger picture – how the crisis will impact the organization's mission in the future.

LINK TO PROJECT MANAGEMENT

Crisis management is incorporated within the project management principles detailed in earlier chapters. Specifically, crisis management is incorporated under risk assessment/risk management and the development of escalation paths and contingency plans to handle sudden or unexpected events. Thus crisis management, at least the preparation for potential crises, becomes part of your project plan.

Remember:



Key steps to be taken prior to the onset of a crisis are as follows:

- Establish a crisis management team / roster
- Establish crisis management procedures
 - Describe team objectives and team member responsibilities.
 - Describe reporting structure and team contact details. (Whom are you supposed to talk to?)
- Task identification. What a crisis is. What your organization is. What it needs.
- Create detailed communication plan
- Test the crisis organization through simulation. Once the crisis occurs you will have no time for practice. Simulation is a teaching tool. Simulation helps you to figure out what the weaknesses are of your plan, and then try to correct your plan so if the crisis actually happens you can be better prepared for.

CRISIS PLANNING



Crisis planning is the pre-crisis development of operational plans in response to potential crises. Crisis action planning follows prescribed crisis action procedures to formulate and implement an effective response within the time frame permitted by the crisis. At crisis onset...

Identify the problem(s)	What are you managing for?
Locate the cause or source of the problem	Maybe you cannot do anything for the problem, but you can at least try to find alternative.
Determine the scope of the problem(s)	What does the problem mean? What does it mean to the organization, organization mission, and for you?
Understand the risks	It is difficult but at the same time it is an essential part.
Implement corrective or adaptive action	Learning lessons
Post-crisis evaluation	
Situation development	
Crisis assessment	
Course of action (COA)	
Course of action selection	Because of the simulation exercise that is involved, you have many different potential scenarios and plans that you can enact depending on the situation. You can choose one.
Execution planning	A lot of work has been done but in this stage you will adapt a plan to meet the reality of the crisis.
Execution	

CRISIS MANAGEMENT & LEADERSHIP

Crises highlight the character of leaders while posing several questions:



- Do leaders have the ability to think of crises in times of non-crisis?
- Do leaders have the ability to think of and prepare for periods of non-crisis in time of crisis? Do they have vision?
- Are leaders willing to sacrifice their own or their constituencies' desires of the moment to meet crisis challenges? Otherwise they are not leaders.
- Do leaders care about the long range good of the organization or nation to give such sacrifice serious consideration?
- Do leaders understand the difference between strategic and tactical thought? The senior management or senior leadership might be setting the strategic vision, the goals, the objectives. The tactic is how you are going to do that.

Casual talk of crisis may make a leader look weak if not followed by commensurate action. Thus, identifying crises properly is a more complex exercise than generally assumed, and must be understood as an integral aspect of crisis management itself. Terminology means a lot. You have to be careful how to use the term 'crisis.'



There are penalties to be paid in thrusting senior policy officials into crisis management roles, given the inevitable lack of real preparation of leadership and the steepness of the learning curve. Sometimes leaders are selected for political consideration, or they are great technicians, or great practitioners, but they are not good managers. If you put them into a crisis situation without having a crisis management capability built into the organization, you will have a problem. The essential requirement is to devise doctrine and procedures that will integrate organizational/political, strategic, and operational crisis perspectives while preserving an appropriate balance between them.

7

LEADERSHIP SKILLS: FAITH IN SELF AND FELLOW HUMAN BEINGS AS THE KEY TO SUCCESS

Dr. Ahmed Baker¹

FAITH AND BELIEF

Leadership is contingent on effective inter- and intra-personal relationships that depend to a large degree on our faith in ourselves and humanity as a whole. It is difficult to persuade four petit ladies they are able to lift a man weighing some 94 kg with only their four fingers; any attempt by them to do so will generally result in failure! However, if a particular exercise leads these four petit ladies to have faith in their ability to lift the 94 kg man, they will do so as I shall later demonstrate.

Leadership depends on how much a person has confidence in himself and in his colleagues. The capacity of human abilities is infinite according to humanistic psychology. There are many schools of thoughts in psychology but we are going to talk about the humanistic one (*al-madrasah al-fikriah al-insanieh*). This school derives its concepts from the experiences of the orient, especially the concepts of the Zen and Buddhist philosophies. It differs from the American psychological perspective, which is empirical-experimental in its approach. The power of comparison would be shown if we select a person randomly out of a group and measure the time he or she could remain under water. Most westerners will be unable to remain submerged for no more than five minutes. A trained Buddhist monk, however, could remain under water for nearly half an hour. Our belief that breathing is involuntary and cannot be consciously controlled is challenged by oriental philosophy. Here we have to believe in the ability of the human being. You as project leaders, if you don't have a belief in the infinite capacity of human beings, then your efforts are doomed to remain limited, if not doomed to failure.

The following incident concerning the painter and philosopher Walter Russell and his wife Lao could serve as an example. Walter wanted one day to take his wife to the opera, but he was penniless. He told his wife, however, we are going to the opera, knowing that he had not a

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single dollar in his pocket. He maintained a firm belief, however, that they were going to the opera that night. He went to the ticket office that afternoon - again not having the money to pay for the tickets, but was confident that he would secure the money by the time he reached the clerk selling the tickets. As he was standing in the long queue, a stranger approached him. He asked: "I am in a hurry, and I can't wait to buy tickets for the opera. Is it possible that you could buy the tickets for me, and I will add another five dollars for your service." Walter not only told the stranger that he would do that, but that he would also deliver the tickets. That response created another line of strangers to form, all requesting that Walter would do the same for them. When Walter reached the clerk, not only did he have the money to take his wife to the opera, but also to take her out for dinner.

If Walter Russell did not have this infinite belief in himself and other human beings, he would not have been able to go to the opera. However, we have to differentiate between faith and illusion (*halwaseh*). If we lose faith in ourselves and in others, our objectives will not be achieved.



Our world is comprised of an infinite number of internal and external factors and combinations. But each of us has two worlds in which we live: the internal world, and the external one. We have little or no control over the external world, but we can have full control over our internal world. The one who loses control over her/his internal world maintains no control over the external world. You have to be realistic, but always have faith in your ability to control your internal environment.

The first premise is to have **faith in the ability of human beings** no matter who they are. I once saw how a newspaper vendor with obvious physical and mental disabilities directed traffic when vehicles were jammed in all directions and traffic had come to a standstill. This person managed the traffic jam when all others stood idle.

The second premise is to believe in the principle of '**self-fulfilling prophecy**'. If you believe in something your behavior and the behavior of others will move in that direction.

Another example: A group of children were assigned randomly to two groups. The first group was given to a teacher who was told she was getting a group of 'slow' children. The second group was given to a teacher who was told she was getting a group of 'talented' children. At the end of the year, the achievement level of the second group ('talented') was much higher than the achievement level of the first ('slow') group. The following year, the groups were reversed in terms of their introduction to the new teachers: The 'talented' group was called 'slow' and vice versa. The achievement of the groups again was a function of how the new teacher perceived them. This leads us to premise three.

There is nothing in psychology to stereotype behaviors as totally negative or totally positive, even in the worse situation you can always find something positive about a certain behavior. If you look hard, you can always find something positive about any person – even the worst criminal. The **psychology of behavior**, however, will show you that the more you look for positive aspects, not only will you see things in a more positive perspective, but the behavior of the other individual will become increasingly more positive. By the same token, the more you focus on negative behavior, the more you will see them, and the more that person will become negative.

Another example: Teachers were asked to focus on the negative behavior by placing an "X" next to each incorrect answer; correct responses were ignored. As a result, the numbers of incorrect responses increased. They were then told to focus on the correct responses by placing "✓" next to each correct response and to ignore errors. As a result, errors decreased.

All of us seek attention, support, and rewards from those who are significant to us.

My students take pleasure in seeing a happy face drawn on their paper, although they are adults and enrolled in a university. I have also learned to grade a response by focusing on the positive rather than the negative. For example, if the student deserves seven on a ten-point question, I place "+7" rather than "-3" on her/his paper. No response receives a "zero" because a "zero" implies (s)he does not exist. By the same token, providing someone with feedback that (s)he has made an error is not as effective as explaining the error and then showing her/him how to correct it. The motto of effective interaction is to focus on the positive.



PERCEPTION

Perception is reality, not the other way around. What you perceive is the reality you feel. No two persons will perceive a stimulus in exactly the same manner. For example, if we draw a line A-B and ask a group of people to give us its length, we will get varying answers from them depending on their personality, experience, and visual acuity. For example; children coming from economically deprived backgrounds estimate the size of a coin significantly larger than children coming from affluent backgrounds. Hence, perception is reality.



How do you perceive yourself? And how do others perceive you? The less differences between how you perceive yourself and how others perceive you, the more effective you can be as a leader.

Let us do this exercise: I am going to ask you 18 questions about yourself and you are going to answer either "yes", "no" or "perhaps". Try to commit yourself as much as possible by refraining from putting "perhaps" as much as you can. Then I am going to ask you to rate the item how you think others see you.

	Questions:	Yes	No	Perhaps
1	I'd rather work alone			
2	I postpone my work			
3	I like to take a leadership responsibility			
4	I feel with others and their suffering			
5	I work hard on the project that I am responsible for			
6	I have professional attitude and standards			
7	I like to be fashionable			
8	I like to do volunteer work			
9	I appreciate friendship more than (benefit) <i>Maslaha</i>			
10	I worry more than I act			
11	I face problem in terms of saying good things to others, giving them compliments			
12	I like to take risks			
13	I consider failure is a negative thing			
14	I try to respect the opinion of others			
15	I like to adhere to laws and principles			
16	I like parachute jumping			
17	I like to take revenge on those who hurt me			
18	I consider opinions which are different from mine			

Now, look how the other person perceived you. Keep your perception about yourselves and compare the results. Examine the differences between how you see yourself and how your colleagues see you. Also, examine how you thought he would perceive you. Are there similarities? If yes, where are they? Concentrate on items 12 and 16.

We have three levels of analysis. An effective leader has minimum differences amongst these three levels of analysis. There will always be differences in perception, but if the differences are great the person has to take a closer look at himself as a potential leader. (S)he should expect problems in interpersonal relationships, especially in the area of communication. (S)he may understand something that you didn't mean or say. This also means that (s)he may not be clear to others or even with to her/himself.

How others see you is the important factor. It matters little if you see yourself as the most understanding leader when others see you as not understanding at all. Perception is reality.

Perception can be analyzed at more than one level. Sometimes one can be described as lazy at work, although he is very active outside the work place. How you are perceived in the work situation, in this case, is the crucial perception. For example, how our spouse perceives us at home is the important factor. It matters little that the husband is perceived as a considerate person in the community if his wife thinks otherwise at home. So how your friends perceive you is not as important as how your colleagues perceive you when you are leading projects.



Inter-personal relationships are quite important in a work situation. If our workers perceive us as dictatorial, not understanding and difficult, they might engage in covert behavior to take 'revenge' on us. For example; you may give a messenger a proposal that has to be delivered at a given date or hour. He

returns and informs you that he could not deliver the proposal because of problems with the car. Such passive-aggressive behavior is similar to seeing a warning light turn on in an expensive machine and ignoring it. Passive-aggressive behavior is minimized if you understand your workers and they understand you – when there is similarity in perceptions. Never underestimate human beings. They have an infinite capacity and creativity that can be directed constructively or destructively. The "insignificant" messenger could cost you the most expensive project.

You have to understand yourselves; you have to understand how you perceive yourselves, and how others perceive you.

VALUES

We all have values and this affects our behavior. A lot of the time we think that we hold values but they are not really there. We have to be clear about the values that affect and direct our behavior. Are the values we hold and adopt congruent with our behavior? Sometimes, we hold values and yet we do not live according to their principles.

Let us do the following exercise in "value clarification":

Scenario:

You learn that a nuclear disaster is to take place in a community, and the shelter there can only accommodate six people in terms of food, water, and oxygen. There are ten people present, and only six can enter the shelter. They know if the decision is left to them, they will enter into serious fights that could jeopardize the lives of everyone of them. They agree amongst themselves to abide by the decision you take. Who are the six people you will chose to place in the shelter from the following ten people:

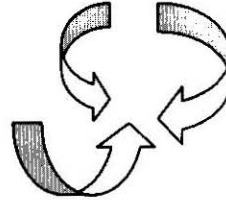
1. *A nuclear scientist; his careless experiment caused the dangerous activity.*
2. *The wife of the nuclear scientist who is four months pregnant.*
3. *A Marxist revolutionary, 3rd year university student.*
4. *A famous sixty year-old psychologist author.*
5. *A noted TV celebrity host.*
6. *Statistician*
7. *A fifty year- old alcoholic priest*
8. *A professional football player, very low IQ.*
9. *A very bright secondary high school student*
10. *A former presidential assistant who is clever but shifty.*

We can argue that how you arrive at your decisions is a way of applying values. It is obvious that these values differ from one group to another. But that is not what I am interested in. What I am interested in is how you interact with each other; i.e., your group interaction. This is the aim. This is an exercise to put you in an interactive atmosphere. How does the group reach its decision? What does it take into consideration when it makes its choice?

1. Who feels, among the group, that his/her opinion was important or not important, or not taken into account, was active or inactive?
2. Who would go behind the group? It is thus destruction if one person in the group feels that his opinion is not important.

3. Who feels that there is someone among the group who wants to impose her/his opinion?
4. Who feels that he had an opinion, but later on he/she changed his/her mind? Were there reasons, persuasions, or points that that person did not think about? Flexibility is what is required and is important in any group discussion. You have to decide: to go with the group or defend your opinion. Sometimes it depends on the importance of the subject.
5. Who feels that you were unjust to one of the group members after you made your decision? How do you feel about the decision?
6. Have you felt that someone is/was a leader? Were you a follower or leader in the discussion? Did you feel comfortable or uncomfortable with your own role? Most people feel more 'comfortable' when they take a leadership role!

Human feelings are very important. It is important how we interact and perceive each other. Every time we interact with someone, there are feelings involved and these feelings are reciprocal, relating to how we feel about ourselves, and how the other person feels about us.



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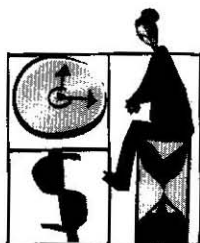
BUDGET ESTIMATION AND COST ALLOCATION

Dr. Rita Giacaman¹

The actual writing of a budget, including cost allocations, is in fact the last step in a series of steps that need to be taken to make the cost allocation itself coherent and realizable.

Before we are able to construct a budget and to allocate costs, we first need to ensure that the project for which the budget is to be constructed **stems out of need/demand and is realizable**.

The very first step towards ensuring that the project itself is meaningful comes from observation and the initial identification of need. This step should be followed by a **needs assessment**. The needs assessment must investigate need, preferably by asking the beneficiaries themselves, and combining their views with expert views as well. The needs assessment should also investigate the beneficiaries' awareness of need versus demand, as well as infrastructural, human resource, and managerial requirements to set the stage for a project's success.

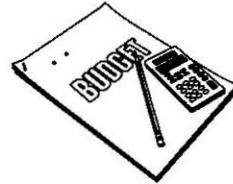


Based on the information obtained from having completed the above steps, one can then construct a project idea, framework and plan. This should include:

1. A clear **definition of the aims and objectives** of the project. The specifics here will define the nature, type and level of staffing needed, as well as other items crucial for the construction of an adequate budget.
2. Turning the objectives into a **plan of action** with full details. Such details need to include:

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- a. **Identifying the steps** that need to be taken in order to achieve the objectives.
 - b. **Setting up of a timetable** for operationalization. Usually, such a timetable includes different **phases**. The phases usually include: initial ground work, training and or upgrading human resources, piloting, implementing, monitoring, evaluating, and then, if possible or desired, **scaling up**. Scaling up means the expansion of the project to include other sectors, other areas or other needs as well.
 - c. Identifying the type, nature, and level of **human resources, technical, managerial and supervisory**, required to implement each of the steps. We have noted that in this country, the managerial and supervisory needs are often omitted.
 - d. Identifying infrastructural needs.
 - e. Identifying other operational needs.
 - f. Identifying other needs, for instance, advocacy needs.
3. Once the plan is set along the basic lines described above, one is able to construct a budget for the project and initially allocate costs. It should be stated here that in Palestine, budget and cost allocation requires a good amount of flexibility, as political and other impediments more often than not require adjustments in budget and cost allocations because of ongoing exceptional circumstances.
4. Usually, budgets include the following items:
- **Infrastructural costs:** this can include of range of one-time costs, such as building, repair and rehabilitation of buildings, buying equipment, computers, vehicles and other capital costs.
 - **Other one time costs:** such as initial human resource development- training, scholarships, travel etc. This item could also include costs such as initial curricula development, if the project is a training one; setting up a website; initial set up of local committees costs etc.
 - **Operating costs:** these are costs that are ongoing, and must be included in the budget on a monthly or yearly basis, depending on the time required to complete the project.
- a. **Human Resources Costs:** This part pertains to the monthly or periodic allotments for the human resources that will operate the



project. Those can be divided into technical human resources, and supervisory and managerial ones. Those can include:

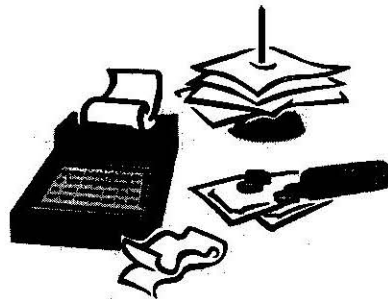
Regular salaries: It is of the utmost importance to calculate salary costs in ways that can include the benefits they receive from working with an institution. Usually, we calculate the salary per year to be equivalent to 14 months actual pay. This is because, by law, institutions must compensate employees with one month's salary for each year the employee worked for the institution. Other hidden costs include holiday pay – if you have to replace the employee during this period, health insurance, and provident fund. Together, they generally come up to around 14 months.

Honoraria for consultants: for consultants, given that they have a more limited role in the project, and the assumption here is that these consultants will not be working with the project on a regular monthly basis, but in specific periods only, and that they are contracted on a fee for service basis, payment is budgeted in terms of hourly, daily or up to one month's pay. The usual fee for a consultant for one days work ranges between 100–400 USD daily, depending on the nature of work, market conditions and availability of human resources. For teaching, you need to factor in materials preparation: For each 50 minutes of presentation, there is generally about 2 hours of work in preparation.



- b. ***Other ongoing costs.*** Ongoing costs are costs that are expended on a regular or semi regular basis throughout the duration of the project. This can include medications purchase, stationery, photocopying and maintenance, transport, and other such regularly expended items.
- c. Depending on the project, we can include separately ***ongoing library purchase costs***, including the purchase of books, periodicals and CD Rom bibliographic searches, and email and networking costs.
- d. ***Field work costs:*** if the project entails much field work, added costs could be placed here, such as transportation, vehicle operating costs, temporary employment costs – for instance, for field workers, monitoring costs, such as obtaining information from records in the field, coding on computer, and analyzing the information in order to monitor and evaluate at later stages.

- e. **Printing and communications:** this can include printing educational material, training material, and reports of all sorts. Communications should include telephone, fax and email costs.
- f. **Rent and Utilities** (electricity, water, heating fuel etc.) For each project, one must assess the average utilization of space and utilities in relation to the total spent on these items by the institution, and then include them in each and every budget.
- g. **Evaluation costs:** it is well worth the while to include a special allotment of money for evaluation, to be conducted at the end of the project. Usually, this item includes: Honoraria for consultant evaluator, other costs of human resources participating in the evaluation, analysis and writing costs and finally, costs for the printing of the evaluation report.
- h. **Miscellaneous and unforeseen costs:** this item is the emergency item so important in Palestine. We usually place this at around 10% of the total cost of the project.
- i. **Management costs:** those range between 10% and up to 40% of the costs of operating the project. Management costs include accounting, auditing, operation of premises, secretarial assistance, utilization of laboratory, including computer laboratory services, as well as overall institutional supervision.



9 CASE STUDY: GENDER PROJECTS

*Islah Jad*¹

INTRODUCTION

I am going to begin with the following case. UNRWA gave money for a widow to open a sewing factory. Later on, this factory was closed and the project failed. What was the reason for this failure?

The causes might be to do with technical issues, for example perhaps this woman has no skills or no ability to run a sewing factory, or there is no feasibility study, or a lack of good estimation about the requirements for implementing the project. Another reason might be the social factor and 'self factor', that is to say a lack of self-confidence. This factor leads us to the importance of integrating an awareness of gender issues in any project. There may be misunderstanding concerning the project, which is focused on women, because, for example, opponents might contend that it takes ladies 'away from society' and keeps them away from the traditional community.

Following this angle leads me to another example: PECDAR presented a project for supposedly building Palestinian infrastructure, and yet all this investment and energy went to men. When you want to speak about unemployment, you should not consider men only, while there are a lot of women who are also unemployed. At best, what we see is that they will operate a small project, for example; distributing sewing machines, or a factory that can integrate women, but which does not lead to real development. This is like putting one group in a train to take them to a specific place, while sending others to the same place using bicycles. Neither group will necessary reach the same place. And if the second group reaches the right destination it is going to be at a point when they are already exhausted and they will thus lose the ability to continue in a healthy and normal way in the development process.

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This is how development projects in Palestine go, including some under the auspices of NGOs, not only those having to do with agriculture but also those that have to do with policy making. For example, the Agriculture Ministry currently works on a project to increase the wheat production in the northern districts and they claim that they take into account the women by sending and distributing plants and some small loans in order to let the women work in their gardens. In this way, they are not going to improve the status of women and they are not going to increase the wheat production. So why are they doing it?

In general both men and women work in agriculture. Men, though, hold more than ¾ of the senior or supervisory positions. So when they go to the fields to supervise plants, they usually go or train on how to plant new applies when they to the men. The same thing for example; tractors start to use new machines, plowing, harvest or for in planting the wheat, for predominantly about irrigation, they think that in order to increase the wheat production in the northern areas, all they did was further exclude women from agriculture. The community, in accordance with its nature, includes both men and women in agricultural production. When the modern planner, who is sitting in a nice office, wants to modernize things in a way that goes against this nature, problems arise.



Any industry or new technology, which comes into a community faces that community's own values, traditions, habits and views on who is expected to do what etc. Technology does not implement itself; technology is implemented by humans who have complex inter-relationships. Consequently integrating technology always affects human relationships.

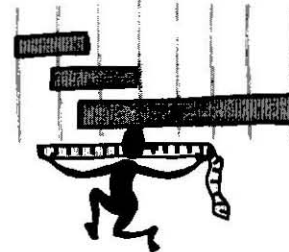
Some might say that increasing wheat production is a technical issue only and whatever effect this might on social life is another issue, or has to be studied separately. Another might say that it is not possible to bring women who have no idea about mechanics to work on a machine and begin from A, B C; it is easier to involve men. Another point of view acknowledges that when there is an objective for a project, it has to be done aside from the gender issue, especially if it that is not its direct objective. Finally it is worth mentioning that if women limit *themselves* in a specific work, it is their problem. It cannot be said, for example, that while trying to promote women and not to exclude them, we don't want to use a certain machine.

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN DEVELOPMENT AND IMPROVEMENT

People say that technology has its effect, and naturally there are bound to be victims. First of all let us stress that there is a difference between development and economic growth.

The period from 1967 till 1973 was a period of great economic growth in Palestine. This had an effect on workers, on what they ate, how they behaved and what their interests became. Suddenly workers built their own houses, bought cars and they became richer than the teachers for example. The financial growth reached 18%. The improvement in China, in comparison, is 9-10%. In Gaza growth reached an annual level of more than 18%.

The period from 1973-1977 was termed one of stagnation in economic growth. 1977 saw the implementation of Israel's "iron fist" policy and as a result of an Israeli economic crisis all the earlier economic improvements began to reverse, reaching -3% annual growth in 1986. It can be said that because of this the Intifada began in 1987, and not in 1969 or 1971. Actually, the Intifada neither depended on the students, teachers or the educated. It was rooted in the workers who used to work in Israel. This was symptomatic and indicative of a very important thing, which is that during the preceding time, we had witnessed serious economic growth, but we had had no development.



Development is more comprehensive than economic growth. Palestinian economic improvement depends on Israeli economic improvement. We, as Palestinians, play a cushion role. When they have a boom it expands so more Palestinian workers find jobs in Israel, when there is a crisis, we (or the Palestinian workers in Israel) are the first who are fired. This is not development. The workers may be individually living reasonably well, while the roads are very bad, the health care non-existent, infrastructure inadequate and the educational system does not compliment the Palestinian market. During this period the developmental focus was rather on the Israeli vocational schools, which trained blacksmiths, carpenters etc. for the Israeli market, while Palestinian schools graduated people for emigration, and not for Palestinian development.

The Palestinian Authority, throughout its seven years, instead of decreasing the dependency on the Israeli economy, increased it. This

is because there were those who wanted to be agents for the Israeli economy. Here we are truly not speaking about development.

Development takes into account different factors. The most important is the human factor. Any classical style of colonialism permits capitalist accumulation. In other words there are always people who get benefits from the occupiers, as in Algeria, South Africa, etc. The same thing is found in Palestine throughout different levels of social strata, although it is limited immensely by Israel's complete control over the Palestinian market and the import and export trade. 'De-development' does pre-date, in some cases, the Israeli occupation; prior to the Israeli occupation, there was a Jordanian law, which did not permit any factory worth more than 3 million Dinars to operate in the West Bank.

There has been a long process of accumulation of weakness in our economic structure. The Israelis were very aware not to have people benefit from their program, or to allow any serious development, which might encourage people to stay. Their aim is and has been to exile the people out of the country.

What do you want to achieve from economic improvement? For what and for whom do you want to increase income? It can be likened to a Palestinian father who works for 16-17 hours a day to get income for his family. At the end he does not see his family, nor takes care of his children, and thus eventually perhaps his son becomes a drunk, and his daughter becomes a deviant because the absence of a father ... hard work and economic growth must be harmonized so as to be for the community's full benefit.

For quarrying, beside Qalandia, the workers get a reasonable salary. This is one of their economic improvements. But eventually the workers develop health problems. At the age of forty or so the worker might have no job. Further, residential conditions have been affected by this quarrying. Such a case indicates the difference between development and economic improvement. Development does not necessarily mean that workers have to earn a high salary but eventually contract lung cancer. Real development should take such factors into account.

Many organizations and institutions have good intentions but policies alter them and they become bad. For example, their objective might be to improve the Third World, but the effects of their project on the people in the Third World may be negative in the end. Avoiding such an occurrence might be best achieved through fully understanding the value of human development.

In one example, farmers might be asked to plant roses instead of wheat, tomato etc. in order to earn better money. All the farmers plant roses; suddenly Israel closes the roads. What is the result? Before the "improvement", they were at least able to eat tomato, now what are they going to eat? Who is going to eat roses?

A similar thing has happened in Africa, where people were told to plant banana, so they planted banana. Soon banana became very cheap and so they neither got money as the result of the economic "improvement" nor did they have varied food from their traditional plants, which they used to plant before. There are tens of examples of such strategies and plans, which do not take into account the human as the essential base for the development.

Thinking that increasing the income of a family has a positive effect on each member of the family is wrong. This is called the "trickle down" theory, which means that you have only to give the head and everything will reach those who are beneath the head. It is not right, because the head has his own priority, which maybe differs from that of the rest. For example, if I go to a farmer and I tell him that I want to improve agricultural process, his priorities and his willingness to do so probably differ from his wife's priorities and those of his children.

Again, when you want to increase the income of a family, you have to study, in advance, what is going to happen to the family after you implement the project. In many communities, for example in Cairo, and especially in the poor areas, 35% of families depend on women. Still, many projects are designed based on making the main beneficiaries men, and while the men increase their income the family income will consequently be increased. As a result of this planning, women become poorer and more dependent and their isolation is increased.

THE IMPORTANCE OF WOMEN INTEGRATION IN THE DEVELOPMENT PROCESS

Human development is the essence of all development. If there are developmental trends and there is a group; either children, women, widows, poor, farmers etc. suffering from negative effects, it means that the project is wrong. Whenever there are people suffering, there is a need to stop and think about that project. There must be something wrong in the project, because the aim of the project is to get people from point A to point B, so if a specific group of the community get to B, and the rest fall behind, the original problems and conflicts which might negate the whole purpose of the project will arise again. *Al-Aqsa Intifada* began not because of Sharon's visit to the Al-Aqsa compound. If

Sharon had not visited Al-Aqsa, the Intifada would still have arisen - maybe in the form of resistance directed against the PA even, because unemployment was increasing, income was not steady and money was being distributed unfairly.

Development has to accommodate the interests of different groups and be directed by moral principles and not only by economic ones. The failure of the project that was done for the widow was that the project did not address this widow as a human. What responsibilities did the widow have? What does the widow have to do to succeed in the project? If this widow has a handicapped child and is expected to go outside so as to manage the sewing project, who is going to take care of her child? The result may be that she takes her daughter out of the college. Hence the result of improving the status of the family is that the daughter cannot continue her studies.

What then if there is no training for running and managing the sewing project and there is no training for marketing? If there are a lot of imported clothes, where is this widow going to market her product? Marketing needs a national development policy harmonized with such issues of import and export.

In this project the traders might return to the widow and tell her that there is nowhere to market your product and after all that time all this family would get from the project is that the daughter loses her studies.

Abdul Nasser, who has no idea about gender issues, has a national project. He decides to depend on local production, thereby reducing his dependence on international markets, a decision, which has its own political connotations for him, especially to do with the Arab-Israel conflict. The first step he takes for this development is focusing on women, half the community. He opens kindergartens and nurseries, improves public transportation, public schools and gives maternity leave etc. If we have such a national project for development, there is no way *but* to involve women.

Bringing up children is not only women's work, for which – instead of acknowledging them – the community punishes them. To change this, husbands, the wider community and governments must work to support women.



APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

ELEMENTS OF A PROJECT DEFINITION DOCUMENT (PDD)

Introduction

- Brief statement of the project and what is included in the PDD

Project Objective Statement, Priority and Scope

Major Deliverables & Target Dates

- 1) Deliverable 1
- 2) Deliverable 2
- 3) Deliverable 3

Project Team Roster

Major Risks

Key Framework Processes

- Project File
(maintained by location, frequency of update, back-up, archived location)
- Issues / Action Item / Change Tracking
(Type of log used, maintained by, location, frequency of review & update)
- Meetings
(frequency, date, time attendance guidelines)

Authorizing Signatures of Key Management / Stakeholders

APPENDIX 2

ELEMENTS OF A TYPICAL FINAL AUDIT FORMAT REPORT

- 1.) Executive Summary
- 2.) Introduction (Purpose of Audit)
- 3.) Project Review
 - a) Project objectives
 - b) Method or approach
- 4.) Effectiveness of Planning
- 5.) Effectiveness of Project Management
- 6.) Effectiveness of Technical Solution
- 7.) Project Deliverables
 - a) Description
 - b) Assessment against requirements (in original plan)
- 8.) Quality
 - a) Standards / guidelines used
 - b) Measurement of quality
 - c) Assessment against requirements (in original plan)

APPENDIX 3

SELECTED INTERNET RESOURCES

GENERAL SOURCES ON (NGO) MANAGEMENT

<http://www.clearinghouse.net/>

(Links to guides on Fundraising, Grants, Non-Profit Organizations, Public Services; click sub-category Business & Employment)

<http://www.cybervpm.com/resource.htm>

(Volunteer Program Management Resources)

<http://www.fundsnetsservices.com/main.htm>

(Lots of resources on Funding, Grant Writing, Non-Profit, Research and Educational Resources)

<http://www.not-for-profit.org/>

(Nonprofit Resource Center with a comprehensive directory of links and information on issues such as Fundraising & Philanthropy; Volunteers & Human Resources; Advocacy & Public Relations; Board & Organizational Support; Management Consultants; Publications; Research & Policy Studies)

<http://comnet.org/net/>

(Gateway to sites for the nonprofit community, organized by resource topics such as Education, Government, Grants & Funding, Health Care Services, Human Services, and Political Activism)

<http://www.casanet.org/nuts/index.htm>

(Articles, survey results, program management tips and information on Volunteering; topics include Board, Program and Resource Development; Personnel and Financial Management; Evaluation)

<http://www.charityvillage.com/cvhome.html>

(Canadian site for the nonprofit sector with many pages and links to News, Jobs, Information and Resources for Executives, Staffers, Donors, and Volunteers)

<http://www.ncnb.org/>

(Dedicated to building stronger NGO boards and NGOs; focus on NGO Governance)

<http://www.escape.ca/~rbacal/articles.htm>

(Online articles on Nonprofit Management Problems, Solutions & Issues; Training, Development, Learning & Human Resources; Defusing Hostility & Cooperative Communication; Change Management: Teams & Team Development, etc.)

<http://www.mapnp.org/>

(The Nonprofit Managers' Library: information, materials and links on topics such as Administrative Skills; Boards; Chief Executive; Communication Skills; Ethics for Managers; Finances; Fundraising/ Grant Writing; Marketing/Public Relations; Management & Leadership; Training & Development; Personnel & Policies; Program Evaluation; Strategic Planning; Quality Management; Volunteer Management)

<http://www-personal.si.umich.edu/~nesbeitt/nonprofits/nonprofits.html>

(Information and resources about Nonprofit Organizations, including Funding, Management, Technology, Philanthropy, Volunteer Activity, Programs and Activities)

<http://www.fundraising.co.uk/>

(Everything on Fundraising: information, links, strategies, agencies)

<http://www.idealists.org/>

(Huge database on NGOs worldwide, including publications, materials, programs and links. See <http://www.idealists.org/tools/tools.htm> for a list of useful resources for starting and managing a nonprofit organization. Categories include Financial Management; Foundations; Fundraising; Government Relations; Lobbying; Management; Personnel Management; and Public Relations).

<http://www.tnrcenter.org/library/links.html>

(Extensive list of links and resources for Nonprofit Organizations)

<http://fdncenter.org/>

(Includes an online library – see <http://fdncenter.org/onlib/onlib.html> - with links to nonprofit resources; Material on Grant Seeking; a Guide to Funding Research and Resources; a Proposal Writing Course; Literature on the Nonprofit Sector; and Common Grant Application Forms)

<http://www.jsi.com/idr/idrmast.htm>

(Links, information and reports from the Institute of Development Research, an independent nonprofit research and education center)

<http://www.oneworld.org/euforic/cap.htm>

(Resources on Capacity Building and Institutional Development)

<http://www.worldlearning.org/>

(Educational services NGO working in International Development, Training and Capacity Building, NGO Management, and Democratic Participation)

<http://www.innonet.org/>

(Free resources for Nonprofit and Public Agencies)

HUMAN RESOURCES

<http://www.nwlink.com/~donclark/hrd.html>

(Website for Human Development Resources, including articles, online Training Guides, links to Training, Human Resource Development, and Learning Information)

<http://www.nbs.ntu.ac.uk/staff/lyerj/list/hrpub.htm>

(Internet publications on Human Resource Management)

<http://www.tcm.com/trdev/>

(Training & Development Resource Center for Human Resources)

<http://www.astd.org/>

(Website of the American Society for Training and Development with information, tools, articles and links to training, performance, evaluation etc.)

PROJECT MANAGEMENT

<http://www.pmi.org/>

(Website of the leading nonprofit professional association in the area of Project Management. Contains articles, seminar announcements and all kinds of assistance for project managers. See also:

<http://www.pmi.org/publictn/pmboktoc.htm> for a downloadable version of the PMI book 'A Guide to the Project Management Body of Knowledge')

<http://www.4pm.com/>

(Articles, free library, links and tips on project management, tools & techniques, discussion forum, newsletter)

<http://www.allpm.com/>

(Lots of project management resources)

<http://www.michaelgreer.com/>

(Lots of free and valuable articles, handouts and other project management resources)

<http://europa.eu.int/comm/scr/evaluation/methods/pcm.htm>

(Project Cycle Management - The complete official EU training handbook as pdf-file)

<http://www.projectmanagement.com/main.htm>

(Project Management links, tools and resources, incl. information on related software)

<http://www.welcom.com/library/whitepapers/mpmse.html>

(Useful article/handout providing practical guidance on how to implement modern project management in an organization)

<http://www.infogoal.com/pmc/pmchome.htm>

(Extensive information on project management software, links & news, seminars and training, services, standards, experts, articles, white papers)

<http://members.aol.com/AllenWeb/index.htm>

(Compilation of useful links related to project management, development and finance, as well as project risk analysis)

<http://www.cpm.ul.ie/main.html>

(page of the Center for Project Management with educational, research and training resources)

<http://www.geocities.com/athens/delphi/8390/>

(Project Management Help Desk with lots of links and articles)

http://ctb.lsi.ukans.edu/tools/EN/part_1010.htm

(Website with tools and tips related to project evaluation)

<http://www.startwright.com/project.htm>

(A leading reference site for the information needs of IT project managers and support staff working on remote or dispersed projects; with an extensive list of project management related links).

