



HTC
CONSULTING

Supervisor & Management Guide

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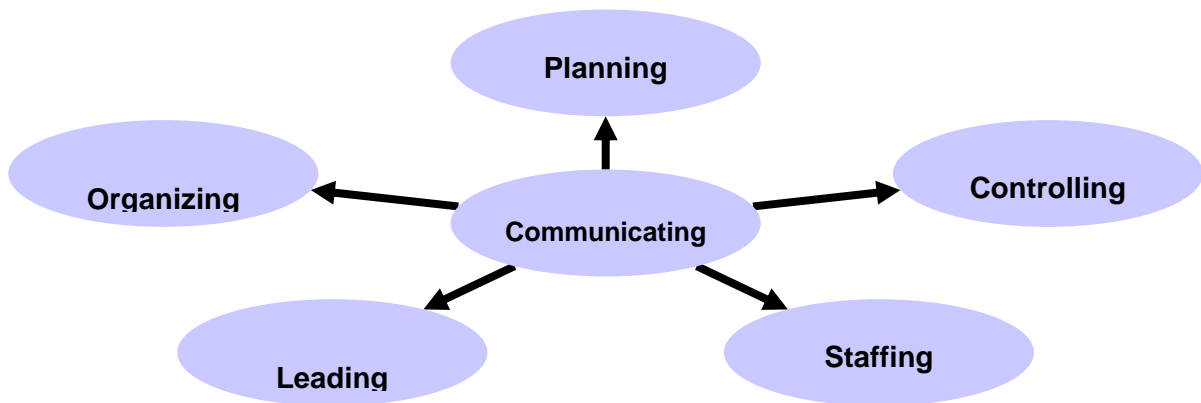
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An Introduction to Management

The Functions of Management

The concept of Management, and the ways in which we manage people is constantly changing. These changes are in response to many factors, but changes in society overall play an important role in how we manage people. Styles of management that worked 100 years ago certainly wouldn't prevail today. At the outset of examining management as a concept in more detail, it is roles and responsibilities of a manager. The role of a manager is varied and complex and requires a broad range of skills and knowledge to be effective. However, the key functions of any manager can be summarised under the following headings:



The above functions are a common method of grouping all management activities under key headings. Everything a manager does can be classified under one, or more of these headings. Specific activities within the above headings include:

Planning	Leading	Controlling
Setting business objectives and preparing plans to achieve those objectives. This involves:	Helping the workforce to perform in order to achieve the objectives:	Maintaining performance levels through monitoring and evaluation:
➤ Awareness of the Management role Knowing what's expected from, and the functions of, a manager.	➤ Leadership Inspiring others to follow your direction.	➤ Budgeting Planning and monitoring expenditure needed to meet objectives.
➤ Future orientation Developing a mission statement, key result areas and objectives.	➤ Giving feedback Encouraging performance by providing constructive information.	➤ Problem solving Taking action to correct an unfavorable trend.
➤ Planning techniques Scheduling activities to achieve objectives.	➤ Motivating Promoting the active desire to achieve objectives.	➤ Appraising and disciplining Reviewing individuals' contributions and taking appropriate action,

Organising	Staffing	Communicating
Initiating steps to put plans into action: ⇒ Decision making Making a judgment about courses of action.	⇒ Recruiting and Selecting Establishing and choosing the best person for the job.	⇒ Overcoming barriers by questioning and listening - clarifying and confirming information.
⇒ Managing Time and Delegation Identifying priority tasks and who will tackle them	⇒ Training and Development	⇒ Writing expressing yourself clearly on paper.
⇒ Disciplinary and grievances	⇒ Managing meetings working with a group to make ⇒ decisions.	

The Levels of Management

In any business or organization, it is necessary to have managers at different levels that perform a variety of tasks, which are geared to achieving the overall aims and objectives of the organisation. This management 'hierarchy', as it has become known, is vital and the effectiveness of any organisation is often determined by how well this hierarchical structure works. Basically there are three management levels within an organisation:

Top or Senior Managers

These are the senior managers within the organisation and their titles include Chief Executive Officer, President, Chairman, Chief Operating Officer, Directors and Members of the Board. The top level managers are responsible for the overall direction of the business and generally they take a long-term or strategic view of the business.

Middle Managers

Middle Managers are responsible for developing specific plans and policies to achieve the strategic plans and objectives developed by top managers.

Front-Line or Operational Managers

The front line managers generally form the largest grouping within most organisations. They are responsible for directly supervising and managing the organisations' employees and resources. They are operationally focused and ensure the smooth running of the day-to-day operations.

Management Skills

All managers must possess a wide range of skills and abilities, and the nature of the skills required changes as a manager progresses up the organisational ladder. The range of skills can be broadly classified as follows:

➤ *Technical*

Front-line or Operational managers rely heavily on their knowledge of technical skills. This is due to the fact that they are 'at the coal face' and as such must have a detailed understanding of the tasks undertaken by their staff. They must be fully aware of the work methods and production processes so that they can ensure the smooth running of daily production.

All managers should have good Interpersonal or 'people' skills so that they can bring the best out of their employees.

➤ *Interpersonal*

All managers should have good Interpersonal or 'people' skills so that they can bring the best out of their employees.

➤ *Conceptual*

Managers must be able to see the 'big picture' and ensure that the organisation is constantly responding to the changing business environment. Conceptual skills involve the ability to see the organisation as a whole, to recognise complex and dynamic issues, and to examine factors that influence these problems and resolve such situations.

The chart on the following pages indicates how the skills required by a manager vary depending upon their level within the organisation:

Front-Line Managers	Middle Managers	Senior Managers
Conceptual	Conceptual	Conceptual
Interpersonal	Interpersonal	Interpersonal
Technical	Technical	Technical

When the role of the manager is examined, the variety of skills and abilities required to be effective can be quite daunting. Can any one individual master all of the above and more? Not very easily, and unfortunately some managers don't even try to develop their potential. Management should be seen as a journey and **not a destination**.

Management Theory

Introduction

The approaches to management, the theories of management and the ways in which we manage people are constantly changing. These changes are in response to many factors; Changes in society overall, economic factors, and nature of the work are some of the factors that impact on the styles of management that are most effective. There has always been a need for leaders but Management, as a concept, is a relatively recent phenomenon. As the nature of work changed after the Industrial Revolution, the need for effective management increased. The growth of large factories and organisations required changes in previous methods of “getting things done”, and the role and functions of the manager have evolved in line with the complexity of the business environment.

There have been many approaches and theories of management proposed over the years, and the shelves of the business section in any bookstore are testament to the range of opinions on offer. The manner in which we manage people, and the most effective approach to management has been the source of much debate over the decades. Certain management theories become fashionable for a time, only to be replaced by new approaches. It is important as future managers to recognise the principle management theories that have developed over the years. A study of some of the best known theories will enable you to identify how management thinking has progressed, as well as providing a foundation stone for developing your own management style.

The Classical School

The Classical School of Management theory had as its principle focus the structure and activities of formal organisations. Classical school theory can be divided into Administrative Theory and Scientific Management. Administrative theory examines the management of the total organisation, whereas Scientific Theory focuses upon increasing worker productivity by scientifically examining their working methods. A sample of some of the main theorists include:

Administrative Theory

Henri Fayol (1841-1925)

Fayol is often called the ‘father of organisations’ and is considered the original proponent of the Administrative Theory. He applied scientific principles to the running of the organisation overall and his definition of management was “to manage is to *forecast and plan, to organise, to command, to co-ordinate and control.*”

He did not account for the human element in organizations in his theories, but his ideas on the functions of management have found their way into modern organisations.

Scientific Management

Frederick Taylor (1856-1915)

Taylor's major concern was in the efficiency of working methods and he believed that most workers put very little effort into work. Taylor believed that scientific methods should be used to examine work to improve productivity. His philosophy was that Scientific theory would identify the most effective methods of working he was an early developer of time and motion studies. In essence the principles promoted the idea that each job should be scientifically analysed to determine the best method for completing a given task and the appropriate time-frame for completion. Taylor promoted his ideas at a time when workers were largely responsible for determining their own working methods.

This approach was known as the 'rule of thumb'. Taylor's approach proposed to take this control away from the worker and bestow it as a management responsibility. His management principles had relevance for the improvement of productivity, and did lead to the separation of the planning function from the production function. Subsequently however his ideas were later recognised as being cold and inhuman, as his methods would turn workers into 'machines'.

Other followers of Taylor's ideas included Frank and Lillian Gilbreth and Henry Gantt. The Gilbreth's were particularly concerned with the measurement of all aspects of work, but this involved a lot of detailed analysis and study. Henry Gantt is best remembered for the Gantt Chart which shows a comparison between output attained and output planned.

Max Weber (1864 - 1920)

Max Weber was a sociologist, not a practicing manager, unlike Fayol and Taylor. He is most remembered for his introduction of the term 'Bureaucracy'. He examined the relationship between Power and Authority in an organisation and identified the main features of bureaucracy which included details such as:

- Separation of Ownership and Management
- Specified areas of competence
- Hierarchical arrangement of jobs
- Appointments made on the basis of technical competence
- A position was an entity in itself, a person did not have an inherent right to any position

Summary of Classical Management Theories

The Classical theories did produce useful information on the role of management and the nature of organisations. They also identified more efficient working methods and the studies did lead to an increase in productivity. As a result of these studies acceptable levels of production were identified and this enabled employees who exceeded targets to be rewarded for their efforts. However the Classical theorists did not have any real concern for those who completed the work, only how they worked. Their ideas assumed that workers were solely motivated by pay and led to workers having to complete boring, repetitive tasks.

The Behavioural School

The Behavioural theorists focused more on the person in their research. These theorists were largely Sociologists as opposed to managers or industrialists. Some of the principle theorists were:

Elton Mayo (1880-1949)

Elton Mayo conducted a series of studies at the Hawthorne Works plant in Chicago from 1927-1932. In a number of controlled experiments he altered factors in the work environment to see what effects this would have on productivity. In one of his experiments he raised lighting and found that productivity increased, but when he decreased the lighting it also increased. He also conducted other experiments analysing various working conditions, and he interviewed staff about their work. His findings led him to recognise that there were other factors besides the physical aspects of work which affected performance. There were social and psychological factors. Therefore, if managers were to improve productivity, they would have to develop human relations skills, and his theories became known as the *Human Relations Theories*.

Douglas McGregor *Theory X* *Theory Y*

McGregor believed that an individual's attitude to work fell into two categories. These categories he described as Theory X and Theory Y.

At its simplest level McGregors Theory X assumes that human beings derive no satisfaction from work and in fact have a natural aversion to it. Theory Y assumes the opposite, and that certain individuals derive a high level of satisfaction from work if conditions are right. McGregors work was the first major study which attempted to examine the factors affecting motivation at work and his theories have had a major impact on management thinking. Most people combine elements of each theory in their make-up. The climate, structure and culture of an organisation will influence which characteristics they display most frequently.

Frederick Herzberg

Another theorist in the behavioural school was Frederick Herzberg. He believed that certain aspects of the job itself created positive responses in employees, and these were known as *Motivators*. Other factors existed which affected productivity such as pay and conditions. These form part of the work environment but are outside of the job itself. When these factors are not positive they create dissatisfaction and are known as *Hygiene Factors*.

The most important Motivators identified by Herzberg were			The most important Hygiene factors were		
Responsibility	Recognition	Advancement	Supervision	Salary	Working Conditions
Achievement	The work itself		Company Policy and Administration		

Herzberg noted that Motivators led to satisfaction with the job, whilst Hygiene factors only promoted dissatisfaction. Even if the Hygiene factors were positive that did not necessarily mean that workers would be more motivated. Herzberg’s theories were taken on board by managers and had a significant impact on the work environment.

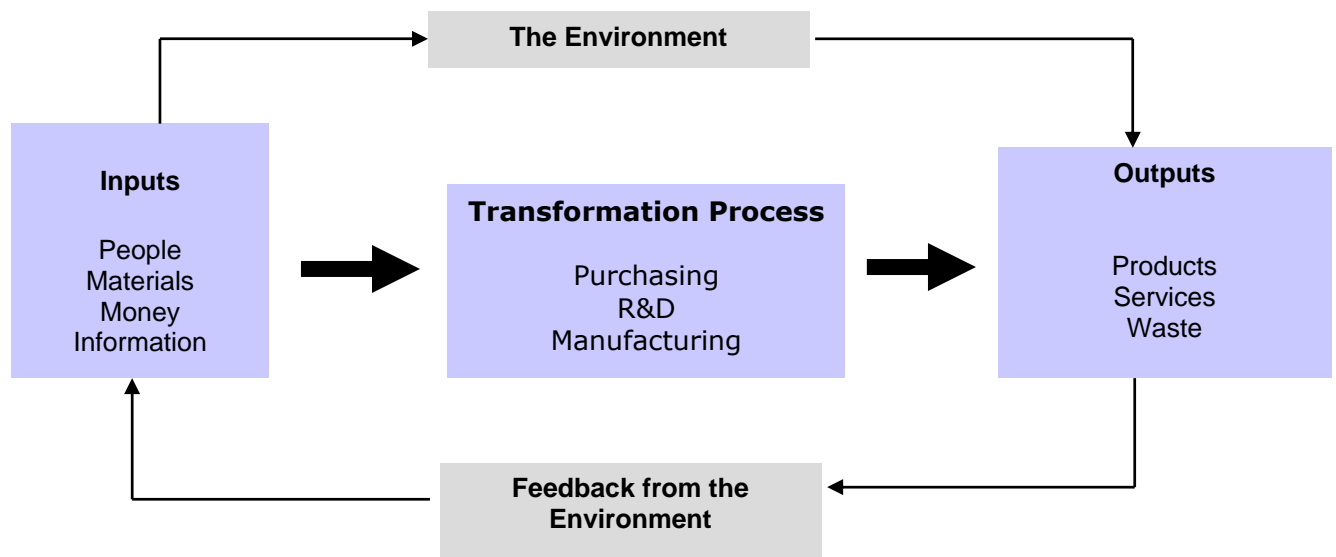
Renises Likert

Other behavioural theorists have written extensively on the subject such as Renises Likert who introduced the term Participative Management, which encouraged worker participation in the decision making process. He also identified four separate styles of management:

Exploitive-Authoritative	Top down, no communication or feedback, leading to mediocre productivity.
Benevolent-Authoritative	Some consultation and communication, leading to better productivity.
Consultative	Goals set after discussion with employees, leading to good productivity
Participative	Employees are fully involved in the decision-making process leading to high productivity.

Systems Theory and Contingency Approach

Classical and Behavioural theories tended to focus mainly on work methods and individual behaviour. The Systems or Contingency theories on the other hand began to take a more comprehensive view of the organisation. The theorists looked at how the different elements of an organisation interact with each other and the macro environment. The Systems approach originated in the work of Barnard (1938) and became widely recognised in the 1950’s. Many of the classical approaches did not believe that organisations were influenced by factors outside the business and were only concerned with the internal workings of the organisation. From the 1950’s theorists began to consider the role of the external environment and started to look at the organisation as a complete system. The diagram below shows how the organisation can be viewed as a system using various inputs and through the transformation process producing outputs.



Due to the fact that Classical theorists viewed organisations as closed systems their key focus was internal efficiency. Systems theory on the other hand looks at how the organisation as a whole operates within the business environment. Organisational effectiveness is not only influenced by how well the different sub-systems within the organisation work together, but also by how these systems are affected by the external environment.

Contingency Theory

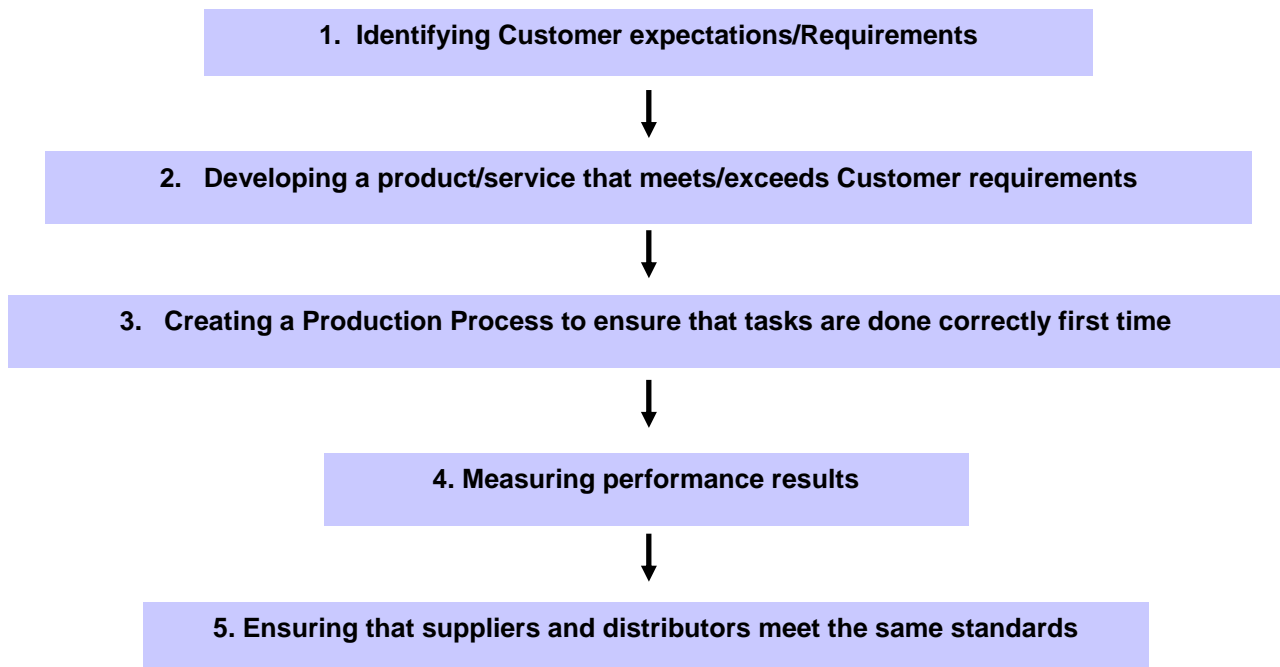
Contingency theory is in effect a further development of Systems theory. It proposes that managerial practice depends on the situation with which the organisation is faced. According to this theory the nature of management within an organisation will be determined by certain circumstances. The different circumstances are called contingencies. Contingency theory accepts that every organisation is distinct, operating in a unique environment with different employees and objectives. The main contingencies are:

- The rate of change and complexity of the external environment
- The types of technology, tasks and resources used by the organisation
- The internal strengths and weaknesses of the organisation
- The values, skills and attitudes of the workforce

The nature of managerial action to be taken will be influenced by these contingencies and managers must understand the contingencies if they are to effectively manage the organisation.

Total Quality Management

Since the 1950's there has been greater examination of the contribution that quality improvement can make to achieving organisational success. Seeking to improve the quality of products and services is not new idea but there has been greater emphasis placed on developing a holistic approach to achieving quality. In the past, the Quality Control Department was seen as having responsibility for ensuring the quality of products produced, and it was their job to identify and correct mistakes after they had occurred. This approach of correcting problems after they occurred meant that many of the quality problems had been built into the products, as part of the production process, and were therefore difficult to locate and correct. Total Quality Management (TQM) however, focuses on the prevention of mistakes as opposed to seeking to correct them after they occur. If this approach was to be successful then all employees of the business needed to take an active role in quality control. Total Quality Management is today viewed as the overall approach taken by a business in achieving a total quality product/service, by involving the entire organisation in the process. TQM involves a number of key steps which are outlined in the diagram below:



The principle feature of TQM is that the entire organisation is involved and that all aspects of the operation are examined and standards of performance defined. TQM has as its core philosophy the concept of the internal customer. Each employee within the organisation is in effect a customer of and for another employee. The same applies to each department. Therefore each employee is responsible for the quality of his/her work and is expected to produce goods/services that meet specifications and to find mistakes.

Management Theories - Conclusion

The examination of Management theory highlights the fact that there is a wealth of information and research available on the theory and practice of management. Modern approaches to management thinking contain elements of past theories and later

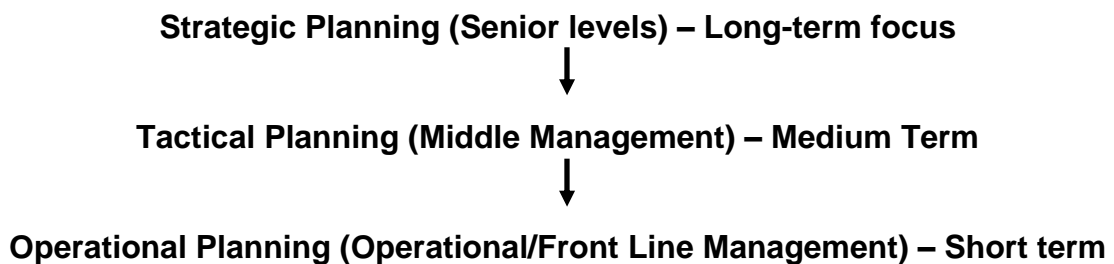
theories or approaches have often built on earlier ones. Today the focus is more upon including and developing those who perform the work as a means to improving performance. There is now a major emphasis placed upon coping with change, and the business environment has become increasingly volatile. In reality there is no single theory or approach that can offer all the answers. In fact, the best route forward is often a combination of many theories.

Planning

Every business requires effective planning if it is to achieve pre-determined goals and objectives. Without an effective planning process, a business would have no clear direction, or have any means of measuring success. When a business fails to plan, it plans to fail....as the old saying goes. In many ways the Planning function precedes all other functions, as all other functions should be geared towards achieving the goals and targets established in the plans and without plans an organisation lacks direction. Despite the difficulties presented to the planning function by an increasingly volatile business environment, a business must still plan. However it must also be able to revise these plans, as the need arises, and adapt to changes in the environment. Plans should be fluid, and actual results should be regularly measured against those expected. Planning can therefore be identified as a key management function. There are many definitions of Planning one of which is:

'the systematic development of action programmes aimed at reaching agreed business objectives by the process of analysing, evaluating and selecting among the opportunities which are foreseen' (Jones 1974)

Planning occurs at all levels within an organisation although the nature of the planning varies according to the level in the organisation. Basically there are three levels of Planning within an organisation:



In the past Strategic Planning would have determined the broad direction of the business over a 5-10 year period. As the business environment has become more complex, this has become increasingly difficult. However businesses must still have an overall strategic direction mapped out. Often it is necessary to revise tactical plans to help the business through a particularly uncertain period, but the broad strategic direction of the business remains the same. The Planning process in an organisation seeks to:

- Decide the objectives for the organisation (Strategic)
- Identify alternative ways of achieving them. (Tactical)
- Select from amongst these alternatives the most effective means of achieving objectives.(Operational)

Effective planning creates a framework from which the activities of the organisation can be developed. It creates guidelines for the type of business that will be conducted, and the strategy which will be followed. If individuals and groups within an organisation are to be effective in working for the achievement of the organisations objectives, then they need to know what it is they are expected to do.

Key Elements of Planning

There are four major aspects to planning

- To make it easier for management to achieve a goal or objective.
- Planning provides the overall direction for all other management functions.
- All managers are involved in Planning at some level.
- To enable managers to identify:
 - Actions that will assist in achieving a stated objective
 - Actions that will have a negative impact in achieving those objectives.

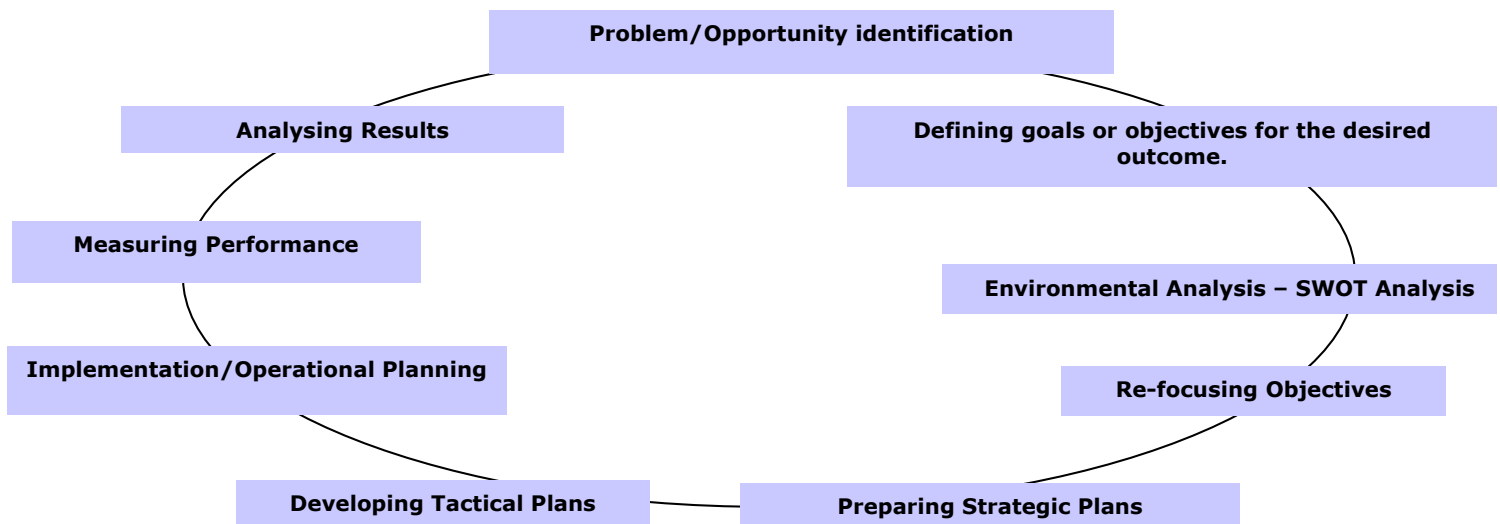
Factors affecting Planning decisions

Planning is a difficult process, and the effectiveness of plans can be influenced by many factors. Some of the key factors that act as barriers to good planning are:

- Lack of awareness of business environment.
- Lack of up-to-date/accurate management information
- Reluctance to be committed to one set of targets.
- Fear of consequences of failing to achieve planned targets.
- Volatility in the business environment leading to 'what's the point mentality'
- Lack of understanding of the planning process/tools.

The Planning Process

The key steps in the planning process for a business overall are:



Planning Terms

Objectives

- ⇒ Overall targets for an organisation as a whole.
- ⇒ Identify where the business wants to be
- ⇒ All other plans are geared towards getting the business there.

Strategies

- ⇒ The means to achieving the goals and objectives.
- ⇒ Identify the overall direction to be taken in the long-term to achieve the corporate objectives.

Policies

- ⇒ General statements that provide guidelines for management decision-making.

Procedures

- ⇒ Procedures are a set of clearly defined steps in performing certain task.

Rules

- ⇒ Specific, definite course of action that must be taken in a given situation.

Programmes

- ⇒ Co-ordinated groups of plans.

Budgets

- ⇒ Formal statement of expected results, set out in numerical terms.
- ⇒ A plan for carrying out certain activities within a given period of time, in order to achieve certain targets.

Budgets are a particularly important type of plan and are widely used in organisations. The reasons for their importance are:

- ⇒ They compel planning throughout the organisation because they cover the activities of the entire organisation
- ⇒ Budgets are quantified statements of intended targets and activities
- ⇒ Budgets help to establish clear and measurable standards of performance
- ⇒ By means of comparing actual results against a targeted result, or standard of performance, information can be provided for control action.

Organising and Co-ordinating

A business must be organised effectively if its objectives and plans are to be achieved. Organising takes place constantly within an organisation, and involves ensuring that all activities are co-ordinated towards achieving the pre-determined plans. Therefore *Organising* and *Co-ordinating* go hand in hand as management functions. When plans have been defined, the major tasks needed to achieve such goals must also be clearly identified. Resources must then be allocated to them. The tasks must then be communicated to the relevant departments/individuals, and guidance and support given as appropriate. It is a management responsibility to co-ordinate the activities of employees, in order to achieve organisational goals. The dramatic changes in the business environment in recent years has meant that organisations have come to realise that in order to survive, structures must be flexible and adaptable.

Organisation Structure

However, it is not only essential to organise and co-ordinate activities on a continuous basis. Any organisation to be effective needs to have a pre-determined Organisation Structure that is appropriate to the needs of that business. Without an effective structure, continuous organising and co-ordinating becomes more difficult, which in turn affects business performance and the achievement of goals and objectives.

Therefore it is important to examine the elements that contribute to the formation of Organisation Structures. There are many elements that contribute to the overall structure adopted by an organisation, which can be summarised under the following headings:

1. Structural Configuration
2. Structural Operation.

Structural Configuration affects how an organisation is structured, and focuses on the overall size and shape of the structure adopted. So in other words Structural Configuration determines 'How it looks'.

Structural Operation on the other hand is concerned with how the structure works in practice, for example who has responsibility for whom, how decisions are made and so on. Therefore it could be said that in relation to the organisation structure, Structural Operation relates to 'How it works'.

There are a number of elements in each of the above headings:

Structural Configuration

- Division of Labour
- Spans of Control
- Hierarchical Levels
- Departmentalisation

Structural Configuration	
<p style="text-align: center;">Division of Labour</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Relates to the manner in which the workload is organised in the business. ➤ It involves the identification of key tasks and the allocation of responsibility for them to different individuals. ➤ If the division of labour is narrow then it is termed, Job Specialisation. ➤ If the division of labour is broad then it is termed, Multi-Skilling. 	<p style="text-align: center;">Hierarchical Levels</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Refers to the number of levels of management within the organisation. ➤ If there are many levels of management, then the organisation could be said to have a tall structure. ➤ If there are relatively few levels of management, then the organisation could be said to have a flat structure.
<p style="text-align: center;">Spans of Control</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Relates to the number of employees under the responsibility of any one manager/supervisor. ➤ If a small number of people report to one manager/supervisor, then it is considered to be a narrow span of control. ➤ If a large number of people report to one manager/supervisor then it is considered to be a wide span of control. 	<p style="text-align: center;">Departmentalisation</p> <p>Refers to how the various activities of the organisation are co-ordinated. Some Approaches:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Functional departmentalisation ➤ Product departmentalisation ➤ Geographical departmentalisation ➤ Customer departmentalisation

Structural Operation

- Formalisation
- Responsibility
- Decision-making
- Authority

Structural Operation	
<p style="text-align: center;">Formalisation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ The degree to which rules and procedures govern the tasks completed by the employees. ➤ A <i>highly formalised</i> organisation is one that has <i>many rules and procedures</i> outlining how the work should be done. ➤ <i>Lowly formalised</i> means <i>less rules and regulations</i> and greater opportunities for creativity. ➤ The most appropriate level of formalisation is depends on the ➤ nature of the business and the organisational culture. 	<p style="text-align: center;">Decision-Making</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Centralised or decentralised. ➤ Centralisation means that authority resides at the top of the organisation. ➤ Decentralisation means that decisions are taken at all levels of the organisation.
<p style="text-align: center;">Responsibility</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ To be effective an organisation must have clear lines of responsibility. ➤ People should be clear on who is responsible for what. ➤ Responsibility must be delegated to more than one person. 	<p style="text-align: center;">Authority</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ How Authority and power is achieved in an organisation ➤ From a person's <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Postion ○ Personal ○ Specialist Knowledge ○ Information

Leadership

As management thinking has developed over the years, there has been a move away from the more traditional approaches to managing people. Old 'command' approaches have become less and less effective, as peoples' attitudes have changed. Autocratic styles of managing people may have worked when employees were prepared to accept that approach, but as society has developed people in general have become less willing to accept these approaches.

Equally as the importance of the role of the employee to successful attainment of organisational objectives has become more recognised, the concept of leading people has replaced that of command-type approaches.

Therefore one of the key functions of any manager is to seek to lead their teams, as opposed to seeking to coerce or compel them to achieve goals. Leaders have always existed in wider society but the concept of a 'leader in the workplace' is a relatively new development. The following section provides an overview of some of the principle leadership theories which influence management thinking today. They include:

Leadership styles – Trait theories

The earliest theories of leadership focused upon the traits which were believed to be fundamental to the role of a Leader. Most studies prior to the 1950's sought to identify leadership traits, on the basis that most prominent leaders seemed to possess certain qualities and traits that set them apart from others.

The trait theories worked on the basis that Leaders are born not made and that leadership traits were present in an individual from birth.

This view of leadership is far less prominent today as it has been identified that many of the leadership traits can be developed. Naturally there are those who possess many of these traits naturally and therefore the leadership role comes more easily to them. However everyone can develop their leadership skills.....if they want to be in a leadership position in the first place.

The Decision-Making Continuum (Tannenbaum and Schmidt)

Tannenbaum and Schmidt believed that the various styles of Leadership could be identified across a continuum. At one end of the continuum there is the authoritarian style, closely resembling McGregors Theory X, whilst at the other end is the participative style, closely resembling Theory Y, as demonstrated overleaf:

Tells	The manager makes a decision and simply tells subordinates who must follow his instructions
Sells	The manager is more selective in the words they use when giving instructions. They seek to persuade staff members to follow their directions.
Explains	The manager seeks to involve the workforce by clearly explaining their decisions and the rationale behind them
Tests	The manager puts forward initial decisions allowing staff members to offer their points of view. They may change their decision depending upon the quality of the ideas put forward but the manager will still make the final decision
Selects	The manager presents the problem to staff and asks for suggestions from them, but makes the decision himself based on the suggestions offered
Consults	This involves a much more participative approach. Here the manager outlines the situation, and explains the limits within which the decision must be made. Suggestions are sought within this framework and a rational decision will be reached following a process of consultation with subordinates who have the opportunity to express their views.
Joins	This involves total participation by the workforce. The manager and subordinates consider the situation jointly and discuss possible solutions until a mutually acceptable situation is reached. Here the manager commits himself to abiding by the decision



*Tannenbaum, R and Schmidt, WH (1958) How to Choose a Leadership Pattern, Harvard Business Review.

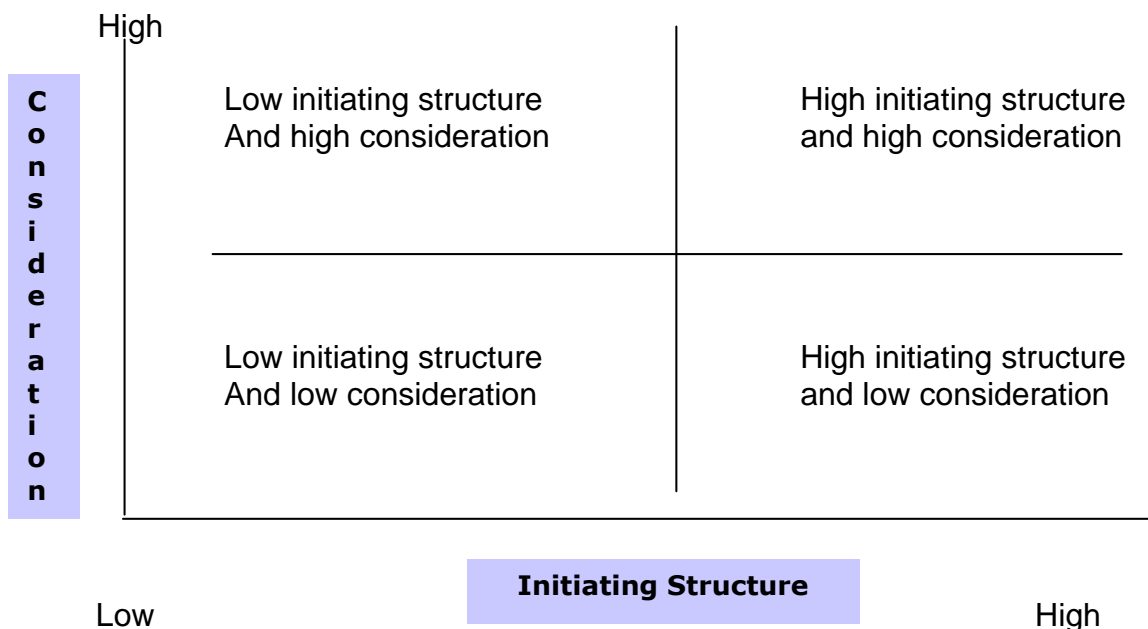
Ohio State University Leadership Models

These models were developed by researchers at Ohio State University in the US. They basically identified two styles of leadership, which they called **considerate** style and **initiating structure** style. The researchers believed that a considerate leadership style is one, which placed high importance on the status and well-being of employees. Leaders of this style devoted a lot of time to creating an effective work climate.

Considerate style leaders are less dependant on the formal authority which their position gives them and they often downplay it. They believe in a management approach which promotes a co-operative climate between the organisation and its employees.

Their style of leadership involves approaches such as: maintaining an open door approach to managing, frequent communication, offering regular feedback on performance. They seek to be a team player or facilitator rather than being viewed as a someone removed from the staff because of their position.

At the other side of the coin, **the initiating-structure** style focuses on process issues such as planning, organising, controlling and co-ordinating. They are more focussed on the task at hand with less emphasis on the employees needs. This leadership approach is identified by an approach which concentrates on scheduling work to specific employees; detailing job requirements; creating performance standards; and establishing rules and regulations to support the leadership system. The Four leadership styles can be depicted as follows:

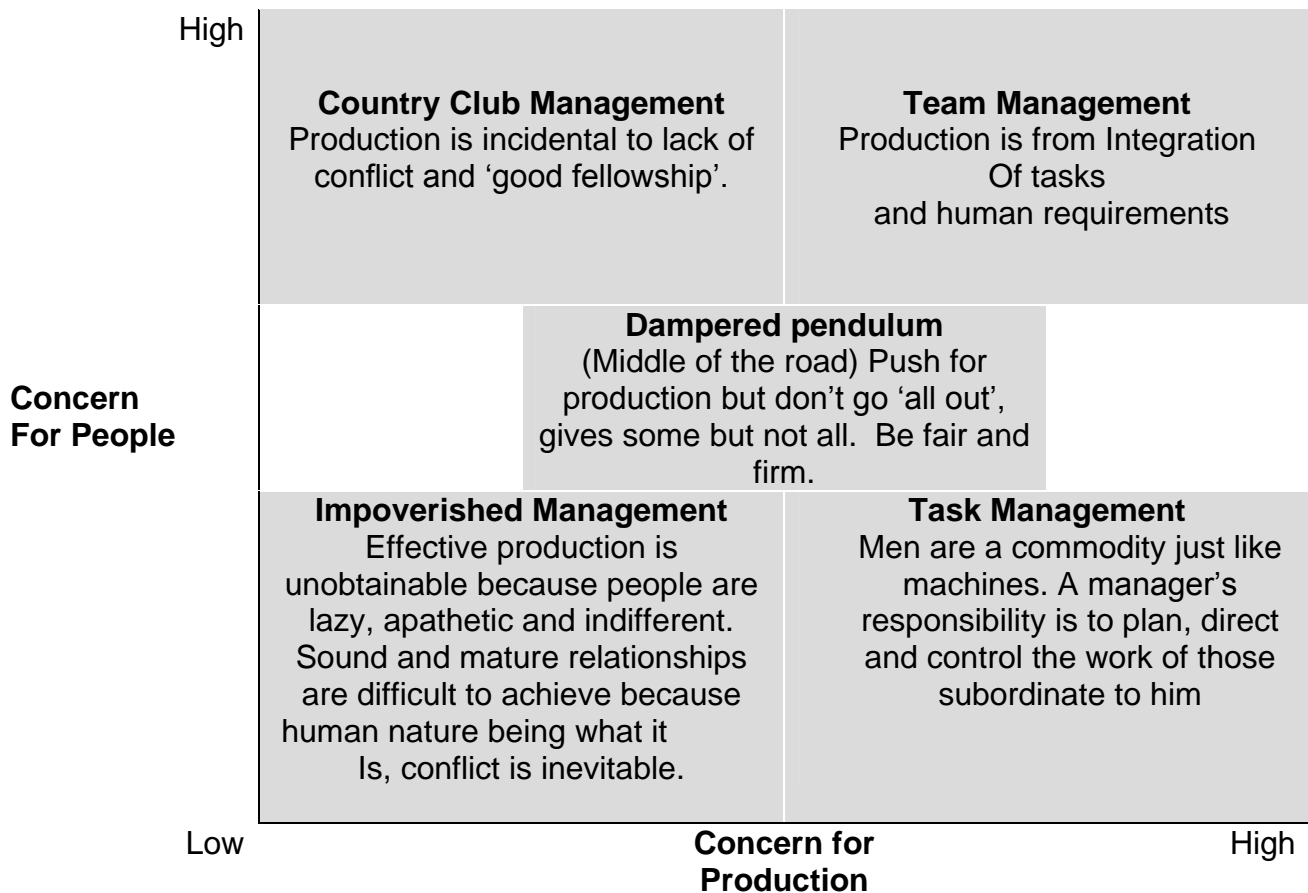


Through their research the Ohio State University team found that leaders who rated high in consideration and low in initiating structure had low turnover rates and high job satisfaction among their employees. On the other hand, high employee grievance and turnover rates correlated with leaders who were rated high in initiating structure and low in consideration.

The Managerial Grid (Blake and Mouton 1962)

A further development of the Ohio State University work was the managerial grid developed by Blake and Mouton (1962). The management grid is widely regarded and provides a framework for understanding and applying effective leadership.

The Blake and Mouton Grid



In the 1970's, Fred Fiedler conducted a series of studies dedicated to the leadership of work groups. Fiedler's research identified two main leadership styles – *'relationship motivated leaders'* and *'task motivated leaders'*. The relationship motivated leaders get their satisfaction from having good relationships with others and encourage participation and involvement. Task motivated leaders are strongly focused on the task and their key focus is getting the job done. Fielder believed that it was necessary to adopt a contingency approach to Leadership as the style of Leadership adopted was contingent on the nature of the task and the context in which this had to be done.

Situational Leadership

A further extension of Fielders theory is Situational Leadership, developed by Blanchard and Hersey. Situational leadership proposes that the best leaders adapt their style of leadership to the situation. They will take different approaches depending upon:

- The type of project, problem or situation
- The time pressures
- The skills and abilities of the individuals
- The level of commitment of the individuals
- the level of maturity of the team

The styles of leadership adopted can be described as follows:

Directing (S1)

Manager tells their staff what to do and how to do it leaving no room for individuals to take initiative.

Coaching (S2)

Manager is clear on the standards required and how they want the job done, but coaches the individuals so that they gain commitment and remember the correct method. This takes longer but helps to develop individuals, encourages initiative and is likely to gain more commitment.

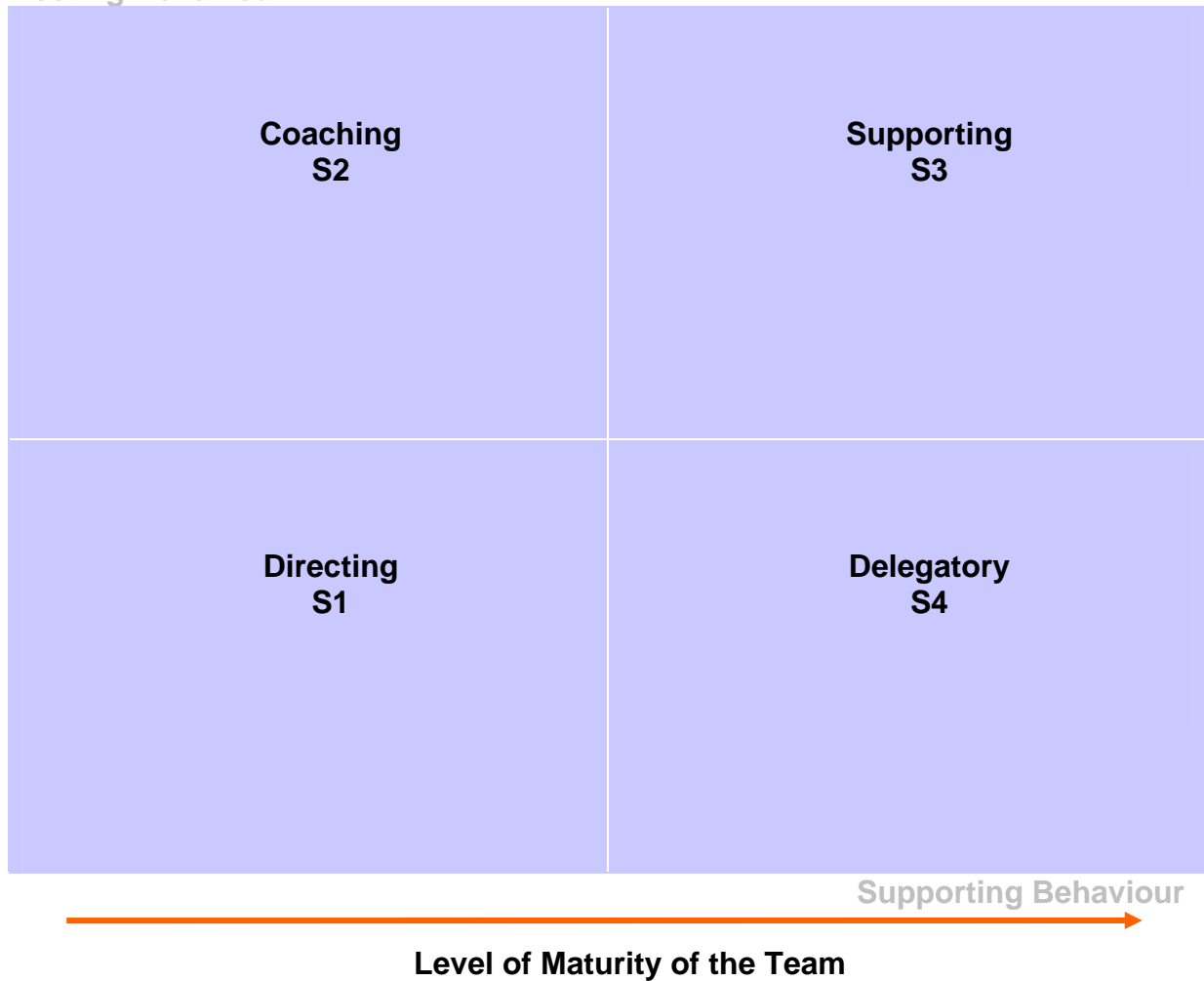
Supporting (S3)

The manager does not necessarily have all the answers, but gets ideas and opinions from their team. They tend to work with their staff to solve problems and achieve improvement. They use the talent available within the group.

Delegation (S4)

The manager allows the team or individuals to get on with the job, within defined limits of authority, as they know their team is competent enough to use their own initiative. The manager will monitor progress but will only intervene if serious problems arise.

Directing Behaviour



Leadership Qualities

Being an effective Leader is about many things and no one list could summarise all the qualities required. In any case one individual cannot possess every quality, and often some of the traits that make a particular leader successful are different from those of another. However there are qualities that can be identified as being common to most leaders such as:

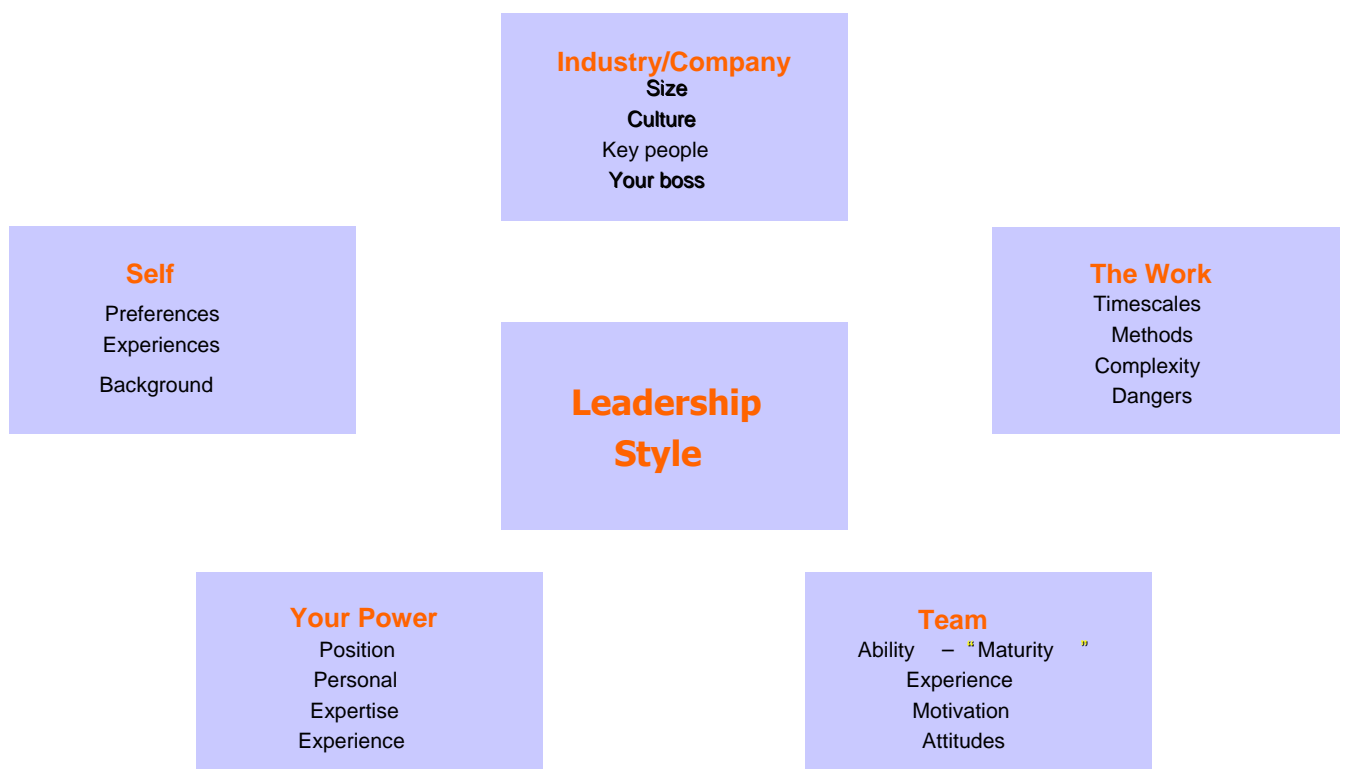
- Clear Vision and Goals – Forward Looking
- Excellent Communication Skills
- Assertiveness
- Energy/Inspirational
- Enthusiasm
- Honesty
- Fairness
- Approachability
- Modesty
- Self-Confidence
- Determination
- Competent

It should also be noted that being a good leader is not an accolade we can bestow on ourselves, as it those whom we lead that determine our success as a leader. Therefore we cannot force others to think of us as a good leader, but rather can only try to improve ourselves by developing the characteristics required to be effective leaders. The route to becoming an effective leader begins with an inward examination of ourselves. How do I currently rate in terms of the required skills for effective leadership? It is only through this process of self-examination and improvement that we can become better leaders. Yes for some people leadership comes naturally, but we should not limit ourselves by believing that 'Great Leaders are Born not Made'. We can all develop our leadership skills, if first and foremost we want to, and then if we are prepared to work very hard at it.

In his book 'Leading with NLP(Neuro-Linguistic Programming), Joseph O'Connor identifies three Pillars of Leadership:

- Authority – the position we hold
- Knowledge – what we know
- Example - our actions that inspire others to want to be like us

O'Connor believes that leadership through Authority alone is not enough in the modern business environment and that an effective leader must also have strong knowledge of their chosen field, as well as the ability to lead by example. Some managers rely on their position, and the authority it gives them, as the basis of their ability to manage others. This often results in a coercive style of leadership where managers who adopt this approach try to push or force employees to move in the direction they want them to go. When faced with resistance their only option is to push harder, which often results in even greater resistance. Effective leadership on the other hand is not about pushing people in a particular direction but focuses upon trying to attract them to a clearly defined vision. People are attracted to this vision partly because they believe in it(and indeed may have had input in determining it), but mostly because they believe in their leader and are willing to follow them



Motivation

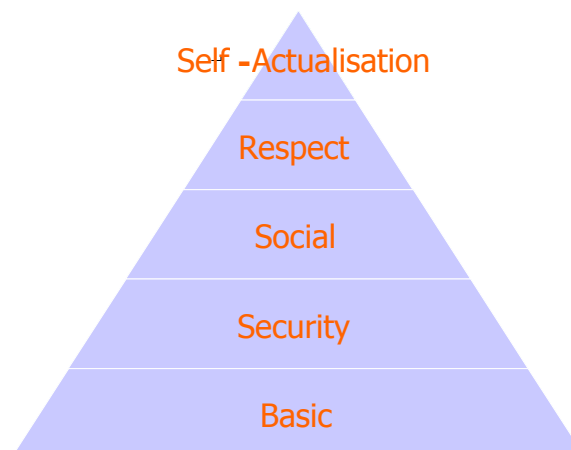
The study of motivation at work is a complex issue, and no one theory has been able to identify all the factors that motivate employees. Motivational research has largely focused on explaining why people behave as they do, or why people choose different forms of behaviour to achieve different ends. General principles of motivation have then been applied to the workplace.

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

One of the most widely known of the motivational theories, it was developed by Maslow who was a clinical psychologist. In his theory Maslow suggested that human motivation was dependant on the desire to satisfy various levels of needs:

1. **Psychological Needs** – include things such as food, shelter, clothing and heat.
2. **Safety Needs** – include things such as security at home, tenure at work and protection against reduced living standards.
3. **Social or love Needs** – refer to people's desire for affection and the need to feel wanted.
4. **Esteem Needs** – cover the desire for self-esteem and self-confidence.
5. **Self-actualisation** – refers to the need for self-fulfilment and self-realisation.

There has been widespread debate over the years regarding Maslow's theory and how it applies in a work context. Maslow in developing his theory focused on general studies of human behaviour and motivation and, as such, was not directly associated with matters central to the workplace.



McGregors Theory X, Theory Y

McGregor (1960) focused on attitudes of managers towards their employees and how these assumptions then affected their management style. McGregor outlined two alternative sets of assumptions concerning human nature that a manager might adopt which are known as **Theory X and Theory Y**.

Theory X depicted employees as inherently lazy and having to be coerced into work, whilst Theory Y maintained that employees liked work and wished to undertake challenging tasks. McGregor suggested that autocratic managers were likely to

subscribe to the assumptions of theory X, while the less autocratic were likely to work with the assumptions of theory Y.

Herzbergs -Two factor theory

Herzberg believed that certain aspects of the job itself created positive responses in employees, and these were known as *Motivators*. Other factors existed which affected productivity such as pay and conditions. These form part of the work environment but are outside of the job itself. When these factors are not positive they create dissatisfaction and are known as *Hygiene Factors*. Herzberg noted that Motivators led to satisfaction with the job, whilst Hygiene factors only promoted dissatisfaction. Even if the Hygiene factors were positive that did not necessarily mean that workers would be more motivated.

The most important Motivators identified by Herzberg were:	The most important Hygiene factors were:
<ul style="list-style-type: none">➤ Achievement➤ Recognition➤ The work itself➤ Responsibility➤ Advancement	<ul style="list-style-type: none">➤ Company Policy and Administration➤ Supervision➤ Salary➤ Interpersonal Relations➤ Working Conditions

Recent Developments in Motivation

Motivation research in recent years has examined how work may be structured to create greater motivation. This has focused on aspects of work such as:

- Job Enlargement
- Job Enrichment
- High Performance Work Teams

Job enrichment seeks to structure the workload so that an individual gains greater challenge and more interesting work. Job enlargement on the other hand attempts to increase the range of duties performed by an individual to reduce repetitiveness and boredom.

High performance work teams

The principle rationale behind the introduction of work teams is to increase competitiveness through more effective usage of Human Resources. The team is a group of employees who share a common set of objectives. High performance work teams are generally made up of small groups of individuals, up to twelve, who work with the same co-coordinator. Team members undergo training and development in brainstorming, effective interpersonal skills, problem solving, conflict handling, consensus building and decision-making. The teams are given clear directions and targets but allowed a high degree of autonomy in pursuit of their objectives.

Motivation - Quick Tip!

Learn to Lead

Examine Expectations

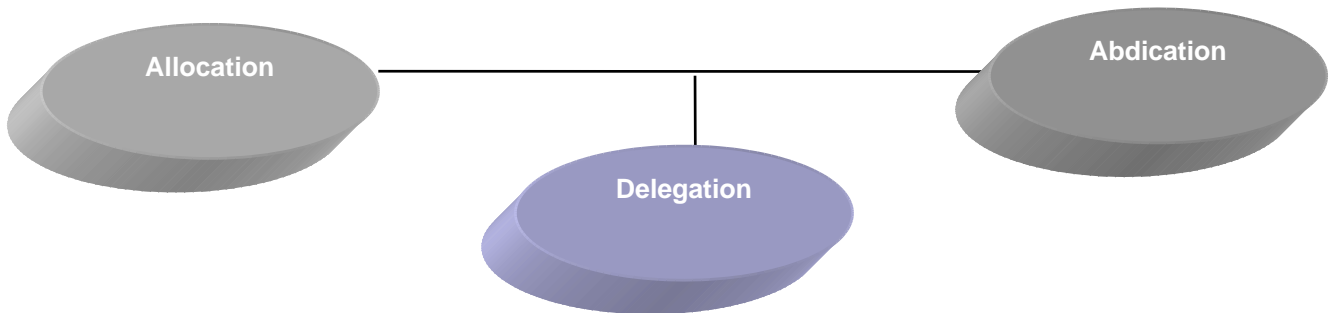
Adopt a Caring Approach

Respect People as Individuals

Never Stop Others from Developing

Delegation

- Delegation is not the same as getting others to do your work.
- There are certain duties which employees are required to complete, and the only action needed by the manager is to decide which member of the team should be given the work depending on workload etc.
- Delegation involves tasks that carry a larger degree of responsibility than these day to day tasks. You delegate responsibility to complete the task but you remain accountable for ensuring it is completed correctly.



Allocation (often mistaken for delegation) is a normal part of any leaders job. Once the correct style is used when dealing with employees, the allocation of work is a normal part of everyday life for the leader. Abdication on the other hand is the off-loading of work to subordinates because the leader is too lazy or disinterested to complete the work. This of course is to be avoided. Delegation on the other hand is where the leader delegates an important task (that is currently their responsibility) to one of their employees, as it will free the leaders time up to do something more important. The employee also benefits as they gain an opportunity to learn new things or develop their skills. Not all employees want to be delegated to and choosing the right employee to delegate to is an important step. Delegation should always be a structured process as shown below:



Control

The management function of control contributes to the achievement of organisational objectives and goals by measuring actual performance against expected results and taking corrective action where needed. Control is a necessary management function at all levels in the management hierarchy.

There are many different methods of control within an organisation and these can be broadly classified under two headings:

1. Financial Controls	2. Non-Financial Control
Budgetary control Break-even analysis Ratio analysis Production control Quality control	Project controls Management audits Inventory control

1. Financial Controls

Budgetary Control

Budgeting involves the formulation of plans for a given period in numerical terms. Budgetary control is the process of ascertaining what has been achieved and comparing this with the projections contained in the Budget. Examples of budgets include:

1. Revenue and expense budget
2. Time, space, material and production budget
3. Capital expenditure budget
4. Cash budget

Break-even Analysis

This involves the use of fixed and variable costs to analyse the point at which it becomes profitable to produce a good or service.

Ratio Analysis

Four basic types of financial ratios exist – liquidity, activity, profitability and leverage.

2. Non-Financial Controls

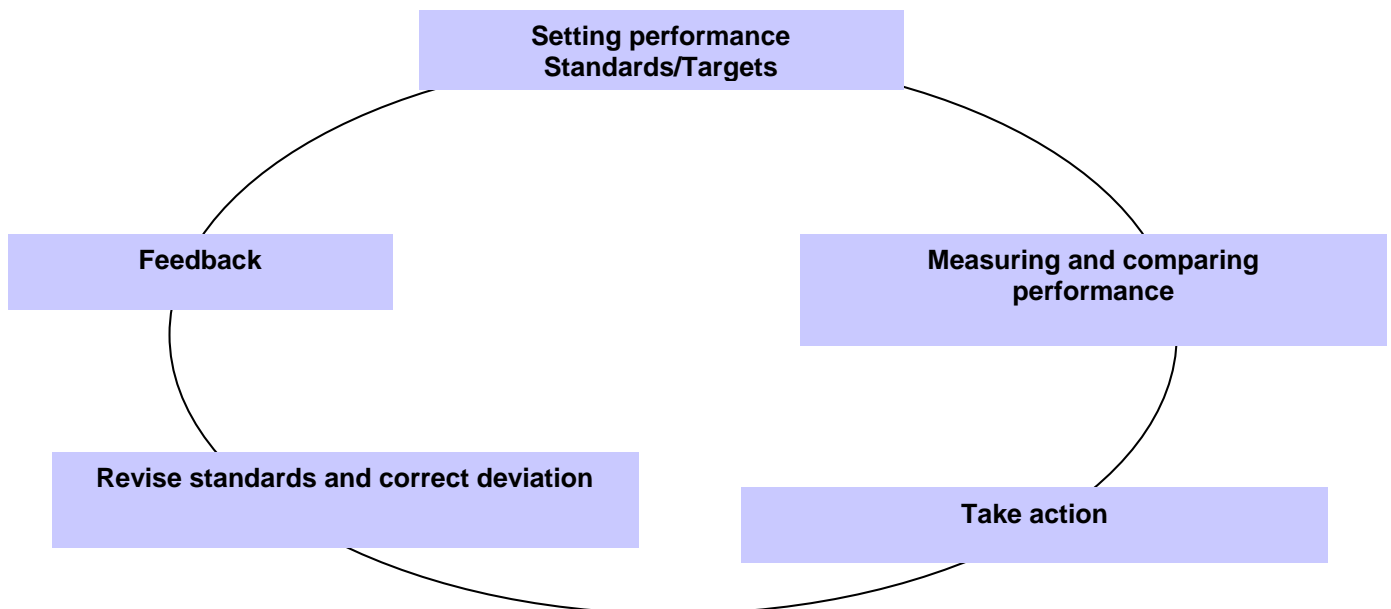
- Project Controls
- Management Audits
- Inventory Control
- Production Control
- Quality Control

Control typically involves measuring progress towards planned performance and, where necessary, applying corrective measures so that performance can be improved. Therefore, control is concerned with making sure that goals and objectives are attained. It's strongly related to planning in that for control to occur, objectives and plans have to be available against which to measure performance. In the modern organisation, control is the function of every manager. Top-level managers are concerned with controlling sales and profits. Middle managers are concerned with controlling direct labour hours and production outputs. Front line supervisors are concerned with controlling quality. To carry out effective control there must be:

- A. Plans, which indicate the targets or goals
- B. An organisation structure; in particular, a clear indication of the managers responsible for the actual results achieved and deviations from plan

The Control Process

The basic control process or control cycle in management has 5 stages:



Characteristics of an effective Control System

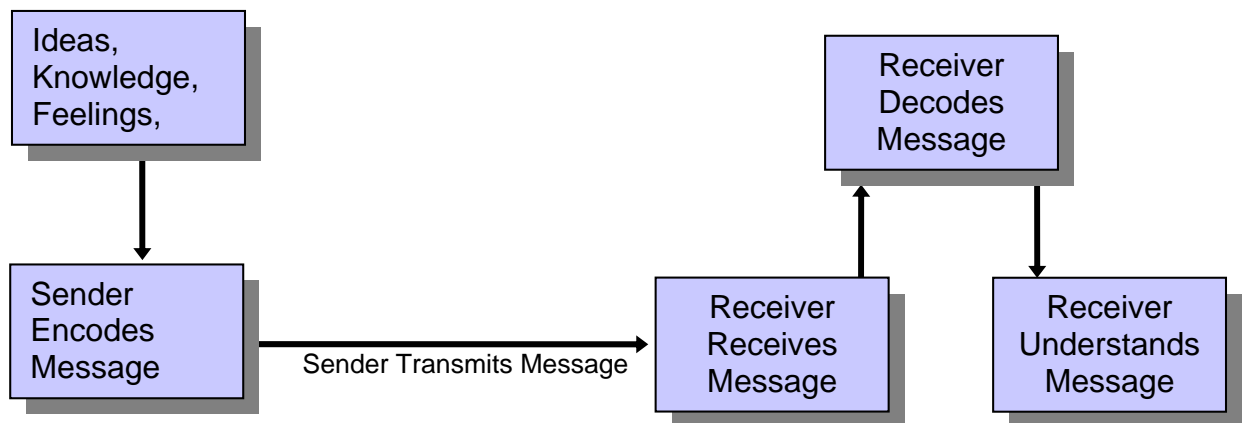
- Good quality of information.
- Control information should be relevant to the position of the manager and useable by him.
- Control reports and control information should be objective and should avoid subjective judgements. Objective standards can be either, *Quantitative* (e.g. costs, labour hours per unit, completion dates for a job etc.) but also *Qualitative* (e.g. the value of a training scheme can be measured by specific characteristics of the matters being taught or skills learned)
- Control information should be directed at critical control points. The types of critical point standards of performance which might be used are:
 - a. **Physical standards** (e.g. units of raw material per unit produced, labour hours per unit produced, labour hours per working week etc.)
 - b. **Cost standards.** These convert physical standards into a money measurement by the application of standard prices. For example, the standard labour cost of making product X might be 4 hours at £5.00 per hour = £20.00
 - c. **Capital standards.** These establish some form of standard for capital invested (e.g. the ratio of current assets to current liabilities, or gearing (the ratio of fixed interest capital to equity capital).
 - d. **Revenue standards.** These measure expected performance in terms of revenue earned, such as turnover per square metre of shelf space
 - e. **Standards for programme completion.** Performance might be measured in terms of actual completion dates for parts of a project.
 - f. **The achievement of goals.**
 - g. **Intangible standards.** These might relate to employee motivation, quality of service, customer goodwill, corporate image, product image etc.
- Controls should be economical.
- A guiding principle of control economy is that controls are efficient when they identify and explain the causes of important differences between actual performance and planned results with the minimum of costs.
- Control should be flexible and adaptable to new circumstances.
- The control system should be acceptable to the organisation's members.
- Controls should be tailored to the capabilities and personalities of individual managers. Controls should not be too sophisticated, either, using techniques of measurement and analysis which only a statistical or accounting 'expert' might understand.

Communication Skills

Perhaps the greatest skill we need as service providers is the ability to communicate effectively with others. Everything we do in our role as advisors involves some form of communication, yet in many ways we take communication for granted. Often we think of communication as us just saying things to others - But effective communication is not a one way process. **Communication can be defined as:**

“the shared understanding of ideas, knowledge and feelings”

This definition shows us that effective communication is a two-way process to achieve a shared understanding. If we look at the process involved when we communicate in graphic form we can see:



To ensure that a shared understanding is achieved from every communication the sender has certain responsibilities. **The sender should:**

- Know what they want to say
- Get the receivers attention
- Use the most appropriate method of communication
- Be clear and concise
- Check that message is received and understood.

A verbal message is transmitted in a number of ways:

Words - what we say - **Tone** - How we say it - **Non verbal** - Body language

Believe it or not research has shown that as little as 10% of the message is communicated by the actual words !!!!

Key Communication Skills

Listening	Questioning	Explaining	Observing	Verifying
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Before undertaking any form of communication you should always be clear in your mind what you hope to achieve. Ask yourself the following questions:

- ⇒ **What** message do I want to convey
- ⇒ **Why** am I conveying this message
- ⇒ **Who** needs to hear this message
- ⇒ **How** should I convey the message
- ⇒ **When** is the most appropriate time to convey the message
- ⇒ **Where** is the most appropriate place to convey the message

Assertiveness

Being Assertive when communicating is essential. Some people avoid saying what they really feel because they are afraid to ruffle any feathers, or sometimes people ignore comments from others because they are intimidated by them. There are those who adopt an aggressive stance when getting their point across. This may make people react, but it is not the most effective way to communicate with others and is often met with an aggressive response.

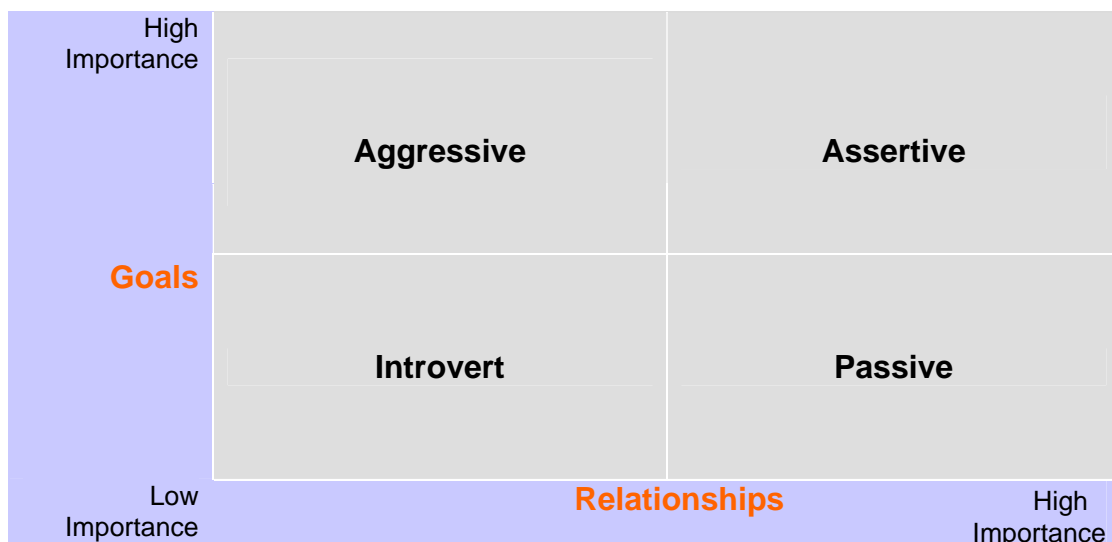
From an Advisor’s perspective effective Communication skills and increased Assertiveness are vital for success. However Assertiveness is sometimes confused with being Aggressive. They are not the same, and in fact are worlds apart. Let’s look at three types of behaviour:

Assertive Behaviour is: “being open, honest direct, confident, and asking for what you need whilst recognising that others have needs also.”

Aggressive behaviour is: “ being domineering, hostile, bullying and intimidating people to get what you want regardless of what others need “

Passive behaviour is: “ being insecure, withdrawn forsaking what you want to let others have what they want to avoid confrontation”

Assertiveness comes from within the individual, and begins with how you feel about yourself and the way you set about achieving what you want. The chart below demonstrates the different behaviours:



Here are some examples of how these behaviours are displayed:

	Passive	Assertive	Aggressive
Voice	quiet	clearly heard	loud
Language	unsure, vague 'might' 'maybe' 'If it isn't too much	direct, concise 'I want, need, have	argumentative, accusative 'You must, better
Eyes	Lowered	maintains eye contact	glares
Body Language	hunched	upright, open	rigid, forward, pointing finger
Attitudes	likes to please, easily persuaded	Knows what they want, prepared to listen	confrontational, intimidating, won't listen

Increasing your Assertiveness

Assertive behaviour can be developed and improved - it takes time. The starting point is to ask yourself 'Do I want to be more Assertive'. Nobody can force you to change but there are many advantages associated with being assertive. If you do want to start becoming more assertive, here are some tips to help get started:

- Maintain an upright body posture
- Maintain eye contact with others
- Use assertive language. Say 'I feel angry when you say that' **not** 'You make me angry when you say that'
- Express your feelings
- Smile because you want to not because you want people to like you.
- Powerful people smile when pleased.
- Powerless people smile to please.
- Use assertive language. Say 'I think, I believe etc.' **not** 'Can I say'
- Tell yourself constantly that you are important.
- Learn to say no – but only when it is the right thing to do, not just for the sake of it.

Team Briefings

One of the most common ways in which we communicate with our staff should be through the daily briefing. However many managers underestimate the importance of briefings and often carry them out in a haphazard way, if at all. On its own a 5/10 minute briefing each day doesn't seem important. But if carried out every day then their potential is enormous. A 10 minute briefing held every day would lead to 3650 minutes of communication with your team over a period of 1 year, or in other words **60 hours !!!**

A Team briefing can be described as:

“A system of communication that involves the leader briefly getting together with their team on a regular basis to discuss work related matters.”

Briefings can be used to:

- Communicate a common message
- Generate respect from your team
- Reduce misunderstanding
- Emphasise standards on a daily basis
- Improve Teamwork
- Encourage openness

Structure of a Briefing

To make the most of your briefings consider the following points;

1. Before the Briefing

Be clear what you want to say. Spend a few minutes thinking it through.
Have a set time/place
Keep it short

2. Introduction to the Briefing

Outline the key areas you want to discuss.
Encourage participation
Praise work well done

3. During the Briefing

Be clear concise.
Be enthusiastic.
Keep on the subject.
Encourage questions from team.
Check understanding by asking questions.

4. Concluding the Briefing

Summarise the key points.
Finish on a positive note.

Managing Meetings

Meetings - the nice alternative to work !

You may be aware that meetings can often be ineffective. Have you ever thought or heard other managers or supervisors say any of the following :

- 'What a waste of time that was'
- 'I might as well not have been there'
- 'Thank God that's over'
- 'What was that all about'
- 'I wonder how long this will take'
- 'They went on a bit didn't they'

Many meetings fail due to some or all of the following reasons

Lack of planning No agenda No control No direction Wrong time/place	Wrong people attending No participation No action agreed No follow up on previous action Going on too long
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Making meetings more effective

To make meetings more effective we must look at three aspects of the meeting:

1. Before the meeting
2. During the meeting
3. After the meeting

1. Before the meeting

Many meetings have failed before they start due to bad planning. To improve their effectiveness we must consider the following points beforehand:

- What is the purpose of the meeting/ What do we want to achieve?
- Who actually needs to be there?
- What is the most appropriate time to hold the meeting?
- Where is the best place to hold the meeting?
- What will be discussed - the Agenda?

To enable people attending the meeting to come prepared they should be aware of all the relevant details in advance including the Agenda. It is always sensible to allocate a certain time limit for each agenda point to assist keeping the meeting to schedule. Allow people to submit ideas in advance.

2. During the meeting

It is very important to start the meeting at the agreed time. If you don't it only sends out the wrong message. Meetings should be structured and controlled. The following structure can be used for a meeting:

- Introduction
- Main body
- Conclusion

Introduction

It is important that the person conducting the meeting establishes control early. The Introduction should cover;

- Greeting
- State the purpose/time of the meeting
- Outline the Agenda points
- Encourage participation - through the chair!
- emphasise time constraints
- Allocate responsibilities i.e. notetaker/timekeeper

Main Body

The 'chairperson should introduce each agenda point making initial points for discussion. As discussion takes place it is up to the 'chairperson' to:

- Maintain Control/participation
- Keep the discussion on track
- Allow involvement from all participants
- Prevent conflict from getting out of hand
- Keep to allocated time
- Summarise agreement/action on each agenda point

Conclusion

At the end of the meeting the chairperson should summarise all the points agreed ensuring that each participant is clear of the action they must take following the meeting and the completion date for that action. Participants should always be thanked for attending and for their participation. If there has been latecomers the chairperson should re-emphasise the necessity for arriving on time. The time and date for the next meeting should also be highlighted.

3. After the Meeting

The agreed points at the meeting should be typed up and circulated to the participants. The chairperson should check progress on these action points before the next meeting. It is also useful to discuss with the participants how they felt the meeting went. Feedback is always useful - even if you don't like what you hear as it helps to make the next one better.

Presentation Skills

The ability to deliver presentations may not be one of your key priorities at present but it will grow in importance as you move up the managerial ladder. In any case making a presentation is one way in which you can improve your ability to communicate with others, as many of the key communication skills are used when making a presentation. They are also a useful tool to help develop your assertiveness and self - confidence.

We have all sat through a boring presentation at some stage and know what it's like to be on the receiving end. Therefore we must try to ensure that when the opportunity arises we can avoid the common pitfalls. There are many points to consider when seeking to make a presentation. These can be grouped into two areas:

1. Preparation
2. Delivery

1. Preparation

When preparing for a presentation, remember the key questions to ask yourself:

- ☞ **What** message do I want to convey? (Content)
- ☞ **Why** am I conveying this message? (Purpose)
- ☞ **Who** is will I be making the presentation to? (Audience)
- ☞ **How** am I going to get my point across?(Delivery)
- ☞ **When** will the presentation take place and how long do I have? (Time)
- ☞ **Where** will I be making the presentation? (Location)

These questions will help you to clarify your thoughts when preparing for the presentation.

Preparation is the key to a successful presentation. You should have a clear objective and all your preparation should be geared towards achieving that objective. When preparing the topic to be presented the following 3 part structure can be of assistance:

- Introduction
- Main Body
- Conclusion

Introduction

The initial impression you create is very important. You will go a long way to either gaining or losing the attention of your audience, by what you say in the first few minutes. In your introduction tell the audience:

- ◆ What you are going to talk about - your title
- ◆ The key points you will cover
- ◆ How long it will last
- ◆ How you propose to deal with their questions
- ◆ Whether you have supporting documentation to give them or whether they need to take notes (depending upon the nature of the presentation).

Some presenters like to make an attention grabbing statement, or use humour early in their presentation to attract the audience. This can be a good idea depending upon the nature of the presentation. If you do take this approach make sure it has the desired effect!!!!

When preparing your presentation you will require some notes to assist your delivery. It is important to keep them brief and highlight them in some way so that they can easily be referred to during the presentation. However there is no substitute for knowing your topic well - notes should only be there to guide you.

Main Body

When preparing your presentation think of all the information you **could** give the audience first (you could use a 'buzz map' to help you with this). Then consider your objective and narrow down your points by thinking about what you **must** and **should** tell them in order to achieve your objective. Also keep in mind the time available to you. If it is a technical subject make sure that you use terminology that will be appropriate for the audience. Don't blind them with science.

This will help you define the key points for your presentation. You will give an overview of these key points during your introduction. The main body of your presentation should follow the key points as outlined. It is important that your points are in logical order and link well together to ensure that your presentation flows naturally, and makes sense to the audience.

The use of visual aids should also be considered as part of your preparation. It is important not to have too many visual aids and to ensure that they are of good quality, easy to understand, and easy to read.

Conclusion

Your presentation should always include a summary at the end. If your presentation is long you should also have intermediate summaries as part of the main body. It is important to refresh the key points for your audience - but make sure it is only a summary.

Once you have summarised your key points you should thank your audience for listening and allow them an opportunity to ask you questions.

Practice

This structure will help you prepare for the presentation. However there is no substitute for practicing in advance. Run through the presentation a few times in front of colleagues, family or friends. This will help you to be more relaxed on the day and you will also get an idea of whether you have got the timing right for the presentation. Most of all this will give you an opportunity to get feedback from an 'audience' on your performance.

2. Delivery

You may have prepared what you believe is an excellent presentation, but it must then be delivered effectively. Too often what is potentially an interesting subject in terms of content is lost through poor delivery. Remember your audience will not only make judgements about the content of your presentation by the way it is delivered - but they will also make judgements about you and your ability too!!

To make the best delivery possible a number of factors must be considered:

- Positioning
- Body language
- Eye Contact
- Visual Aids
- Voice projection - Tone and Pitch
- Using Humour

Some tips

Before the presentation:

Remember the importance of your appearance when communicating. Make sure you look your best and choose clothes that are appropriate for the type of presentation you are giving. Remember your audience will see you from head to toe and will have quite some time to check you out.

If you are unfamiliar with the venue for the presentation visit it in advance. It is helpful to have a mental picture of where you will be presenting. Also check out their audio-visual facilities making sure they can accommodate your needs.

Prepare easy to read notes, perhaps on small cards. Don't have too many, as it will detract from your interaction with the audience.

Arrive early on the day, set up in plenty of time and if possible do a quick dry run.

Once you have set up and completed your dry run, spend some time on your own. Get some fresh air and try to think of something else. Many people suffer mental panic attacks thinking they have forgotten everything but if you have prepared well this will not happen; it's only a nervous reaction. Try to replace your negative thoughts with positive ones. For some people it helps to tell yourself over and over that you can do it or you will do it well. Positive self-affirmation can be very useful.

About 15 minutes before you are due to start do a quick double check that everything is ready - remember Murphy's Law. Take all coins, keys pens etc. out of your pockets now. This will prevent you jangling them during the presentation. Give a final check to your appearance - make sure you look the part. A quick look in a full length mirror will put your mind at ease.

Take some deep breaths, and sip some cold water. Coffee and Tea can heighten anxiety for some people. Make sure you have some water close to you during the presentation. Nerves can make your mouth dry up. If that happens stop briefly and take a sip.

During the Presentation

- Make good eye contact with all your audience; don't just focus on one area.
- Speak clearly at an even pace but don't shout at your audience. Vary the tone of your voice and emphasise key words as appropriate.
- Movement can be good during the presentation but avoid moving too quickly, rocking side to side or other nervous movements.
- Use positive hand gestures to support your message but again make sure they are supporting what you say not distracting from it.
- When using your Visual Aids, look at the audience; don't turn your back to face the screen.
- Keep your hands away from your mouth when you are talking.
- Don't fiddle with pen, notes, pointers etc., this will distract people and highlight your nervousness.
- If you use humour make sure it is appropriate and more importantly make sure it is funny. Not everyone can carry it off and the last thing you want is to drop *lead balloons!!!!*
- Remember even if you think you appear to be very nervous, it is rarely as bad as you imagine. If you have prepared well, then you will do well.

After the presentation

As soon as you can after the presentation review your own performance. Think about how you could improve for the next one. Also if you know some of the audience well, ask them for their opinion. Constructive feedback helps to enhance future performance.

Please contact us by email, if you would like a printable copy of this guide