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**MODULE FOUR ASSIGNMENT WORK**

**1. What are the differences between a disaster and emergency?**

Disasters and emergencies are fundamental reflections of normal life. They are consequences of the way society structure themselves, economically and socially; the way societies and states interact; and the way that relationships between the decision makers are sustained. The disaster emanates from the fact that certain communities or groups are forced to settle in areas susceptible to the impact of ranging river or a volcanic eruption. The magnitude of each disaster, be in terms of deaths, property damage or costs for a given developing country increases with the increment of marginalization of the population. As the population increases, the best land in both rural and urban areas is taken up, and those seeking land for farming or housing are forced to accept inadequate land. These offer less productivity and a smaller measure of physical or economic safety.

**Disasters:**

Disasters have become a part of the everyday life of mankind in all the regions of the globe. The disruptive nature of a disaster withholds the functions of everyday life causing adverse effects to social, human, economic, political, environmental concerns. The causes of a disaster may be of a varied nature and a substantial portion of risk is also attached. Ahrens and Rudolph (2006) viewed disasters as a function of the risk process, which is a result of a combination of hazard, conditions of vulnerability and inefficient capacity or measures to reduce the negative consequences of risk. Hence some disastrous events are inevitable in modern societies and there is no doubt that disasters are intriguing social phenomena in any country (Kim and Lee, 1998).

Sundnes and Birnbaum describe disasters as a mismatch between resources and tasks, whether caused by natural or avoidable man-made (non-natural) events. The economic, political, psychological, social and ecological consequences are wide-ranging irrespective of whether it is natural or non-natural. Peek and Sutton (2003) highlighted that over the past century, disaster events have grown increasingly complex in their origins as well as their impacts on the environment, economies and the human beings. Coleman (2006) concluded that man-made disasters in industrialized countries are increasing exponentially, largely due to growth of fires and explosions, with only part of the increase from nuclear power. He also highlights that confirmation of anecdotal evidence of an increase in the number of disasters has serious policy implications as it points to an inability of traditional regulation and corporate governance to effectively manage risks and achieve industrial safety.

NeSmith (2006) interprets a disaster as an act of God or event outside human control which causes a larger loss of human, environmental, and/or financial resources. There is a heavy impact of human activities on natural environment through the pollution of air, water and soil leading to environmental degradation, global warming etc. These may have an adverse influence on natural cycles which is an underpinning cause for natural disasters. Hence it is important to promote preparedness to handle a natural disaster. Shook (1997), has pointed out that estimating manageability levels of hazards alone (without considering vulnerable elements) may be particularly appropriate in assessment of man-made, preventable hazards, but impractical for natural hazards which are usually impossible to prevent.

Disaster is defined as a sudden calamitous event bringing great damage, loss, or destruction; a sudden or great misfortune or failure. A disaster is an occurrence disrupting the normal conditions of existence and causing a level of suffering that exceeds the capacity of adjustment of the affected community. It is the people who matter most, and without the people we have no disaster.

Several definitions are frequently given to disaster. The World Health Organization (WHO) defines a disaster as “a sudden ecological phenomenon of sufficient magnitude to require external assistance”. It is also defined as any event, typically occurring suddenly, that causes damage, ecological disruption, loss of human life, deterioration of health and health services, and which exceeds the capacity of the affected community on a scale sufficient to require outside assistance (Landsman, 2001). It is an emergency of such severity and magnitude that the resultant combination of deaths, injuries, illness, and property damage cannot be effectively managed with routine procedures or resources.

Disaster is further defined as an event in which a society or a community undergoes acute deprivation of food and other basic necessities due to natural and manmade calamities to such an extent that the normal function of the society or the community is disrupted and that it cannot subsist without outside intervention

**Emergency:**

Emergency is defined as an unforeseen combination of circumstances or the resulting state that calls for immediate action; an urgent need for assistance or relief. Emergencyis a state in which normal procedures are suspended and extra-ordinary measures are taken in order to avert a disaster. An emergency can be defined in the context of the social, political and epidemiological circumstances in which it occurs.

A disaster will likely affect more people and will have more devastating consequences than that of an emergency. An emergency can turn into a disaster while a disaster is inherently an emergency situation, if noticed ahead of time. Not all bad results of an emergency will reach the level of disaster. When we think of disaster and emergency, we consider a disaster to be widespread, regional, or wider. Examples of a disaster may be the consequences of severe weather such as a hurricane, tornado, or flooding. An economic meltdown followed by a rapid devaluation of currency would be considered a disaster, affecting countless millions of people.

More so, an emergency is a situation that requires immediate attention, a situation that could lead to disaster if left alone or unattended. Or, maybe it will not, although it may seem like it to you nonetheless. A disaster does not have to be preceded by an emergency. A disaster may come on quickly and without warning, a black-swan event, but not necessarily so. An asteroid strike to the planet could bring about major disaster without an ’emergency’ before it. If we saw the asteroid coming weeks ahead of time, you could say that we had an emergency on our hands.

Furthermore, an emergency is a situation which may be an impending crisis, and is always something that requires quick or immediate attention. A disaster is a done deal, in that the damage is done, while it may leave behind countless emergencies as the damage unfolds into subordinate events which may themselves last for a long time until they are cleared up or written off.

Emergency is a state in which normal procedures are suspended and extra-ordinary measures are taken in order to avert a disaster

**Examples of Disaster and Emergency:**

**Disaster**

A solar flare/CME event unleashes an EMP (electro-magnetic-pulse) which takes down the electrical power grid of 2/3 the United States. This is a disaster for sure. The Hayward Fault in California rips a magnitude 7.5 earthquake which destroys tens of thousands of homes, injures thousands, and kills hundreds in a highly populated area outside of San Francisco. The electrical power, natural gas, and water utilities are all damaged and offline in the region. A major regional disaster affecting millions.

A declared ‘Greek default’ triggers an economic tsunami as credit-default-swaps are called to perform while the issuers of the insurance do not have the assets and liquidity to pay the bondholders. The major banks and institutions are too leveraged and all fall like dominoes, setting off a new Greater Depression that lasts 13 years. While not a geophysical disaster, a man-made disaster such as this can be just as devastating or even worse.

**Emergency**

When you are at work and rioting has broken out in the streets outside from an angry mob who has lost their government cheese and are smashing storefront windows and lighting cars on fire in protest. It is an emergency and you need to bug-out safely or ‘bug in’. You are awakened in the middle of the night as an intruder has just invaded your home in search of valuables, or worse. Your heart is pounding as you realize what is happening, and you reach for your firearm. It is an emergency.

It is winter and you are traveling in your vehicle through the snowy mountains on the way to your destination. You are not on the main roads, and you swerve to avoid a deer which suddenly leaped out from the side of the road. You skid off the road down a moderate embankment, you have been injured, and you know that they will not be able to see you from up on the road. It is an emergency.

Disaster and Emergency are two different things, they are sometimes confusing, but they are often related. At Modern Survival Blog.com we often speak of these words, while they each have their place and context with regards to survival and emergency preparedness.

**2. What are the traits a leader in an emergency setting should have?**

If you think you might like to pursue work in the field of disaster planning or emergency response, you might be wondering what personality traits are ideal for emergency management professionals to possess. Analysts at the US Department of Labor have access to a broad range of employment data, and their report on the employment of [emergency management directors](https://www.bls.gov/ooh/management/emergency-management-directors.htm#tab-4) gives us some fantastic insights on the most important qualities that an emergency management professional needs to have:

**Leadership Ability**

An emergency management professional needs to be unwavering in his or her ability to take charge of an emergency situation and guide other people through it with clear, actionable instructions to follow. A person who lacks the necessary strength of character to accomplish this is likely to fail when an actual emergency arises.

The ability to command respect from colleagues, subordinates and the public is an essential component of the required leadership skills. Before and during emergencies, the emergency management professional will often need to train others in correct safety protocols, how to allocate resources properly and how to prioritize their task lists. For the group to function effectively before or during an emergency, it is essential for other group members to respect and recognize the emergency management professional’s leadership rather than undermine it.

**Exceptional Oral and Written Communication Skills**

It’s a rare individual who can both speak and write exceptionally well, but an emergency management professional must possess both skill sets. Clear, direct oral communication skills are mandatory when leading others through real emergency situations. Outstanding written communication abilities are important before emergencies strike, because the emergency manager must be able to communicate their disaster response plans to their colleagues, to government officials and to the public.

**Interpersonal Skills**

Emergency management professionals must be able to work with, and make themselves understood by, many different personality types from varying backgrounds. It’s essential that they have the ability to get along with others well and act professionally at all times, even when disagreements arise.

**The Ability to Make Quick and Definitive Decisions Under Pressure**

The emergency management professional must have the ability to remain calm and make the best possible decisions even under the most stressful and time-sensitive circumstances. Lives, property and money are often at stake during emergencies, and the emergency manager must be able to decisively act to protect the assets they’ve been trusted with.

**Exceptional Analytical Abilities**

Emergency management professionals need to be able to anticipate problems and apply logic to solve them as efficiently as possible. They need to be able to analyze the pros and cons of each possible solution to a problem. When an emergency strikes, they need to have the ability to choose the most ideal solution considering the likeliest outcomes. They need to take into consideration all the associated risks and possible costs. All this is necessary even in cases where the emergency is unexpected, and no clear plan of action had been formulated for that particular type of disaster in advance.

These are some of the main characteristics that will be most beneficial to you if you plan to seek work in emergency management. Now that you know which personality traits are most helpful for emergency management professionals, you’re better positioned to analyze whether your own temperament, disposition and skill set are a suitable match for this line of work.

**3. Stress has both advantages and disadvantages. What the four major advantages of stress and four disadvantages of stress.**

The American Psychological Association’s [Stress in America survey](http://www.apa.org/news/press/releases/stress/) discovered that recent stress levels in the U.S. population are 4.9 on a 10-point scale, with 10 being the highest level of stress. The most common stress sources are money, work, the economy, family responsibilities, and health concerns.

Stress is actually useful. Without stress, we would not be here to talk about stress. If our hunter-gatherer ancestors did not experience some stress when that lion was roaming around their sleeping quarters, or when those red berries looked good but also emitted a strange odor, they would have been eaten or poisoned. Hence, our ancestors experienced stress and used it to their advantage so that they could procreate, allowing us to have this discussion today.

Even in modern society, stress is useful. If college students did not experience any stress over tests, they probably wouldn't study or show up for class. If workers didn't experience stress about project deadlines, they might end up getting fired. So, stress keeps us accountable for our actions. It motivates us and inspires us to be better citizens.

Unfortunately, there are equally as many reasons why stress is bad. Whereas mild stressors such as what to get your spouse for his or her birthday are motivating, major stressors can be debilitating. For instance, caring for a loved one who has a chronic illness is a serious stressor. Chronic or major stressors are extremely taxing on the brain and the body, possibly leading to [depression](https://www.psychologytoday.com/us/basics/depression) and other mental health consequences, as well as physical health issues.

**Advantages of Stress**

We hear over and over again that [stress is unhealthy](https://www.health.com/health/stress-management/). And all that talk makes us, well, stressed. But getting worked up isn't always a bad thing, says Richard Shelton, MD, vice chair for research in the Department of Psychiatry at the University of Alabama Birmingham; after all, the body's fight-or-flight response is meant to be protective, not harmful.

It is only when stress becomes chronic, or when we feel we're no longer in control of a situation, that it negatively affects our health and wellbeing. Here, then, are some of the reasons you should rest easier when it comes to everyday stress and how a little short-term anxiety can actually benefit your brain and body;

**It helps boost brainpower**

Low-level stressors stimulate the production of brain chemicals called neurotrophins, and strengthen the connections between neurons in the brain. In fact, this may be the primary mechanism by which exercise (a physical stressor) helps boost productivity and concentration, Dr. Shelton says. Short-term psychological stressors, he adds, can have a similar effect, as well. Plus, animal studies have suggested that the body's response to stress can [temporarily boost memory](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/?term=Accute+stress+enhances+adult+rate+hippocampal+neurogenesis+and+activation+of+newborn+neurons+via+secreted+astrocytic+FGF2) and learning scores.

**It can increase immunity**

"When the body responds to stress, it prepares itself for the possibility of injury or infection," says Dr. Shelton. "One way it does this is by producing extra interleukins chemicals that help regulate the immune system providing at least a temporary defensive boost." Research in animals support this idea, as well: A 2012 Stanford study found that subjecting lab rats to mild stress produced a "massive mobilization" of several types of [immune cells](http://med.stanford.edu/news/all-news/2012/06/study-explains-how-stress-can-boost-immune-system.html) in their bloodstreams.

**It can make you more resilient**

Learning to deal with stressful situations can make future ones [easier to manage](https://www.health.com/health/article/0,,20412184,00.html), according to a large body of research on the science of resilience. It's the idea behind Navy SEAL training, Dr. Shelton says although you can certainly benefit from less extreme experiences, as well. "Repeated exposure to stressful events gives SEALs the chance to develop both a physical and psychological sense of control, so when they're in actually combat they don't just shut down," he says.

This idea may even hold true at a cellular level: A 2013 University of California San Francisco study found that while chronic stress promotes oxidative damage to our DNA and RNA, [moderate levels of perceived daily stress](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23490070) actually seem to protect against it and enhance "psychobiological resilience."

**It motivates you to succeed**

Good stress, also known in the scientific community as eustress, may be just the thing you need to get job done at work. "Think about a deadline: It's staring you in the face, and it is going to stimulate your behavior to really manage the situation effectively, rapidly, and more productively," says Dr. Shelton. The key, he says, is viewing stressful situations as a challenge that you can meet, rather than an overwhelming, impassable roadblock.

Eustress can also help you enter a state of "flow," a [heightened sense of awareness](http://www.ted.com/talks/mihaly_csikszentmihalyi_on_flow) and complete absorption into an activity, according to research from psychologist Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi. Flow can be achieved in the workplace, in sports, or in a creative endeavor (such as playing a musical instrument), and Csikszentmihalyi argues that it's driven largely by pressure to succeed.

**It can enhance child development**

Moms-to-be often worry that their own anxiety will negatively affect their unborn babies and it can, when it's unrelenting. But a 2006 Johns Hopkins study found that most children of women who reported mild to moderate stress levels during pregnancy actually showed [greater motor and developmental skills](http://www.jhsph.edu/news/news-releases/2006/dipietro-stress.html) by age 2 than those of unstressed mothers. The one exception: the children of women who viewed their pregnancy as more negative than positive had slightly lower attention capacity.

**Disadvantages of stress:**

Stress is an unavoidable part of our daily lives. What was originally meant to increase survival rates and aid instincts has now transitioned into an inextricably linked factor present in most all life experiences and interactions. Being overly stressed can have extremely negative effects on both physical and mental health. We live in a society that for some reason glorifies stress. We are more likely to praise the broke college student juggling their studies along with jobs and multiple campus organizations or an office tycoon balancing multiple accounts at once opposed to less involved lifestyles that are generally accompanied by less stress or stress that is more easily handled.

While it is true stress can affect everyone in different ways, it is incredibly important to learn healthy coping mechanisms early on in order to handle different stressors in life. For example, Rachel Goldman, a psychologist specializing in health and disordered eating, has studied unhealthy food-related coping mechanisms: “There is a reason you turn to these foods when you are stressed out. You are experiencing a concept called ‘emotional hunger.’ Goldman conducted a study on bariatric patients to show the difference between stress eating and binge eating. Binge eating is when someone eats a large amount of food quickly at then feels guilt about eating that food. Stress eating is impulsive, but it’s not always followed by guilt” (CNN, 2017).

The availability of food and its sugary addictiveness has become a viable option for stress-release which has only increased levels of obesity and type II diabetes. Likewise, in a new study comparing blood pressure and risk of heart disease, 157 men and 153 women, ages 30 to 51, were recruited. They underwent “brain scans while hooked up to blood pressure and heart rate monitors. The participants also completed tasks designed to frustrate” (EWN, 2017). Peter Gianaros of the University of Pittsburgh told Reuters Health, “We are trying to basically decode brain patterns that can tell us about a person’s sensitivity to stress that might be connected with their risk of heart disease” (EWN, 2017). This particular study found that stress directly impacted health. With Gianaros’ study in London, “researchers found that a particular pattern of brain activity during frustrating and stressful situations was tied to a larger-than-expected increase in blood pressure” (EWW, 2017).

It is important to realize what environmental factors affect individuals in order to best equip them with appropriate ways to handle stress. When stress is not properly dealt with, people can be at risk for health problems and suffer from depression and other unhealthy mental states that often stem from comparing other’s abilities to handle stress with one’s own. When chronic stress begins to decrease immunity function and cause insomnia and headaches, it is necessary to realize lifestyle choices or coping mechanisms may need to be changed. Stress relief varies from person to person. While exercise, yoga, meditation, or massage therapy might work for some, others may need to verbalize their stressors.

The accumulated stresses of everyday life can damage your health in irreversible ways from early aging to heart problems to long-term disability. Some people believe stress makes them perform better. But that’s rarely true. Research consistently shows the opposite that stress usually causes a person to make more mistakes. Besides making you forget where you put your keys, stress also can have dramatic negative impacts on your health and below are some of the disadvantages of stress;

**Stress makes it difficult to control your emotions**

It is no secret that stressed people can fly off the handle. But new research reveals just how little stress is actually required for you to lose your cool. A [2013 study](http://www.pnas.org/content/110/37/15139.abstract) by neuroscientists found that even mild levels of stress can impair our ability to control our emotions. In the study, researchers taught subjects stress control techniques. But after participants were put under mild stress by having their hands dunked in icy water they could not easily calm themselves down when shown pictures of snakes or spiders. “Our results suggest that even mild stress, such as that encountered in daily life, may impair the ability to use cognitive techniques known to control fear and anxiety,” lead author Candace Raio, Ph.D., said in a press release.

**Stress can promote disease**

Some people are more prone to certain diseases, and chronic stress can give these conditions the green light. Stress has been linked to illnesses that include cancer, lung disease, fatal accidents, suicide, and cirrhosis of the liver. Researchers at [Johns Hopkins University](http://education.jhu.edu/PD/newhorizons/strategies/topics/Keeping%20Fit%20for%20Learning/stress.html) have discovered that children exposed to chronic stress are more likely to develop a mental illness if they are genetically predisposed.

**Stress can affect your love life**

Sex is a pleasurable and effective way to relieve stress. But stress can also get you out of the mood quicker than you think. A [1984 study](http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.3109/01485018408987495) found that stress can affect a man’s body weight, testosterone levels, and sexual desire. Numerous studies have shown that stress especially performance anxiety can lead to impotence. High levels of stress in pregnant women also may trigger changes in their children as they grow specifically behavioral and developmental issues.

**Stress can ruin your teeth and gums**

Some people respond to stressful situations through nervous tics or by grinding their teeth. While people often grind their teeth unconsciously or when they sleep, it can do lasting damage to your jaw and wear your teeth thin. A multi-university [study](http://www.knowyourteeth.com/infobites/abc/article/?abc=e&iid=324&aid=1249) in 2012 also linked stress to gum disease. Researchers concluded that the pressures of marriage, parenthood, work, or lack of romantic involvement were factors in periodontal disease. But those at greatest risk were people who became highly emotional when dealing with stress caused by their finances.

**Stress can ruin your heart**

Stress can physically damage your heart muscle. Stress damages your heart because stress hormones increase your heart rate and constrict your blood vessels. This forces your heart to work harder, and increases your blood pressure. According to the [American Institute of Stress](http://www.stress.org/stress-and-heart-disease/), the incidence rate of heart attacks and sudden death increases after major stress inducing incidents, like hurricanes, earthquakes, and tsunamis.

**Stress can make you gain weight**

In the ancient days of hunter-gatherers, harsh conditions forced people to eat as much as possible when food was available in order to store up for lean times. That compulsion lives on inside us, and comes out when we are stressed. Researchers at the University of Miami found that when people find themselves in stressful situations, they are likely to consume 40 percent more food than normal. Those scientists recommended turning off the nightly newscast before eating dinner, to keep bad news and overeating at bay.

**Stress can make you look older**

Chronic stress contributes significantly to premature aging. Researchers at the University of California, San Francisco, discovered that stress shortens telomeres structures on the end of chromosomes so that new cells cannot grow as quickly. This leads to the inevitable signs of aging: wrinkles, weak muscles, poor eyesight, and more.

**Stress weakens your immune system**

The connection between mind and body is often underestimated. But everyone has experienced a cold when they can least afford to. That is because the high demands stress puts on the body make the immune system suffer, which makes you more vulnerable to colds and infections. The [American Psychological Association (APA)](http://www.apa.org/research/action/immune.aspx) recommends calming exercises, as well as social outlets, to relieve stress.

**Stress can lead to long-term disability**

The potential dangers created by even mild stress should not be underestimated. They can lead to long-term disability serious enough to render you unable to work. Researchers reached this conclusion after their [five-year study](https://consumer.healthday.com/caregiving-information-6/disabilities-and-special-needs-news-202/even-mild-stress-can-lead-to-disability-study-says-651149.html) of 17,000 Swedish working adults, ages 18 to 64, published in 2011 by the Journal of Epidemiology and Community Health. One in four study subjects in the Stockholm area who had mild stress were awarded disability benefits for physical conditions like angina, high blood pressure, and stroke. Nearly two-thirds drew benefits for a mental illness.

**4. Explain any three theories of leadership.**

A strong understanding of leadership provides us with a variety of legitimate options for different scenarios, and helps a person set up themselves, their team or company for success. Therefore, Jennifer strongly suggests people are more intentional than reactional when it comes to leadership.

Jennifer defined leadership as a process whereby a person influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal. But it is not a position or title that is given to you. Nor is it a position you get promoted to: it is something you must earn.

There are many theories on leadership’s defining characteristics and its practices. The following are three of the most prevalent ones.

**The Great Man Theory**

Developed in the 19th century, this model was promoted by Scottish philosopher, writer and teacher Thomas Carlyle. Its premise was that leadership is based on the individual who was born for great things (good or bad), Napoleon being one example. Leaders were identified by their acts and accomplishments. Alexander the Great conquered the known world. Genghis Khan then ravaged most of it. Abraham Lincoln freed the slaves. Harriet Tubman saved hundreds from slavery in the Underground Railroad. Mother Theresa aided and comforted thousands in Calcutta who were abandoned by society. The theory is that these people accomplished great things because fate determined they were great people and they were simply fulfilling their destiny. Eventually the Great Man Theory was abandoned in favor of the theories based on behavioral science.

**The Trait Theory**

There is a saying, “Great leaders are born, not made.” Trait Theory takes this saying literally. If you have the ability to lead, you were born with it, with no way of learning those skills. This theory expands on the Great Man Theory by defining what makes great leaders “great.” Today, there has been significant research and agreement that leadership comes from a combination of both theories and more. As commented previously, there are wide varieties of leadership qualities and characteristics.

The trait leadership theory believes that people are either born or are made with certain qualities that will make them excel in leadership roles. That is, certain qualities such as intelligence, sense of responsibility, creativity and other values puts anyone in the shoes of a good leader. In fact, [Gordon Allport](https://www.leadership-central.com/gordon-allport.html), an American psychologist,"...identified almost 18,000 English personality-relevant terms" (Matthews, Deary and Whiteman, 2003, p.3).

The trait theory of leadership focused on analyzing mental, physical and social characteristic in order to gain more understanding of what is the characteristic or the combination of characteristics that are common among leaders. There were many shortfalls with the trait leadership theory. However, from a psychology of personalities approach, Gordon Allport's studies are among the first ones and have brought, for the study of leadership, the behavioural approach.

Santa Clara University and the Tom Peters Group outlined the following leadership characteristics:

* **Honesty**- Display sincerity, integrity, and candor in all your actions. Deceptive behavior will not inspire trust.
* **Competent -** Base your actions on reason and moral principles. Do not make decisions based on childlike emotional desires or feelings.
* **Forward-looking** - Set goals and have a vision of the future. The vision must be owned throughout the organization. Effective leaders envision what they want and how to get it. They habitually pick priorities stemming from their basic values.
* **Inspiring -** Display confidence in all that you do. By showing endurance in mental, physical, and spiritual stamina, you will inspire others to reach for new heights. Take charge when necessary.
* **Intelligent**- Read, study, and seek challenging assignments.
* Fair-minded - Show fair treatment to all people. Prejudice is the enemy of justice. Display empathy by being sensitive to the feelings, values, interests, and well-being of others.
* **Broad-minded** - Seek out diversity.
* Courageous - Have the perseverance to accomplish a goal, regardless of the seemingly insurmountable obstacles. Display a confident calmness when under stress.
* **Straightforward**- Use sound judgment to make a good decision at the right time.
* **Imaginative**- Make timely and appropriate changes in your thinking, plans, and methods. Show creativity by thinking of new and better goals, ideas, and solutions to problems. Be innovative!

Scholars such as [Kouzes and Posner](https://www.amazon.ca/dp/B008DM2MK8/ref=dp-kindle-redirect?_encoding=UTF8&btkr=1" \t "_blank) stated that, we all have some ability in several leadership qualities and skills. That under the right circumstances, anyone can rise to a leadership role and be successful, based on the leadership style that best matches their personality if they know how to use that ability to properly address the situation at hand. Other leadership skills can be learned, developed, and mastered. The overall process identified by K & P is clearly transformational in style, which has a strong focus on followers.

**Transformational Leadership**

In 1978, [James MacGregor Burns](https://www.amazon.ca/gp/search?index=books&linkCode=qs&keywords=9780060105884)introduced the concept of transformational leadership in his research on political leaders. Burns theorized that “transformational leadership” is actually a process where leaders interact with their followers and inspire each other to advance together. His characteristics and behaviours demonstrated the differences between “management” and “leadership.” People and organizations are transformed due to the leadership style and abilities of the leader, who is able to convey a vision and guide the transformation.

[Bernard M. Bass](https://www.amazon.ca/LEADERSHIP-PERFORMANCE-BEYOND-EXPECTATIONS-Bernard/dp/0029018102), in 1985, added to Burns’ transformational leadership theory by shifting the focus to the followers. It is not the individual traits and vision of the leader that matter as much as it is their ability to influence the feelings, attitudes, and commitment of their followers. If followers feel they can trust a leader (or better yet, if they admire a leader who can stimulate a sense of loyalty and respect by inspiring a shared vision) the followers go happily exceed their original expectations. As a result, productivity increases and conflict decreases. The followers are transformed by a charismatic, motivational leader.

In Summary**,** the above are just three of many leadership theories. Some of the others are Participative (Lewin), Situational, Contingency and Transactional. Through all of the research, there are a variety of attributes and abilities associated with leadership, and these vary from leader to leader. Some leaders are great orators, others great writers. Some leaders are very quiet, but the force of their logic or passion causes them to stand out. We have come to understand that the difference between a good leader and a great leader is not only based on the leadership skills they have developed but also on how often and in what manner they demonstrate them. John Whitehead, coaches’ individuals and organizations in becoming more effective by helping them improve their interpersonal communications, emotional intelligence and resiliency.

**5. How large do you think teams should be and why?**

A team isa group of people with a full set of complementary skills required to complete a task, job, or project. As defined by Professor Leigh Thompson of the [Kellogg School of Management](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Kellogg_School_of_Management), "team is a group of people who are interdependent with respect to information, resources, and skills and who seek to combine their efforts to achieve a common goal".

A group does not necessarily constitute a team. Teams normally have members with complementary skills and generate synergy through a coordinated effort which allows each member to maximize their strengths and minimize their weaknesses. Naresh Jain (2009) claims: Team members need to learn how to help one another, help other team members realize their [true potential](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/True_self), and create an environment that allows everyone to go beyond their limitations.

While academic research on teams and teamwork has grown consistently and has shown a sharp increase over the past recent 40 years, the societal diffusion of teams and teamwork actually followed a volatile trend in the 20th century. The concept was introduced into [business](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Business) in the late 20th century, which was followed by a popularization of the concept of [constructing teams](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Team_building). Differing opinions exist on the efficacy of this new [management](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Management) [fad](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fad). Some see "team" as a [four-letter word](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Four-letter_word): overused and under-useful. Others see it as a [panacea](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Panacea_(disambiguation)) that realizes the [human-relations movement](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Human_Relations_Movement)'s desire to integrate what that movement perceives as best for workers and as best for [managers](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Management). Still others believe in the effectiveness of teams, but also see them as dangerous because of the potential for exploiting workers, in that team effectiveness can rely on [peer pressure](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Peer_pressure) and peer [surveillance](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Surveillance). However, Hackman sees team effectiveness not only in terms of performance: a truly effective team will contribute to the personal well-being and adaptive growth of its members.

English-speakers commonly use the word "team" in today's society to characterize many types of groups. Peter Guy Northouse's book Leadership: theory and practice discusses teams from a [leadership](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Leadership) perspective. According to the team approach to leadership, a team is a type of organizational group of people that are members. A team is composed of members who are dependent on each other, work towards interchangeable achievements, and share common attainments. A team works as a whole together to achieve certain things. A team is usually located in the same setting as it is normally connected to a kind of organization, company, or community. Teams can meet in-person (directly face-to-face) or virtually when practicing their values and activities or duties. A team's communication is significantly important to their relationship. Therefore, communication is frequent and persistent, and as well are the [meetings](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Meeting). The definition of team as an organizational group is not completely set in stone, as organizations have confronted a myriad of new forms of contemporary collaboration. Teams usually have strong organizational structured platforms and respond quickly and efficiently to challenges as they have skills and the capability to do so. An effective organizational team leads to greater productivity, more effective implementation of resources, better decisions and problem-solving, better-quality products/service, and greater innovation and originality.

Team members operate with a high degree of interdependence, share authority and responsibility for self-management, are accountable for the collective performance, and work toward a common goal and shared rewards. A team becomes more than just a collection of people when a strong sense of mutual commitment creates synergy, thus generating performance greater than the sum of the performance of its individual members.

Teams of different sizes behave in vastly different ways. If you don’t manage to strike the balance properly with regards to the size of your team you might end up with a lot of preventable problems. Those teams that are too small risk having a skills gap in an important area while teams that are too large risk a loss of productivity and cohesiveness.

While it’s true that each team and each company is in a unique position with its own employees, there are some standards that have been proven true throughout a wide range of companies in hundreds of studies done around the world. When it comes to teams, size matters. There is no set number that everyone agrees is the best, because it can be different depending on a few variables, but it is certainly something to take into account when you want to form a working team.

**Types of Teams:**

Although the concept of a team is relatively simple, social scientists have identified many different types of teams. In general, teams either act as information processors, or take on a more active role in the task and actually perform activities. Common categories and subtypes of teams include:

**Action teams**

Action teams are highly specialized and coordinated teams whose actions are intensely focused on producing a product or service (Devine, 2002). An NFL football team would be an example of an action team. Other examples occur in the military, paramedics, and transportation (e.g. a [flight crew](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Flight_crew))

**Advisory teams**

Advisory teams make suggestions about a final product (Devine, 2002). For instance, a [quality-control](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Quality_control) group on an assembly line would be an example of an advisory team: they may examine the products produced and make suggestions about how to improve the quality of the items being made.

**Command teams**

The goal of the command team is to combine instructions and to coordinate action among management. In other words, command teams serve as the "middle man" in tasks (Devine, 2002). For instance, messengers on a construction site, conveying instructions from the executive team to the builders, would be an example of a command team.

**Executive team**

An executive team is a management team that draws up plans for activities and then directs these activities (Devine, 2002). An example of an executive team would be a construction team designing blueprints for a new building, and then guiding the construction of the building using these blueprints.

**Project teams**

A team used only for a [defined](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Define) period of time and for a separate, concretely definable purpose, oftenbecomes known as a project team. This category of team includes negotiation, commission and design-team subtypes. In general, these types of teams are multi-talented and composed of individuals with expertise in many different areas. Members of these teams might belong to different groups, but receive assignment to activities for the same [project](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Project), thereby allowing outsiders to view them as a single unit. In this way, setting up a team allegedly facilitates the creation, tracking and assignment of a group of people based on the project in hand. The use of the “team” label in this instance often has no relationship to whether the employees work as a team.

Lundin and Soderholm defined project teams as a special case in the more general category of temporary organizations which also includes task forces, program committees, and action groups. All of these are formed to “make things happen”. This emphasis on action leads to a demarcation between the temporary organization and its environment. The demarcation is driven by four interrelated concepts (the four Ts):

* Time – the time horizons and limits are crucial to the existence of temporary organizations “whose very existence helps spread a sense of urgency”.
* Task – the reason for the temporary organization; no other party is attending to the same task at the same time in the same way.
* Team – provides the human resources to accomplish the task in the time available.
* Transition – an accomplishment or some sort of qualitative difference is expected after the time horizon. “The concepts also differ from the crucial concepts that define the permanent organization. Permanent organizations are more naturally defined by goals (rather than tasks), survival (rather than time), working organization (rather than team) and production processes and continual development (rather than transition)”.

**Sports teams**

A [sports](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sport) team is a group of people which play [sports](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sports) (often [team sports](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Team_sports)) together. Members include all players (even those who are waiting their turn to play), as well as support members such as a team manager or [coach](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Coach_(sport)).

**Virtual teams**

Developments in [information and communications technology](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Information_and_communications_technology) have seen the emergence of the virtual work-team. A virtual team is a group of people who work interdependently and with shared purpose across space, time, and organizational boundaries using technology to communicate and collaborate. Virtual team members can be located across a country or across the world, rarely meet face-to-face, and include members from different cultures.

In their 2009 literature-review paper, Ale Ebrahim, N., Ahmed, S. and Taha, Z. added two key issues to definition of a [virtual team](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Virtual_team): “as small temporary groups of geographically, organizationally and/ or time dispersed [knowledge workers](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Knowledge_workers) who coordinate their work predominantly with electronic information and communication technologies in order to accomplish one or more organization tasks”. Many virtual teams are cross-functional and emphasize solving customer problems or generating new work processes.

The [United States Department of Labor](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_Department_of_Labor) reported that in 2001, 19 million people [worked from home](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Work_from_home) online or from another location, and that by the end of 2002, over 100 million people worldwide would work outside traditional offices.

**Work teams**

Work teams are responsible for the actual act of creating [tangible products](https://en.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?title=Tangible_products&action=edit&redlink=1) and services (Devine, 2002). The actual workers on an assembly line would be an example of a production team, whereas waiters and waitresses at a diner would be an example of a service team.

**Theories about Team Size versus Productivity**

Team size refers to the number of members in the management team. In management teams, the size of the team is usually a reflection of the organizational chart (the number of departments reporting to a senior leader). Research on group and team size and performance has yielded mixed results (Haleblian & Finkelstein, 1993), with more studies indicating a negative association between size and performance (Ringelmann, 1913; Steiner, 1972; Karau & Williams, 1997).

Productivity is one of the main reasons teams are formed. Some company tasks can only be completed well when a team is working on them versus an individual trying to accomplish the same task. However, if a team is too large there is a huge risk of productivity of each individual worker going down as the size of the team goes up. This is referred to as social loafing and is illustrated beautifully by the [Ringelmann effect](http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/002210317490033X).

The Ringelmann effect refers to some of the earliest research ever done about team size. Through an experimental process involving increasingly large groups of people pulling a rope, Ringelmann deduced that for every person added beyond 5-6 people, individual contributions to the group became smaller. Essentially this means that although larger groups might have higher rates of overall productivity than smaller teams, the individual members of the larger team have lower rates of productivity than those in the smaller team.

This theory is commonly referred to as social loafing. When efforts are being expended by more people, the team as a whole is more likely to experience a decrease in individual work efforts. Some employees may start to slack off, knowing that their lack of effort will be compensated for by the other working members of the team. Others just simply will not work as hard as they otherwise would because it is more difficult for them to see the effects of their contributions to the team. Altogether this leads to increased overall output and decreased individual output, a scenario that doesn’t suit your company well.

Team size and team composition affect team processes and team outcomes. The optimal size (and composition) of teams is debated and will vary depending on the task at hand. At least one study of problem-solving in groups showed an optimal size of groups at four members. Other works estimate the optimal size between 5-12 members or a number of members that can consume two pizzas.

The following extract is taken from Chong (2007):

The interest in teams gained momentum in the 1980s with the publication of Belbin’s (1981) work on successful teams. The research into teams and teamwork followed two lines of inquiry. Writers such as Belbin (1981, 1993), Woodcock (1989), Margerison and McCann (1990), Davis et al. (1992), Parker (1990), and Spencer and Pruss (1992) focused on team roles and how these affected team performance. These studies suggested that team performance was a function of the number and type of roles team members played. The number of roles for optimal performance varied from 15 (Davis et al., 1992) to four (Parker, 1990). This variation has been attributed to how roles were defined. Lindgren (1997) believed that, in a social psychological sense, ‘roles’ were behaviours one exhibited within the constraints assigned by the outside world to one’s occupational position e.g. leader, manager, supervisor, worker etc. Personality traits, on the other hand, were internally driven and relatively stable over time and across situations. These traits affected behavioural patterns in predictable ways (Pervin, 1989) and, in varying degrees, become part of the ‘role’ definition as well.

Not only that but also, the other line of inquiry focused on measuring the ‘effectiveness’ of teams. Writers such as Deihl and [Stroebe](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Wolfgang_Stroebe" \o "Wolfgang Stroebe) (1987), Gersik (1988), Evenden and Anderson (1992), Furnham et al. (1993), Cohen and Ledford (1994) and Katzenbach (1998) were concerned with high performing teams and the objective measurement of their effectiveness. McFadzean (2002) believed that the appearance of a number of models of team effectiveness was indicative of a variety of variables such as personality, group size, work norms, status relationships, group structure etc. that can impact on team ‘effectiveness’ and its measurement.

[David Cooperrider](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/David_Cooperrider) suggests that the larger the group, the better. This is because a larger group is able to address concerns of the whole [system](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/System). So while a large team may be ineffective at performing a given task, Cooperider says that the relevance of that task should be considered, because determining whether the team is effective first requires identifying what needs to be accomplished.

Below is the previous Research on the Relationship between Size and Performance;

The effect of size on performance has been a matter of interest since the early 1900s. Ringelmann (1913) found in a rope pulling test, that each team member contributed less as team size increased. Ingham, Levinger, Graves and Peckham (1974), replicated Ringelmann´s rope pulling study and found similar results, acknowledging a curvilinear effect on performance as team size increased. Karau and Williams (1997) conducted a metaanalysis consisting of 78 studies, and found that social loafing, defined as “the tendency for individuals to exert less effort when working collectively rather than when working individually or coactively” (p. 156) is a robust phenomenon across various tasks and populations. In other words, as group size increases, there is a general tendency towards decreased group performance, or less efficiency, directly related to the individual members´ contribution or effort.

To my knowledge, very few studies have examined exclusively the effect of team size on management team performance. One exception is Espedalen (2016), who found a negative association between management team size and performance. Otherwise, results are ambiguous, or not consistent enough to demonstrate the direct effect of team size on management team performance. Wheelan (2009), conducted a study on the relationship between team size, team productivity and team development, and examined different team sizes and how team size affected developmental processes and group productivity. Wheelan´s (2009) sample consisted of different work groups and teams, including some management teams. Group size ranged from three to eleven members (or more). Wheelan (2009) found that smaller teams experienced greater levels of structure and trust within the team and also experienced and delivered higher performance levels compared to larger groups. The groups comprising three to six members scored significantly higher in terms of positive attitude and behaviour, than the larger groups that comprised eleven or more members. These findings align with those of Sharma and Ghosh (2007), who also demonstrated how larger teams were associated with lowered performance in contrast to smaller teams in the IT-sector in India.

Two studies have examined the relationship between management team size and firm performance. Certo et al. (2006) found no direct relationship between management team size and firm performance, while Haleblian and Finkelstein (1993) found a positive relationship. However, the term firm performance in these instances differs from the two performance measures concerned with in this thesis. In Haleblian and Finkelstein’s study, performance represents overall organizational performance, instead of specific outcomes of the team, or the individual perception of being a team member, as is the performance measure in this study.

Based on these findings, there is no conclusive description as to how the effect of team size is associated with performance in management teams and therefore, and more studies are needed to describe these effects. While there appears to be a tendency for larger groups to perform less in general, or be less efficient than smaller groups, no clear evidence exists with regards to this association within management teams. However, when considering the general findings on groups and teams, it is reasonable to assume that the effects described are also transferable to management teams. One thing is that knowing size seems to affect productivity within groups and teams, but understanding why this association exists is even more interesting. I will now look at different theoretical explanations as to why the productivity of a team does not necessarily increase linearly in proportion to the size of the team.

More so, Steiner (1972) attributes this association between size and performance to process loss, defined as the tendency for the increase in a group’s productivity to diminish when the number of group members increase, due to coordination and motivation problems. Mueller (2012) suggests that relational loss might cause lower team performance, as support from other team members becomes less available as team size increases. In contrast to this rather negative view that effectiveness will decrease as team size increases, some researchers have suggested that increased team size can in fact enhance performance (Ancona & Caldwell, 1992; DeDreu & West, 2001). This claim is based on the assumption that a larger group or team possesses greater diversity, more information and “more heads to think”. As such, this can ideally lead to better decision making and increased creativity potential within the group and, due to diversity and information-sharing, larger groups may outrange the sum of the individuals’ contribution when performing. This is in contrast to Steiner (1972), who suggests that group performance in a larger group is in fact reduced, compared to the potential of the sum of each individuals´ contribution. This perspective will be elaborated on later in this thesis.

Furthermore, looking beyond the general assumption that increased group size will result in a decrease in performance, increased group size can also have implications at both the organizational and the individual level. Studies indicate that as group size increases, member satisfaction decreases (Steiner, 1972; Guzzo & Salas, 1995), communication is less initiated by the individual (Diehl & Strobe, 1987), counterproductive behaviour appears more frequently (Aubé, Rousseau & Tremblay, 2011), members report a greater incidence of feeling threatened and inhibition (Gibb, 1951), and the amount of expressed disagreement increases (Wheelan, 2009). Even though most research indicates that size and performance are negatively associated, there are researchers proposing the opposite effect; that being that larger teams are beneficial rather than destructive for team composition, dynamics and performance (Nye & Brower, 1996; Williams & O´Reilly, 1998). These are essential factors when considering the relationship between size and performance.

**In conclusion:**

In general, diversity within groups and teams has been assumed to be a crucial factor for group functioning (O´Reilly & Williams, 1998; van Knippenberg & Schippers, 2007; Joshi & Roh, 2009). Diversity can be defined as “differences between individuals on any attribute that may lead to the perception that another person is different from self” (van Knippenberg et al., 2004, p. 1008). However, research regarding the effects of diversity on teams is somewhat ambiguous, dependent on various theoretical perspectives. An elaboration of these perspectives will now follow, contextualizing their association to team size and performance.

When companies are in trouble, they often restructure into teams. However, putting people into teams does not solve problems; if not done thoughtfully, this may even cause more problems. The formation of teams is most appropriate for tasks that are difficult, complex and important. These types of tasks are often beyond the skills and abilities of any single individual. However, the formation of a team to complete such tasks does not guarantee success. Rather, the proper implementation of teams is positively related to both member satisfaction and increased effectiveness. Organizations who want to receive the benefits afforded by teams need to carefully consider how teams are built and implemented. Often, teams are created without providing members any training to develop the skills necessary to perform well in a team setting. This is critical, because teamwork can be cognitively and interpersonally demanding. Even when a team consists of talented individuals, these individuals must learn to coordinate their actions and develop functional interpersonal interactions. In their review of the relevant scientific literature, Kozlowski and Ilgen demonstrated that such training can greatly benefit team effectiveness.

Finally, teams are more likely to be successful when they are fully supported by the organization. Take for example [New United Motor Manufacturing Inc](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/NUMMI) (NUMMI). Originally it was a General Motors automotive manufacturing plant that had to close due to numerous issues, causing it to be the worst performing GM plant. NUMMI was the collaborative creation of General Motors and Toyota. These two companies took most of the same work force and created one of the most productive automotive plants, producing high quality cars. They did this by implementing a new team structure, where management and the company were more supportive of the union workforce.

**6. Disasters have an impact towards development. Do you agree with the statement? Using relevant examples substantiate your answer.**

Since 2000, there has been a notable increase in the number of major disasters. Disasters frequently occur, with older adults experiencing a disproportionate number of adverse effects. Disasters may be either natural, such as hurricanes, tornados, and earthquakes, or human-made, such as terrorism or technological accidents. This increase has been accompanied by an upturn in the number of government and nonprofit organizations promulgating detailed instructions describing how to mitigate, prepare for disasters, obtain safe shelter, cope with adverse events, and initiate the recovery process. However, despite these efforts, government officials and researchers consistently report that older adults are at greatest risk for adverse outcomes, but are the least prepared subgroup of the population.

According to the United Nations, over the past twenty years disasters from natural hazards have affected 4.4 billion people, claimed 1.3 million lives and caused $2 trillion in economic losses. For the first time, disaster losses globally have topped $100bn for three consecutive years (2010–2012), far outstripping humanitarian aid. According to Ban Ki Moon, “Economic losses from disasters are out of control.”

Disasters have a devastating impact on development. Families lose homes, livelihoods and loved ones, communities lose businesses, jobs and services, children and particularly girls miss school and are at risk of early marriage the list of impacts goes on.

Disasters can cancel progress on poverty reduction. This was certainly the experience in the Philippines, struck in 2009 by tropical storm Ondoy and typhoon Pepeng. Rizal, one of the provinces hit hardest, saw the poverty incidence almost double, from 5.5 per cent in 2006 to 9.5 per cent in 2009. Six years later, recovery was still far off, with 7.6 per cent of families still below the poverty line. Typhoon Haiyan, which hit one of the poorest areas of the Philippines, is likely to have a similar impact.

The drive for economic growth can expose countries to more risks cities can be engines of growth, but unplanned urbanization exposes many people to risk. Flood destruction in parts of Asia and Central America has been significantly exacerbated by major development – new hotels, roads, and dams – in fragile ecological systems. In this way, disasters can reveal the boundaries and limits to development.

The development challenge posed by disaster risks is starting to be recognized, with increasing reference to disasters across policy arenas, such as the Busan partnership on aid effectiveness, the Rio20 outcome document, the G20 agenda in 2012, an IPCC Special Report, the latest World Bank report on Managing Risk for Development and the recent UNFCCC decision to establish an international mechanism on loss and damage.

Women often face higher risks personally and also have to shoulder the burden of managing them on behalf of their families eating last and least in times of food crisis, caring for injured and sick members of the family. Women do not always get the same access to early warning information as men, due to their caring role and lower levels of literacy. Other vulnerable people include the young, old, people with disabilities, and those marginalized by ethnicity or caste.

Their systematic marginalization means they are often less able to participate in and influence disaster prevention or management of key processes, yet they often have major capacities and skills to support risk reduction. Indeed, where supported, women’s groups have demonstrated their effectiveness in reducing household and community risks and vulnerability.

The incidence of disasters from natural hazards is increasing in every region of the world; reported weather-related disasters have tripled in 30 years. The numbers of people exposed to floods and tropical cyclones have doubled and tripled respectively since 1970. In the Sahel region of West Africa, a food crisis used to strike once a decade; but there have been three major food crises in the last 10 years, so people have had little time to get back on their feet, let alone develop buffers, before the next one hits.

One very important driver of disaster risk is climate change. The latest IPCC report is clear that the climate is changing, with serious consequences. Another driver of disaster risk is population growth and migration. In particular, cities concentrate risk through high population density, inadequate urban planning, and poor infrastructure. Problems are particularly acute in slums, where around one billion people currently live, and this number is projected to double by 2030.

International focus is often on major disasters that hit the headlines. But the reality is that for poorwarning of disasters in developing countries could yield benefits 4 to 36 times greater than the cost. Studies of flood defenses in India and Samoa found that people-centred interventionssuch as raised houses and fodder storage, early warning, flood shelters, community seed banks, self-help groups and so on, were better value for money than costly embankments.

Whilst all countries suffer disasters, they have the greatest impact on poor countries. For example, 86 per cent of deaths from flooding occur in low or low-middle income countries, compared with ten per cent in upper middle and four per cent in high income countries. And whilst absolute financial losses are higher in developed countries, they take a deeper toll in developing countries the East Japan earthquake in 2011 was one of the most expensive disasters in history, costing around $200bn, equivalent to three per cent of Japan’s GDP; the 2010 earthquake in Haiti is estimated to have cost $14bn, equivalent to 160 per cent of Haiti’s GDP.

The concept of “leaving no one behind” is a powerful one, and requires a focus on equality and specific investments for marginalized people. Disaster risk is not shared equally between rich and poor. People are vulnerable because they are politically, socially or economically excluded, with little access to resources, influence, information or decision making. Poverty and inequality often push people to live on the margins, in places that are risky, such as alongside rivers, floodplains, marginal land and hillsides. This perpetuates a vicious cycle of disaster, debt and destitution.

**Here below are some of the details disasters’ impacts towards development;**

As noted earlier, disaster impacts comprise physical and social impact. The physical impacts of disasters include casualties (deaths and injuries) and property damage, and both vary substantially across hazard agents. The physical impacts of a disaster are usually the most obvious, easily measured, and first reported by the news media. Social impacts, which include psychosocial, demographic, economic, and political impacts, can develop over a long period of time and can be difficult to assess when they occur. Despite the difficulty in measuring these social impacts, it is nonetheless important to monitor them, and even to predict them if possible, because they can cause significant problems for the long-term functioning of specific types of households and businesses in an affected community. A better understanding of disasters’ social impacts can provide a basis for preimpact prediction and the development of contingency plans to prevent adverse consequences from occurring.

**Physical Impacts:**

**Casualties**

According to Noji (1997b), hurricanes produced 16 of the 65 greatest disasters of the 20th Century (in terms of deaths) and the greatest number of deaths from 1947-1980 (499,000). Earthquakes produced 28 of the greatest disasters and 450,000 deaths, whereas floods produced four of the greatest disasters and 194,000 deaths. Other significant natural disasters include volcanic eruptions with nine of the greatest disasters and 9,000 deaths, landslides with four of the greatest disasters and 5,000 deaths, and tsunamis with three of the greatest disasters and 5,000 deaths. There is significant variation by country, with developing countries in Asia, Africa, and South America accounting for the top 20 positions in terms of number of deaths from 1966-1990. Low-income countries suffer approximately 3,000 deaths per disaster, whereas the corresponding figure for high-income countries is approximately 500 deaths per disaster. Moreover, these disparities appear to be increasing because the average annual death toll in developed countries declined by at least 75% between 1960 and 1990, but the same time period saw increases of over 400% in developing countries (Berke, 1995).

There often are difficulties in determining how many of the deaths and injuries are “caused by” a disaster. In some cases it is impossible to determine how many persons are missing and, if so, whether this is due to death or unrecorded relocation. The size of the error in estimates of disaster death tolls can be seen in the fact that for many of the most catastrophic events the number of deaths is rounded to the nearest thousand and some even are rounded to the nearest ten thousand (Noji, 1997b). Estimates of injuries are similarly problematic (see Langness, 1994; Peek-Asa, et al., 1998; Shoaf, et al., 1998, regarding conflicting estimates of deaths and injuries attributable to the Northridge earthquake). Even when bodies can be counted, there are problems because disaster impact may be only a contributing factor to casualties with pre-existing health conditions. Moreover, some casualties are indirect consequences of the hazard agent as, for example, with casualties caused by structural fires following earthquakes (e.g., burns) and destruction of infrastructure (e.g., illnesses from contaminated water supplies).

**Damage**

Losses of structures, animals, and crops also are important measures of physical impacts, and these are rising exponentially in the United States (Mileti, 1999). However, the rate of increase is even greater in developing countries such as India and Kenya (Berke, 1995). Such losses usually result from physical damage or destruction of property, but they also can be caused by losses of land use to chemical or radiological contamination or loss of the land itself to subsidence or erosion. Damage to the built environment can be classified broadly as affecting residential, commercial, industrial, infrastructure, or community services sectors. Moreover, damage within each of these sectors can be divided into damage to structures and damage to contents. It usually is the case that damage to contents results from collapsing structures (e.g., hurricane winds failing the building envelope and allowing rain to destroy the furniture inside the building). Because collapsing buildings are a major cause of casualties as well, this suggests that strengthening the structure will protect the contents and occupants. However, some hazard agents can damage building contents without affecting the structure itself (e.g., earthquakes striking seismically-resistant buildings whose contents are not securely fastened). Thus, risk area residents may need to adopt additional hazard adjustments to protect contents and occupants even if they already have structural protection.

Perhaps the most significant structural impact of a disaster on a stricken community is the destruction of households’ dwellings. Such an event initiates what can be a very long process of disaster recovery for some population segments. According to Quarantelli (1982a), people typically pass through four stages of housing recovery following a disaster. The first stage is emergency shelter, which consists of unplanned and spontaneously sought locations that are intended only to provide protection from the elements, typically open yards and cars after earthquakes (Bolin & Stanford, 1991, 1998). The next step is temporary shelter, which includes food preparation and sleeping facilities that usually are sought from friends and relatives or are found in commercial lodging, although “mass care” facilities in school gymnasiums or church auditoriums are acceptable as a last resort. The third step is temporary housing, which allows victims to re-establish household routines in nonpreferred locations or structures. The last step is permanent housing, which re-establishes household routines in preferred locations and structures.

Households vary in the progression and duration of each type of housing and the transition from one stage to another can be delayed unpredictably, as when it took nine days for shelter occupancy to peak after the Whittier Narrows earthquake (Bolin, 1993). Particularly significant are the problems faced by lower income households, which tend to be headed disproportionately by females and racial/ethnic minorities. Such households are more likely to experience destruction of their homes because of preimpact locational vulnerability. This is especially true in developing countries such as Guatemala (Peacock, Killian & Bates, 1987), but also has been reported in the US (Peacock & Girard, 1997). The homes of these households also are more likely to be destroyed because the structures were built according to older, less stringent building codes, used lower quality construction materials and methods, and were less well maintained (Bolin & Bolton, 1986). Because lower income households have fewer resources on which to draw for recovery, they also take longer to transition through the stages of housing, sometimes remaining for extended periods of time in severely damaged homes (Girard & Peacock, 1997). In other cases, they are forced to accept as permanent what originally was intended as temporary housing (Peacock, et al., 1987). Consequently, there may still be low-income households in temporary sheltering and temporary housing even after high-income households all have relocated to permanent housing (Berke, et al., 1993; Rubin, Sapperstein & Barbee, 1985).

As is the case with estimates of casualties, estimates of losses to the built environment are prone to error. Damage estimates are most accurate when trained damage assessors enter each building to assess the percent of damage to each of the major structural systems (e.g., roof, walls, and floors) and the percentage reduction in market valuation due to the damage. Early approximate estimates are obtained by conducting “windshield surveys” in which trained damage assessors drive through the impact area and estimate the extent of damage that is visible from the street, or by conducting computer analyses using HAZUS (National Institute of Building Sciences, 1998). These early approximate estimates are especially important in major disasters because detailed assessments are not needed in the early stages of disaster recovery and the time required to conduct them on a large number of damaged structures using a limited number of qualified inspectors would unnecessarily delay the community recovery process.

Other important physical impacts include damage or contamination to cropland, rangeland, and woodlands. Such impacts may be well understood for some hazard agents but not others. For example, ash fall from the 1980 Mt. St. Helens eruption was initially expected to devastate crops and livestock in downwind areas, but no significant losses materialized (Warrick, et al., 1981). There also is concern about damage or contamination to the natural environment (wild lands) because these areas serve valuable functions such as damping the extremes of river discharge and providing habitat for wildlife. In part, concern arises from the potential for indirect consequences such as increased runoff and silting of downstream river beds, but many people also are concerned about the natural environment simply because they value it for its own sake.

**Social Impacts:**

For many years, research on the social impacts of disasters consisted of an accumulation of case studies, but two research teams conducted comprehensive statistical analyses of extensive databases to assess the long-term effects of disasters on stricken communities (Friesma, et al., 1979; Wright, et al., 1979). The more comprehensive Wright, et al. (1979) study used census data from the 1960 (preimpact) and 1970 (post-impact) censuses to assess the effects of all recorded disasters in the United States. The authors concurred with earlier findings by Friesma, et al. (1979) in concluding no long-term social impact of disasters could be detected at the community level. In discussing their findings, the authors acknowledged their results were dominated by the types of disasters occurring most frequently in the United States tornadoes, floods, and hurricanes. Moreover, most of the disasters they studied had a relatively small scope of impact and thus caused only minimal disruption to their communities even in the short term. Finally, they noted their findings did not preclude the possibility of significant long-term impacts upon lower levels such as the neighborhood, business, and household.

Nonetheless, their findings called attention to the importance of the *impact ratio* the amount of damage divided by the amount of community resources in understanding disaster impacts. They hypothesized long-term social impacts tend to be minimal in the US because most hazard agents have a relatively small scope of impact and tend to strike undeveloped areas more frequently than intensely developed areas simply because there are more of the former than the latter. Thus, the numerator of the impact ratio tends to be low and local resources are sufficient to prevent long-term effects from occurring. Even when a disaster has a large scope of impact and strikes a large developed area (causing a large impact ratio in the short term), state and federal agencies and NGOs (e.g., American Red Cross) direct recovery resources to the affected area, thus preventing long-term impacts from occurring. For example, Hurricane Andrew inflicted $26.5 billion in losses to the Miami area, but this was only 0.4% of the US GDP (Charvériat, 2000). Recovery problems described in the studies reported in Peacock, Morrow and Gladwin (1997) were determined more by organizational impediments than by the lack of resources.

**Psychosocial impacts:**

Research reviews conducted over a period of 25 years have concluded that disasters can cause a wide range of negative psychological responses (Bolin 1985; Gerrity & Flynn, 1997; Houts, Cleary & Hu, 1988; Perry & Lindell, 1978). These include psychophysiological effects such as fatigue, gastrointestinal upset, and tics, as well as cognitive signs such as confusion, impaired concentration, and attention deficits. Psychological impacts include emotional signs such as anxiety, depression, and grief. They also include behavioral effects such as sleep and appetite changes, ritualistic behavior, and substance abuse. In most cases, the observed effects are mild and transitory the result of “normal people, responding normally, to a very abnormal situation” (Gerrity & Flynn 1997, p. 108). Few disaster victims require psychiatric diagnosis and most benefit more from a crisis counseling orientation than from a mental health treatment orientation, especially if their normal social support networks of friends, relatives, neighbors, and coworkers remain largely intact. However, there are population segments requiring special attention and active outreach. These include children, frail elderly, people with pre-existing mental illness, racial and ethnic minorities, and families of those who have died in the disaster. Emergency workers also need attention because they often work long hours without rest, have witnessed horrific sights, and are members of organizations in which discussion of emotional issues may be regarded as a sign of weakness (Rubin, 1991). However, there is little evidence of emergency workers needing directive therapies either.

The negative psychological impacts described above, which Lazarus and Folkman (1984) call emotion focused coping, generally disrupt the social functioning of only a very small portion of the victim population. Instead, the majority of disaster victims engage in adaptive problem focused coping activities to save their own lives and those of their closest associates. Further, there is an increased incidence in prosocial behaviors such as donating material aid and a decreased incidence of antisocial behaviors such as crime (Drabek, 1986; Mileti, et al., 1975; Siegel, et al., 1999). In some cases, people even engage in altruistic behaviors that risk their own lives to save the lives of others (Tierney, et al., 2001).

There also are psychological impacts with long-term adaptive consequences, such as changes in risk perception (beliefs in the likelihood of the occurrence a disaster and its personal consequences for the individual) and increased hazard intrusiveness (frequency of thought and discussion about a hazard). In turn, these beliefs can affect risk area residents’ adoption of household hazard adjustments that reduce their vulnerability to future disasters. However, these cognitive impacts of disaster experience do not appear to be large in aggregate, resulting in modest effects on household hazard adjustment (see Lindell & Perry, 2000 for a review of the literature on seismic hazard adjustment, and Lindell & Prater 2000; Lindell & Whitney, 2000; and Whitney, Lindell & Nguyen, 2004 for more recent empirical research).

**Demographic impacts:**

The demographic impact of a disaster can be assessed by adapting the demographic balancing equation, Pa – Pb = B – D + IM – OM, where Pa is the population size after the disaster, Pb is the population size before the disaster, B is the number of births, D is the number of deaths, IM is the number of immigrants, and OM is the number of emigrants (Smith, Tayman & Swanson, 2001). The magnitude of the disaster impact, Pa – Pb, is computed for the population of a specific geographical area and two specific points in time. Ideally, the geographical area would correspond to the disaster impact area, Pb would be immediately before disaster impact, and Pa would be immediately after disaster impact. In practice, population data are available for census divisions (census block, block group, tract, or larger area), so a Geographical Information System (GIS) must be used to estimate the impact on the impact area. Moreover, population data are likely to be most readily available from the decennial censuses, so the overall population change and its individual demographic components births, deaths, immigration, and emigration are likely to be estimated from that source (e.g., Wright, et al., 1979).

On rare occasions, special surveys have been conducted in the aftermath of disaster (e.g., Peacock, Morrow & Gladwin, 1997). The limited research available on demographic impacts (Friesma, et al., 1979; Wright, et al., 1979) suggests disasters have negligible demographic impacts on American communities, but the highly aggregated level of analysis in these studies does not preclude the possibility of significant impacts at lower levels of aggregation (census tracts, block groups, or blocks). Although it is logically possible that disasters could affect the number of births, it does not seem likely that the effect would be large.

Moreover, as noted in the previous section on physical impacts, the number of deaths from disasters in the United States has been small relative to historical levels (e.g., the 6000 deaths in the 1900 Galveston hurricane were approximately 17% of the city’s population) or to the levels reported in developing countries. The major demographic impacts of disasters are likely to be the (temporary) immigration of construction workers after major disasters and the emigration of population segments that have lost housing. In many cases, the housing-related emigration is also temporary, but there are documented cases in which housing reconstruction has been delayed indefinitely leading to “ghost towns” (Comerio, 1998). Other potential causes of emigration are psychological impacts (belief that the likelihood of disaster recurrence is unacceptably high), economic impacts (loss of jobs or community services), or political impacts (increased neighborhood or community conflict).

**Economic impacts:**

The property damage caused by disaster impact creates losses in asset values that can be measured by the cost of repair or replacement (Committee on Assessing the Costs of Natural Disasters, 1999). Disaster losses in United States are initially borne by the affected households, businesses, and local government agencies whose property is damaged or destroyed. However, some of these losses are redistributed during the disaster recovery process. There have been many attempts to estimate the magnitude of direct losses from individual disasters and the annual average losses from particular types of hazards (e.g., Mileti, 1999). Unfortunately, these losses are difficult to determine precisely because there is no organization that tracks all of the relevant data and some data are not recorded at all (Charvériat, 2000; Committee on Assessing the Costs of Natural Disasters, 1999). For insured property, the insurers record the amount of the deductible and the reimbursed loss, but uninsured losses are not recorded so they must be estimated often with questionable accuracy.

The ultimate economic impact of a disaster depends upon the disposition of the damaged assets. Some of these assets are not replaced, so their loss causes a reduction in consumption (and, thus, a decrease in the quality of life) or a reduction in investment (and, thus, a decrease in economic productivity). Other assets are replaced either through in-kind donations (e.g., food and clothing) or commercial purchases. In the latter case, the cost of replacement must come from some source of recovery funding, which generally can be characterized as either intertemporal transfers (to the present time from past savings or future loan payments) or interpersonal transfers (from one group to another at a given time). Some of the specific mechanisms for financing recovery include obtaining tax deductions or deferrals, unemployment benefits, loans (paying back the principal at low- or no-interest), grants (requiring no return of principal), insurance payoffs, or additional employment. Other sources include depleting cash financial assets (e.g., savings accounts), selling tangible assets, or migrating to an area with available housing, employment, or less risk (in some cases this is done by the principal wage earner only).

In addition to direct economic losses, there are indirect losses that arise from the interdependence of community subunits. Research on the economic impacts of disasters (Alesch, et al., 1993; Dacy & Kunreuther, 1969; Dalhamer & D’Sousa, 1997; Durkin, 1984; Gordon, et al., 1995; Kroll, et al., 1991; Lindell & Perry, 1998; Nigg, 1995; Tierney, 1997a) suggests the relationships among the social units within a community can be described as a state of dynamic equilibrium involving a steady flow of resources, especially money. Specifically, a household’s linkages with the community are defined by the money it must pay for products, services, and infrastructure support. This money is obtained from the wages that employers pay for the household’s labor. Similarly, the linkages that a business has with the community are defined by the money it provides to its employees, suppliers, and infrastructure in exchange for inputs such as labor, materials and services, and electric power, fuel, water/wastewater, telecommunications, and transportation. Conversely, it provides products or services to customers in exchange for the money it uses to pay for its inputs.

It also is important to recognize the financial impacts of recovery (in addition to the financial impacts of emergency response) on local government. Costs must be incurred for tasks such as damage assessment, emergency demolition, debris removal, infrastructure restoration, and re-planning stricken areas. In addition to these costs, there are decreased revenues due to loss or deferral of sales taxes, business taxes, property taxes, personal income taxes, and user fees.

**Political impacts:**

There is substantial evidence that disaster impacts can cause social activism resulting in political disruption, especially during the seemingly interminable period of disaster recovery. The disaster recovery period is a source of many victim grievances and this creates many opportunities for community conflict, both in the US (Bolin 1982, 1993) and abroad (Bates & Peacock 1988). Victims usually attempt to recreate preimpact housing patterns, but it can be problematic for their neighbors if victims attempt to site mobile homes on their own lots while awaiting the reconstruction of permanent housing. Conflicts arise because such housing usually is considered to be blight on the neighborhood and neighbors are afraid the “temporary” housing will become permanent. Neighbors also are pitted against each other when developers attempt to buy up damaged or destroyed properties and build multifamily units on lots previously zoned for single family dwellings. Such rezoning attempts are a major threat to the market value of owner-occupied homes but tend to have less impact on renters because they have less incentive to remain in the neighborhood. There are exceptions to this generalization because some ethnic groups have very close ties to their neighborhoods, even if they rent rather than own.

Attempts to change prevailing patterns of civil governance can arise when individuals sharing a grievance about the handling of the recovery process seek to redress that grievance through collective action. Consistent with Dynes’s (1970) typology of organizations, existing community groups with an explicit political agenda can expand their membership to increase their strength, whereas community groups without an explicit political agenda can extend their domains to include disaster-related grievances. Alternatively, new groups can emerge to influence local, state, or federal government agencies and legislators to take actions that they support and to terminate actions that they disapprove. Indeed, such was the case for Latinos in Watsonville, California following the Loma Prieta earthquake (Tierney, et al., 2001). Usually, community action groups pressure government to provide additional resources for recovering from disaster impact, but may oppose candidates’ re-elections or even seek to recall some politicians from office (Olson & Drury, 1997; Prater & Lindell, 2000; Shefner, 1999). The point here is not that disasters produce political behavior that is different from that encountered in normal life. Rather, disaster impacts might only produce a different set of victims and grievances and, therefore, a minor variation on the prevailing political agenda (Morrow & Peacock, 1997).

**7. Communication is an important attribute of leaders in project management. Citing relevant examples explain your view of the statement above**

Communication is a key in [project management](http://www.inloox.com/project-management-glossary/project-management/). For a successful [project](http://www.inloox.com/project-management-glossary/project/) execution, effective communication to all stakeholders is essential. Many projects fail because of a lack of communication or an ineffective one. Communication is best defined as the exchange of information and the expression of ideas, thoughts and feelings by using words and other methods. In the project management context this means the exchange of knowledge, skills and experience.

There are three communication areas in project management and these are as below:

* Internal information exchange (decision-making process, conduction of meetings, daily scrums etc.)
* Information management (relevant project information is communicated to all [project stakeholders](http://www.inloox.com/project-management-glossary/project-stakeholder/), changes to the project are communicated etc.)
* Project marketing (project presentation and display to employees, customers, sponsors etc.)

It is very important that the [project manager](http://www.inloox.com/project-management-glossary/project-manager-leader/) decides the communication strategy from the very beginning of a project. The following questions should be considered: Does communication facilitate the achievement of goals and objectives? Who is the target audience of the communication and information transfer? Which communication channels should be used?

Effective communication is an essential power in achieving great project results and total productivity. This skill or let’s say a talent helps to maintain strong working relationships at all levels of any company.

Project managers who invest time and energy into delivering clear ways of communication will rapidly build trust amongst team members, stakeholders, and customers, leading to increases in productivity and team spirit in general. Poor communication will inevitably lead to an unmotivated team that may begin to question its own confidence in their abilities.

The survival of any organized human activity depends largely on a person’s ability to communicate with others. Indeed, it is impossible to conceive of an organization in which individuals operate in isolation without the benefit of communication (Feldberg, in Talukhaba, Mutunga and Miruka, 2011).

Communication or social skills entail individuals having the ability to interact effectively with clients and other professionals (Hargie, 2007). The project manager needs to establish cooperative relationships with the project team members ensure a good climate for communication, identify participants for the project to ensure commitment and adopt an appropriate leadership style (Goodwin, in Odusami, 2002).

Katz (in Odusami, 2002) suggests that all project managers require the same competence in communication skill. Covey (2008) describes communication as an important skill in life and Heldman (2011) states that, “the most important skills a project manager possesses are communication skills”. These statements confirm that communication skills are important. At various stages of a construction project people will have to explain, ask questions and discuss issues and ideas with each other. According to Laufer, Shapira and Telem (2008) construction project managers are engaged in oral communication for about 76% of the time. Emmitt and Gorse (2003) also state oral communication as the main method of communication and that it is good practice to record oral communication (Emmitt and Gorse, 2003).

The most common communication channel is speaking; it is immediate, spontaneous direct and used in a wide range of situations. However, verbal communication is most often misunderstood (Elder, 1994). The majority of communication during a construction project may be spent on speaking and listening, and less time on reading and writing. Communication actions such as speaking, listening, reading and writing need expertise to be used successfully.

Axelrod (in Barrett, 2006a) states that effective leadership is still largely a matter of communication. Reluctant communicators are unlikely to hold influential positions or be perceived by the team members as project leaders. Relationships should exist between project leadership with a high level of verbal participation (Emmitt and Gorse, 2007). Campbell (2011) states that, “good communication and strong leadership go hand in hand”. Project managers succeed by producing projects on time and within budget as well as effectively managing the interaction and communication between people and organizations. Barrett (2006b) states that project leaders “command others’ attention”. Ineffective communication stems from arrogance, disorganization, stubbornness, negativism and distrust (Pacelli, 2010). Bernthal and Wellins (2005/2006) add poor people and interpersonal skills as reasons why leaders fail.

To manage a project effectively three types of communication occur: vertical communication, the up and down flow of communication based on hierarchical relationships; horizontal communication, based on communication with peers; and diagonal communication, the upward relationships with managers and diagonal communication with contractors and/or suppliers or team members of other departments (Campbell, 2011). Influential team members often realize that people making the most noise have little relevance and efforts should be made to encourage the reluctant communicators to participate (Gorse and Whitehead, in Emmitt and Gorse, 2007).

More so, those project leaders with considerable communication skills and influence emerge as the dominant communicators, thus the attributes of dominant communicators may be closely associated with those of leaders (Emmitt and Gorse, 2007). Leaders lead through effective communication. Good communication skills enable, foster and create the understanding and trust necessary to encourage others to follow a leader. Without effective communication, a manager accomplishes little. Without effective communication, a manager is not an effective leader. In fact, being able to communicate effectively is what allows a manger to move to a leadership position (Barrett, 2006b).

Furthermore, an early Harvard Business School study on what it takes to achieve success and be promoted in an organization says that, the individual who gets ahead in business is the person who is able to communicate, to make sound decisions, and to get things done with and through people (Bowman, Jones, Peterson, Gronouski and Mahoney, in Barrett, 2006b). As stated by Kouzes and Posner in Kellerman (2012) leadership “is not a solo act, it’s a team effort”. Communication therefore is a strong force that influences project success. The project leader needs to develop a leadership style that fosters effective and efficient communication with stakeholders.

According to Barrett (2006b) leadership communication consists of layers, expanding skills from core strategy development and effective writing and speaking to using these skills in more complex organizational situations. As a project develops, the project manager will need to improve the core communication skills to become more effective in communication. Barrett (2006b) emphasizes that as manager progresses to higher levels in the organization, the more complex communication demands become. Further, that the framework is not meant to suggest a hierarchy, which is why it is depicted as a spiral.

Barrett (2006b) explains leadership communication as follows:

• Core communication. All effective communication depends on the core skill at the centre of the spiral. These are the more individual skills. Leaders in any organization must master the skills at the core.

• Managerial communication. Managerial communication capabilities build on the core abilities. It is the capabilities more directly involved in managing others. It is the skills needed to interact with individuals and to manage groups.

• Corporate communication. Corporate communication involves expansion from the managerial skills to those abilities needed to lead an organization and address a broader community. Communication becomes even more complex when managers move into a position where they need to think about the best way to communicate to all internal and external stakeholders.

The core skills that project managers need in order to be able to communicate effectively might be for example the skills of writing and speaking. Managers need to be able to structure and write effective and complex correspondence and documents, from emails and memos to proposals and reports. Managers need to be able to write and speak in using a level of language expected of leaders. They need to be able to create and deliver oral presentations. These are the core skills needed in communication.

Managerial communication skills that project managers need to be able to communicate effectively, might be for example listening. To listen is an essential skill in any situation, but is applicable within the managerial ring because managing others effectively requires attention to hearing what others are saying. The managerial ring might also include leading meetings as well as team development and team building.

The corporate communication skills that project managers need to be able to communicate effectively might be for example to be a leader. Effective communication depends on a style of leading the team and the external stakeholders. Leaders will find that, as they move into higher levels of an organization, they become the project’s face to the public.

**In conclusion:**

The project manager that is trusted by the team and gets the team to work together will communicate successfully. Project team members need to collaborate, share, collate and integrate information and knowledge to realize project objectives. A project manager does not communicate with language only, but also with character, which includes attitude, behavior and personality.

Allowing team members to take responsibility for their work and sharing the vision with team members will enhance the formal flow of information in all directions, namely upward, downward, horizontal, diagonal and lateral, resulting in successful feedback. Thus, project managers who allow the team to take responsibility for their work will attain more from team members and communication will be more effective. The results indicated a people-orientated approach towards the management of a project.

The Fiedler leadership style states that team members trust leaders and clearly shows that work that is defined and communicated is effective. In the Sloan or visionary leadership style, leaders use the vision to give the life and work of the organization a sense of meaning and purpose, but maintain the focus on the vision. This leader enlists others by involving them, listening to them and clearly communicating with them. Theory Y of McGregor’s Theory X and Theory Y style assumes that team members enjoy their work and will take responsibility for applying and directing the aims of the project. This does not require external control but is achieved through participation, collaboration and reward for achievements. For workers to take responsibility for their work leads to maturity. The Situational leadership style includes understanding the level of the worker’s maturity.

The styles that a project manager with characteristics such as allowing team members to take responsibility for their work; developing trust, collaboration and teamwork; and sharing the vision will apply during the execution of a project are the Behavioral, Fiedler, McGregor’s Theory X and Theory Y, Sloan or Visionary and Situational leadership styles.

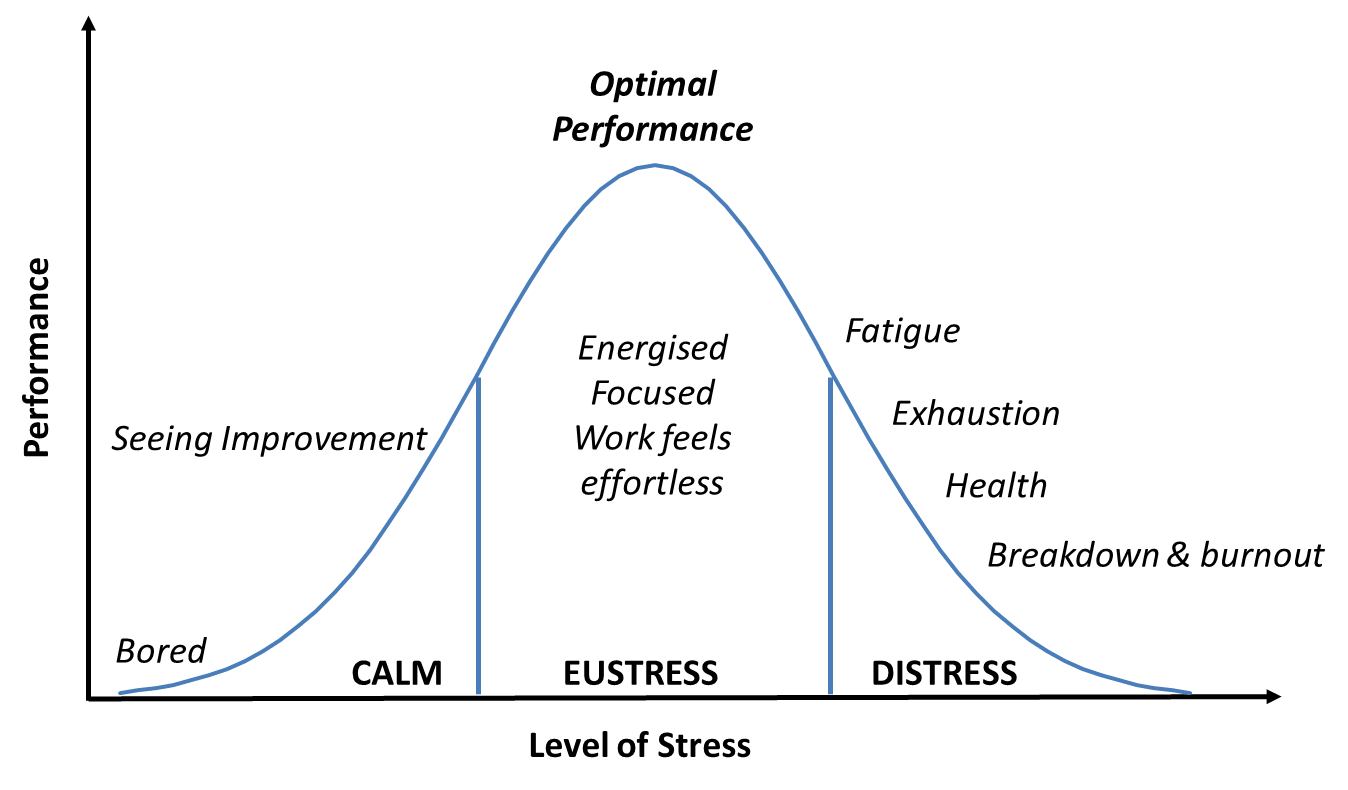
This implies that a project manager has to sum up the situation to adapt a style according to the situation, which implies the Situational leadership style. The Situational leadership style is the best style a project manager may apply during the execution of a project because it adapts a style according to the situation, which allows team members to take responsibility for their work, and allowing them to participate in the decision-making process. This implies that the project manager trusts the team. These characteristics of a construction project manager are the characteristics that will enhance effective communication and form the basis of a leadership style.

**8. Discuss the techniques that leaders use to reduce or alleviate stress in places of project management**

Project Manager is no doubt one of the most stressful jobs out there as the project manager is directly responsible and accountable for the success or failure of a project. Some projects’ managers believed that they can handle and cope with the high level of stress but there are some who are ignoring or refuse to recognize that they are under stress. The experience of stress is not only impacting the cognitive and behavioral performance, it can also have a negative impact on your personal health, wellbeing, and family life. You might not able to change the amount of stress you have on a daily basis, but you can change how you deal with it. It is important to manage the stress before it becomes more and more difficult to handle and manage.

Based on the Yerkes-Dodson curve, moderate level of stress improves performance and when the stress level increases more, the performance decreases. Hence, it is crucial for project managers to be able to moderate the stress levels for optimal performance.

Below is the Yerkes-Dodson curve:



**Causes of Stress in Project Management**

Imaging the project deadline is 2 weeks away and there are still some critical issues to be resolved. To make it worse, one of your key team members has been hospitalized. Customer is unhappy and management is requesting for a daily review. The source of stress in Project Management can be many and varied. Some common sources are listed below:

* Unrealistic timeline
* Working in a matrix system which PM does not have the full control of the resources
* Lack of resources – human and/or equipment
* Proliferation of virtual teams and cross cultural influences
* Inter-group conflict in organization
* Project environment

**Stress Management Techniques**

Project Manager must first acknowledge or recognize that he or she is being under stress and then develop self-discipline before proceeding to learn and practice what are the techniques to manage stress. Learning to manage stress successfully begins with our willingness to take an honest look at ourselves.

Many techniques can help to manage stress. There is no-one-size-fits-all technique and no technique will be able to eliminate stress totally. Each person must decide what will work best for him or her. A few techniques should be explored to determine which works best and once they have found some strategies that work, commitment to practicing them is the key for managing stress.

We found some interpersonal skills and/or attitudes that help reduce stress taken from “Tangible Tips for Handling the Endless Stress in Project Management” by Steven Flannes, Ph.D., Principal, Flannes & Associates below to be really helpful in managing stress in Project Management. These are as below:

**Detach or dissociate:**

Consider the team meeting where you are extremely frustrated by seeing wasted time or the personal posturing from a team member. To use detachment or dissociation, allow yourself to mentally “check out” of the meeting as much as is appropriate, letting your mind wander to a more pleasant image. Obviously, these approaches are used selectively and discretely.

**Monitor “what if?” thinking:**

In the middle of a stressful event, it is natural to engage in “what if thinking,” asking ourselves “What if we would only done this in the past, then we might not be in this crisis right now?” As is evident, this form of “what if” thinking involves a focus that is not present oriented. An alternative to this form of thinking is to focus very much in the present, such as posing this question to yourself: “It’s Thursday at 3:17 PM, I’ve just received bad news about the project. What can I do in the next hour to take a small step towards improving the situation?”

**Develop potent conflict resolution skills:** We add stress to our work lives by either under reacting to the stressful situation (avoiding or denying it) or over reacting to the stressful situation (coming on too strong). Both approaches increase our stress. A menu of conflict resolution skills (which will help reduce stress) is found in Flannes and Levin (2005).

**Know when enough is enough, and stay away from debating:**

A natural but often unproductive approach to resolve a stressful situation is to debate another person about the wisdom of your point of view. This does not mean you should not assert your belief, but you should know when to stop, often when your message has been heard. At this point in the dialogue, if we continue try to be seen as “right,” we are actually increasing our stress. It’s better to stop earlier than later; it can be a matter of diminishing returns to continue to be seen as “right.”

**Look for a paradoxical component in the situation:**

In the midst of a situation that is legitimately stressful, we may find ourselves taking ourselves, or the situation, too seriously. Cognitive behavioral psychologists would say that we are engaging in “catastrophizing” behavior, in which we take a singular, negative event, cognitively “run with it,” and then find ourselves believing, for example, that the entire project is probably doomed because of this one serious problem. An antidote to this is to find a paradoxical cognition that you can hold onto, something that will put your stress and worries in perspective.

**Other Techniques to alleviate stress:**

**Prioritize:**

Put up a priority matrix and assign every task based on its urgency and importance. Focus on the tasks that are urgent and important. Don't overwhelm yourself by worrying about your entire workload. 

If you schedule everything on your calendar and plan out your week on Sunday night it will significantly reduce your inability to just say “No, I’m too busy.” You can even put the blame on your calendar by making your calendar public for requesters of your precious time to see you’re not lying, when you tell them you’re too busy to do what they need right now.

**Avoid extreme reactions:**

Why hate when a little dislike will do? Why generate anxiety when you can be nervous? Why rage when anger will do the job? Why be depressed when you can just be sad? 

**Engage in a mindless activity:**

After a long day of grueling work, it can feel amazing to simply do nothing and engage in a mindless activity. Individuals’ favorite activities to unwind include listening to music, browsing online and watching TV, videos or movies.

**Applying NLP (Neuro-Linguistic Programming) to Stress Reduction:**

NLP provides a number of excellent tools and concepts to empower individuals to cope with or change non-resourceful or negative stress to resourceful or positive resources. With NLP you can change overwhelming, immobilizing feelings into powerful motivating forces.

**Exercise:**

Take some time off from your busy schedule and plan for some physical activities, whether it's jogging, cycling, hiking or other activities to work off stress. Exercise may be the one most recommended stress coping mechanisms by healthcare professionals because it can[instantly improve your mood](http://www.mayoclinic.org/healthy-living/stress-management/in-depth/exercise-and-stress/art-20044469) by producing mood-enhancing endorphins, and it improves sleep, which many small business owners lack enough of. Even five minutes of aerobic exercise can stimulate anti-anxiety effects, according to the [Anxiety and Depression Association of America (ADAA)](http://www.adaa.org/understanding-anxiety/related-illnesses/other-related-conditions/stress/physical-activity-reduces-st).

**Meditation:**

Learn how to best relax yourself. Meditation and breathing exercises have been proven to be very effective in controlling stress. Practice clearing your mind of disturbing thoughts.

**Delegate:**

[According to Jeffrey Pfeffer](https://hbr.org/2012/07/why-arent-you-delegating), author of “[What Were They Thinking?”: Unconventional wisdom about Management](http://www.amazon.com/What-Were-They-Thinking-Unconventional/dp/1422103129/), the most important task you have as a leader is to train people how to think and ask the right questions so you can take a day off once in a blue moon. Pfeffer says delegation is highly underutilized in business.

**Take a break from work:**

According to the same [info graphic by Bolt](http://cdn.business.transworld.net/wp-content/blogs.dir/1/files/2013/05/work_life_balance_infographic.jpg), mentioned above, in 2011, only 46 percent of small business owners took a full week of vacation that summer. You need a vacation after working so hard around the clock, and [a nine-year study](http://www.sharecare.com/health/mens-health/health-guide/mens-health-guide/use-your-vacation-days-reduce-stress-live-longer) recently discovered that men, who took at least one vacation annually, were nearly 30 percent less likely to die from a heart-related cause, as opposed to the workhorses.

**Write Things down:**

Writing things down can really help. Writing provides perspective, says Paul J. Rosch, M.D., president of the American Institute of Stress in Yonkers, NY. Divide a piece of paper into two parts. On the left side, list the stressors you may be able to change, and on the right, list the ones you cannot. “Change what you can,” Dr. Rosch suggests, “and stop fretting over what you cannot.”

**Summary**

The success in managing stress does not depend solely on the type of technique that is used, but instead the commitment from the individual that makes the difference. The same strategy might not work for everyone. Individual must take an honest look within him or herself and determine what is practical and make the most sense. Working to reduce stress can enhance happiness and health for many years. It does make a difference!

**9. Discuss any five effective leadership principles that should be adopted in project management**

There is no doubt that good project management is a critical factor of project success. That is, a project cannot be run without project management, be it formal or informal. You need to have something that holds things together. Underlying is the assumption that we need some form of order to organize and run a project. Someone has to do something. In this sense, project management helps set a frame, providing structure and order to potential chaos. Without this structure a project leads to nowhere; it will most likely fail, if it ever takes off.

If you want to generate results out of seemingly chaos you have to build structure that enables creativity, innovation, and results. Project management provides excellent tools to build this structure. They are important and necessary for project success. But are they sufficient? I don’t think so. As a matter of fact, I claim that unless you gear them into the right direction, they remain ineffective. If you really want to secure project success you have to understand what it takes to set the right direction. Project management alone will not do the trick. What it takes is leadership.

Without project leadership there is no direction in project management. Leadership is the decisive factor for improving the chances for projects to succeed. Consequently, effective project management needs to have a solid foundation based in project leadership. Without leadership, chances are that a project will be “just another project.”

Based on my own experience in project management and the review of literature on leadership, project management, business, systems, and complexity theory I have identified five simple yet powerful leadership principles which, if applied systematically, can help you pave the path to project success. The five leadership principles for project success are as follows:

**Build Vision**

Sharing a common vision and goals and having the same understanding about tracking the progress towards this vision is one of the key factors in the success of a project and team. A project vision sets the overall picture of your project. Project objectives qualify this vision, make it specific. Both project vision and project objectives are crucial for project success. Together they set the direction and tone of your project journey. They complement each other. The vision inspires your journey. It defines the purpose of your project.

The key to building vision is that people need to be able to relate to the vision in their daily activities. Give them the chance to identify themselves with the vision. Involve them in building this vision and participate in making it real. This helps build rapport and the necessary buy-in from those people to realize the project. Make them fans of the vision. Let it constitute their motivation and passion. Let them rave about it.

The story of a visitor who was curious about construction site illustrates the power of a common project vision. This visitor approached a group of workers to find out more about the construction. The first worker replied that he was a brick layer. The second worker told him that he was building a wall. Then he asked a third worker. This one explained that he and the other people in his team were building a cathedral. The interesting thing was that each worker was actually doing the same activity. Yet the motivations and their attitude differed a great deal. The third worker knew what he was devoting his time and effort to something big. His project may have been to build a wall. But it was the project vision of building a cathedral which enticed him.

A project vision without project objectives may give you an idea of the direction, but you may never get close enough to the destination to produce tangible results at a certain time. On the other hand, project objectives without a vision may describe the desired end result and time frame, but they cannot inspire the necessary enthusiasm in your team to drive the project to success. They do not form an underlying meaning for the work.

As a project leader you must make sure that both project vision and project objectives are in place. Project leaders do not start a project without a project vision and objectives. If you want to be or become a project leader, you either build vision and project objectives or make sure that both are in place, are crystal clear, and are mutually understood by every single person actively involved in the project. This is the meaning of the first leadership principle. Start with a unified vision and know where you stand before and during your project. Know your environment, know your potential, and identify your limits and overcome them. Build and involve your team and nurture effective collaboration across the board.

The unique circumstances at the time made it possible for President Kennedy to receive Congressional and popular support for Werner Von Braun’s ambitious plan, to land an American on the Moon before the end of the decade of the 1960s. The Apollo program required billions of dollars (~$140 B in 2004 dollars), millions of hours, and thousands of men and women, yet, the entire effort was driven by a simple goal: land a man on the moon and return him safely to earth by the end of the decade. In the eight years following the first day the idea was announced, until Neil Armstrong’s first step on the lunar surface there remained little doubt among NASA and industry personnel about what every meeting, every proposal, every budget discussion, or every decision was ultimately intended to accomplish. For almost a decade, President Kennedy’s words served as the guiding spirit, pointing the direction for everyone working in the space program.

On the other hand, a lackof vision can be disastrous. While the highly successful lunar missions were being performed, President Richard Nixon rejected a vision for a post-Apollo era that involved full development of low Earth orbit, permanent outposts on the Moon, and initial journeys to Mars, as far too costly. Nixon had no established vision for space exploration, and none was successfully established in the interim until promulgation of the current VSE. There had been several subsequent attempts during the 1970s, ’80s, and ’90s to establish a clear vision for the space program, but none of these have proven to be successful. For example in 1986, the National Commission on Space proposed “a pioneering mission for 21st-century America: To lead the exploration and development of the space frontier, advance science, technology, and enterprise, and build institutions and systems that would make accessible vast new resources and support human settlements beyond Earth orbit, from the highlands of the Moon to the plains of Mars”. Despite some initial enthusiasm for this vision, the Commission’s recommendations were never fully embraced by the Reagan administration, which had already embraced two major, expensive aerospace projects, the NASP and the Space Station Freedom, and which was grappling with replacing the Challenger Space Shuttle Orbiter and returning the Shuttle system to flight.

In 1989, on the 20th anniversary of the first lunar landing, President George H.W. Bush again proposed a Space Exploration Initiative, calling for “a sustained program of manned exploration of the solar system”, but once again follow-up support failed to materialize due to competing budget priorities and a lack of buy-in by the Congress. NASA efforts on the International Space Station (ISS) were in the early stages of development, and the Station was viewed as a higher priority project needed to solve the human health and risk challenges associated with human space flight beyond low Earth orbit. The lack of a long-term consensus vision caused near-term goals of the shuttle and the ISS to take precedence, and the Initiative languished for lack of funding support.

**Nurture Collaboration**

A performing team yields synergy effects; the impossible becomes possible. This is why active team collaboration is crucial. Project success is not about individual accomplishments. The project team delivers the project. As such, the team is the heart and soul of the project. Corollary, project success is, or at least should always be, the success of the team. Effective project leaders understand the value and huge potential of teamwork. This is why they actively nurture collaboration. They serve as role models and are part of the team. They thus actively participate and contribute to teamwork.

Collaboration is necessary for the team to achieve the vision and project objectives. By the same token, the project vision must include the concept of collaboration; it needs to be part of the vision as well as the project objectives. Collaboration is a means to achieve the objectives and thus to come closer to achieving the vision. It is a central element of every project. This is why vision and collaboration go hand in hand. You cannot move achieve project results without collaboration. On the other hand, collaboration without a common cause leads nowhere.

Collaboration is the juice of teamwork; it is what makes teamwork possible in the first place. It encompasses communication, individual and joint execution, as well as the delivery of results on both the individual and team level. If you want to nurture collaboration you need to start with yourself. Be a role model to others: Share information openly. Give and accept open and constructive feedback. Be a good team player and work with your team.

More so, understand that the project is about the team. Project leadership becomes team leadership. It implies that if you want to be an effective project leader you have to be a good team player, too. Nurturing collaboration can be hard at times. It takes a lot of effort and can be quite time consuming. The payoffs, however, are worth every minute invested. Having mutually understood and supported rules of engagement, characterized by open communication and effective collaboration, makes project life much easier. Once you have helped create an atmosphere of trust, team spirit, and fun, team synergy effects emerge. Magical things can happen, productivity increases, and the quality of the team’s deliverables is higher. Nurturing collaboration prepares the ground for performance on the individual and team level. As a project leader you want to cultivate this soil of performance. This leads us to the third leadership principle: promoting performance.

The fostering of open communication has always been a cornerstone of good project management. This communication and nurture collaboration can and has been stifled by leaders who have not been interested in hearing bad news or to be bothered with problems. In these instances, the bearer of bad news may avoid trying to communicate problem issues to upper management by shifting the problem to others in the organization, even if they do not have the resources to handle it. Management must foster open and honest communication without retribution. The organization must be opened to bad news and be prepared to solve the inevitable problems that always occur.

Probably the most important principle that an organization can use to ensure open and free flowing communication is to abide by the adage of “praise in public and criticize in private.” Public criticism is the surest method of stifling communications that leads to nurture good collaboration. Few individuals will dare to come forward with critical information if it is known that this might bring public criticism. On the other hand, it is not suggested that managers forego criticism that is required, but rather that they deal with it behind closed doors.

**Promote Performance**

Planning is good and important. At the end of the day you and your team have to perform. As a leader it is your responsibility to create an environment that promotes performance, on both the individual and team levels. Building vision and nurturing collaboration are prerequisites for project success. Alas, they are useless if you cannot move your team to the performance stage. This is why you want to create an environment that helps promote performance. The following rules help achieve this;

**Rule 1: Be a role model.**

No matter what project you are working on, be aware that as project leader you are a role model to your own team and others. Act as such. Walk your own talk and be true to your own principles. Demonstrate authentic leadership.

**Rule 2: Create the right environment.**

If you want to promote performance in your team, take the time and find out what motivates each individual team member and the team as a whole. Discover what the individual team members and the complete team need to perform. Learn how you can help the team perform.

**Rule 3: Empower your team.**

You have to enable your team to do its job and perform. Give your team the power and all the information it needs to do its job and perform. Give your team the opportunity to excel and have an active hand in project success.

**Rule 4: Develop a solution-and-results orientation toward problems and risks.**

Performing teams focus on solutions and results rather than problems. A problem or risk is not seen as a potential show-stopper but a chance to learn and prove skills and competencies on the individual and group levels.

**Rule 5: Invite productive competition.**

Productive competitiveness can actually help promote performance – provided that the competitiveness aims at improving team performance and is linked with collaboration and social sharing.

**Rule 6: Let it happen.**

When you and your team have jointly built a common vision and developed collaboration rules, there should be no need to micromanage team members. Trust your team and let the team do its job.

**Rule 7: Celebrate performance**

“Look for behaviors that reflect the purpose and values, skill development, and team work, and reward, reward, reward those behaviors” (Blanchard, K. H., et al (2001). High Five! The Magic of Working Together. New York: HarperCollins. p. 190). Make sure that this celebration coincides with the successful project delivery.

Furthermore, lasting performance can be achieved. It takes practice, training, endurance, and a results-driven attitude toward project challenges to develop and sustain it. Yet, performance and project success do not fall from heaven. You have to prepare and work for them, learning from mistakes and failures. There cannot be performance without training or learning. This leads us to the fourth leadership principle: cultivating learning.

**Cultivate Learning**

As humans we all make mistakes. Effective leaders encourage their teams to explore new avenues and to make mistakes and learn from them. An effective leader builds in sufficient time for the team to learn, create, and innovate. As project leader, you serve as partner and coach for learning and information sharing. You facilitate learning. You are not the sole source of information. Instead, create a learning environment in your team. Set the expectation that you want everyone in your team to join and support you in cultivating learning for the purpose of the project.

Learning is not a one-time activity, say, in the form of formal training prior or at the beginning of your project. It is ongoing and should become daily routine in your team. Establish regular sessions with your team where you review past performance, share information about planned accomplishments, address and resolve impediments together. Invite external reviews. Outside views offer different perspectives; fresh and unspoiled perspectives. If they aim to help the team identify formerly unknown risks and issues and overcome them, external project reviews can be a great learning opportunity.

In addition to that, when you or your team make mistakes, learn from them. Correct your shortcomings, improve your performance, and continue to work toward accomplishing the project vision. Cultivate learning from the beginning of your project. It significantly increases the speed at which your team can perform and sustain performance throughout and thus secure delivery.

Create room for your team members to be creative, to try something new, share their ideas, and learn from each other. Plan in sufficient time for your team to think outside the box, beyond the known path traveled, and to find new avenues to reach the goals of the projects. Empower your team to perform, make mistakes, learn, and innovate. This helps reduce uncertainty as information flows more freely. Team members are not afraid of making mistakes. They see mistakes as learning opportunities and they help each other solve problems. Corollary, if you want performance to yield the desired results you have to cultivate learning. There cannot be lasting performance without learning, and there cannot be results without performance.

**Ensure Results**

Delivering results is both a prerequisite and an outcome of effective project leadership. Project delivery is a team effort, not an individual effort. The effective project leader builds and guides the team to deliver results by incorporating the first four leadership principles.

Ensuring results is not solely about end results. Neither is project success and project leadership. The fifth principle calls on us that in all our activities we keep the project vision in mind and produce results that benefit the purpose of the project. Project success is not defined by a single product or service delivered at the completion of a project. It is the accumulation of the many results yielded from each and every leadership principle. Vision, collaboration, performance, and learning are just as important. They culminate in results. When you talk about project success, the path to project results matters too. Corollary, an effective project leader always looks beyond the delivery of results.

The fifth principle of ensuring results reminds us that we have to make sure the results of the other four principles are aligned with the project vision and objectives. They have to serve the project purpose. Ensuring results is thus not an activity focusing only on the final project deliverables. It appeals to us that our entire project activities shall be results oriented, keeping the end deliverables in mind. It is a call for solution- and results-oriented leadership.

Ensuring results offer excellent learning opportunities, which in turn help boost collaboration, improve performance, give rise to innovation, and thus move us closer to realizing the project vision. Ongoing project results serve as a reflection of project leadership and how well the five leadership principles practiced. They reveal the true quality of team collaboration, team performance, and team learning. It is a form of quality assurance of effective project leadership for project success.

**Dynamic Project Leadership**

No single principle is the most important. It is the combination of all five leadership principles that helps secure project success. Building vision is the principle to start with, but you cannot achieve results if you do not embrace all five principles together as one system. Leadership is not merely the sum of applying the five principles. It is understanding and living the dynamics within each principle as well as all five principles as a unit.

If you want to gain a deeper understanding of one particular leadership principle, you need to account for the remaining four principles and how they relate to the one you are looking at. Applying the five leadership principles in daily project life requires the project leader to practice all five principles constantly and consistently. It is an ongoing exercise. Depending on where you are in a project, there may be a stronger emphasis on one or two principles. But you cannot isolate one from the others. Holistic leadership comprises all five principles.

The five leadership principles serve as a guideline to effective leadership and how it contributes to project success. Following and practicing them is no guarantee for project success, but they make it more likely. They address the core of project success and thus improve the chances for success significantly.

Project success starts and ends with project leadership. However, as much as the leadership principles can be applied by every team member regardless of his or her role, leadership is not limited to a single person or role. We know that as project leaders we cannot succeed by ourselves. We need the help and support of our teams. This is why it is important to build teams and empower them to perform and deliver. Project success is not about individual accomplishments. It is a joint effort and should be treated and honored as such. Understanding the principles can be the first step toward project success. It is up to you to take this step and move forward.

**In conclusion**

Establishing a clear, concise, and compelling vision of a future state in which the overarching program or project goal has been accomplished is a prerequisite to success. The history of the aerospace age is full of examples of the power of this principle when successfully implemented, and of the failure that can result when it is not.

In 1989, on the 20th anniversary of the first lunar landing, President George H.W. Bush again proposed a Space Exploration Initiative, calling for “a sustained program of manned exploration of the solar system”, but once again follow-up support failed to materialize due to competing budget priorities and a lack of buy-in by the Congress. NASA efforts on the International Space Station (ISS) were in the early stages of development, and the Station was viewed as a higher priority project needed to solve the human health and risk challenges associated with human space flight beyond low Earth orbit. The lack of a long-term consensus vision caused near-term goals of the shuttle and the ISS to take precedence, and the Initiative languished for lack of funding support.

Space advocates have been consistent in their call for sending humans beyond low Earth orbit as the appropriate objective of U.S. space activities. Review committees as diverse as the 1990 Advisory Committee on the Future of the U.S. Space Program (chaired by Norman Augustine), and the 2001 ISS Management and Cost Evaluation Task. Forces have suggested that the primary justification for a space station is to conduct the research required to plan missions to Mars or other distant destinations. The Augustine Committee noted, “It seems that most Americans do support a viable space program for the nation but no two individuals seem able to agree upon what that space program should be”. Therefore, it’s always necessary to set a very clear vision one wants to be effective in leadership.

Strong leadership is another prerequisite for success, requiring the program/project manager to identify and develop other leaders and technical staff within the team, to define clear lines of authority within the project organization and then demand accountability from the designated leads, to implement sound project management practices especially with respect to budget and schedule visibility, and to demonstrate uncompromising ethical standards in all matters.

Securing sponsorship at the top level of an organization, and even higher in the political leadership hierarchy, enables long term program stability required for a complex technical aerospace development life cycle to be completed and the mission accomplished.

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